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NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 1 FOREWORD

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In the curricular structure introduced by this University for students of Post-Graduate degree programme, the opportunity to pursue Post-Graduate course in Subject introduced by this University is equally available to all learners. Instead of being guided by any presumption about ability level, it would perhaps stand to reason if receptivity of a learner is judged in the course of the learning process. That would be entirely in keeping with the objectives of open education which does not believe in artificial differentiation.

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Keeping this in view, study materials of the Post-Graduate level in different subjects are being prepared on the basis of a well laid-out syllabus. The course structure combines the best elements in the approved syllabi of Central and State Universities in respective subjects. It has been so designed as to be upgradable with the addition of new information as well as results of fresh thinking and analyses. The accepted methodology of distance education has been followed in the preparation of these study materials. Co-operation in every form of experienced scholars is indispensable for a work of this kind. We, therefore, owe an enormous debt of gratitude to everyone whose tireless efforts went into the writing, editing and devising of proper lay-out of the materials. Practically speaking, their role amounts to an involvement in invisible teaching. For, whoever makes use of these study materials would virtually derive the benefit of learning under their collective care without each being seen by the other. The more a learner would seriously pursue these study materials the easier it will be for him or her to reach out to larger horizons of a subject. Care has also been taken to make the language lucid and presentation attractive so that they may be rated as quality self-learning materials. If anything remains still obscure or difficult to follow, arrangements are there to come to terms with them through the counselling sessions regularly available at the network of study centres set up by the University. Needless to add, a great part of these efforts is still experimental—in fact, pioneering in certain areas. Naturally, there is every possibility of some lapse or deficiency here and there. However, these

to

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admit of rectification and further improvement in due course. On the whole, therefore, these study materials are expected to evoke wider appreciation the more they receive serious attention of all concerned. Professor (Dr) Subha Sankar Sarkar Vice Chancellor 2

NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 Bachelor Degree Programme (BDP) Subject: Core Course in Sociology Course Code: SO-CC-03 Choice Based Credit System (CBCS) Course Title: Introduction to Sociology - III

NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 3 Introduction to Course Materials Welcome to all the students who wish to pursue a course in MA ELT, here at Netaji Subhas Open University. We congratulate you on your choice and we are sure you will not only enjoy the courses on offer but also stand to benefit from them in carving out a career for yourselves. ELT is a happening discipline, and this can take you places both domestically and internationally. The purpose of this introduction is to familiarize you with the structure of the courses and how the course materials are packaged to be delivered to you. We understand your difficulties as a learner on the distance mode, and we try to answer most of the questions that may arise in your minds as you go through these materials. To facilitate this, you need to understand how these materials are structured and presented to you. Each semester will have six courses and the courseware of each of these will be presented in the form of a book. To help you feel comfortable, we have attempted to maintain the design of each course similar. Occasionally, there may be a few variations that are necessitated due to the topic of discussion. Otherwise, all courses have a uniform structure. Each course is presented in the form of a set of four modules. Each module is independent and can be read without having to read the other modules. This is in keeping with the recent thinking on curricular development - the modular curriculum. What does this mean? Each module is complete in itself. It has a set of objectives, descriptions, illustrations, and assessment questions. Therefore, you can read, understand and take the necessary tests to get grades after reading each module. However, they are also linked to the other modules and this becomes obvious as you progress. Each module, at the beginning, helps you recall what you have studied in the previous modules and links the contents of the present module to what is discussed earlier. This helps you gain a sense of continuity to pursue the course. Like each course, each module is also designed uniformly. We will discuss it here. Each module is sub-divided into four units. These units are additive and not modular. This means, you need to study the units in the order they appear for Unit 2 is a continuation of Unit 1, Unit 3 a continuation of Unit 2 and so on. The four units put together help you understand a topic or a concept as the case may be. How are these units structured? Units are structured in as simple a manner as possible. Each unit begins with an outline of the topics to be discussed. This is followed by a set of objectives and some preliminary

questions to assess your knowledge of the topic under discussion. The unit progresses by introducing the concepts, illustrating them with familiar examples, providing a couple of tasks or questions for you to answer so that you may monitor your progress. Often we have cross references to other units in other modules. In such cases we have taken care explain the concept briefly for immediate use. Such explanation will help you not lose track of the discussion in progress. Once you have completed reading the unit, you may go to other units which have been referred to for a deeper understanding of the concept and also relate the two units with each other. Each unit ends with a summary of the points discussed and some questions for you to answer. At the end of four units (each module) we have provided a list of reference which you may access at the time of your contact programme or in a nearby library, if you an access to one. In the course of each unit, you will come across several self-check tasks. Please attempt each of these tasks for they help you to progress further in the unit. We have also provided answers to these self-check questions to reassure you about your progress. These questions are called formative questions. At the end of each unit, we also have some questions which help you express your understanding of the entire unit. These are summative questions. You may share the answers to these questions with your tutor in the university and seek a feedback, or share your answers with the teachers during the contact classes. We hope this structure suits your study habits. We propose to work out a schedule and give it to you. This will help you plan your time, complete your work on time and thus achieve your degree faster than others. This schedule is suggestive (recommendatory and not mandatory) to help you plan your work properly. Often, students like you tend to postpone the work and closer to the dates of contact classes and examination, you will feel the burden of having to study all the books at one go. This will be a very difficult task, and we would not like you to land in such a situation. We are sure you appreciate this. Let us not make this introduction a long one. It is only to set you start reading, and what you need to read lies ahead. Go ahead, and enjoy the course you have taken. Wish you all the best S Mohanraj Jaysankar Basu Sumana Bandyopadhyay

PGEL Post Graduate English Language Teaching Programme (PGEL) Module No 1 2 3 4 Unit No 1 - 2 3 - 4 5 6 7 8 9 - 12 13 - 16 Course Content Writers Mr Durbadal Dutta Assistant Teacher Mr Saibal Chatterjee Assistant Professor Dr Sumana Bandyopadhyay Assistant Professor Dr Sumana Bandyopadhyay Prof S Mohanraj Professor Prof S Mohanraj Mr Saibal Chatterjee Dr C Vijaya Kumar Assistant Professor Course Editors Dr J S Basu Associate Professor

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PGEL-1 : Methods and Concepts in ELT -1 (LSRW) PGEL-2 : Methods and Concepts (Grammar, Vocabulary, Literature) 1 2 3 4 1 - 4 5 - 8 9 - 12 13 - 16 Dr J. S. Basu Mr Ashesava Majumdar Professor S. Mohanraj Dr. J. S. Basu Professor S. Mohanraj Associate Professor Dr. J. S. Basu Associate Professor Dr J. S. Basu Associate Professor Professor S. Mohanraj Associate Professor

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Programme (PGEL) Methods and Concepts in ELT -1 (LSRW) & Methods and Concepts in ELT-2 (Grammar, Vocabulary, Literature) Course Code : PGEL-01 & 02 : Board of Studies : Dr Sumana Bandyopadhyay Dr Jaysankar Basu Assistant Professor, NSOU Associate Professor, NSOU English Language Teaching English Language Teaching Dr S Mohanraj Dr S Mohanraj Assistant Professor, NSOU Professor English Language Teaching

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Netaji Subhas Open University Methods and Concepts in ELT-2 (Grammar, Vocabulary, Literature) PGEL-O2 Module -1 : Importance of Grammar Unit - 1 p Grammar 239-254 Unit - 2 p Communicative / Functional Grammar 255-269 Unit - 3 p Grammar Exercises - Types and Uses 270-276 Unit - 4 p Grammar Games and Activities 277-296 Module - 2 : Vocabulary Unit : 5 p Vocabularyand its Importance 297-308 Unit - 6 p Qualities of a Word 309-336 Unit - 7 p Teaching Vocabulary 337-352 Unit - 8 p Vocabulary Exercises 353-371 Module - 3 : Teaching Literature -1 Unit : 9 p Importance of Literature 372-377 Unit - 10 p Teaching Prose 378-385 Unit - 11 p Teaching Short Stories 386-395 Unit - 12 p Teaching Poetry 396-407 Module - 4 : Teaching Literature-2 Unit - 13 p Teaching Skits and Plays 408-435 Unit - 14 p Teaching Prose 436-445 Unit - 15 p Teaching non-fictional Prose (Essay) 446-457 Unit - 16 p Revision on Literary forms and Extension 458-470 Post Graduate PGEL

PGEL - 01 Methods and Concepts in ELT - 1 (LSRW)

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Unit-1 p General Introduction to Methodology Structure 1.1 Introduction 1.2 Objectives 1.3 Introduction to Language Learning 1.4 How do we learn a language? 1.5 Stages of language learning 1.5.1 Silent Period 1.5.2 Beginning to talk 1.5.3 Developing Language Proficiency 1.6 Factors Affecting Language Acquisition 1.7 Conditions for Developing Language Skills 1.8 Language Learning Theory and Practice: an overview 1.8.1 Theories of Language learning: an introduction 1.8.2 Theories up to nineteenth century 1.8.3 Current Theories of Language Learning 1.8.4 Current Theories of Learning and Language Acquisition 1.8.5 From theory to practice: major issues 1.9 Summary 1.10 Review Questions 1.11 References 1.1 Introduction In general terms language learning refers to learning any language. But in Applied Linguistics, more specifically in Language Teaching, it is usually limited to learning a foreign or second language. It includes the whole process, strategies, and factors influencing language learning. It is meant to develop the ability to communicate in target language. The concept of language teaching has evolved through ages. Thinkers, researchers and practitioners have contributed a lot in developing a sound theoretical foundation upon which the present practice depends. Today language teaching is grounded on inputs from linguistics, sociolinguistics, psycholinguistics, education, communication. So a language teacher should have a sound perception of the trends and practices in language teaching-learning.
Module -1 p Introduction to ELT NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 11

12 NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 1.2 Objectives The purpose of this unit is to share with you the basics of language learning and its theories. On completing this unit we would be able to: l Define language learning l Differentiate between language acquisition and language learning l Understand the theories of language acquisition/learning 1.3 Introduction to Language Learning Let us study the conversation between Sima and Tania: Sima: My grandpa taught me only grammar. He thought learning language means learning grammar. Tania: My father would teach me the structures only. He would say to learn a language we should learn the structures of the language. Sima: So widely different they are. Then what is language learning? I get confused. Tania: My English teacher always speaks in English. She says, learn to communicate in English. Sima: Then language is only a means of communication, isn't it? Tania: Right! What an idea! Language is a means of communication. So learning language is to learn how to communicate by using language. What inferences can we draw from the conversation? 1. Language is a means of communication 2. Learning language means developing the capacity to communicate by using the target language. Linguists say that learning language, spoken or written, is to develop four skills required for effective communication: a) Listening: the ability to understand what a speaker says; b) Speaking: the ability to express one's ideas, thoughts, and feelings, etc.; c) Reading: the ability to comprehend a written text; and d) Writing: the ability to express ideas, thoughts and feelings etc. in written form. 1.4 How do we learn a language? A new-born human child expresses everything through smile or tears. But gradually they interact with the linguistic environment that encompasses them. They develop language ability in a natural course. In this sense children are natural language acquirers. They pick up language without conscious learning. We may call them self-motivated language

NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 13 acquirers. They listen to what speakers around them pronounce and try to imitate. They have the inherent ability to generate the rules for themselves. They develop a good book of grammar and vocabulary of their own. It is evident that: 1. Young children use their own innate language-learning strategies to acquire their home language or mother tongue. 2. Children try to use the same innate language-learning strategies throughout life in picking up the second language. 3. Language games and play-like activities help them to learn the language effectively. First they make sense of the activity and then get meaning from the adult's shared language. 4. When monolingual children reach puberty and become self conscious, their flexibility in picking up a second language diminishes. 5. Spoken language develops naturally before reading and writing. 1.5 Stages of language learning 1.5.1 Silent Period This is the period of observation and perception. In case of learning home/mother language babies listen to the sounds and communicate through facial expressions only before they start speaking. When they learn a second language a similar silent period is found. Research suggests the existence of a 'silent period' of about three months in natural second-language learning situations before the learner attempts to produce any language. The input that the learner receives at this stage serves as a base for production. 1.5.2 Beginning to Talk After the silent period comes the early production of language in the form of single words ('dog', 'pen', 'book', 'chair' etc.) or stock phrases ('That's a pen', 'This is a book', 'What's that' etc.). The learner imitates the pronunciation and begins to talk. However, such early production is limited to few words, fragments of sentences, and short sentences. This phase continues for some time before they can develop their own phrases or speeches. 1.5.3 Developing Language Proficiency Once the route to acquisition gets opened, children pick up the target language and develop their own proficiency to communicate. They gradually begin to create whole sentences.

1.6 Acquisition and Learning Although very often the terms, acquisition and learning, are used interchangeably to refer to the same thing, i.e. developing language ability, scholars find a subtle line of demarcation or distinction between the two. Acquisition refers to the natural process that the child uses to internalize the linguistic systems of home language. But learning is a conscious effort to develop language ability in a formal set up. The distinction is as follows: Language Acquisition 1. Implicit and subconscious 2. Exposure to target language in informal setting. 3. Focus on meaningful communication 4. Fluency is more important than accuracy 5. Error correction and explicit rules are secondary 6. Understanding grammar intuitively 7. Depends on attitude of the learner 8. Stable order of acquisition Language Learning 1. Explicit and conscious 2. Exposure to target language in a controlled formal setting 3. Focus on both form and meaning 4. Accuracy is more important than fluency 5. Error correction and explicit rules are primary 6. Memorising rules of grammar 7. Depends on aptitude of the learner 8. raded from Simple to Complex order of language items 1.6.1 Factors Affecting Language Acquisition i. Age: According to Lenneberg (1968) there is a critical period (i.e. between two years and puberty) for effective language acquisition. In case of second language acquisition adults start more quickly and then slow down. Though children start more slowly, they finish up at a higher level. (Cook,1991:85) ii. Sex: Studies of first and second language acquisition show that girls are better learners than boys. iii. Motivation: Intrinsic motivation (i.e. motivation that comes from within) accelerates language acquisition. iv. Attitude: There is a positive correlation between attitudes and achievement. Attitude may include general dispositions towards learning the target language and the target language community or speakers. v. Aptitude: Aptitude is the ability to learn. In a general sense, it is 'knack' for languages. It a combination of various abilities. A learner with a high language aptitude can lean a second or foreign language more quickly and easily than a learner with low aptitude. vi. Cognitive style: It refers to the manner in which we perceive, conceptualize, organize and recall information. A difference in cognitive style may result in significant differences in second language learning. A field-dependent person cannot separate an object or event from the context (=field) in which it appears. But a field-independent person has the capacity to process information or consider an object or event independent of the context. 1.7 Conditions for Developing Language Skills 1. Exposure to Language: Behind every successful language-learning experience lies the fact that learners are exposed to adequate amount of data of language to be learnt. It is evident from the relative success of English-medium schools. There additional exposure comes through teaching-learning of other subjects. A single text book developed for all types of learners is presented all through the session is inadequate. Regular exposure to a wide variety of meaningful language inputs can be effective. 2. Comprehensible Input: The input to which the learners are exposed should be comprehensible. Inputs may include textbooks, other print materials, media support, and the use of 'authentic' or 'available' materials. But learners require to understand what they are listening to or reading. The burden of incomprehension is to be minimized. Only reception of comprehended input may result in development of productive skills. 3. Print-rich Environment: The classroom must display signs, charts, labels, notices. A variety of activity can be undertaken in a print-rich environment.

4. Interaction: Learners must be encouraged to interact. Interaction promotes language learning. They should be active participants, not passive learners. 5. Use of Supplementary Materials: The teacher's own limited language proficiency is to be complemented in various ways such as introducing ICT in teaching, story reading, shared reading of big books, the use of reading cards, talking books. 6. From Lexical knowledge to Higher-order skills: Lexical knowledge is considered to be central to communicative competence and learning of a second language. Higher-order skills such as grammar, vocabulary, writing, reference skills are to be introduced after basic linguistic competence is acquired. 7. Linking to everyday life: Activities and tasks need to be linked to everyday experience of the learner. 8. Learning must be fun and interesting: Language-learning sessions are fun and interesting. The teacher should concentrate on concepts children have already understood in their home language. In this way, while learning English as a second language children are not learning two things, a new concept as well as new language. Rather they learn English to talk about something they already know. 9. Handling Mistakes: It is natural that learners make mistakes. But they should not be told that they have made a mistake simply because any deliberate correction immediately demotivates them. Mistakes may be part of the process of framing rules of English. If the learner says, 'We goed', the teacher should say, 'Yes, you went'. This will result in internalization of the past form of the irregular verb 'go'. 10. Comfortable Classroom Situation: The learner need to feel secure and comfort and know that there is some obvious reason for using English. The classroom should provide learners with security and comfort. The more comfortable they feel, the more likely it is that they will learn. 1.8 Language Learning Theory and Practice: an overview Behind every practice lies a theory and behind a theory lies a philosopher or a school of thought. The knowledge that a philosopher or a school of thought advocates may be authoritative and devoid of reason; or, it may be rational and logical. The dogma of religious authority was seriously challenged with the birth of rational intellect. Those who raised questions were often punished and even put to death. The era of logic began

when people began to think systematically about thinking itself. The first systematic approach to reasoning was deductive method. It is attributed to Aristotle and the Greeks. The deductive method moves from general assumption to specific application. It made significant contribution to the development of modern problem-solving. Centuries later, Francis Bacon advocated inductive process of moving from specific observations to the generalizations through the evidences of many individual observations. Bacon's idea freed logic from some of the hazards and limitations of deductive thinking and thereby opened up the way of discovering new truth. The deductive method of Aristotle and the inductive method of Bacon were fully integrated in the work of Charles Darwin. Thus through ages our constant endeavour to find out the truth or unknown has given rise to a number of theories. These theories mould the practice. 1.8.1 Theories of Language learning: an introduction ELT is a practice that has evolved over the years. The practice depends on how we look upon language and language-learning. Children can internalize the linguistic systems of their home language in about five years, but philosophers, linguists and psychologists have not been able to answer how it happens in about two thousand years. Their efforts have given rise to a number of theories of language learning or acquisition. 1.8.2 Theories up to nineteenth century a) Plato: Plato believes that knowledge is innate. It is something that humans have. This idea is called Plato's Problem. Life is short but humans are able to accomplish so much with so little time given to them. It is possible because humans are born with knowledge. In this way he views language as an innate human element. b) Descartes and Cartesian Linguistics: Like Plato French philosopher Descartes believes in the innateness of language. He thinks that language acquisition is a simple and easy process. It reflects the general rationality of human beings. He considers language as a means of interaction. The Cartesian movement focuses on Descartes' belief that language is used creatively. According to Chomsky the Cartesian movement presents universal principles behind every language. The central doctrine of Cartesian Linguistics maintains that the general features of grammatical structure are common to all languages. Descartes' idea of language is that it is a form of self-expression, not merely communication.

c) Locke's Tabula Rasa: John Locke, the seventh century English philosopher, is well-known for his theory of tabula rasa. The theory states that at birth human mind is a 'tabula rasa', meaning a 'blank slate' which receives as well as records sensory impression and experience. Locke's theory comes in sharp conflict with that of Plato and Descartes. While Plato and Cartesian linguistics hold the view that in language learning we use our own innate abilities, Locke focuses on external sensory input. d) Herder's Inherent Impulse: Johann Guttfried von Herder, a German philosopher of the eighteenth century, thinks that language is too imperfect to have been a divine gift. He conceives of language as an 'instinctive impulse similar to that of an embryo pressing to be born'. His theory implies that language is an inherent impulse. e) Charles Darwin: Charles published his views on language in Descent of Man (1871). He acknowledges that there is only a difference of degree between the language of human beings and that of lower animals. 1.8.3 Current Theories of Language Learning 2. Skinner and the Theory of Behaviourism: In the middle of the twentieth century B.F. Skinner agreed with Locke's ideas of sensory input and developed his own theory of Behaviourism. In his Verbal Behaviour (1957) Skinner points out that all behavior is no more than a response to the stimuli around us and there is no innate programming within human beings to learn a language. In other words, language is learned from the environment. 3. Chomsky and Universal Grammar: At the same time when Skinner was working on his theory of behaviourism, Noam Chomsky, in his Syntactic Structures claimed that the child has the ability to generate an infinite number of well-formed sentences. The child, according to Chomsky, possesses some language universals as 'latent language structures' and it forms the basis for language acquisition. These universal elements that structure all languages build up the concept of Universal Grammar (UG) and the device which is instrumental in acquisition is known as Language Acquisition Devic(LAD). Thus the behaviourist theory of language learning through imitation, conditioning, and reinforcement was challenged by Chomsky's proposal about language acquisition. 4. Schuman's Acculturation Model: John H. Schumann designed this model of second language acquisition in 1978. It describes the process by which immigrants

pick up a new language while being completely immersed in that language. It focuses on social and psychological aspects that influence acquisition. Based on the social-psychology of acculturation this model maintains that certain social and psychological variables cluster into a single variable, acculturation. Learners' acquisition depends on their acculturation to the target language group. 5. Krashen's Monitor Model: This model is also known as Input Hypothesis. It is a group of hypotheses of second language acquisition developed by Stephen Krashen. The main ideas are: i. Language acquisition is largely subconscious since it stems from informal, natural communication. ii. Language learning is conscious and driven by error correction iii. Grammar is largely acquired in a predictable series and order iv. Language acquisition occurs with comprehensible input(i.e. hearing or reading text that are just slightly above the current language level of the learner) v. A monitor can be anyone or anything that corrects our language errors and pressures us to communicate correctly. 1.8.4 Current Theories of Learning and Language Acquisition 1. Piaget's Theory: According to Piaget learning is the outcome of child's continual interaction with the world. Learning occurs through assimilation and accommodation. The child learns the target language with purpose and acts intentionally. In practice, Piaget's theory has given birth to collaborative learning and constructivism in language learning. NCF 2005 lays emphasis on this aspect: " Learning takes place through interactions with the environment around, nature, things and people, both through actions and through language." (NCF 2005, p-18) 2. Vygotsky's Theory: A child is an active sense-maker. As child's language develops the thought within is broken down into smaller units of speech. This theory introduces the concept of Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD). ZPD is a space between what a child can do alone and what he/she can almost do but cannot do alone. Adults mediate the world and make it accessible to them. Gradually a child moves from dependence to independence. Social interaction plays a significant role. 3. Bruner: The credit of introducing the concept of scaffolding goes to Bruner. His theory redefines the role of adults who make children interested in the task. 20 NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 1.8.5 From theory to practice: major issues 1. Age and L2: Psycholinguists suggest that children can learn more effectively in between 5-12 years, i.e. before puberty. (Critical Period Hypothesis) 2. Interference of L1: If there exists much similarity between L1 and L2 in vocabulary and sentence pattern, L1 may have positive effect on learning of L2. Otherwise, L1 may have affect learning of L2. When a Bangla-speaking learner is exposed to a running commentary in Hindi, the learner can understand much of it. 3. Learning Principles a. Within ZPD the learners should be given wider exposure b. Learners are to be engaged to search for meaning c. Teachers should design tasks and activities suitable for the target learners d. Space should be given for development of language ability at every stage of learning e. Social interaction is to be promoted through collaborative tasks f. The focus should be on development skills g. Learners should be guided to activities in such a way that they can construct as well as generate their own rule and apply the same in multiple situations 1.9 Summary After completing our journey through this lesson, let us sum up what we have learnt: 1. In applied Linguistics Language learning usually refers to learning a foreign or second language. It is learning to communicate. It involves development of four skills – Listening, speaking, reading, and writing. 2. Language teaching depends on inputs from linguistics, sociolinguistics, psycholinguistics, education, communication etc. 3. Exposure to language promotes language proficiency. 4. There are different stages of language learning: silent period, beginning to talk, developing language proficiency. 5. Acquisition and learning are two terms often used interchangeably. Acquisition refers to the natural, self-motivated, subconscious picking up of a language while language learning requires a conscious effort in formal setting. 6. Age, sex, motivation, attitude, aptitude, and cognitive style are considered to be major factors that influence language acquisition or learning. 7. The following conditions play significant roles in developing language skills: exposure to language, comprehensible input, print-rich environment, interaction, use of supplementary material, course of gradual development from lexical knowledge

to higher-order skills, linking learning to everyday life, joyful and comfortable classroom environment, use of games and fun, careful handling of mistakes, etc. 8. Theories of language learning are helpful for practicing teachers in understanding how teaching practice has been changing with the evolution of theoretical basis. While Plato and Descartes conceive of language as an innate human element, Locke focuses on external sensory input. Herder considers language as an inherent impulse. 9. Modern theories of language learning are sharply divided into two categories. While Behaviourist or Empiricists like skinner consider language learning as habit formation through imitation and conditioning, Nativists like Chomsky thinks every child possesses some language universals. Chomsky developed the idea of Language Acquisition Device (LAD) and Universal Grammar (UG). Acculturation model of Schuman focuses on social and psychological aspects of acquisition. Krashen's Monitor Model suggests a number of hypotheses relating to language acquisition. 10. Current trends in language learning incorporate the theories of language acquisition as well as theories of learning. Based on Piaget's developmental psychology the National Curriculum Framework 2005 lays emphasis on constructivism. Vygotsky's concept of ZPD and social interaction, Bruner's scaffolding, skinner's reinforcement, and all other inputs from different branches of study constitute the framework of ELT today. 1.10 Review Questions A. Short answer type: 1. What does language learning mean? 2. How does acquisition differ from learning? 3. We pick up our mother tongue at an early age. Is this acquisition or learning? Give reasons. 4. What is silent period in language learning? 5. How do children communicate before they start speaking? 6. How does a child start speaking?(in complete sentences? In single word?...) 7. What is cognitive style? How can a difference in cognitive style affect language learning? 8. How much important is exposure to language?

9. How can you maximize comprehensible input? 10. Do you require supplementary material for your learner? Why? B. Argumentative Questions: justify the validity of the following statements 1. Children learn a language through conditioning (Stimulus-Response bonding and reinforcement) 2. Language ability is innate. 3. In West Bengal English (L2) should be taught through Bangla. 4. Language learning is learning the rules of grammar. 5. A second language can be introduced at any stage of learning? 6. L1 affects the learning of L2. 7. English teachers do require theoretical foundation for teaching English. 8. Our classroom teaching should be teacher-centric. 9. Listening and Speaking are not necessary for learning a second language. 10. Because of lack of time a carefully structured and graded language items are to be introduced. C. Analytical/ Illustrative Questions 1. How can the study of this unit help you as an English teacher? (Hints: develop concept of language learning – a greater opening for understanding how linguists and psychologists look upon language learning – show the way to successful teaching through manipulation/exploitation of multiple factors contributing to learning – develop a sound foundation for teaching – sharpen and sensitize professional skill , etc) 2. What are the new concepts and issues introduced in this unit? How can these concepts provide an English teacher with insight into the learners and learning? (Hints: Learning and acquisition, silent period, exposure to language, comprehensible input, supplementary material, linking learning to life, fun, handling mistakes, behaviourist theory, UG and LAD, Acculturation Model, Monitor Model, accommodation and assimilation, ZPD, scaffolding, etc – develop learning principles – better understanding of the learners and learning) 3. Dr. Richard says: In the case of a foreign language, however, the starting point may be zero, and a limited amount of time may be available in school for foreign language instruction. How can you prepare yourself in such a situation? [Hints: language items (words, phrases, structures, functions etc.) to be selected on the basis of frequency, suitability, learners' needs, societal needs, teachability, etc. — items to be structured and graded carefully – to be introduced gradually keeping in mind principles of learning and language learning] 4. What is the difference between mother tongue teaching and second language teaching? (Hints: learners come to school after acquiring basic proficiency in mother tongue – can listen to and speak in mother tongue – importance on development of reading, writing and higher order skills – in case L2 the situation is different – limited time for classroom transaction – items to be arranged properly to provide learners with exposure to the target language through comprehensible input , etc.) 5. Discuss elaborately how we can make classroom teaching interesting? 6. How, as language teachers, should we handle learners'mistakes, without demotivating them? 7. What the similarities do we find between Plato and Descartes in their concepts of language? 8. Write an analytical note on the meaning or signification 'tabula rasa'? 9. How do behaviourists look upon language and language learning? 10. Who challenged the behaviourists, and discuss the premises for challenging this school? 1.11 Suggested Reading Cook, V. 1991. Second Language Learning and Language Teaching. London: Edward Arnold. Krishnaswamy, N, Verma S. K. and Nagarajan M. 2002. Modern Applied Linguistics. Macmillan India Limited. Lennenberg, E. H. 1967. The Biological Foundation of Language. New York: Wiley NCERT. 2005. National Curriculum Framework 2005. New Delhi. NCERT.

24 NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 Unit - 2 p Language Features Structure 2.1 Introduction 2.2 Objectives 2.3 What is Language? 2.4 Features of Language 2.5 Language of the world: its role 2.6 Language at home and school 2.7 Language and Communication 2.8 Summary 2.9 Review Questions 2.10 References 2.1 Introduction According to Charles Barber: "It is language, more obviously than anything else,that distinguishes humankind from the rest of the animal world. Humans are tool-making animals; but language itself is the most remarkable tool that they have invented, and the one that makes most of the others possible." (P-1) As recorded in the Bible: "In the beginning was the word". Both these quotes point to the primacy of language. Human beings conceive the world through language. Without language we cannot discover our identity as individuals and social beings. What purpose does language serve? Let us see what H.G. Widdowson says: It serves as a means of cognition and communication: it enables us to think for ourselves and to cooperate with other people in our community. It provides for present needs and future plans, and at the same time carries with it the impression of things past. (Linguistics: 3) It is language that makes us come to terms with brute realities of human experience. Let us think of Caliban in Shakespeare's The Tempest. Caliban 'gabbles like a thing most brutish' until Prospero teaches him language. 2.2 Objectives After reading the unit, learners will: a) Understand the nature of human language,

NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 25 b) Differentiate human communication from animal communication, c) Explore the difference between the language of the world and that of the classroom, and d) Examine the features of communicative language and relationship between language and communication. 2.3 What is Language? Human language is a signalling system. A system is a complex whole, a set of interconnected parts. How does the system of language function? This system of a language functions through sounds, words and structures. These are integrated with one another and constitute the complex organic whole which is language. When someone says, "Mother is reading a letter', he/she uses sounds, words, and an accepted sentence pattern. All these elements are so integrated together that they make communication possible. The system of language works through symbols or signs, the symbols being words. Language functions effectively when the symbols used are known to both — the speaker and the listener, the writer and the reader. These symbols are varied and complex.So for communication it is necessary that there should a meaning attached to the sound or sounds constituting a symbol. In the history of each individual speech is learned before writing. The written language is therefore secondary and derivative. There are communities that have speech without writing. But there can be no human community which has a written language without a spoken or signed one. Task 1 Read the text given below and answer the questions that follow Language is at the heart of human life. Without it, many of our most important activities are inconceivable. Try to imagine relating to your family, making friends, learning, falling in love, forming a relationship, being a parent, holding – or rejecting – a religious faith, having political ideals, or taking political action, without using words. There are other important activities, of course, which do seem to exist without language. Sexual relations, preparing and eating food, manual labour and crafts, the visual arts, playing and listening to music, wondering at the natural world, or grieving at its destruction. Yet even these are often developed or enhanced through language. We would perceive them quite differently had we never read about them or discussed them. (Guy Cook: Applied Linguistics, P-3) Questions a. What purpose does language serve in our daily life? Prepare a list of activities in which we use language.

26 NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 b. What other activities do require use of language? c. What activities can be enhanced through language? d. Add some points of your own to this list of activities that demands communication through language: gossip and chat, flirt and seduce, play games, sing songs, tell stories, teach children, ..., ..., ..., ..., ..., etc. e. Justify the view that linguistic activities seem to be intrinsic to human life, as natural to us as flight is to birds. 2.4 Features of Language Once Bertrand Russell observed: 'No matter how eloquently a dog may bark, but he cannot tell you that his parents were poor but honest'. (Widdowson 2019:5) Herein lies the difference between human communication and animal communication. Other animals communicate with one another by means of cries and body movement. Birds signal to each other by singing, bees by dancing. These signals are limited to particular states of affairs. They lack the essential flexibility of human language. The distinctive features that account for flexibility of human language are considered design-features or characteristics of human language. a) Arbitrariness In case of animal communication there exists an apparent relation between the signal and the message they want to convey. For example, bees indicate the direction and distance of source of honey from hive by means of their dance. Some animals have postures signifying submission. But in human language, except in case use of onomatopoeic word or expression, there is no resemblance between the signal and the message. In this sense human language is arbitrary. The link between the signal or sign and the message is a matter of convention and such conventions differ radically from language to language. Do you find any logical relation between 'milk' and the substance it signifies? What is 'water' in English is 'jal' in Bangla. Although there exists a conventional link between form (sign or signal) and meaning (message), the linguistic forms do not resemble what they signify. Only in case of onomatopoeic words the sound seems to be an echo to the sense. For example, the italicized words in 'the mewing of the cat' 'the murmurous haunt of flies on summer eves', 'the humming of the bees' the sounds represent the sense.

Task 2 1. Give a single word for 'the quality of being based on random choice, i.e. choice guided by no reason or system'? 2. Is there any logical relationship between 'cow' and the animal it signifies? How would you describe the relationship? 3. The codes used in animal communication are limited in number. – Do you agree? 4. Do all bees all over the world use the same code for conveying the message for a particular purpose, say, passing information about the source of honey? 5. Do all the cats of the same species use same code for mating? 6. Does a human child learn any language if s/he is brought up in isolation? (Clue: human child requires exposure to language for acquiring language) 7. How can you recognize a singing bird without seeing the bird? Can a bird sing if it is reared in captivity? 8. What is LAD? (Clue: Language Acquisition Device) 9. What is the role of environment in activating innate language ability?

b) Duality Human language consists of a set of basic sounds known as phonemes. These phonemes are generally meaningless in isolation. But these are instrumental in forming signs or signals that convey message. They combine with each other following rules of language and become meaningful. In this sense human language operates on two levels of structure. At one level the elements have no meaning in themselves and at another level they combine to form meaningful units. This kind of operational organization of human language into two distinct levels is called duality. For example, 'p', 'e', and 'n' are basic sound elements of English but these are meaningless in isolation. When they are combined to form the word 'pen', the combination becomes a meaningful unit. This duality can operate both in spoken and written language. No animal communication can exploit so wide range of elemental sounds to produce meaningful signals. Task 3 1. How many basic sounds are there in your mother tongue? 2. How many basic sounds are there in English? 3. Do all the basic sounds have individual meaning? 4. If you utter the 'p-t-e-y-r-o', will the utterance convey anything? How can we arrange those basic sounds to be meaningful? 5. Do we use all the basic sounds together to form a word?

6. What are the two layers or levels of language? (Clue: Layer1— meaningless individual sounds; Layer2—meaningful combination of individual sounds) 7. You know /f/ and /v/ are two basic sounds in English. So /f/ has no meaning. Nor has /v/ any meaning. Now say how they serve to make up two different words: 'safe' and 'save'? c) Patterning Human language follows a well-defined internal pattern. Only a fixed pattern of sounds or letters or words is considered meaningful. For example, 'tae' is not a word. But these letters can be arranged in a meaningful pattern: 'tea', 'eat', 'ate'. How many words can we form by rearranging the letters 'otps'? What are they? d) Creativity Most animals use a fixed number of signs for conveying messages. But human beings can produce and understand such utterances that are marked by novelty and originality of expression. In this sense human language is highly creative. With proper exposure to language we can create infinite number of sentences. e) Vocal Animal cries are not articulate. But human language is primarily made up of vocal sounds produced by a physiologically articulatory mechanism. History of human civilization testifies that human language is primarily spoken. The written language is based on spoken form. Writing came much later as an attempt to represent vocal sounds. f) Displacement Animal communication is concerned with the present. A bird or a cow cannot communicate a message relating to the past or beyond immediate environment. But human language can communicate messages about distant time and place. This aspect of human language is called displacement. g) Structure dependence Human language follows a structural pattern. When language acquisition takes place a child naturally picks up the structure and gradually produces the language maintaining the structure. h) Social We conduct our social lives by using language. We share a set of conventional communicative signals for maintaining social contact. In this sense language is social.

i) Cultural When human language is used it is bound up with culture in multiple and complex ways. We express facts, ideas or events that are communicable because they refer to a stock of knowledge about the world that other people share. It embodies cultural reality. The signs that are used have cultural value. It is a symbol of cultural identity of the speakers. In a sense, language is culture-preserving and culture – transmitting. Through language culture is preserved and transmitted to the next generation. j) Dynamic Language is not static. It is dynamic. All through the course of its history it goes on changing. This change is found at all levels – at the level of sounds, words, meanings and sentence patterns. But as the change is not rapid and revolutionary, it can be traced if we stand apart and take samples from text of different ages. Shakespeare's English differs in some points from both English in the Middle Ages and that of today. Every generation modifies language to meet changing demands of the people who use it. New words are being coined and formed. Let us consider the case of 'Monosyllabication'. It is the process of becoming monosyllabic. Monosyllabism is is one of the most prominent features of modern English. As a result of this tendency of language we now use 'bus' in place of 'omnibus', 'phone' in place of 'telephone', 'bike' from 'bicycle' and so on. There are many English sentences which show the condensed power of monosyllabism, as found in Modern Chinese (Mandarin). For example, we use 'Waste not, want not'; 'First come, first served', 'Live and let live'. Very recently a new word, 'covidiot', has been formed by blending two different words 'COVID' and 'idiot'. It means a stupid person who stubbornly ignores 'social distancing protocol', thus helping to further spread COVID-19. It also refers to a person who hoards groceries, needlessly spreading COVID – 19 fears and depriving others of essential supplies. Task 4 1. Have you noticed currency of any new word in recent times? If you can't remember take up the following words: netigen, tsunami, smishing etc. Now give the meaning of those words. 2. Give the original word from which the later syllables have been dropped: ad, demo, exam, lab, memo, mike, pub, stereo. Language of the world: its role Can you imagine this world without language? It is language that distinguishes human beings from the rest of the creatures. It is primarily human. We cannot think about our

existence without language. While other animals use a limited set of signs to convey messages, human beings use language to convey an infinite set of messages. It is one of the most significant basic capabilities that form the basis for the development of understanding, values and skills. Let us see what NCF 2005 states: "Language and other forms of expression provide the basis for meaning making, and sharing with others. They create possibilities of development of understanding and knowledge, providing the ability to symbolize, codify, and to remember and record. Development of language for a child is synonymous with development of understanding and identity, and also the capability of relating with others. It is not only verbal languages with scripts, but also languages without scripts, sign languages, scripts such as Braille and the performing arts, that provide the bases for making meaning and expression."(P-26) Activity1: What role does language of the world play? Point out from your experience and study. (Clues:social communication, cultural transmission, sharing, understanding meaning, codifying thoughts and feelings, expressing needs, gaining knowledge, remembering and recording, establishing identity, representing the society, making life comfortable in social setting, daily transaction of business, handing a computer or mobile, speaking of the past, sending a message or e-mail, reading any written text, etc.) 2.6 Language at home and school An educational institution is a society in miniature. Since language is essentially a social phenomenon, the language used in the classroom should reflect the society. It should aim at developing linguistic as well as social competence among the learners. At home children enjoy liberty in using language. Starting with their babbling and telegraphic codes, they gradually learn a lot of words. After a silent period, while they try to follow their parents and teachers, they begin to produce speeches for communication. At school the situation is different. Children are taught to use language correctly. They are expected to pronounce, spell, punctuate and use every word properly. So at school their previous knowledge and skill undergo modifications. And the learners gradually develop them under the guidance of their teachers. They learn their language eliminating all deviations. Much time is spent on different types of task to enhance their level of achievement. While at home children learn the dialect of their own linguistic environment. But in classroom they learn the standard variety of language. The standard is generally used in written communication. Text books and dictionaries are written in standard codes.

Task 5 a. Do children pronounce as distinctly as their parents at home? b. How do parents react to any deviation in using mother tongue at early stage? c. What instructions and stock phrases would you suggest for teaching English in the beginning? Make a list of them. (Clue: Good morning – thanks – Yes, no – okay— ....) d. How should a teacher select his words and expressions for classroom communication? Give examples. 2.7 Language and Communication We havealready learnt the definition, features and functions of language. Now Let us explore how language is used as a means of communication. Some aspects: i. What is Communication? Communication is an act of interchanging ideas, information or messages from one person or place to another, through words or signs which are understood by both the sender and receiver. Human beings are social creatures. It is through linguistic communication that they cooperate with others within the group. Without effective communication a social group cannot function properly. ii. What are the elements of communication? Communication is a two-way activity involving the following major elements: sender, message, encoding, channel, receiver, decoding and feedback. iii. How does this process function? Think of a phone call. You have a thought of feeling to be communicated. This is the message and you are the sender. First encode your message, i.e. convert your thought or feeling into speech (with proper tonal quality). Now send it through your mobile. The mobile will convert your speech into electromagnetic wave which will reach the destination. There the phone of the receiver, whom you call, converts the wave into code and, by decoding the receiver understands your thought or feeling. Thus a message is encoded and then sent from one individual called the sender to another called the receiver through a channel. In the receiving end the message is decoded and given feedback, if communicated effectively. iv. What serves as channel? There are a variety of channels available: face-to-face, phone calls, emails, social media, brochures, advertisements, television, etc. v. What is the relationship/difference between Language and Communication? 1. Language is a tool of communication and Communication is the process of transferring messages.

2. Language changes dynamically but communication is rather static. 3. Language is not the only means of communication. Many other tools such as gestures, tone, signs, symbols etc can communicate effectively. vi. What is the precondition of effective communication? A. Both the speaker and the listener (or the reader and the writer, as the case may be) should share a common language that can be used as a means of communication. B. Knowing the rules of grammar and vocabulary is as much essential as being able to put them to use in appropriate context. Chomsky used the term Linguistic Competence to mean this knowledge of rules of a particular language. And the actual manifestation of that knowledge or competence in communicative situation is called Performance. C. Chomsky's notion of Linguistic Competence cannot take into account all the factors governing communication. Grammatical knowledge alone is not enough to help us participate effectively in a communicative situation. One must know — (1)the socio-cultural situation (i.e. the attitudes, values, conventions, prejudices, and preferences of the people who use the language); (2) the nature of the participants (i.e. relationship between/ among those involved in communication, their status, interests etc.); (3) the role of the participants (i.e. the relationship in the social network, like teacher-student, doctor-patient, mother-daughter etc.); (4) the nature and function of the speechevent(i.e. whether it is a face-to-face conversation for a particular purpose, or a formal exchange of words for requests, persuasion etc.); and (5) the mode or medium (i.e. spoken or written or any other form). (Krishnaswamy, N et al 2002: 20-25) D. Dell Hymes used the term Communicative Competence as a deliberate contrast to Chomsky's Linguistic Competence. According Hymes, a person equipped with knowledge of language rules, i.e. having only linguistic competence, would not be able to communicate. Hymes suggests that four types of knowledge are required for successful communication: possibility, feasibility, appropriateness, and attestedness. Asuccessful communicator should know whether something is possible; whether something is feasible in relation to the means available; whether something is appropriate; and whether something is performed. So the notion of communicative Competence includes linguistic knowledge, interaction skills, cultural knowledge and understanding of the communication event and context, and knowledge of conventions of language use. E. Widdowson thinks if Linguistic Competence is an abstraction of grammatical knowledge, Communicative Competence is an abstraction of social behaviour.

NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 33 In order to participate in language-based activities, the user of language requires the ability to use language to achieve certain ends or purposes. This ability to use language appropriately in a social context is called Pragmatic Competence. (Krishnaswamy, N et al 2002: 20-25) F. In actual communication some conventional expressions like 'Good morning', 'Hello', 'How do you do', 'Namaste', 'Jayguru' etc. are exchanged. Such verbal or non-verbal communication to start a conversation, or greet someone is called Phatic Communion. It has no informative function. But it has a social function. In case of online communication 'likes' or use of 'emoji' serve this phatic function. It helps us to avoid silence. Task 6 a. What is the relation between Communicative Competence and Linguistic Competence? b. What are the qualities of a competent speaker? 2.8 Summary In this unit we have learnt about human language and its characteristics. The main features are: arbitrariness, duality, creativity, patterning, displacement, structure dependence, dynamic change. Some features of human language, like arbitrariness and duality, distinguish it from other kinds of animal communication. Such features are called design features. We have also learnt what purpose language serves in the society, at home and in school. We have examined the role of language as a means of communication and precondition for effective communication. We have also learnt the importance of phatic communion. 2.9 Review Questions 1. Schools are a good barometer of both language use and social values... (Guy Cook 2019:14) – Do you support this view? Justify. (Clue: Learners come from different socio-cultural background – bring their own home language – each variety shows social values – there are differences between individuals, social groups, generations – language is used differently in speech and writing, in formal and informal situations – learners struggle for achieving the standard variety – teacher's role as a facilitator is important).

34 NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 2. The features that make human language flexible and distinctively human are called 'design features'. What are the two main design features of language? (Clue: arbitrariness and duality). 3. Explain with suitable examples: Words are arbitrary in form but they are not random in their use. 5. How does human communication differ from animal communication? 6. In children's fiction we find talking animals. They are also found in adult fiction. In Swift's Gulliver's Travels and Orwell's Animal Farm we find creatures cast in our image. What are such creatures called? What sort of language do such creatures use? (Clue: anthropomorphic creatures – talk like human being – pigs in Animal Farm talk like politicians). 7. How do children learn their mother tongue? Give your idea. 8. What is Universal Grammar (UG)? Is it a cognitive construct? (Clue: LAD provides a closed set of common principles of grammatical organization known as UG – formation of UG depends on exposure to linguistic environment). 9. How does language function as a means of communication and social control? (Clue: means of interpersonal communication – functions as a system of signs to meet elaborate cultural and communal needs of human societies) 10. Why does Michael Halliday call 'language as social semiotic'? (Clue: 'semiotic' means relating to signs or symbols – language, like gestures and images, convey human message – as a means of social interaction – language functions as a system of signs developed to express social meanings) Suggested Reading Akmajian, A. et al. Linguistics. (Delhi: PHI Learning Pvt. Ltd., 2016) Barber, Charles. The English Language – A Historical Introduction. (Cambridge: Cambridge University Press,2009) Cook, Guy. Applied Linguistics. (Oxford: Oxford University Press, 2019) Krishnaswamy, N. et al. Modern Applied Linguistics. (Chennai: Macmillan india Limited, 2002) NCERT. National Curriculum Framework 2005 (New Delhi: NCERT, 2005) Verma, M & Krishnaswamy, N. Modern Linguistics. (New Delhi: Oxford University Press, 2004) Widdowson, H. G. Linguistics. (Oxford: Oxford University Press, 2019)

NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 35 Unit - 3 p Aspects of Language Skills Structure 3.1 Introductiosn 3.2 Objectives 3.3 Language as a Skill 3.4 Features of Language Skills and Their Classification 3.5 Key Contributions in Conceptualizing the Notion of Language as a Skill 3.6 Experts Versus Novices in Language Use as a Skill 3.7 The Four Language Skills 3.7.1 Listening 3.7.2 Speaking 3.7.3 Reading 3.7.4 Writing 3.8 Summary 3.9 Review Questions 3.10 References 3.1 Introduction Let us try to recall our observation of how a child learns the mother tongue. We have noticed that in learning the mother tongue, the first thing that a child acquires is the ability to understand the spoken word i.e. the skill of listening. Next, he/she tries to reproduce these sound sequences to express his own desires and needs and thereby acquires or develops the skill of speaking gradually. For an illiterate person this basic ability to listen and speak constitutes his/her language ability which is considered as skills of 'oracy'. However, the abilities to read and write are considered as skills of 'literacy'. Thus, language ability in its totality constitutes for basic skills – Listening, Speaking, Reading, and Writing swhich in short is expressed as LSRW. 3.2

Objectives

After going through this unit you would be able to: l Understand the

basic concept of 'skill' in language learning l Examine some selected significant conceptualisations of the term 'language as a skill'

l Understand the evolution of the nature of language as a skill in three stages l Idsentify the differences between experts and novices in skilful language use l Understand the various theoretical aspects of the four language skills – listening, speaking, reading and wri\ting 3.3 Language as a Skill Let us begin by understanding the concept of 'skill'. Longman Dictionary of Applied Linguistics defines skill as "an acquired ability to perform an activity well, usually one that is made up of a number of co-ordinated processes and actions. Many aspects of language learning are traditionally regarded as the learning of skills, such as learning to speak, or read ûuently. Thus, you have certainly noticed that all competent language users exhibit a number of different abilities in real life situation like writing letters, speak face-to-face or on telephone, listen to conversations, etc. These abilities are the 'skills'. Hence, language learning is considered a skill-subject rather than a knowledge- subject as it requires more of doing or performing rather than knowing.It is not a content- based subject like-science, social studies, commerce, mathematics, etc., which aims to impart information and fill the human mind with knowledge. Since language is a skill, it naturally comes under psychomotor and cognitive domains. Language skills (LSRW) comprises of various elements called 'sub-skills'. Very often a language-user uses more than one skill. A participant in a conversation for example, takes turn in both listening and speaking. The following grid represents a four-fold view of language as skill: SKILL Comprehension skills Production skills MEDIUM Spoken Listening Speaking Written Reading Writing Fig. 3.1 Our understanding of the concept of language as skill calls for a realistic context of language use for communicative purposes, so that the vast potential of the notion of language can be limited to what people really do in socio-cultural situations. Therefore, such a definition can be conceived as:

a) Language skills help us communicate within the constraints of the language use or usage to influence others in a variety of life situations panning across myriad relationships. b) Language skills decide the competence of language users to cope with communication across various societal strata. c) Language skills require whole-person involvement in verbal communication, which is to say that language users tap all their resources and mental capacities for communicative situations, such as their cognitive system, emotions, volition, imagination, imagery, verbal language and body language, visual and analogical information processing, personal culture, etc. d) Language skills are sufficiently specific for the purpose of TEFL / TESL, i.e. sensitive to modality-specific considerations; focus on the sub-codes and their distinctive features. Check your progress : 1 What do you understand by the term 'skill'?
....
.... How is language a set of skills?
....
.... 3.4 Features of Language Skills and Their Classification Let us now try to understand the various features of the language skills. You might have noticed that two of the language skills – listening and reading are apparently passive processes, requiring less exertion on the part of the language user. These two skills are called Receptive Skills or Skills of Comprehension because while listening or reading the language user is at the receiving end of the communication process, but he/she is actively involved in the process of thinking. He/she is technically called the 'receiver' or 'decoder'. However, reception is always a two-way process and we should keep in mind that there is no simple relation between transmitting a message and receiving it.Attaching meaning to the received text indicates more accurately the reciprocal process between the decoder and the encoder i.e. the sender of the message. Comprehension involves not only reception of the message but also construction of meaning from the message received. Thus, we as listenersor readersnot only decode the text but addvalue with our personal opinion and judgements, thereby creating a unique interpretation.

Hence, experts often term the 'receptive skills' as 'interpretative skills'. Speaking and writing, on the other hand, are called Productive Skills or Skills of Expression. They are more active skills and require a lot of effort and competency in acquiring and exhibiting the skills. We can also classify the four skills following another approach. Listening and speaking which demand the exercise of the auditory and the speech organs may be called audio- lingual or aural-oral skills; while reading and writing involving the visual and psychomotor organs may be called graphic-motor skills. It is now quite clear to us that language is not simply a mix of diverse skills; it is a complex and integrated skill. What makes a skill difficult is not performing its single component, but the integration of all of the components instantaneously. Fluent speakers perform all these operations with ease, but their skill is the result of practice and expertise.We experience that when we are engaged in conversation we also require to listen and speak almost at the same time. The same is the case with reading and writing. Further, it is noteworthy that no one can produce a speech sound that he/she has not heard before or write a letter of the alphabet that he/she has not seen. These elements constitute the 'language code' and each language has its own unique set of codes. The root problem in learning a language, therefore, is one of internalising the language code. Check your progress : 2 What are distinctive features of language skills? ....
.... How would you classify language skills?
....
.... 3.5 Key Contributions in Conceptualizing the Notion of Language as Skill As second language teachers it is important for us to know about the significant contributors in establishing the concept of 'language as skill'. Fitts (1964) was one of the first authors in the field of language learning to identify three stages of acquiring a skill: 1) the cognitive stage, in which the learner makes the initial approximation of the skill- demanding task, based on background knowledge, observation and instructions;

2) the associative stage, in which the task is consolidated while some errors are eliminated; 3) the autonomous stage, in which the skill is gradually established and improved. In 1968, Welford published a volume on general mental and sensory-motor skills accounting for factors which make up expert, rapid and accurate performance. In his conception, skill involves decision-making, i.e. selection and co-ordination, or integration, a highly constructive, flexible form of behaviour. Herriot (1970) proposed explicit distinction between the linguist's perspective of language as a formal system external to the user and the user's perspective of language as interpersonal behaviour, i.e. communication. He blames linguists for inserting their formal system external to the user to represent the user and opposed 'any effort to install linguists' models of language as models of psychological processes' (Herriot,1970). It is noteworthy that language behaviour has the following properties of skilled behaviour: a) the hierarchical nature (skills consist of hierarchies and subhierarchies of operations which must be integrated by language users to keep pace with the fluency demand); b) some criterion of success (a norm or target); and c) automatization, anticipation and feedback. A significant contribution in the research on language as skill is Levelt (1975, 57; 1978; 1989) who observed: "One of the most general features of complex tasks is their hierarchical structure. This means that the task consists of subtasks, sub-sub-tasks, etc. The idea is that execution of one part of the task requires the completion of various smaller operations in accurate temporal integration. Each of these operations may in its turn require a set of still more elementary operations. Speaking is an excellent example of hierarchical task structure. This can be understood by following the steps indicated below: a) hierarchical organization, i.e. higher order, more important decisions influence the subordinated, lower-order choices; this implies the ability to integrate tasks and sub-tasks within one episode of activity; b) hybrid (i.e. mixed) processing, i.e. the higher-order choices, more significant because related to the communicative intention, are slower and controlled by our attentional resources, while the lower-order subordinated ones, related to formulation (i.e. planning and lexical insertion) and articulation, are performed in fractions of seconds (they are too fast to be controlled by our attentional resources or to be available to our awareness); automaticity in processing, i.e. limited demand on the processing resources, calls for the activation of procedural representations; c) language use as skill is an act of composing, which requires not only the acquisition of the complex nature of tasks, but also the ability to act in a largely unpredictable and changing environment in which the speaker of a language has to keep track of

the ongoing communication, plan and execute his or her utterance, comprehend the intention of the interlocutor and plan ahead. Check your progress : 3 What was Fitts's propositions in considering language as skill? .... Discuss hierarchical structure of a task supporting the concept of language as skill. .... 3.6 Experts Versus Novices in Language Use as Skill Let us now try to identify how experts in the use of language skills can be contrasted with novices on the basis of such criteria as fluency in their speech-performance, degree of accuracyin the use of words, certainty regarding forms, meta-cognitive regulation of their performance, the awareness of the global target model for the performance, and the use of elaborate forms. Fig. 3.4 (Anderson, 1981) EXPERTS 1. Are characterized by fluency in performance 2. Accurate performance in the sense of a rather limited number of errors 3. Display certainty regarding the forms 4. Longer, more developed/elaborated tasks 5. More strategies and metacognitive regulation 6. Mental global model, or standard 7. Deeper processing, more critical evaluation of the task. NOVICE 1. Are characterized by change in strategy in performance 2. Requires correction while performing. 3. Do not display certainty regarding the forms 4. Less developed/elaborated tasks 5. Fewer strategies and metacognitive regulation 6. Independent of concepts 7. Not rule-bound in critical evaluation of the task.

NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 41 3.7 The Four Language Skills When talking about language skills, the four basic ones are: listening, speaking, reading and writing (LSRW). In the 1970s and early 1980s, the four basic skills were generally taught in isolation in a very rigid order, such as listening before speaking. However, with the advent of the communicative approach to language teaching, it has been recognized that we generally use more than one skill at a time, leading to more integrated exercises. Though now we will study the theoretical aspects of each of these four skills separately. 3.7.1 Listening a) Listening vs hearing: As a suitable starting point for dealing with the listening skill in foreign language teaching is to consider the following question: How is 'hearing' different from 'listening'?We often use the two terms 'hearing and listening' interchangeably, but there is an important difference between them. According to Stephen Lucas, Although both hearing and listening involve sound perception, the difference in terms reflects a degree of intention" So, the listening process is guided by our intention which is psychologically an excitation of nerve pathways in the brain to organise incoming stimuli in an efficient way, (Rost, 2002) quoted that: "Intention is the initiation of involvement ..., it is used for organizing what is heard and seen, to organize language in terms of topics (what the language is about) and information value (what the language signal is relevant to us?)." So listening and hearing are not synonymous. Hearing occurs when your ears pick up sound waves being transmitted by a speaker, listening involves making sense out of what is being transmitted (Hamilton, 1999) as he quoted: "Hearing is with the cars, listening is with the mind." b) Definition Listening is a prerequisite to all skills of language. It is the process of understanding speech in a ûrst or second language. The activity of listening is not an act of just recording the speaker's utterances and repeating them as with tape recorders

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they are. It is a process of making meaning out of spoken language. Listening involves: 1] receiving the systematic sounds of the language, 2] processing and constructing sounds into words, 3] giving meaning to the words and getting meaning from the words received, 4] ability to interpret and comprehend the speaker's utterances.

c) Listening Process Richards (1990) draws a

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two-way process of listening comprehension: bottom-up and top-down processing.

Top-down processing, makes use of "higher level", non-sensory

information to predict or interpret "lower level" information that is present in the data. The other way, bottom-up processing, makes use of the information present in the input to achieve higher level meaning. For example, in word recognition, the higher level information is knowledge of permissible words as well as actual words of a language, while the lower level information is the actual phonetic input (or orthographic input in the case of written word recognition). In sentence comprehension or the interpretation of an utterance, the lower level information is words, while the higher level information includes knowledge of grammar, semantics, and pragmatics. d) BOTTOM-UP Processing It is agreed that the language process has a definite order, it means from the lowest level of detail to the highest level (Buck, 2001). The same view is directly applied in listening, precisely in the Bottom–up processing,to assume that in this process the listener focuses and gives much importance to the smallest units of speech than the individual words and after to phrases to combine them in order to achieve understanding and build a whole (Harmer, 2001). In this process the listener is solely dependent on the incoming input for the meaning of the message. First of all, sound signals are organised into words; the words into phrases, then to clauses and at last into a whole sentence. In this process two factors help the listeners a lot for grasping the meaning of the message – his/her lexical and grammatical competence. Let's take an utterance from a conversation and observe the process involved in which we proceed with understanding the meaning: Input: Prem could not reach school in time. At first the input is organised into words: Prem / could / not / reach / school / in / time. Then it is organised into sense groups: Prem / could not reach/ school / in time. Thus Harmer argues that: "Without a good understanding of a reasonable proportion of the details gained through some Bottom-up processing, we will be unable to get any clear general picture of what the text is about" (Harmer, 2001, 201) e) TOP-DOWN Processing "Top down process is the opposite of Bottom-up, students start from their background knowledge" (Helgesen, Brown, 1995). To explain this process more, (Harmer,2001) indicates that in this processing, the listener tends to get the message's general view and absorb the overall picture of the listening passage. This is helped if the listener has the ability to have appropriate expectations of what is going to come across. It utilises schemata (background knowledge and global understanding) to derive meaning from and interpret the message. For example, There was a big traffic jam. Prem could not reach school in time.

With the help of the italicised words we can come to an understanding that it is an of offering explanation for Prem's late-coming. But we can draw this conclusion only when we have a word-perception that someone cannot reach a place in time if there is a traffic jam on the roads. f) Types of Listening Let us now study the different types of listening we engage ourselves into at various points of time: a) Discriminative listening: Discriminative listening is the most basic type of listening, whereby the difference between different sounds is identified. If you cannot hear differences, then you cannot make sense of the meaning that is expressed by such differences. We learn to discriminate between sounds within our own language early, and later are unable to discriminate between the phonemes of other languages. This is one reason why a person from one country finds it difficult to speak another language. Listening is a visual as well as auditory act, as we communicate a lot through body language. We thus also need to be able to discriminate between muscle and skeletal movements that signify different meanings. b) Biased listening: Biased listening happens when the person hears only what they want to hear, typically misinterpreting what the other person says based on the stereotypes and other biases that they have. c) Evaluative listening: In evaluative listening, or critical listening, we make judgments about what the other person is saying. We seek to assess the truth of what is being said. We also judge what they say against our values, assessing them as good or bad, worthy or unworthy. Evaluative listening is particularly pertinent when the other person is trying to persuade us, perhaps to change our behaviour and maybe even to change our beliefs. d) Appreciative listening: In appreciative listening, we seek certain information which we appreciate, for example that which helps meet our needs and goals. We use appreciative listening when we are listening to good music, poetry or maybe even the stirring words of a great leader. e) Sympathetic listening: In sympathetic listening we care about the other person and show this concern in the way we pay close attention and express our sorrow for their ills and happiness at their joys. f) Empathetic listening: When we listen empathetically, we go beyond sympathy to seek a deeper understanding how others are feeling. This requires excellent discrimination and close attention to the nuances of emotional signals. When we are being truly empathetic, we actually feel what they are feeling. g) Focused listening: This is 'intensive listening' for information or for transacting business. The listener is attentive and pays full concentration on what the speaker is saying.

44 NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 h) Casual listening: Often we listen to something or somebody without much concentration. This is called casual or superficial listening and is prevalent in social context when we interact with others. g) Barriers to Listening: There are certain factors which create barriers in proper listening: a) Lack of concentration and attention: Paying rapt attention what we are listening is very essential. This largely depends on the topic of the text and learner background. b) Lack of prior knowledge and proficiency: While listening to a speech, it is essential to have some prior knowledge, and this constitutes the schema and facilitates easy comprehension. c) Problems related to the message: The content of the text plays a major role in facilitating both points 'a' and 'b' stated above. d) Problems related to the speaker: The style a speaker adapts also impacts the listening. The pace, the words the speaker uses are of utmost importance in facilitating listening. e) Physical setting: The setting or the conditions surrounding the listening activity are important. There should be no external noise and the atmosphere should be conducive for proper listening. 3.7.2. Speaking Skills A) Definition

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Speaking is an interactive process of constructing meaning that involves producing and

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receiving and processing information (Brown, 1994; Burns & Joyce, 1997). It is often spontaneous, open-ended, and evolving. The brain encodes an idea and sends signals to the mouth for proper articulation. B) Features of Speech a) Speech is immediate: Speech in most circumstances is instantaneous and the speaker is pressed for time and this condition decides many of the features of speech b) Speech is reciprocal: Speech is the most interactive of all the four skills in the sense that it involves face-to-face communication and immediate response. In such a reciprocal exchange, a speaker will often have to adjust his vocabulary and message to take the listener into account. c) Non-verbal devices of speech: Features of speech include rhythm, intonation and non-linguistic cues like sighs, silence, etc. Speech is also accompanied by non- verbal communication such as gestures and facial expressions.

NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 45 d) Normal non-fluency of speech: This results from the unprepared nature of speech. The speaker consciously and unconsciously uses certain time-creating devices like hesitations, unintended repetitions, false starts and fillers. Fillers are the insertion of sounds (umm) or words ('you know', 'I mean' etc.) to fill in the empty spaces between utterances. e) Simple structure: In general, speech is simpler in grammatical structure compared to the other productive skill i.e. writing. Spoken language uses less co-ordination and subordination. A speaker has to take account of the limited memory span of the listener and cut a long message into convenient units. C) Barriers to Speaking: Let's now discuss some of the barriers typically faced by us as communicators while speaking: · Most speakers cannot sustain spoken interaction beyond short segments in the target language · Speakers' communication is marked by frequent breakdowns · Speakers most often fail to use appropriate vocabulary needed to talk about common utterances to express their thoughts · Speakers lack various communication strategies like use of fillers, repair of communication, etc. · Speakers who cannot participate actively in conversation and remain passive listeners · Speakers attempt to translate from L1 to L2 leading to translational fallacies · Inadequate and inappropriate use of non-verbal cues to support listeners' comprehension 3.7.3 Reading Skill A) Definition "Reading is a process of constructing meaning from written texts. It is a complex skill requiring the coordination of interrelated sources of information" (Anderson, Hiebert, Scott, & Wilkinson, 1985, p. 6. Cited in Stanley, 2007.) Thus, reading is the act of deciphering and understanding a written text. B) Features of Reading: a) Reading is purposeful: There is always a reason for reading. In general, we read either for information or for pleasure. Our purpose for reading a recipe is obviously different from reading a legal document or a story. Hence, we need to define our purpose before we read something. b) Reading is selective: The type of reading we do or the way we read a text varies according to our purpose of reading. We don't read all the texts that we see or

view everyday. We quickly scan a page in the telephone directory to locate a name, a telephone number, or an address but we need to pay careful attention to each and every word in a legal document. c) Difference in reading speed: Our reading speed varies according to content and purpose. A good reader uses the minimum number of clues in the text – semantic or syntactic – to extract information they need. We all have experienced that we read a novel or a short story faster than we read a text or a study material. d) Reading is silent: Reading for comprehension is silent. Reading aloud is a specialised skill used by actors, newsreaders, anchors, but rarely by a general reader for comprehension. e) Reading is text-based: Reading comprehension is based on the text as input and may include variety of texts viz. newspaper reports, brochures, advertisements and billboards, notices, etc. f) Reading is based on comprehension: Understanding meaning of the text is integral to reading rather than the result of it. g) Reading involves complex cognitive skills: While reading we do not merely decode the message, we make predictions, draw inferences – we anticipate based on what we read. That is why reading is called "a psycholinguistic guessing game" h) Reading involves world knowledge:Comprehension and interpretation of a text involves the synthesis of the information embedded in the text along with our knowledge of the context and the topic. C) Different Types of Texts: The various types of texts that we require to read everyday commonly include the following: a) Narrative and Creative texts such as stories, novels, poems, other literary pieces b) Factual texts such as descriptions, announcements, advertisements, brochures, notices, reports, menu, and agenda, etc. c) Procedural texts sets of instructions for operating machinery or equipment, safety procedures, and emergency procedures d) Diagrammatic texts like signs, photographs, simple maps, floor plans, timetables, street directories, flowcharts, time lines, charts and tables e) Transactional texts such as memoranda, forms, business letters f) Discursive texts presenting simple arguments Different types of reading comprehension are often distinguished, according to the reader's purposes in reading and the type of reading used. The following are commonly referred to:

NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 47 a) Literal comprehension: Reading in order to understand, remember, or recall the information explicitly contained in a passage. b) Inferential comprehension: Reading in order to ûnd information which is not explicitly stated in a passage, using the reader's experience and intuition, and by inferring c) Critical or evaluative comprehension: Reading in order to compare information in a passage with the reader's own knowledge and values d) Appreciative comprehension: Reading in order to gain an emotional or other kind of valued response from a passage. D) The Reading Process: Reading is getting from the text what the author intends. It is the visual aspect of learning and contains the following steps: a) Recognition: This step takes place almost before any physical aspect of reading begins. It is the ability to say whether or not a word encountered has a particular suggested meaning. It includes recognising the script and the language. b) Assimilation: This accounts for the ability of the reader to absorb/understand what is given in the text. c) Intra-integration: This is the ability to connect different parts of a text to provide a coherent meaning. d) Extra-integration: This is the ability of the reader to relate what is read to what the reader already knows. e) Retention: It is the ability to remember things or store information for future reference. f) Recall: This step refers to the ability to retrieve the stored information when needed. E) Types of Reading:Now let's have a look into the types of reading we often engage ourselves into. In general, there are two types of reading: Intensive and Extensive reading. Intensive reading is generally at a slower speed, and requires a higher degree of understanding than extensive reading. It involves the deconstruction of a text. The aim is to get as much information as possible. By reading intensively, we read a text closely paying attention to vocabulary and grammar. Extensive reading on the other hand refers to reading to gain a general understanding of what is read. It is intended to develop good reading habits, to build up knowledge of vocabulary and structure, and to encourage a liking for reading. F) Barriers to Effective Reading:In general, most readers are likely to face the following problems: l Lack of grammatical and linguistic competence: Unfamiliar script and inability to decipher is the first major problem while reading. l Lack of motivation:Reading for information and knowledge requires motivation and discipline.The motivation is largely integrative and not instrumental.

48 NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 l Lack of concentration: A reader needs to pay close attention to what is being read and needs to do it consciously with concentration l Articulating the words and sentences loudly: Reading aloud or mouthing every word reduces the speed of reading and makes it an uninteresting task. l Finger reading: Following a line either with a finger or a pencil as you read also reduces the speed of reading. l Narrow eye span: Several readers read each word and move their heads as the text moves from left to right. This also hampers the speed of reading. 3.7.4. Writing Writing is a conscious, deliberate, and planned activity. For learning to writein L1 one need not learn words and their meaning but their coherence. One can convert his inner speech into writing without any hindrance. But, for learning to write in L2 one requires to learn consciously each and every linguistic element through instruction or proper guidance. Further, the learning experience of L1 is different from that of L2. In the process of learning L2 writing, previous experience (that is L1) may get in the way of learning of writing at all levels of L2. Writing is essentially a communicative act. We write in order to communicate our message with the reader. Thus, we write with a purpose and for a specific reader. The different purposes of writing include: l To give information (notes, notices, articles, text-books, brochures, etc.) l To entertain (short stories, novels, drama, skits, etc.) l To persuade (advertisements, leaflets, etc.) l To give opinions (editorials, reviews, etc.) The target reader may be different also. The text may be written for: l The general public (articles, reports, etc.) l A personal friend or relation (personal letter) l Business associate (official letters, business reports, etc.) l A superior/subordinate or a peer at the work place

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The purpose of writing and the needs of the audience determine the shape of the

text and our style of writing. A) Writing and Writing Skill:Writing is a skill that demands on the part of the writer to trace the shape and size of the letters of the alphabet appropriately to form words, sentences and also convey the required meaning. It is a complex task that demands the writer's constant attention. Hence, writing is also defined as 'a thinking process'. B) Types ofWritings: In non-creative forms of writing, we can broadly identify the following kinds of writings: NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 49 a) Descriptive writing: Descriptive writing provides a verbal picture or account of a person, place, event or a thing. b) Narrative writing: Narrative writing reports an event or tells the story of something that happened. c) Expository writings: Expository writing providesdetailed information about a topic. Patterns of development within expository writing include giving examples, describing a process of doing or making something, analysing causes and effects, comparing and/or contrasting, deûning a term or concept, and dividing something into parts or classifying it into categories. d) Argumentative writing: Argumentative writing attempts to support a controversial point or defend a position on which there is a difference of opinion. e) Formal or official writings:Formal and official writings include office correspondence like notices, minutes, reports, business letters and other formal writings like letters job applications, etc. Apart from the aforesaid types, there is literary or creative writing like writing ûction, drama, skits, and poetry that reûect the writer's originality, imagination, feelings and emotions. These may not include factual events. ESL writing programmes have often been based on the assumption that novice writers should begin with the simplest mode – the descriptive writing, and gradually move to learning the most difûcult – the argumentative one. C) The Writing Process: The task of writing is a systematic process and follows a set of additive steps. These can be listed as follows: a. Planning b. Drafting c. Revising d. Editing e. Final draft. Planning is the stage when the writer can think of the topic and develop an outline or a flow chart or a synopsis of the writing to done. During the drafting stage the writer develops the points as outlined in the planning stage. The third one is revision stage; in this stage, we need to refine ideas in our compositions. Next, the editing stage the writer carefully goes through to draft to ensure there are no errors of spelling, grammar and organisation. Once this is ensured, the writer produces a final copy for the consumption of the reader. D) Difficulties in Writing:Writing is a complex skill that demands a lot of coordination. Here are a few points that we need to pay attention to while writing.

50 NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 a) Originality: A writer should attempt to express his/her thoughts in a personal language rather than copy from other sources. b) Limited resources:Writing is a developmental process. We cannot be the best of writers from the beginning. We learn by making errors, and by following the examples set by others. The less we read, the poorer we will be as writers. c) Rule bound: All writing demands a set of conventions in terms of format and style of drafting. These rules and conventions vary depending on text-type.The basic structure needs an introduction, proper development and a logical conclusion. d) Requires planning: Writing is a permanent record of events or information and hence requires proper planning before drafting and the write-up is to be meticulously packaged ensuring legibility. e) Time constraint: Good writing requires good amount of time for preparing rough drafts, editing, revising and then finally presenting the final draft. This requirement of time at times can pose a barrier. Check your progress : 4 Listening is different from hearing. Do you agree? .... What do you understand by the terms 'top-down' and 'bottom-up' process of listening? .... What are basic features of speech? .... What problems do you face as a second language speaker? .... What is Reading? What are the basic features of reading? .... How is intensive reading different from extensive reading? .... Discuss the process involved in writing. .... 3.8. Summary Our discussion in the entire unit can be summarised as follows:

NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 51 l Language ability is a set of skills and language learning is considered a skill- subject rather than a knowledge-subject as it requires more of doing or performing rather than knowing. l Language ability in its totality constitutes for basic skills – Listening, Speaking, Reading, and Writing which in short is termed as LSRW. l Listening and reading are called receptive skills or skills of comprehension l Speaking and writing are called productive skills or skills of expression l Listening and hearing are two different aural processes l Listening involves top-down and bottom-up processing l Different types of listening include: Discriminative listening, Biased listening, Evaluative listening, Appreciative listening, Sympathetic listening, Focused listening and Casual listening l Spoken language is immediate, reciprocal and is supported by non-verbal cues. l Oral interactions can be characterised in terms of routines, which are conventional ways of presenting information which can either focus on information or interaction. l The process of reading involves various steps: Recognition, Assimilation, Intra- integration, Extra-integration, Retention and Recall l Reading for comprehension calls for silent reading l Reading can be intensive (reading for information, study) or extensive (reading for pleasure) l Writing is an outcome of a writing skill which refers to the writer's linguistic ability in making use of the mechanics of writing. l The act of writing involves five stages: Prewriting, Drafting, Revising, Editing, and producing the final draft. 3.8 Reviesw Questions 1. What are some of the arguments you can put forth to establish language is a set of skills? 2. What are some of the common features that cut across all language skills? 3. How are the language skills classified and what is the basis for such classification? 4. Why is writing considered a complex skill? 5. What are some of the habits that impede reading? 6. Discuss the factors that the writing process involves. 7. how can we effectively enhance our receptive skills or capability for comprehension of language, written or spoken?

52 NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 8. What are the different types of writing or textualization in a broader sense? Write separately a note on each type. 9. Reading is a process of decoding and constructing meaning from the written texts. Discuss. 10. Summarise the four language skills. 3.10. Suggested Reading Anderson, R.C., Hiebert, E.H., Scott, J.A., & Wilkinson, I.A.G. (1985).Becoming a nation of readers: A report of the Commission on Reading. Washington, DC. National Institute of Education. Burns, A., & Joyce, H. (1997). Focus on speaking. Sydney: National Center for English Language Teaching and Research. Dakowska, M. (2014).Evolution in Understanding the Notion of Language as Skill in Foreign Language Didactics.InChodkiewicz, H. and Trepczyñska, M. (Ed.).Language Skills: Traditions, Transitions and Ways Forward. Newcastle. Cambridge Scholars. Halliday, M.A.K. (1970). Language Structure and Language Function. In J. Lyons edited, NewHorizons in Linguistics. Harmondsworth : Penguin. Long, M.H. & Norris, J.M. (2000) Task-based Language Teaching and Assessment.In Byram, M., edited, Encyclopedia of Language Teaching. London: Routledge. Nunan, D. (1989). Designing Task for the Communicative Classroom. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. Nunan, D. (1991). Language Teaching Methodology : A textbook for teachers. New York. Prentice Hall. Palmer, H. (1922). The Principles of Language Study. London. Oxford University Press.
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NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 53 Unit - 4 p Teaching of Skills Structure 4.1 Introduction 4.2 Objectives 4.3 Teaching Listening Skill 4.3.1 Sub-Skills of Listening 4.3.2 Principles of Teaching Listening 4.3.3 Selecting Listening Tasks & Materials 4.4 Teaching Speaking Skill 4.4.1 Sub-Skills of Speaking 4.4.2 Principles of Teaching Speaking 4.5 Teaching Reading Skill 4.5.1 Sub-Skills of Reading 4.5.2 Selection of Texts & Tasks 4.5.3 Developing Good Reading Habits 4.6 Teaching of Writing Skills 4.6.1 The Teaching Perspective 4.6.2 Sub-Skills of Writing 4.7 Integrated Approach to Language Teaching 4.8 Summary 4.9 Review Questions 4.10 References 4.1 Introduction The conviction that one needs to develop a range of skills in order to acquire and use a language has been acknowledged in second/foreign language teaching and learning. The shift of attention to a scientific explanation of how language skills are acquired isrelated to the influences from linguistics as well as with psycholinguistic interpretations of human skilled behaviour. The acceptance of the skill-theory oriented language instructions has far-reaching implications for the organization of classroom work and for providing learners with quality practice conducive to the development of multiple aspects of language performance.

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Objectives

After going through this unit you will be able to: a)

Understand the

theoretical framework of teaching listening, speaking, reading and writing. b) Examine some important concepts in teaching the four language skills. c) Understand the various sub-skills of listening, speaking, reading and writing. d) Understand the emerging trends in teaching the four skills and their integration. 4.3. Teaching Listening Skill The teaching of listening has gained significance in recent years than it did in the past. Earlier views of listening saw it as the mastery of discrete skills or micro-skills, such as recognizing reduced forms of words, recognizing cohesive devices in texts, and identifying key words in a text, and that these skills should form the focus of teaching. Later views of listening drew on the field of cognitive psychology, which introduced the notions of bottom-up and top-down processing and to the role of prior knowledge and schema in comprehension. Listening came to be seen as an interpretive process. Current views of listening hence emphasize the role of the listener, who is seen as an active participant in listening, employing strategies to facilitate, monitor, and evaluate his or her listening. 4.3.1 Sub-Skills of Listening We are aware that each language skill comprises a large number of sub-skills and the value and relevance of these sub-skills vary

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from one situation to another. Rost (1990) has identified two kinds of clusters of micro-skills of listening: 'Enabling skills' (those employed in order to perceive what the speaker is saying and to interpret

the intended meaning)

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and 'Enacting skills' (those employed to respond appropriately to the message). 1. Enabling Skills:

Enabling skills further consists of two psycho-linguistic abilities: A) Perception and B) Interpretation A) Perception i.e. recognising prominence within utterances, including: p Discriminating sounds in words, especially phonemic contrasts. p

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Discriminating strong and weak forms, phonetic change at word boundaries.

p Identifying use of stress and pitch (information units, emphasis, pause, pace, rhythm etc.)
NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 55 B) Interpretation i.e.

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formulating content sense of utterance, including: p Deducing the meaning of unfamiliar words. p Inferring implicit information. - Inferring links between

prepositions. p

Formulating a conceptual framework linking utterances, including: Recognising discourse markers (clarifying, contrasting), constructing a theme over a stretch of discourse, predicting content, identifying elements that help to form an overall schema, maintaining and updating the context.

p

Interpreting (possible) speaker intention, including: identifying an 'interpersonal' frame speaker-to-hearer; maintaining changes in prosody and establishing consistencies; noting contradictions, inadequate information, ambiguities; differentiating between fact and opinion. 2. Enacting Skills:

Enacting skills refer to making appropriate response (based on the enabling skills) including: p Transcoding information into written form (such as, notes). p Identifying which points need clarification. p

Integrating information with that from other sources. p Providing appropriate feedback to the speaker. 4.3.2.

Principles of Teaching Listening Now let's move on to studying some of the principles of teaching listening. In this context, it is important for us to note the proposition of Harmer (2007) who mentions two different kinds of listening which can be practised: Extensive Listening: It is a kind of listening which the students often do for pleasure. They can enjoy listening to because they more or less understand them without the intervention of a teacher or course materials to help them. This kind of listening is very important from the motivational point of view, because it increases dramatically when students make their own choices about what they are going to listen to. Intensive Listening: It is the one in which "students listen specifically in order to study the way in which English is spoken. It usually takes place in classrooms or language laboratories, and typically occurs when teachers are present to guide students through any listening difficulties, and point them to areas of interest." Penny Ur (1996), in this regard, suggests that it is important to work on the development of listening comprehension, and, hence, teaching listening can be categorised into two modes. The first one is teaching linguistic nuances like phonemic variations, discrimination of similar sounds in words, recognising word boundaries, recognising morphemes, distinguishing grammatical and lexical items in sentences. The second one is teaching how to listen in a context, how to deduce meaning of an unfamiliar word, how to recognize

theme over discourse. These two modes are important and inseparable for teaching of listening comprehension. We should note that fluent listening results only from wide exposure to the target language. Listening, like other language skills, is acquired only by participation. Hence, teachers should enable the students to listen to native speakers from the beginning. 4.3.3. Selecting Listening Tasks & Materials An important aspect to consider when selecting listening tasks is the one mentioned by Hadfield (2008). He proposes the selection of texts to be made according to students' interests and level of proficiency.' He also proposes to balance the listening text with the tasks, which means that the listening text should be "slightly above what can be easily understood by our learners that can be balanced with a relatively easy task or vice versa." Next important factor is the selection or developing materials. In developing or choosing materials for listening appropriate to students, Morley (1991) suggests three important principles: relevance, transferability/applicability, and task-orientation. The materials must be relevant to the interests and level of the students of the class. The content, structures, and words used in the listening materials should be of such a nature that these are transferable and can be utilised in other classes and outside the classroom. Task-orientation materials, on the other hand, focus on performance based on what is presented as listening material viz. writing notes, drawing a map, summarising information, etc. In respect of classroom teaching principles Nunan and Miller (1995) proposes developing listening skills under seven major headings: Developing cognitive strategies (listening for the main idea, listening for details, and predicting); developing listening with other skills (listening and speaking, listening and pronunciation, and listening and vocabulary); listening to authentic material (such as weather reports, television daytime dramas, news, discussions, advertisements, etc.); using technology (phone mail, recording messages, etc.); listening for academic purposes, and listening for fun. Check Your Progress: 1 What do you understand by enabling and enacting skills in listening?

....

.... How does Harmer categorise the types of

listening? ....

....

NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 57 What are some of the considerations of selecting tasks and materials for developing listening skill?

....

.... 4.4. Teaching Speaking Skill Let us now focus on the teaching of speaking skills. Speaking skill deserves as much meticulous attention e as other language skills are concerned, in both first and second languages since in ESL classrooms, teaching speaking skills plays a significant role for the learner's good oral achievement (Bygate, 1987). Language learning today is regarded less as an 'acquisition of structure' than asthe learning of items of language uses. Thus, the methodologies for language teaching to be adopted by us need to be based on the linguistic insights as to the nature of the language and also on the socio-psychological insights as to the processes involved in its use; this can effectively result in the development of communicative competence of the learners. Therefore, it is obvious that as teachers. we need to have a clear notion of the concept of Communicative Competence. In "

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Theoretical Bases of Communicative Approaches to Second Language Teaching and Testing" (Applied Linguistics, 1980),

Michael Canale and Merrill Swain identified four components of communicative competence. According to them Communicative Competence is the knowledge of not only something that is formally possible in a language, but also the knowledge of whether it is feasible, appropriate, or to be done in a particular speech community. It includes: a) Linguistic competence (also formal competence), that is knowledge of the grammar, vocabulary, phonology, and semantics of a language b) Sociolinguistic competence (also socio-cultural competence), that is, knowledge of the relationship between language and its non-linguistic context, knowing how to use and respond appropriately to different types of speech acts, such as requests, apologies, thanks, and invitations, knowing which address forms should be used withdifferent persons one speaks to and in different situations, and so forth. c) Discourse competence which refers to knowing how to begin and end conversations; it deals with cohesion and coherence in different conversational contexts, in terms of selection of style, and bringing about a unity in the utterances or a written text. d) Strategic competencerefers to compensatory strategies in case of grammatical or socio-linguistic or discourse difficulties, such as the use of reference sources,

58 NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 grammatical and lexical paraphrase, requests for repetition, clarification, slower speech, or problems in addressing strangers when unsure of their social status or in finding the right cohesion devices. It is also concerned with such performance factors as coping with the nuisance of background noise or using gap fillers. 4.4.1 Sub-Skills of Speaking Let's now study the sub-skills of speaking that are required to be developed in order make the learners competent speakers. The sub-skills of speaking include the following: l Fluency: It refers to the features which give speech the qualities of being natural and normal, including native-like use of pausing, rhythm, rate of speaking, and use of interjections and interruptions. l Accuracy in terms of the syntactic and semantic features of the language l Accuracy in respect of segmental and supra-segmental features l Performing the desired language functions viz. requesting, commanding, etc. l Appropriate in respect of socio-cultural and pragmatic context of communication l Turn-taking skills l Speaking at relevant length l Responding and initiating conversations l Ability to apply communication repair and repetition strategy l Ability to use a wide range of words and grammatical features as per requirement l Using the appropriate discourse markers l Providing the appropriate non-verbal support 4.4.2 Principles of Teaching Speaking Let us now come to understanding some of the fundamental principles of teaching speaking skills. Littlewood (1992) proposes two significant principles: a) teaching speaking as a skill in the classroom and b) developing speaking skill through exposure and use. a) Teaching/learning speaking as a skill: Within this framework there are three main aspects: l Teachers need to make learners aware of the key features of the target performance, so that they can create the mental plans which are necessary for producing it themselves. l Teachers need to provide learners with practices in converting these plans into actual behaviour so that in due course the basic concept plans can operate automatically, in response to higher level decisions. These two aspects of teaching/ learning help develop the cognitive and behavioural dimensions necessary for

NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 59 individual components. Littlewood calls these components "part-skills" of the total skill. The particular skills of communication that learners are to practise include: pronouncing new sounds, selecting vocabulary items, producing grammatical structures, expressing specified communicative functions, using devices for managing conversations. l Language learners must be capable of expressing an idea or taking part in a conversation by selecting particular structures or vocabulary, not only as part of a controlled activity in which their focus is on the items in question, but also in response to a particular communicative intention which arises, unpredicted, during interaction. This component is called "Total-Skill" or "Whole-Task" practice. It requires the various skills to be integrated into a systematic network, so that the performer can select whichever ones are needed in order to carry out the plans conceived at higher levels. In the terminology used by W.M Rivers (1983) the first two components listed above make up the "skill-getting" stage of language learning and the third is the "skill-using" stage. Skill-getting comprises cognition and production (or pseudo communication). Skill-using involves interaction (both in the reception and expression of messages). b) Developing speaking skills through exposure and use: The following are the conditions that are necessary for developing oral competency: l The most obvious condition is that there must be some kind of exposure to language input so that the natural learning mechanisms have something to work on. For the sake of our learners in our class rooms and outside the classrooms, we have to expose them to English through clearer pronunciation, slower pace, simpler structures and common vocabulary. l Many experts believe that it is interaction with other people, rather than simple exposure to language, that plays the most crucial role in enabling acquisition to take place. l Natural learning depends on the learner's active engagement with the language and so motivation is an important factor. A child brought up in a multilingual cosmopolitan setting will pick up a language faster than a child brought up in a monolingual setting. Thus, the three basic conditions of natural learning are exposure to the language, interaction with other people and the need to communicate. This account of natural language learning can be described with the help of the following diagram Figure 4.1):

60 NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 Figure 4.1. (Littlewood, 1992) It is clear to us that both the skill-learning model and the natural learning model have provided the foundations for teaching approaches which have been successful in the classroom. As each kind of learning has its useful contribution to make in the classroom it would be desirable to look for ways of integrating them in a broader framework. Thus, Littlewood represents the nature of, and possible relationship between, these two types of learning in the following disam (Figure 4.2): (Skill learning) (Natural learning) Input from instruction Input from communication | | (conscious learning) (subconscious acquisition) | | "Learnt items" "Acquired system" | (may enter, through use) | (increasing degrees of (increasing degrees automaticity) of "correctness") Figure 4.2 (Littlewood, 1992)

Check Your Progress : 2 What do you understand by the term Communicative Competence?

....

.... Discuss the implication of Littlewood's concept of skills-learning and natural-learning approach in developing speaking skills.

....

.... 4.5. Teaching Reading Skill Traditionally, the purpose of learning to read in a language was to appreciate literature in that language. Reading materials and texts were also literary texts. Since then language teaching approaches and methods have moved towards development of skills. The current communicative approach to language teaching has redefined the role of reading and also the type of texts which can be used for developing reading skills. We, the teachers play a significant role in developing reading skills of learners. As teachers we need to help them to read in diverse ways and use sub-skills that will help them to improve and understand what they are reading efficiently, (Hadfield, 2008). 4.5.1 Sub-Skills ofReading In Teaching by Principles (1994) Brown lists fourteen micro-skills that mature readers should employ in interpreting a text: 1. Recognise the distinctive graphemes (letters) and orthographic (written) patterns of English 2. Retain chunks of language of different lengths in the short-term memory 3. Recognise a core of words, and derive meaning from word order patterns 4. Read what is written at an efficient rate of speed according to the purpose 5. Recognise grammatical word classes (nouns, verbs, etc.), systems (tense, agreement, pluralisation, etc.), patterns, rules and elliptical forms 6. Recognise that a particular meaning can be expressed in different grammatical forms 7. Recognise cohesive devices in written discourse and their role in signalling the relationship between and among clauses

62 NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 8. Recognise the rhetorical forms of written discourse and how they are significant for the way a reader interprets these forms 9. Recognise the communicative function of a written text, according to form and purpose 10. Work out context that is not explicit (or obvious) by using background knowledge 11. From events, ideas, etc. described, work out links and connections between events, arrive at an understanding of causes and effects, and recognise features of the text such as main idea, supporting ideas, new information, generalisation and exemplification 12. Distinguish between literal and implied meaning 13. Detect culturally specific information and understand it by placing it in a context of the appropriate cultural schemata 14. Develop and use a wide range of reading strategies such as skimming, scanning, detecting discourse markers, guessing the meanings of words from context, and activating schemata for the interpretation of texts. 4.5.2 Selection ofTexts and Tasks Selection of reading texts is a crucial aspect of developing reading skills. We judiciously choose the texts for the learners considering certain factors. Hadfield (2008) mentions three important aspects to consider when teachers choose texts for classroom use: One of them is that texts should be interesting and motivating. It is obvious that learners will learn better if the reading material engages their interest. Being appropriate to learners' level is another aspect. In general, the intensive reading texts worked on in class should be slightly above learners' level. If everything is easy for them, they will not be practising reading skills. On the other hand, extensive texts should be slightly below learners' level so that they can read fluently, for pleasure. Finally, to have a variety of different text types is also an aspect to consider when selecting reading tasks. Some students need to have a range of different kinds of texts and it is a good idea that teachers include some authentic texts. Texts with cultural references and inputs are also quite beneficial. Thus, editorial of a newspaper, letters to the editor, advertisements, film reviews, etc. can be quite handy materials for the teachers. Another crucial aspect of teaching reading skill is the selection of appropriate reading tasks and exercises. Different kinds of texts offer opportunities for different kinds of exploitation. Traditionally, texts have been exploited by means of questions. However, recent trends have adopted more flexible and creative approach to supplement questions. Thus, apart from literal, inference and evaluation questions, tasks involving non-linguistic

responses e.g. drawing figures, plotting or constructing a map from given description, matching exercises, sequencing, sign-post questions, etc. can be effectively used to develop reading competency. 4.5.3 DevelopingGood Reading Habits As competent language teachers, we need to inculcate good reading habits within our learners. Some of the good reading habits include: a) Reading a lot and reading all types of texts for pleasure and profit and enjoying doing so. b) Reading silently and not mouthing or whispering while reading. c) Avoiding finger reading. d) Trying to read in chunks and not attempting to read every syllable or word in a sentence; reading in small segments to construct meaning. e) Not getting stuck with unfamiliar lexical items; rather, inferring through linguistic and contextual clues. f) Applying various strategies of reading considering the purpose and time duration of reading. g) Trying to predict while reading what follows. h) Applying one's own known knowledge to gain full entrance into textual meanings. Check Your Progress : 3 Which sub-skills of reading would you like to develop among your students and why? .... 'A reader who reads in volumes is a good reader'. Comment. .... 4.6. Teaching of Writing Skills As teachers we experience that students are generally reluctant to writing mainly because writing needs more deliberate involvement than reading, and students are afraid that, what they write may be full of errors in a language in which they may not have attained even partial mastery. They may apprehend facing difficulty in composing their thoughts in English which is usually a second or foreign language to them. We have already

discussed the areas of difficulty in writing in the previous unit. Sometimes they think in their native vernacular and try to translate it into English resulting in errors of direct translational flaws of syntax and grammar as well as sentence structure and meaning. Since standards of writing are more stringent than otherskills, students need to be trained to proceed from writing short passages to longer essays, both creative and analytical. 4.6.1 The Teaching Perspective From a teacher's point of view writing can be viewed and taught as a developmental process as is reading. It can also be viewed from four perspectives (Bowen 1985): l Mechanics: Emphasised in the low beginner stages of language skills acquisition (beginning); l Extended Use of Language: Emphasised in the high beginner and low intermediate stages of language skills acquisition (elementary); l Writing with Purpose: Emphasised in the high intermediate and low advanced stages (intermediate); and l Full Expository Prose: Emphasised in the terminal stage (advanced). Further,Raimes classifies approaches to teaching writing into five types: l controlled to free writing approach l free writing approach l paragraph pattern approach l grammar-syntax-organization approach l communicative and process approaches. In the controlled to free approach, "students are first given sentence exercises, then paragraphs to copy or manipulate grammatically, for instance, changing questions to statements, present to past, or plural to singular. They might also change words or clauses or combine sentences" (Raimes 1983).In the free writing approach, students are asked to "write freely on any topic without worrying about grammar and spelling for five or ten minutes. The teachers do not correct these short pieces of free writing; they simply read them and perhaps comment on the ideas the writer expressed" (Raimes 1983). In the paragraph pattern approach, "students copy paragraphs, analyse the form of model paragraphs, and imitate model passages. They put scrambled sentences into paragraph order, they identify general specific statements, they choose or invent an appropriate topic sentence, they insert or delete sentences" (Raimes 1983). In the communicative approach to writing, students are asked to assume the role of a writer who is writing for an audience to read. Whatever is written by a student is modified in some way by other

students for better communicative effect. In the process approach to writing, in contrast to the product-approach students "move away from a concentration on the written product to an emphasis on the process of writing" (Raimes 1983). They ask 'not only questions about purpose and audience, but also the crucial questions: How do I write this? How do I get started?" (Raimes 1983). Thus, the process-oriented approach to writing emphasises the composing processeswriters make use of in writing (such as planning, draft in gandrevising) andwhichseekstoimprovestudents'writingskills throughdeveloping their use of effective composing processes.This approach is sometimes compared with aproduct- oriented approach or aprose model approach,that is, one which focuses on producing different kinds of written products and which emphasis esimitation of different kinds of model paragraphs or essays. It is to be noted that a proper blend of these approaches to writing will give best results. For example, the controlled to free approach to writing helps us to focus on proper mechanics in the initial stage, whereas communicative approach to writing will be very effective once students have some control over the mechanics and have acquired a good number of words and sentence structures to help match these with their thoughts. 4.6.2. Sub-Skills of Writing Like the other language skills writing constitutes certain sub-skills. No matter whatever approach you adopt as a teacher, you would require to develop the sub-skills of the learners in order to make them competent writers. These sub-skills are as follows: l Mechanics - handwriting, spelling, punctuation l Word selection - vocabulary, idioms, tone l Organization - paragraphs, topic and support, cohesion and unit l Syntax - sentence structure, sentence boundaries, stylistics, etc. l Grammar - rules of verbs, agreement, articles, pronouns, etc. l Content - relevance, clarity, originality, logic, etc. l The writing process - getting ideas, getting started, writing drafts, revising etc. l Purpose - the reason for writing, justification Almost a similar scheme of sub-skills has been excellently reflected in Ann Raimes's (1983) representation of what goes into a good write up (Figure 4.3):

66 NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 PRODUCING A PIECE OF WRITING Figure 4.3 (Raimes, 1983) Classes on writingshould have the potential to help consolidate and improve the students' speaking and reading skills. However, it is important to remember that writing is an important skill which can be taught as an end in itself, although none of the language skills is not essentially different from the other language skills. Focusing on writing as an independent skill helps us identify the specific problems faced by the learners, and identify the specific needs of the learners relating to writing. Mechanics of writing are distinct from the mechanics of other skills such as speaking and reading. While reading involves seeing and pronouncing, writing involves association of sounds with mental composition of thoughts and their orderly presentation, and bodily movements. Check Your Progress : 4 Discuss the various sub-skills of writing would you like to develop as a teacher? ....

....

NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 67 How does Ann Raimes classify the various approaches to writing?

....

.... 4.7. Integrated Approach to Language Teaching Let us now focus on the integrated teaching approach of language skills. In the past decades, one or two of the four traditional skills were given prominence in EFL classes where one or two skills were dominant over the others. Oxford (2001) describes this approach as segregated-skill approach saying that such segregation is reflected in traditional EFL/ESL programmes that offer classes more focused on segregated language skills. Yet, segregated- skill approach was found to be contradictory to the natural way of acquiring a language and there has been a movement to integrated approaches that encourage the teaching of all four skills within the general framework. In real life, language skills are rarely used in isolation; it is a rare situation where the four skills occur in mutual segregation.For instance; a person reads a letter and replies it by writing after reading, and may possibly talk about it after writing it. Two or more language skills are generally integrated in everyday language use. Teaching skills in isolation leads to distinction between classroom and real life language use. Thus, in natural language learning, skill integration is inevitable and in the language classroom skills need to be practised in integration. We should note that there are several benefits of using an integrated-skills approach in language teaching. First, integrating language skills provides more purposeful and meaningful learning at all levels.Besides, it contributes to coherent teaching and to better communication. It also brings variety into the classroom with teachers enriching the classroom instructions by integrating language skills cooperatively. By integrating the skills, students learn to operate the language and they can easily transfer the acquired knowledge to the other areas (Rivers, 1981).Further, segregated skill approach never quite completes a lesson. According to Oxford (2001), one of the most relevant advantages of using the integrated-skill approach is that it "exposes English language learners to authentic language and challenges them to interact naturally in the language." She also comments that exposing students to communicative situations helps them to get an idea of the "richness and complexity of the English language." Oxford (2001) further states that there are two types of integrated-skill instructionwhich are Content-Based Language Instruction and Task-Based Instruction: In Content-Based Instruction, students practice all the language skills in a highly integrated, communicative

68 NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 fashion while learning contents such as science, mathematics, and social studies. Content- based Language Instruction is valuable at all levels of proficiency, but the nature of the content might differ by proficiency level. For beginners, the content often involves basic social and interpersonal communication skills, but past the beginning level, the content can become increasingly academic and complex. In Task-Based Instruction, students' 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 script, enact scenes from a play, or take part in other joint tasks. More structured cooperative learning formats can also be used in task-based instruction. Task-based instruction is relevant to all levels of language proficiency, but the nature of the task varies from one level to the other. Check Your Progress : 5 Do you think that integrated approach to language teaching is effective? If yes, why? .... What are some of the considerations for integrating language skills while teaching? .... You would study further aspects of teaching the four language skills (LSRW)in detail viz. the various approaches, methods and techniques, tasks & activities, materials, lesson plans for developing the skills and their sub-skills in the subsequent modules. 4.8. Summary In this unit we have studied the following: l The various theoretical conceptualisations of teaching listening, speaking, reading & writing skills as conceived by experts l The sub-skills of listening which include '

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Enabling skills' (those employed in order to perceive what the speaker is saying and to interpret

the intended meaning)

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and 'Enacting skills' (those employed to respond appropriately to the message).

l Teaching listening should primarily focus on teaching listening as comprehension l A teacher should focus on two types of listening activity: Extensive & Intensive listening activity
NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 69 l The Communicative Competence Model proposed by Canale& Swain l The various sub-skills of speaking which include Fluency, Accuracy, etc. l The principles of teaching speaking skill to be considered by a teacher while conducting a speaking class l The various sub-skills of reading l A good reader should read in chunks and avoid finger and loud reading; should apply his/her own background knowledge to make meaning of the text l The texts to be chosen by the teacher for reading input should be motivating and interesting and appropriate to the level of the students l The model proposed by Ann Raimes (1983) in respect of the components and processes involved in producing a good writing · In order to provide more purposeful and meaningful learning environment, we should integrate the language skills -reading, speaking, listening and writing- while teaching and practicing the language. 4.9. Review Questions 1. What are the differences between enabling and enacting listening sub-skills? 2. What are the criteria for choosing listening materials? 3. Attempt a comparative study of the teaching of speaking as a skill and the teaching of oral language? 4. How does controlled to free approach to writing assist to focus on the proper mechanics for teaching writing skills? 5. What are the benefits of using integrated-skill approach in language teaching? 6. From the viewpoint of teaching,writingshould be taught as a developmental process as Readingis done. Do you agree? Write an analysis on the statement. 7. Write a brief review on the Sub-Skills of Writing. 8.A proper blend of these approaches to developing writing skills will yield the best results. Discuss these approaches. 9. Teaching skills in isolation leads to distinction between classroom and real life language use. Review the given statement. 10. In the shift fromprocess approach to writing to the product-approachwhat are transitional steps? What are the teaching-learning outcomes of this transition?
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72 NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 Module - 2 p Listening Skills and Speaking Skills Unit : 5 p Listening Skills 1 Structure 5.1 Introduction 5.2 Objectives 5.3 Listening types and styles 5.4 Stages of the Listening Process 5.5 Sub skills of listening 5.6 Barriers to effective listening 5.7 Teaching Listening Skills 5.8 Summary 5.9 Review Questions 5.1 Introduction Listening skill shave an important role in effective communication. It is the ability to accurately receive and interpret messages in the communication process. Without effective listening, messages are not heard properly and easily misunderstood. As a result, communication breaks down. Listening skill takes much of our time. Adults spend 45% of their engaged time for listening, 30% for speaking, 16% for reading and 9% for writing. Listening is thus used more than speaking, reading and writing. 5.2 The objectives of this unit are: a) Get an introduction to the types and styles of listening b) Understand theoretical aspect of listening skills c) Understand the sub skills of listening d) Learn how listening skills can be taught in a classroom Hearing is accidental and automatic response to contextual sound(s). For example, we are surrounded by sounds of vehicles, construction workers. We hear those sounds and ignore them. Hearing is accidental, involuntary and effortless. Listening is purposeful and focused. It is concentrated attention with the purpose of understanding the meanings

expressed by the speaker. It requires effort and motivation. Thus, listening is focused, voluntary and intentional. For many years, listening skills was not regarded as a skill which needsto be taught in a classroom. And it was assumed that listening skills could be acquired through exposure. The emphasis was on the productive skills. The relationship between the receptive and the productive skills was not well understood. Today the role of listening comprehension is determined by the development of theories of the nature of language comprehension and carefully designed listening courses in language programs. Therefore listening has to be acquired and deserves greater attention in ESL programs. 5.3 Listening types and styles Listening is of three types in interpersonal communication. The types are: informational, critical and empathetic.Informational listening is listening to learn. We seek certain information which we appreciate, especially those which meet our needs and goals. Critical listening is listening to evaluate and analyse. We make judgements about what the other person is saying. We assess the truth of the message; judge against our values, asses them as good or bad, worthy or unworthy. Therapeutic or empathetic listening is listening to understand feeling and emotion. In therapeutic listening, the listener has a purpose, of empathizing with the speaker and helps the speaker understand, change or develop in some way. Task 1: Justify T/F from the following statements: 1. Critical listening can also be called evaluative, judgmental or interpretive listening. 2. Informational listening is also known as content listening and appreciative listening. 3. Biased listening is a kind of critical listening. Your Answer:

74 NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 Each type of listening has a different goal. The goals of a listener that define the types of listening are: a) Appreciative:the appreciative goal of listening is seeking information which the listener can appreciate and meet the needs of the listener. Listening to music, poetry or stirring words in speech have appreciative goals. b) Empathic: The empathic goalof listening is to show concern to identify with the speaker and understand the situation in discussion. The focus is on the speaker and on the speaker's perspective. Along with the grasp of the literal meaning of the words, the goal is to try to get the feelings that the speaker is expressing. For example, if one of your batch mates is having conflict with another batch mate, you can acknowledge one person's stress while also considering that the other person has his/her own challenges and is likely to be offensive. c) Comprehensive: The comprehensive goal of listening is to actively participate in the communication process. The focus is on the message. Taking notes of the speaker's main points, identifying the structure of speech and the support evidences are listener activities for this goal.Watching news, listening to a lecture, or getting directions for reaching a destination are examples of comprehensive goal. d) Critical: the critical goal of listening is to evaluate or scrutinize what is being said. The focus is first on the speaker and then on the evaluation of the speaker's message. The listener questions 'what is the speaker trying to say?'. For example, if there is a debate, and the listener need to decide who spoke well, the listener uses critical listening goal. A listening style is a set of attitudes and beliefs about listening. It the manner in which an individual attends to the message of another person. There are four different styles of listening. These listening styles are people-oriented, action-oriented, content-oriented and time-oriented. The people-oriented listener can tune into the speakers emotions, feelings and moods. These listeners look out for common interests and build relation with the speaker.They are more attentive to the speaker than to the message. Action- oriented listeners appreciate clear, easy to follow, straightforward and error free messages. They are primarily interested in what the physical actions a speaker wants the listeners to engage in. Content-oriented listeners favor technical information. They are interested in the meaning and credibility of the speaker's message. These listeners form judgements after listening to all the details.Time-oriented listening is the opposite of content-oriented

listening. These listeners are efficient with use of time. They are not concerned with the details and want to get to the point quickly. They pay attention to messages that are short, concise and of limited commitments. Task 2: Identify the learning style from the following (A-H): People oriented A. I ask questions to help speakers get to the point more quickly. B. I am frustrated when others don't present their ideas in orderly, efficient way. Action oriented C. When listening to others, I quickly notice if they are pleased or disappointed. D. I prefer to hear facts and evidence so I can personally evaluate them. E. I become involved when listening to the problems of others. Content Oriented F. When in a hurry, I let others know that I have a limited amount of time to listen. G. I interrupt others when I feel time pressure. Time Oriented H. I like the challenge of listening to complex information. Your Answer:

5.4 Stages of the Listening Process The listening process is an interactive process, not a passive skill. It also involves two kinds of cognitive processes. Top-down and Bottom-up.These two processes can occur simultaneously. The top-down processing suggests that the listener constructs the original meaning of the received sounds. It is a reconstruction process where the listener uses prior knowledge of the context and situation to decipher the meaning of the spoken discourse. The bottom-up is a listening process of decoding sounds that the listener hears in a linear fashion. Beginning from phonemes, the decoding is liked to words, phrases, chunks of utterances and finally to texts. Messages can be stored as one sound, one word, one phrase and one utterance. The listening process includes four stages. These are: Receiving, Understanding, Evaluating and Responding. In the Receiving stage, the listener hears a message that is been sent by a speaker. Receiving is the intentional focus on hearing the speaker's message. The primary tool of the receiving stage is 'the ear'. In the Understanding stage, the learner attempts to learn the meaning of the spoken discourse (verbal and non-verbal language) the speaker is trying to communicate.Learning the meaning of the message is not always easy. This is the stage of shared meanings between the speaker and the listeners. In this stage the listener determines the context and the meanings of the words. Before getting the meaning of the message it is difficult to focus on what the speaker is saying. For example, if you walk in a lecture class halfway through, you may get the words and sentences that are in the lecture, but you may not understand immediately, what the speaker is talking about – the main point, a side note or a digression into details. In the Evaluating stage, the listener retains the key points of the speaker's message using memory or via note taking. The message collected from the speaker is evaluated quantitatively and qualitatively. Evaluating helps in forming an opinion of what is heard by a listener and develop a response. In the Responding stage the listener responds with brief verbal affirmations like 'I see', 'I know', 'sure ',' Thank you' or 'I understand' etc. as well as with non-verbal reactions. Non verbal reactions are gestures (nodding, making eye contact, tapping a pen, grimacing) and body languages. The speaker looks for responses from the listener to determine if the message delivered has been understood. When the listener responds verbally, the speaker and listener roles are reversed. Responding adds actions to listening process.

5.5 Sub skills of Listening Listening for general understanding–This sub skill of listening train learners to grasp the main points or general information in an audio. Learners when stuck up on a detail, an unknown word or phrase miss outthe bigger picture. The activities on Listening for general information usually consist of a) social dialogues between two people (giving personal details for: application form, for booking a ticket), b) a monologue on a social subject, c) a discussion between two or four people and d) a formal lecture. The learner works on a set of tasks framed on these audio. Listening for specific information – specific or factual information consists of a name, a place, an object, a profession, a number or a quantity. Before listening and while listening, the learner needs to have an idea of the listening discourse. Listening to a song / story and fill in gaps are some of the activities in listening for specific information. Predictive listening- prediction is an activity, in which the learners predict what they are going to hear before listening to a text. They predict what vocabulary they might hear and what kind of emotions the speaker might have felt. Then they listen to the discourse to confirm the predictions. For example, an activity, in which the learners listen to descriptionsof an unnamed and well known people and predicts who is being talked about. Listening for pleasure- The purpose of this sub skill is listening for comfort, enjoyment, or satisfaction. Appreciative listening is listening for pleasure. Examples of this sub skill are listening to music or listening to a comedy routine. An activity of listening for pleasure is listening to two versions of a story to identify differences. Inferential listening-the sub skills of listening when the listeners have to reach a conclusion after listening to an information. The purpose is to infer the meaning of the message. This meaning is inferred using clues and prior knowledge about the situation to work out the meaning of what one hears. Let us look at an example. Suppose you are a tourist in your country whose regional language you do not speak. In a restaurant you hand over your card to pay the bill, but the server seems to say something apologetically. Even though you do not understand the language, you can conclude that the restaurant doesn't take credit cards and you need to pay cash. This is inferring meaning, using clues and prior knowledge about a situation to work on the meaning of what is heard. An activity of inferential listening is listening to discourses on different people talking without informing the topic and then inferring on the topics from the listening discourse.

Intensive listening- classroom listening activity is intensive listening. The listeners focus on a certain detail, where the motivation is having to answer a certain question on a listening exercise or text. A common activity on intensive listening is listening to instructions and signpost a map. The advantage of intensive listening activities is that the learner can n it at individual pace and go back and forth as needed to complete the task. The purpose of intensive listening is to prepare the learners for reading other texts on their own, using bottom up processing. These activities require patience and time. The intensive listening comprehension is the building block in developing overall listening skills. Task 3: Follow the map and label all the buildings. Find the sub skills of listening involved in the activity. 1. The Mall is next to the Cinema Hall. 2. The Police Station is on the corner of two main roads. 3. The bank is next to the Girls' School. 4. The telecom office is on a wide street. 5. The grocery is at the corner, on the same street from the Auto stand.

6. The ATM is opposite to the Post office. 7. The library is a long walk from the pond. Your Answer:

5.6. Barriers to Effective Listening

Let us discuss the barriers of listening. In order to improve the process of active listening, this would be effective. A listening barrier is created if one keeps thinking on how to respond within the talk. This activity distracts us from fully concentrating on the whole message. This barrier is getting ready to speak or thinking about counter argument. The second barrier is daydreaming. The listener's mind is occupied with some other thoughts, other than what the speaker is saying. The third barrier is connecting to the speech and reflecting on the listener's previous experiences. All the attention of the listener shifts on this recap situations. The fourth barrier to effective listening is not asking questions. Asking questions allows the listener to fill in the gaps in the mental construction of the listener developed during the message. Lapse of memory is the fifth barrier. This reduces information retention. Memory lets the speaker to identify the listening context of you have heard before.

5.7 Teaching Listening Skills

Active listening skills can develop when both, the teacher and the learner(s) maintain eye contact, listen for total meaning, and ask questions. A part of listening skill is to understand whether the learner could comprehend a certain topic or concept. It's important to ask for clarifications. Many of our learners are unsure and shy to ask questions. The teachers can encourage learners to get involved and ask questions if they do not understand

a part of the lesson. Maintaining eye contact is important to keep away wandering minds during a lesson. The learner's eyes should be focused on the instructor, maintaining eye contact where ever possible. Listening for meaning is a form of active listening. Attentive and active listeners focus on the words and on word intentions in an interpersonal communication. A listening discourse has a central meaning and other details meant to clarify meaning. At first, the learner can develop on discerning the central meaning and then to the anecdotes, explanations and other details of clarification. Link past and current learning and learning not to get distracted are two other techniques of teaching listening. Learners learn best when they can link what they have learnt in the past with what they are currently learning. As learners are listening to a new material, they can be asked to situate what they are learning in the context of what they've previously learnt from their native language. If the teacher/instructor suspects that there are gaps in their learner's knowledge, then, the listening can be preceded by schema-building activities to prepare learners for the listening task. Learning not to get distracted is important for staying focused and attentive. For this, the distracting devices like mobile phones or tablets are put away. Learners also put aside excessive materials from the courses that may drift attention from the current listening activity. Elimination of distraction helps the learner to stay focused on listening tasks. Adjust your note taking style to the lecture. Effective listeners adapt their note taking to the teaching. Learners need to be conscious on developing strong note taking skills. Writing down every word of the speaker and concentrating on fascinating tidbits of information are two weakness of note taking. Efficient note takers develop good habits, which strengthen listening skills. These are learning to concentrate on the speaker's main ideas and supporting materials and using key-word outlines to summarize the speaker's message.

5.8 Summary

In this unit, we got introduced to how to develop Listening Skills, its theoretical concepts. The sections for developing listening skills include types and styles of listening and stages in the listening process. Teaching listening sub-skills require selection of suitable materials and activities. We will learn on them in the next unit.

5.9 Review Questions

1. State the differences between listening and hearing. 2. How are listening skills taught? Give an illustration describing a specific classroom context. 3. Why do listening styles types have different goals? Discuss with illustrations. 4. What are the barriers of listening according to your learning experience? What skills did you develop to overcome them? 5. Discuss the stages of the listening in top-down and bottom-up processing. 6. Can you relate the sub-skills of listening to the different listening types? Why or Why not? 7. Discuss activities for teaching predictive and inferential listening. 8. "Listening styles different from listening types." Do you think so? Justify your answer. 9. How is intensive listening taught? Discuss examples from real life situations. 10. Discuss the response stages in different styles of listening.

82 NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 Unit - 6 p Listening Skills – 2 Structure 6.1. Introduction 6.2. Objectives 6.3 Activities on active Listening-1 6.3. Activities in active Listening -2 6.4. Lesson Plan on Listening Skills 6.5. Activities on Lesson Plan 6.6. Review Questions 6.7 References 6.1 Introduction In Unit 5(Listening skills-1), we have discussed different types and styles of listening. This unit focuses on the activities. We as teachers expect our learners to listen attentively to lectures and assignments. To get the learner's attention it is necessary to teach listening skills. Effective listeners let the speaker(s) know that they have been heard and encourage them to share their thoughts and feelings. The non-verbal cues of the listener are: maintaining eye contact, nodding and smiling or agreeing by saying 'yes'.In the previous unit we have discussed the components of active listening. These are: concentration, understanding, responding, and remembering what to say. Research says that most of us are poor and inefficient listeners and we remember less than 50% of what we hear. 6.2 Objectives The objective of the unit is to introduce you to l Activities on effective listening l · Activities on listening and speaking skills l Lesson Plan on Listening Skills The cognitive characteristics of active listening are inquiring, paraphrasing and summarizing. There are many benefits to active listening and there are flaws as well. Active listening strengthens patience, makes one approachable (minimizes misunderstandings, errors, mistakes, communication gap and builds strong a conversation), increases competence and knowledge (diffuses conflict and helps to understand and comprehend the message / discussion better) andhelps to detect and solve problems.

NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 83 Active listening doesn't include: pretend to pay attention, being stuck in your thoughts, ignoring what is not clear and asking irrelevant details. A problem of active listening is disruption. The speaker faces the challenge of addressing the point raised by the listener. It makes the speaker waste a lot of time and delivers a low-quality speech which may not serve the intended purpose. Task 1: List 5 benefits of active listening in your Workplace. Your answer: 6.3 Activities on Active Listening-1 Task 2: Point out the 'Signs of active listening'(Smile, eye contact, posture, and distraction) from the following sketches: Sketch 1:

84 NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 Your answer: In sketch 1, the man on the left has a gesture that indicates superiority and arrogance towards the man sitting opposite. He attempts to block the person in front of him, from sight. His head is tiled back to 'look down his nose' at him. He is defensive as his knees are held tightly together and he is holding a wine glass with both hands to form a barrier. The man in the middle is excluded from the conversation of the other two men. He seems aloof with his thumbs-in-waistcoat gesture. He is leaning back and sitting with his legs apart. His head is in neutral position. The man on the right has heard enough and is ready to leave. His foot and body are pointed towards nearest exit. He is gesturing disapproval, the head is slightly down, and eyebrows and corners of his mouth are also turned down. Task 3: Discuss the signs of active listening from sketch 2.

NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 85 Your answer: The man on the left is using gestures to convey openness and honesty, open palms, head up, foot forward, coat unbuttoned, arms and legs apart, smiling and leaning forward. However, his message is not getting across. The man and the women he is talking with are not convinced by his words. The woman is in defensive gesture, sitting back with legs crossed, partial arm-barrier and a clenched fist. She is using critical evaluation gesture, hand to face and her head is down. The man is using raised steeple gesture showing that he is confident. Thus the signs of active listening are discussed from facial and body gestures. These gestures speak on our activities and feedbacks during a coversation. There are two other sketches, sketch 3 and sketch 4, which are on tense atmosphere and mirrored gestures. Discuss these pictures in the following tasks. Task 4:Discuss the signs of active listening from sketch 3.

86 NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 Your answer: The three men in the picture are in a tense atmosphere. All of them are sitting back keeping maximum distance from each other. The man in the right has negative gestures and is causing problem for the other two men. During his conversation, he's using deceit gesture, the nose touch; and defensive gesture with partial arm barrier. The right arm has crossed the body. He is not concerned about the other two men opinion as he has leg-over-chair gesture and his body is pointed away from them. The man on the left disapproves of what the man in the left is saying. He is using disapproval gestures. His left hand is in lint-picking gesture. He is defensive and uninterested, legs are crossed and pointed away.The man in the middle would like to say something but he is holding back his opinions. He is gripping the arms of his chair and has locked ankles, showing self-restraint. He is pointing his body to the man on the right and gesturing non-verbal challenge to him. Task 5: Discuss active listening from gestures in sketch 4.

NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 87 Your Answer: In sketch 4, the man on the left and the women on the right have mirrored each other's gesture. They are interested in each other. This is gesture with their heads supported on their wrists and legs crossed, but lookingat each other in a friendly manner. The man in the middle is interested in what the other man has to say, but is not interested in his facial and body gestures. He has a tight lipped smile, head and eyebrows are down, showing disapproval and anger. His arms and legs are tightly crossed, showing his negative attitude. He is giving sideways glance to the other man. Discuss the roles of the people. In your opinion who they are and what is the conversation probably on? Similarly, discuss the roles of people in Sketches 1, 2 and 3. 6.4Activities on listening comprehension- 2 Listen to the song "She's Leaving Home" twice. She's Leaving Home – The Beatles Wednesday morning at five o'clock As the day begins Silently closing her bedroom door Leaving a note that she hoped would say more She goes downstairs to the kitchen Clutching her handkerchief

Quietly turning the backdoor key Stepping outside, she is free Task 6 Before listening to the rest of the song answer the following: 1. What is the girl doing? 2. Why is she leaving? She (we gave her most of our lives) Is leaving(sacrificed most of our lives) Home (we gave her everything money could buy) She's leaving home, after living alone, for so many years (bye bye) Father snores as his wife gets into her dressing gown Picks up the letter that's lying there Standing alone at the top of the stairs She breaks down and cries to her husband "Daddy, our baby's gone. "Why would she treat us so thoughtlessly? How could she do this to me? She (we never thought of ourselves) Is leaving (never a thought for ourselves) Home (we struggled hard, all our lives to get by) She's leaving home after living alone, for so many years (bye bye) Friday morning at nine o'clock She is far away Waiting to keep the appointment she made Meeting a man from the motor trade She (what did we do that was wrong) Is having (we didn't know it was wrong) Fun (fun is the one thing that money can't buy)

Something inside that was always denied, for so many years (bye bye) She's leaving home, Bye Bye Task 7: Answer the questions after 1 st listening: 3. Are her parents happy about it? 4. Is she happy about it? Your answer: Task 8: Answer the questions after 2 nd listening: 5. When does she leave home? 6. How does she tell her parents that she has left? 7. Were her parents good to her? 8. What is her mother doing in the song? 9. In your opinion what did the letter say? 10. Can you think of a title for the song? 11. What did her parents not provide? Your answer: Task 8: Listen and Fill in the gaps with correct form of the verbs (present simple or continuous). Wednesday morning at five o'clock As the day _____ Silently closing her bedroom door Leaving a note that she hoped would say more She _____ downstairs to the kitchen

Clutching her handkerchief Quietly turning the backdoor key Stepping outside, she is free Father _____ as his wife _____ into her dressing gown Picks up the letter that's _____there Standing alone at the top of the stairs She _____ down and _____to her husband "Daddy, our baby's gone. "Why would she treat us so thoughtlessly? How could she do this to me? Friday morning at nine o'clock She is _____ away Waiting to keep the appointment she made Meeting a man from the motor trade She (what did we do that was wrong) Is _____(we didn't know it was wrong) Fun (fun is the one thing that money can't buy) Something inside that was always denied, for so many years (bye bye) Your answer: 6.5 Lesson Plan on Listening Skills Let us now look at how we can teach this poem song to a class of advanced learners with a lesson plan. A lesson plan is developed by the teacher to guide class learning. The details of a lesson plan vary depending on the preference of the teacher, topic being covered and the needs of the learners. A lesson plan can have three stages. Warm up, While-listening and Follow up (Independent practise). The following format is a lesson plan on teaching listening skills on the song 'She's leaving home'. Lesson audio: https://www.youtube.com/ Materials 1. Audio file and the lyrics 2. Power point on 'Active Listening' 3. Work sheets 1-3. Lesson Objectives 1. Learners will refer to the source information of different actions. 2. Learners will identify the use of present simple and continuous in the narration. Warm up and objective Discussion 1. Start the warm up activity with the ppt. 2. Inform the learners that they are going to listen to a song and introduce theme of the song and the singers. Instruct and Model 1. Use the audio file and play the song twice. After first listening, the learners work on Worksheet 1 (questions 1-3). 2. Separate the learners into groups of two or three. After second listening, they will work on Worksheet 2 (questions 4-10). Activity: Speaking. 3. Students will take turns to fill in the blanks on worksheet 3. 4. Identify and circle the words you hear in the song: clutching dressing gown struggled thoughtlessly handkerchief Appointment 5. Have the students present the actions in the song in a venn diagram or continuum or spider design, in the sequence in which they occur and share it to the class. Guided Practise 1. Have the learners in pairs identify the use of present simple and continuous from 'intention or plan' and 'something is likely to happen' after reading the lyrics. 2. Make them act out the poem from the mother and the daughter's perspectives.

92 NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 Independent Practise 1. Give the power point as an additional study. 2. Learners will create their own sentences with the words identified in activity 4 and bring it to the class. 3. Quiz learners orally as they present their sentences. Assessment 1. Correct and grade the homework sheet. 6.6. Activities on Lesson Plan Design two lesson plansfor high school learners on the following listening discourses: A. 'I have taken such an inordinately long time over pouring out what was agitating my soul, to those whom I had just now the privilege of serving. I have been called their leader or, in the military language, their commander. But I do not look at my position in that light. I have no weapon but love to wield my authority over anyone. I do not sport a stick which you can break into bits without the slightest exertion. It is simply my staff with the help of which I walk. Such a cripple is not elated, when he has been called upon to bear the greatest burden. You can share that burden only when I appear before you not as your commander but as a humble servant. And he who serves best is the chief among equals. I want to declare to the world. Although I may forfeit the regard of many friends in the West and I must bow my head low, but even for their friendship or love I mustnot suppress the voice of conscience - promoting my inner basic nature today. There is something within me impelling me to cry out my agony. I have known humanity. I have studied something of psychology. Such a man knows exactly what it is. I do not mind how you describe it. That voice within tells me, 'You have to stand against the whole world although you may have to stand alone. You have to stare in the face of the whole world although the world may look at you with bloodshot eyes. Do not fear. Trust the little voice residing within your heart. It says: "Forsake friends, wife and all; but testify to that for which you have lived and for which you have to die. I want to live my full span of life. And for me I put my span of life at 120 years. By that time India will be free, the world will be free." '

NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 93 - M.K. Gandhi, address at Bombay, 1942. B. "As stated by author Sharon Anthony Bower, "the basic difference between being assertive and being aggressive is how our words and behaviour affect the rights and well-being of others." An assertive person is respected and even admired, but an aggressive person does not gain anyone's respect and is avoided if possible. Although there may seem to be a fine line between being assertive and being aggressive, there really is not. Unfortunately, there seems to be the misconception that if you are more forceful than you used to be, you might have become aggressive. There is a big difference between being assertive and being aggressive. For instance, assertive people can state their opinion and remain respectful of others. Aggressive people ignore, and sometimes attack other people's opinions in an effort to make their opinions to be seem to be the correct one. A comparison of assertive behaviour versus aggressive behaviour may serve as a good guideline of how to conduct yourself in different circumstances so that you project the appropriate behaviour you want to be perceived by others." Assertive Behaviour Aggressive Behaviour Speaks openly Interrupts and talks over other people Speaks at an adequate tone of voice Speaks louder than others Makes eye contact, and maintains it Stares at the other person Stands with a relaxed but assertive posture Stands very rigid during conversations Participates in group conversations Takes control of conversation Values other people as well as him/ herself Values him or herself more than other people Speaks to the point Only takes him or herself into consideration Tries to be fair and not hurt anyone Hurts people to avoid being hurt him or herself Sets and reaches goals while being fair to Hurts others in the process of reaching others goals

94 NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 - Maritza Manresa –How to be Assertive Without Being Perceived As Aggressive Task 9 What is the topic of discussion and where is it taking place for the following conversations? Conversation I A: Why are you on a bench? How are you feeling these days? B: I don't know. I am bored and restless I guess. A: Why? B: I have so much time and nothing to do. A: Why don't you go out and have some fun? B: I would, but I have to save some money, so I decided to be at home. A: That sucks. B: After a while, I start to feel anxious. A: Try to relax and read a good book. That is a good way to kill time. B: That's true. How about you? How are you doing these days? A: My Kid has just finished kindergarten and I am proud of him. B: That's great to hear. He must be big now. A: Yes, he has grown a lot in the last year. Your Answer: Conversation II A: How was your Saturday? B: I did pretty good. I shot a 13. A: Not bad. I thought you were going to break single. B: I had a chance. I shot a 4 on the front nine, but didn't do well on the back nine. A: What happened? B: My drive was totally off. But I hit two balls OB. That killed my score. A: If it wasn't for the penalty strokes, you could easily have broken a single. B: But overall, I shot well, so I am cheering for myself. How about you? A: I hit a great range, but not on a golf course. Your answer:

6.7 Review Questions 1. Discuss the benefits of active listening. 2. Why are lesson plans needed in teaching a language class? 3. Why do you need to modify a lesson plan format? What changes do you want to incorporate for your own learners? 4. What are the stages in your lesson plan in the activity in 6.5 A and B? 5. How will you modify your lesson plan in 6.5 B, if the learners are graduates? 6. How can you modify the lesson plan activities for the song "She is leaving home" if your learners are in standard VII? 7. Suggest two activities at the warm up stage for the modified lesson plan of the song, "She is leaving home". 8. Compare the song "She is leaving home" with songs or events of the same theme. 9. Design two independent activities for lesson plan of 6.6 B. 10. Suggest a plan for assessment for 6.6 A. 6.8 References: Manresa, Martiza. Learning to say NO when you usually say YES. New Delhi: Jaico Publishing House. Pease, A. 1981.Body Language.Sheldon Press.140-146. Cambridge University Press 2001. Whiticker, Alan. J. Speeches that changed the world. New Delhi: Jaico Publishing House. Song by Beetles https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=VaBPY78D88g.

96 NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 Unit - 7 p Speaking Skills 1 Structure 7.1 Introduction 7.2 Objectives 7.3 Airstream Mechanisms 7.4 From Speech sounds to Human Speech 7.5 Social Aspects of Speech 7.6 Summary 7.7 Review Questions 7.8 References 7.1 Introduction: In units 5 and 6 of this module, you have looked at the listening skills and their usefulness. You have also looked at some exercises to develop listening skills. In the next two units (7 and 8) we shall look at the Speaking skills and some exercises to strengthen these skills. Speaking Skills: What do we mean by speaking skills? All of us obviously know how to speak. We learnt it as children and we have been speaking since then. Do we need to pay special attention to this skill? Is it essential to spend time either teaching or learning this skill? These are some of the common questions that anyone would like to ask. This unit hopefully attempts to answer these questions. Let us begin with a simple question. Why do we ask all these questions? The answer is quite obvious. We always do not pay much attention to something that is common and with which we have a proximal affinity. Speaking is one such skill, and hence we often take it for granted. We think it is easy to speak, and do not recognize the niceties to observe and the refinement that is required while speaking. Besides this, we also need to speak appropriately in different contexts with different people. This forms the crux of these two units. Before we begin to discuss the speaking skills further, let us know what you know about speaking skills. Task 1: Suppose you are asked to define speaking skills how would you define it? Write your answer below: Your response: Speaking can be defined as follows:

NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 97 a. It is a person's ability to convey a message orally. b. It is a person's ability to convince the listener. c. It is a person's ability to influence the listener. Suppose we put these three factors together, we may arrive at a definition which may read as follows: 'Speaking is an ability to convey a message, so as to affect the audience as the speaker intends'. (Modified from Martin Parrott's definition of writing.) When you look at this definition, you may start reflecting on whether you speak well or whether you have some deficiencies because of which you may not be able to achieve either of the points two and three or both. The two units on speaking focus on these aspects of speaking skills. 7.2

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Objectives: After going through this unit, the learners will be able to: a. Understand the

mechanism of producing speech. b. Understand the sub-skills of speaking. c. Appreciate the etiquette practiced while speaking. d. Participate in a discussion, debate in a proper manner. How is speech produced? This is the first question we will answer, but briefly. We have discussed this in detail in your Phonetics course. You have looked at the forty four speech sounds in English, and how they are produced with the help of a diagram representing speech organs. We are sure you remember this. In this unit we will not go into all these details, but briefly let you know about a mechanism called air-stream mechanism and its role in speech production. We know how important it is to breathe. If we have difficulties in breathing, we feel uncomfortable, and when we cannot breathe, we meet our death. What has this to do with speaking? Speaking is defined as 'modified breath'. While speaking, we inhale and exhale air (through the mouth) exactly like we do this through our nostrils while breathing normally. When we exhale air through the mouth, and while doing so, if we can manipulate the position of our tongue, the lower jaw, the soft palate, we produce speech. It for this reason, speech is also called modified breathe. Let us look at this activity in some detail. 7.3 Airstream Mechanisms The main organ that takes in air and pumps it out is the lung. The air-stream that we use to speak is therefore called the 'pulmonary air-stream mechanism'. Speech sounds can

be produced while breathing air out or breathing the air in. The sounds produced while breathing the air out are called eggressive sounds; the sounds produced while breathing the air in are called ingressive sounds. English has no ingressive sounds. (Some African languages have ingressive sounds e.g. Nkrumah, former President of Ghana). For our purposes we shall look at only the eggressive sounds as produced while speaking English. When the diaphragm exerts pressure on the lungs, the pulmonary air, escapes from the lungs, passes through the esophagus and reaches the larynx or the voice box.Depending on the position of the glottis, the sound produced will either be voiced or voiceless. (If the glottis, (a pair of thin fleshy muscles) is held loosely together, they vibrate and produce a voiced sound. If they are stretched, and held apart from each other, the air escapes freely, and the sound produced is voiceless.) This air stream further reaches the oral cavity for the soft palate is raised blocking the nasal passage. The air escapes from the mouth to the outside through a variety of obstacles — the position of the tongue can cause obstruction to the air stream at various points, similarly the closure of lips either partially or completely can also cause obstructions. Besides these, the widening of the lips or the rounding of them can also alter the quality of speech produced. Based on the voice quality, and the types of obstruction, the speech sounds produced are classified using the following criterion:Air-stream mechanism, the place of articulation, and manner of articulation. To cite an example let us label and describe one sound. /p/ - This is the first sound that is described in your phonetics course. We call it a voiceless, bilabial, plosive. How does this fit into the criterion we have mentioned just now. /p/ Voiceless — this describes the quality of air-stream. It has passed through the voice box with the glottis stretched and held tightly apart. The pair of glottis does not vibrate and hence the speech sound produced by such air-stream is voiceless. /p/ bilabial — the two lips are the articulators. The lower lip (which is mobile) meets the upper lip and seals the oral passage. This closure does not allow the air to pass out. The air inside the oral cavity builds a pressure. /p/ plosive — this sound is produced as an explosion. The explosion happens with the lips parting suddenly, and the compressed air in the oral cavity being released suddenly causing an explosion. With these three qualities attributed to the sound /p/ we call it a voiceless, bilabial, plosive.

English language has forty four speech sounds, and each sound has a distinct description. Based on such description we have the following classes of sounds: Plosives — six in number Fricatives — nine in number Affricates — two in number these add up to twenty four sounds. Rolls/laterals — two in number Semi-vowels — two in number Nasals — three in number These twenty four sounds constitute the consonants. There are other twenty sounds which are called the vowels. What is the difference between consonants and vowels? In CC3,while describing the pulmonary air-stream mechanism, we will describe how the air while passing through the mouth can meet with several obstacles. These obstacles cause the production of consonants. When the air stream passing out of the lungs gets voiced, but passes out of the mouth freely, and continuously, the sound produced will be a vowel. Try producing sounds like /i/ or /a/ or /e/. You can continue to say this for a long time till you can. There are twenty vowel sounds in English. These are divided into two types, the pure vowels (twelve in number) and eight combined vowels (diphthongs). You have studied these sounds in details in your phonetics course. Task 2: To recap, let us answer a couple of questions: How do the human beings produce speech? Does English have any speech sounds produced while breathing the air in? Do you think classifying speech sounds is systematic? Your response: Humans produce speech using pulmonary air-stream mechanism. All English speech sounds are eggressive and the classification of the speech sounds is very systematic. So far we looked at the individual sounds. Individual sounds do not make speech. They need to combine to form syllables, words, phrases and sentences. These syllables, words, etc. need to be uttered properly to convey meaning to the listener. Only then, do the speech sounds acquire some significance and become part of human speech. We shall look at this in the next section. }

7.4 From Speech Sounds to Human Speech

When we combine a few of the speech sounds (called phonemes) we get a syllable. We cannot randomly combine any phoneme with any other phoneme, we need to follow certain possible combinations permitted by the phonology of the language. Every syllable has one vowel and may or may not have any consonant sounds. Syllables combine to form words. Certain words have just one syllable, and there are quite a few words with two, three or more syllables in them. When a word has more than one syllable in it, only one syllable takes the stress. Good speech requires us to know which syllable in a word receives the stress. This is learnt by following rules as given in a book of phonology, or by looking up a dictionary or by listening to people who speak English properly. Dictionary is a good source for learning pronunciation, and you should learn this quickly. Another aspect of good speech is learning how to utter a sentence. While uttering a sentence, we need to pay attention to three things – the word that takes the stress, the tone of the utterance and the rhythm of the utterance. There are simple ways of knowing this. The most important word in the sentence, the word that carries the meaning of the sentence carries the stress. The word that carries the stress is important, and it is called the tonic syllable. Why do we call it a tonic syllable? While uttering a sentence, we do not pronounce all the syllables in the sentence at the same pitch. We vary thepitch,itiseither rise or fall or fall and rise. Normally, it the tonic syllable that decides where the pitch of the sentence changes. This means, the pitch on each syllable keeps rising till we reach the tonic syllable, and from there onwards falls successively on other syllables in a sentence. This adds meaning to what you say while speaking. This is another aspect of good speech. Then we have one more element called the rhythm. In Indian languages, we have a syllable timed rhythm – in other words, the time taken to utter a sentence depends on the number of syllables in the sentence. However, in English, it is not the number of syllables, but it depends on the number of stressed syllables. The time taken to move from one stressed syllable to the other remains the same. Therefore, we call English a stress-timed rhythm. You have learnt all these aspects in details while studying phonetics. Hence we will not provide any illustrations for each of these points. We have tried to summarize the lessons you learnt earlier very briefly. We suggest you do the following task to refresh your memory of the course in phonetics.

Task 3: a. Here are a few polysyllabic words. Divide these words into syllables and identify the stressed syllable. i. Institution ii. Linguistics iii. Assignment iv. Intelligibility v. Phonology b. Look at the following sentences. Mark the syllables that are stressed in them, and read them aloud with proper rhythm. i. The book you are reading is written by a famous author. ii. There are five students in this class who have scored full marks. iii. Your teacher has asked you to walk with him after the school. iv. Are there any restaurants nearby where we can have some lunch? v. Is this the building you were talking about last evening So far we have looked at speech sounds, their combinations to form words and utterances. We have also looked at the concept of stress both at the word and sentence levels. Further we have discussed the importance of following some rules while uttering a sentence paying attention to pitch, stress and rhythm. Now we shall look at some social aspects of speech (etiquette) and conclude the unit.

7.5 Social Aspects of Speech

We speak to communicate with others. We communicate with a variety of people, friends, relatives, seniors, sub-ordinates, strangers, bosses and others. We do not speak with each one of them the same way. The way you speak to your mother is very different from the way you speak to your sister. Why does this happen? Who has taught us to make these differences? We learn these things in our mother tongue naturally, by observing others around us. Family is a great educator in moulding our speech. While speaking English (which is not our mother tongue) we need to learn the principles of etiquette differently. Here are some suggestions. 1. Make sure what the relationship between you and the other person you are talking to is. This is represented by the word 'Who'. There can be several types of relationships which matter. 2. The second important aspect is the topic of our communication. This is represented by the word 'What'. The number of topics we can talk about is infinite.

3. The place where we are communicating with each other isalso an important aspect and this is represented by 'Where'. Here again, the possibilities can be many. 4. The time of the day when we are speaking to a person matters. This controls our tone and quantity of talk. This aspect is indicated using the word 'When' and the twenty four hour day can be sliced into many parts. 5. Without a reason, we normally do not talk to a person. The reason for talking is indicated by 'Why' and to list all reasons for our talking to someone is almost impossible. 6. There are various modes using which we can talk to a person and this is indicated by 'How'. All these six factors are analysed and put in the form of a table. The number of possibilities indicated is not exhaustive. But this will provide you with some idea and you may add other possibilities in each category. You may do this when you find time and make the table as exhaustive as possible. Who A stranger A senior relative Parents Siblings (both elder and younger) Cousins (close and distant) Friends (old, new, familiar, formal) Colleagues (both seniors and subordinates) Your boss (and other very senior officials in your establishment) What Serious Non- serious Domestic Official Social Political Academic Gossip When Early morning While working End of the day Why Gossip Reporting Explaining Chatting Narrating Discussing Arguing Convincing Requesting Emergency How Telephone Face to Face Lecturing Secretive Personal Public Forum Theatre Where Office Corridors Canteen Party Official- Meeting Home Friend's place Public place

NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 103 Here again, we have not given you any illustrations to show how speech varies from situation to situation, or how these six factors control our speech. You may reflect on this with the knowledge you have of Bangla and extrapolate it to English. In the next unit, we shall look at exercises to practice all the aspects discussed here. We will conclude with a brief summary of the unit. 7.6 Summary We began with our objectives for teaching speech. We looked at the speech production briefly and various aspects associated with speech production. Later, we looked at the importance of aspects like stress, pitch, tone and rhythm in conveying meaning. Finally, we looked at some features of etiquette that we need to observe while speaking. 7.7 Review Questions 1. In your nderstanding, how do you define and describe speaking ability. 2. What are some of the precautions we need to take while speaking? 3. Is speaking in English different from speaking Bangla? How are the two similar or different? 4. How are rules of courtesy and etiquette common to English and Bangla? What are some of the problems Bangla speakers of English may have in appropriating this? 5. Can you give some examples of confusion that can be caused because of using wrong word stress? How does it affect communication? 7.8 References 1. Balasubramanian, T. (2007). A Textbook of Phonetics for Indian Students. Chennai, Macmillan Publishers 2. Mohanraj, Jayashree. (2015). Let Us Hear them Speak. New Delhi, Sage Publishers.
104 NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 Unit - 8 : Speaking Skills 2 Structure 8.1 Introduction 8.2 Objectives 8.3 Strategies for Teaching Spoken English 8.4 Strategies for Teaching Word Stress 8.5 Principles for Teaching Speaking Skills 8.6 Summary 8.7 Review Questions 8.8 References 8.1 Introduction In the previous unit you learnt a few things about speaking skills, the definition, ramifications and some discussion. In this unit we shall look at some of the teaching strategies involved while teaching speaking and develop some exercises for the same. 8.2
Objectives

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After going through this unit, the learners will be able to: a. Appreciate the

need for teaching spoken English b. Understand the difficulties learners have with pronunciation c. Design strategies and materials to suit the needs to the learners. Let us begin with a few questions. The first question relates to why should we teach spoken English, and the second one is an offshoot of the first, how do we teach spoken English. Let us try and answer these questions. Before looking at the answers we want to provide, we would like to have your views. Task 1: Please note down your points in the space given below: Your response: When we learn a language, we need to learn to speak it well. There are certain norms that we need to follow. Take for example, your mother tongue, Bangla. This language has several rounded vowels and fewer flat vowels. This is not easy for everyone to master. Therefore, a non-native Banglaspeaker, when he comes to Kolkata and learns
NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 105 to speak the language, his pronunciation is markedly different. When you listen to the person speaking, you may not make fun of him, but you will realize how far he is from speaking authentic Bangla. This is true of all languages. Each language has its peculiarity (nuances) and theseneed to be mastered. English is no exception. This roughly answers our first question. To help our learners speak English in an acceptable manner, in a manner that they are intelligible to others is the reason, we should teach spoken English. The second question on how to teach is spread across this unit. In the course of discussing, how, we will further elaborate the reasons why we should learn a little more. To answer the question, how to teach spoken English, we need to know the elements of spoken English. In the previous unit, you have looked at an analysis of this, (you will get to know more of it in CC3), and let us reiterate it for you here. We should remember one thing, teaching spoken English depends a lot on developing good listening skills. Listening and speaking are complementary skills, and one cannot be learnt without the other. One who is able to listen properly, and distinguish one speech sound from the other will also be able speak properly. This is evident from the fact, that most people who are mute (dumb) are also deaf. 8.3 Strategies for Teaching Spoken English While teaching spoken English, the first major focus will be on developing pronunciation. Teaching pronunciation is a complex process for it can begin with discrete phonemes to complex connected speech. We shall look at some strategies here. a. Teaching phonemes: Phoneme is defined as the '

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minimal distinctive unit of speech'. There are two operational words here – minimal and distinctive. Something that is minimal cannot be divided any further (

like an atom) and if something is distinctive, it is unique and cannot be replaced by another sound. To teach phonemes, one of the tested methods has been to use what we call minimal pairs. Minimal pair stands for two words that are similar in all aspects except for one phoneme replacing the other. Take a look at some of these words: i. Pin Bin ii. Pin Pen iii. Pin Pit

We have three pairs of words. In each pair the first word has remained the same. The second word in each pair differs from the first word in just one aspect. In the first pair, /p/ is replaced by /b/; in the second pair /i/ is replaced by /e/; and in the last pair /n/ is replaced by /t/. By replacing these elements, we have arrived at new words and also the meaning of these words has changed. Any single sound replacement in a pairing word, bringing about a change in the word and its meaning is called a minimal pair. In looking at these six words we have identified that /p/ and /b/ are different phonemes (in Arabic they are not), though they are pronounced almost the same way. Similarly, we find /i/ and /e/ are different phonemes (in some languages these two vowels are not different) and so are /n/ and /t/. [/n/ and /t/ do not need a minimal pair to prove they are distinct phonemes. They are different in terms of manner of articulation] We do not need to think of minimal pairs for each phoneme in English. Where there is confusion, and learners pronounce one for the other (especially under the influence of mother tongue) we may need to use minimal pairs. Speakers of Bangla learning English have problems with certain English sounds – the distinction between /v/ and /b/ is lost. Sometimes, /s/ and /ʃ/ is also lost. As teachers of English, we need to be sensitive to the sound system of our language as well as the sound system of English. We should be able to find the difficult speech sounds for our learners and focus our exercises based on those problem sounds. Task 2: Make a list of English speech sounds that are difficult for you. Your response: When you have identified the problem sounds, take a look at the English sounds, their place and manner of articulation. Without describing these, try and device ways of helping your students overcome their defects. e.g. while pronouncing /f/ a fricative, if your students produce a sound [p h] which is bilabial, you can ask them to bite their lips lightly while producing /f/. /s/ and /ʃ/ can also be taught using a few simple techniques. Take a word like /best/. While pronouncing this word, the position of the tongue can be easily felt. If the tongue can be as front as possible we will produce the word properly. But if the tongue is slightly withdrawn the word gets pronounced wrongly with /ʃ/ sound in it. This should give you an idea on how you can use strategies to help your students with proper pronunciation. You get lists of words which are minimal pairs in books on phonetics. You can create your own lists with little difficulty.

Be sensitive to sounds, create these word lists, and help your learners with their pronunciation. i. You can also use certain other types of exercises. Provide a list of words which have just one sound in common in all of them. Ask your students to identify the sound and add a few more words to the list with the same sound in it. e.g.(/ʃ/)If we are testing the learners' ability to identify this sound in its various spellings, we can give a task of the following type: Here is a list of words: fish, dish, shirt, relish, portion, medication, shoulder, shower, charade, and chauffeur. There is one sound that is common in all these words. Identify the sound and write five more words which have the same sound in them. ii. This can also be done with a few variations, by providing a set of three or four words where one of the words does not include the sound in question. e.g. (/h/) Task 3: Look at the following words. There is one word which does not include the sound that is present in other words. Identify the word. Later add a few more words with the sound you have identified. horse, honour, hose, house One word among these is different. Identify the word. Task 4: Write ten more words with the sound in the other three words. Now we will move to word stress and sentence stress, and conclude the unit with social etiquette. 8.4 Strategies for Teaching Word Stress Word stress is not a difficult concept to teach. Begin with single syllable words that have /p/, /b/ or /k/ at the beginning. In English these words are pronounced with an aspiration when these three sounds occur at the beginning of a stressed syllable. (You can make the students understand the concept of aspiration using the Sanskrit alphabet system. The consonants are classified into five classes which are indicated below.

108 NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 These are five classes of consonants. Look at the second and fourth member in each class, and you will find that it is an aspirated version of the first and third members of the same class. In Sanskrit these letters are called mahaprana – or consonants pronounced with additional breath force. This is true in a few other Indian languages as well.) Words like Pen, Pin, Ten, Tin, Cat, Kit etc. have the initial sound aspirated or pronounced as mahaprana. Practising these words and many other single syllable words beginning with these three sounds helps learners understand the concept of stress in English. Words with more than one syllable (two – disyllabic, three or more – polysyllabic) take stress only on one syllable. For example the word 'pencil' is pronounced as PEN-cil and not as pen-CIL. A dictionary helps you identify the number of syllables in a word and also the syllable that receives the stress. You should become familiar with the conventions followed in the dictionary, and also sensitise your students to it. Polysyllabic words are stressed depending on their spelling, especially the word endings. These have been discussed in detail in CC3. You may look for exercises as well as rules in CC3. Having looked at Word Stress, we will move further to discuss what sentence stress is. When you listen to news in English on Television channels, do you find some of the speakers (e.g. Prannoy Roy) speaking English a little differently. In each utterance, certain words are almost not heard, while some words are said more loudly than others. Take a look at the following sentence. The teachers are demanding a rise in salary for the last two years. This utterance has thirteen words and seventeen syllables. You actually hear only five stressed syllables and the other twelve syllables are said quickly and softly to maintain the rhythm. Further depending on the meaning to be conveyed, one syllable 'rise' perhaps gets uttered the loudest, and this is the syllable that receives the sentence stress.

NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 109 Such a syllable is called a 'tonic' syllable. It is important to note this for it is the tonic syllable that also determines the place where the tone of the sentence begins to either fall or rise depending on the type of utterance. To help your students get to practice sentence stress, choose simple sentences with no more than five or six words and with just one word that is important. Here are a few sentences for you to consider and think of more sentences on similar lines. a. You are a teacher. b. We are all students. c. We love reading. d. We enjoy reading a poem. e. Stories are interesting too. Mark the word you think is most important in these sentences, and help your students read these sentences properly. You add a few more sentences to this list. It is not enough if you know where the tonic syllable is. You also need to understand the tone of the sentence or the intonation. There are three tones, the rising, the falling and the falling rising tone in English. These are also rule bound, and you will find the relevant rules and examples in CC3. Next, we shall discuss some general principles of teaching speaking skills. Speaking is not learning how to utter isolated sentences. Speaking involves what is called 'connected speech' which includes quite a few varieties. Giving a sustained talk for a couple of minutes, narrating an incident, describing something, holding a conversation, turn taking, being polite, ability to ask a question properly, ability to respond to a question are some of the events one needs to participate in by learning how to speak. 8.5 Principles of teaching Speaking Skills While speaking, politeness and body language form two important aspects. Politeness does not mean being submissive. We should be able to talk to someone without hurting the person. You may need to reprimand a person, you may need to show your displeasure towards someone, yet you can do this very politely. Take a look at some of these sentences: a. You are a useless fellow fit for nothing. b. You have spoilt the entire evening. c. Don't show me your face. These are offensive utterances, and the listener is likely to feel hurt. These utterances can be reworded as follows: a. You need to learn much more before you become eligible for this work.

b. If only you had come a little early, we could enjoy this evening. c. You better leave me alone now. Task 5: Compare and contrast the two sets of sentences and see how they affect the listener. Task 6: You may consider a couple of situations where you have been angry and used the language in an impolite manner. Now that you are not angry, can you recollect those utterances and redraft them in a less offending manner? Your response: Politeness principles also involve the loudness of your speech, (pitch) and the right type of intonation you use. We are likely to be influenced by our mother tongue in both these aspects. While learning a new language like English, we need to be sensitive to these factors. Along with loudness of the voice, the pace at which we speak also matters. English (the British variety) is spoken at around 90 to 95 words per minute. Quite a few of the Indian languages are spoken much faster than this pace, and hence we tend to speak English faster than the British do. This causes for unintelligible speaking. Besides pace, the rhythm of English is difficult to capture. The English has stress timed rhythm while the Indian languages are marked by syllable timed rhythm. One way of practising stress timed rhythm is to understand how the popular nursery rhymes are sung, and to speak English exactly the same way. This may appear a little difficult to begin with, but in due course of time, it is possible to get to the rhythm of English speech. In order to provide practice in good connected speech it is easy to use group and pair work. You may use some scripted or semi-scripted dialogues for the purpose. It is also possible to rewrite some of the stories in the textbooks as short plays (skits) and ask the students to enact them. Such practice provides the learner with a feel of the real language. Body language includes aspects such as the way we sit while talking, the way we stand, the gestures we use with our hands, the way we cross our legs, the distance we maintain between the speaker and listener matter. In India, the distance we maintain between two people is far too close compared to the British culture. Going close to a person and whispering is often considered a sign of impoliteness. There are quite a few books on body language and we can learn a lot from these books. This brings us to the close of speaking skills and listening skills. Before we conclude, let us summarise the unit and leave you with a task and a list of books to refer to.

NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 111 8.6 Summary In this Unit we began with a quick revision of Unit 7 and provided the outline of the present unit. We discussed how isolated speech sounds can be taught and followed it up with teaching of word and sentence stress. Finally, we discussed the need for practising connected speech. For each of these we have provided sample exercises. Task 7: Here is a task for you. A role play is also called simulation exercise. Have a group of four students, and provide them with a situation related to problem solving. Ask them to discuss and arrive at a solution. While choosing the problem, take care to choose something the learners are familiar with. It is best to imagine a situation and create the problem solving task yourself. With this we conclude the unit and the module. Here is a list of books for your use. 8.7 Review Questions 1. With your understanding of the unit, mention some teaching technique you have learnt for teaching speaking skills? How will you modify these in your class? 2. Comment on the importance of teaching spoken English in today's India from a sociological point of view? 3. Identify some of the typical problem sounds for Bangla speakers of English. How do you rectify these errors? 4. How can we use poems to teach spoken English? In what specific manner are poems useful? Explain with a few examples. 5. Does Bangla have a stress-timed rhythm or a syllable-timed rhythm? How will you explain this to a student in class VIII who is learning English for the first time? 8.8 References a. Barman, Binoy. (2010). 'A Contrastive Analysis of English and Bangla Phonemics' in The Dhaka University Journal of Linguistics II:4; August 2010. (pp 19 – 42) b. Gold, Steve. (2016). Body Language, Communication, People Skills. California: Create Space c. Mohanraj, J. (2015).Let us Hear them Speak. New Delhi; Sage Texts. d. Ur. P and Andrew Wright. (1992). Five Minute Activities: A Resource Book of Short Activities. Cambridge; Cambridge University Press.

112 NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 Unit : 9 p Reading Skills 1 Structure 9.1 Introduction 9.2 Objectives 9.3 The Importance of Reading as a Skill 9.4 Reading: Understanding its nature 9.5 Oral and Silent Reading 9.6 Methods of Teaching Oral Reading 9.6.1 Alphabetic Method 9.6.2 Phonic Method 9.6.3 Word Method 9.6.4 Sentence Method 9.6.5 Story Method 9.6.6 Teaching Principles 9.7. Silent Reading 9.7.1 Teaching Principles 9.8 Check Your Progress 9.9 Summary 9.10 Review Questions 9.11 References 9.1 Introduction We have already studied certain aspects of reading as a language skill and some of the teaching principles in CC-1, Module-1, Unit 3 & 4.We will now travel a little further and look into the methodological implications for teaching Reading Skills. To do this, let us begin with recalling our understanding of the importance of reading as a language skill. Indeed, the awareness of reading as a language skill needs to be raised among the second language learners. Module -3 p Teaching Literature -1

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Objectives

After going through this unit we will be able to: l Understand the

fundamental difference between oral and silent reading l Understand the procedural aspects of teaching oral reading l Evaluate some important concepts in silent reading l Understand the pedagogical implications of teaching silent reading

9.3. The Importance of Reading as a Skill The importance of reading includes the following: l Reading leads to learning; where there is little reading, there is little learning. l Reading is a professional requirement as professional competence depends on it; it is only by reading that the students can acquire the speed and skills (sub-skills) needed in real life situations. l Higher education is largely dependent upon the quantity and quality of reading. l In the current age of information boom, one cannot but be aware of the explosion of knowledge and information, the acquisition of which depends primarily on reading. l Literature is an integral part of the heritage of any society and the appreciation of the same requires reading extensively. Thus, we should note that we cannot produce well-read youth unless we teach them how to learn to read and how to read in order to learn. Therefore, we must make sure that – l We do not neglect reading in the scheme of language education right from the elementary to the tertiary level; · We do not stop learners from enjoying the act ofreading; indeed, we require to develop the habit of reading among them so that they may not stop reading altogether after they leave school. 9.4. Reading: Understanding its Nature William S. Gray, in his book, History and Philosophy of Reading Instruction has technically defined reading thus: "Reading is the process of recognising printed or written symbols, involving such habits as accuracy in recognising the words that make up a passage, span of recognition (i.e.

the number of words, usually forming a sense group, that are taken in at a glance), rate at which words and phrases are recognised, rhythmical progress of perception along the lines and accurate return sweep of the eye from the end of one line to the beginning of the next"; and Dr West describes reading as a "process of sight-sound sense". Reading involves the recognition of the important elements of meaning and their relationship that contributes to accuracy and thoroughness in comprehension. It is more than seeing words or pronouncing them or recognising their meaning in isolation. It requires one to think, feel and imagine in a set of relationship. It is an activity which involves the interpretation of ideas signified by written or printed language. 9.5. Oral and Silent Reading Here, we need to distinguish between two types of reading : oral and silent reading. In oral reading, a child reads out every word or print. As he does so, he has to get the phonemes, their combinations, and the stress and intonation patterns correctly. In the early stages children are taught the mechanics of reading (i.e. making sounds appropriate to the symbols and understanding their relationship). They are taught to read from the board before they are allowed to use their books. Much later they are introduced to silent reading. Initial training in oral reading is an essential step to silent reading. It not only helps children to pronounce the words correctly but to group them into 'meaningful mouthfuls' (i.e. words forming sense groups that are said at one go without a pause). Oral reading should start at the earliest possible opportunity, preferably in the fourth and fifth month of instruction in English. Reading instruction in most of our primary and secondary schools has been instruction in oral reading in spite of the fact that reading in actual life is mostly silent. Thus, researchers have emphasised the need for silent reading for the following reasons: l Most reading outside the curriculum is silent reading. l Silent reading emphasises meaning rather than sound; psychologists of various schools are concerned with the ways in which meaning is conveyed more than anything else. We have already learnt that fundamental reading skills are mastered through oral reading which helps silent reading later on. It is noteworthy here that some of the difficulties in silent reading that can be diagnosed through oral reading are: i) Omission of words or phrases ii) Insertion of words iii) Substitution of letters, words or phrases

iv) Skipping lines v) Repeating lines vi) Inaccurate grouping of words that interfere with thought-getting and interpretation of ideas 9.6. Methods of Teaching Oral Reading Now we will discuss the various methods we can employ to teach reading English script. However, first, we need to teach the learners how to recognise letters and words. The main methods of teaching English script include the following: 9.6.1. Alphabetic method : In this method children are taught the names of the letters of the alphabet – a "ay", b "bee", c "see", etc. – and when they see a new or unfamiliar word, e.g. 'bag,' they repeat the letter names – "bee ay gee". It is thought that this "spelling" of the word helps the child to recognise it. By constant repetition of letter – names, the learner becomes familiar not only with the form and name of individual letters but also encounter certain letters – strings and letter – clusters which are component parts of many words. The method relies heavily on the conditioning aspect of the learning process. However, it is necessary for the learners to differentiate between the different letters of the alphabet as well as between the capital and small letters. Therefore, children need plenty of experience in playing with the letter forms, so as to become familiar with their shape and learn the correct orientation i.e. which way is their correct position. 9.6.2. Phonic method: In this method children are taught to recognise the relationship between letters and sounds. They are taught the sounds which the letters of the alphabet represent, and then try to build up the sound of a new or unfamiliar word by saying it one sound at a time. This is based on the observation that letter sounds are never produced singly but in the context of words, and that usually the positioning of the letter determines its particulars. The phonic method uses the following steps: a) The learner first learns the sounds most often represented by the various vowel and consonant letters. Generally, the learners are introduced to a consonant – vowel combination since consonants cannot be accurately sounded except with a vowel; e.g. c – at or ca – t. b) Words of various patterns are then introduced; l Cat, bat, rat, mat l Tin, bin, shin, fin, pint

c) Some common look-and-say (i.e. looking at the word as a whole and saying what it is, without noticing each letter in the word) non-phonic words are taught; e.g. I, he, to, the d) Sentences are formed with words already learnt; e.g. the cat is fat, it is on the mat e) Digraphs (i.e. units of two letters representing one sound) are taught; e.g. sh, ch, ng, ck f) Sentences using digraphs are then introduced; e.g. there is a toy ship in the shop g) Certain rules regarding spelling-sound relationship can also be taught; e.g. the use of final 'e' in the words like gate, kite, nose, rule We should note that all words cannot be taught by this method as the English language is not completely phonetic in nature. 9.6.3. Word Method: In this method children are taught to recognise whole words rather than letter-names (as in the alphabetic method) or sounds (as in the phonic method). This method emphasises the shape or the configuration of a word. The Gestalt theory of learning has been used here as the theoretical basis for learning. The basic idea is the importance of the whole, the total form, and the word-pattern. If whole words are presented to the children, they will see the difference between words on the basis of length and the shape or configuration of words and then easily be able to recognise words using such clues. 9.6.4. Sentence Method: This method uses the sentence as the unit of utterance. Every sentence chosen contains a complete unit of thought and presents a definite image. It extends and supports the vocabulary already learnt orally by the learners. Hence, the sentences are mostly drawn from the children's own experiences of their homes and school life. These sentences are presented along with suitable pictures on sentence cards. For example,

The learners are first encouraged to talk about the pictures; if possible, the teacher weaves a story around them. The teacher then reads out the sentences. The cards are then passed round for individual reading practice. The children are discouraged from pointing to the words. They read the sentence as a whole. When a number of sentences have thus been practised exercises in quick recognition are given. Through this practice, they are encouraged to recognise at 'a single glance' a familiar word or a short, easily understood sentence. It is considered that the use of continuous prose leads the children to reading more fluently and rapidly. 9.6.5. Story Method: In this method the whole story is the starting point. The teacher narrates stories supported by illustrations. At the end of the narration the learners are encouraged to reproduce the story in groups and individually. The written story is then recognised as a whole and a story chart is developed. The learners are given the various sentences orally and the teacher writes on the board. After initial reading of a few stories off the board, the teacher introduces the printed text. The teacher reads each story aloud and the learners follow his/her reading with the books open. This is followed by a discussion of the story to help the learners understand it. Only after such oral preparation are the learners asked to read the story aloud. One problem with this method is that it is dependent on the memory of the learners to an extent. 9.6.6. Teaching Principles: In teaching reading aloud, we need to keep the following principles in mind: a) Giving a model reading at the beginning of the lesson. b) Explaining the meaning of unfamiliar or new words and phrases before the learners are asked to read aloud. c) Training the learners in correct phrasing and in laying emphasis on right words (i.e. the use of appropriate supra-segmental features). d) Keeping a close watch against mumbling and producing defective sounds and utterances. e) Not laying stress on the speed at the cost of the accuracy of pronunciation. f) Encouraging the learners to avoid finger-reading g) Taking care that the reading aloud does not become meaningless and mechanical; it should be supported by board work and question-and-answer session.

Oral reading, however, has its limitations. It cannot be done by everyone in the class at the same time. The sessions cannot be carried out for a long time either. However, there may be a little reading aloud by three or four students in each period. In spite of its limitations, we should note that reading aloud is useful in teaching literary pieces especially in teaching poems. Also at the end of each unit of a prose lesson, a little reading aloud can be of great help in getting hold of the narrative style of the prose piece. As an enrichment programme the learners can be asked to read plays, conversations and dialogues with good expression and ease. Reading aloud is a special skill and very much depends on the excellence of the teacher's competence of reading aloud. 9.7. Silent Reading Now let us shift our attention to silent reading which involves all the psycho-physical processes as reading aloud; but, in silent reading the learners do not need to pay equal attention to all the words as it is needed in oral reading. Thus, skimming or getting the essential ideas from a reading matter is an important factor in silent reading. At the initial stage we should aim at teaching the learners reading aloud; but, as soon as they have acquired minimum ability to read aloud, attempt should be made to develop the skill of silent reading in them. In this connection, we should keep in mind that oral reading helps silent reading to a great extent and the efficiency in oral reading is the minimum condition for the cultivation of silent reading. In "silent reading", observe Thompson and Wyatt, "the eye does not proceed steadily along the line of print, but stops from time to time possibly four or five times in a line. Then there is a rapid movement from the end of one line to the beginning of the next. During the movement of the eyes there is no perception. We read only during the pauses, when the eyes are not moving, the number of fixation in a line is affected by the difficulty of the matter, but not its grammatical structure. The eyes of the practised reader move over the lines with steady rhythm, but not so in the case of the unpractised reader. With him there are frequent irregular fixations with a turning back to what has just been read. But with practice rapid movement is observable as regards speed." It is noteworthy here that when we read silently, our eyes move in a swift and well-co- ordinated way sending signals to the brain. Hence, understanding the following psycho-ocular aspects of silent reading is crucial: l Fixation: It refers to the brief periods when the eyeball is resting and during which the visual input required for reading takes place. The eyeball makes a series of fixations, jumping from place to place on the printed page. The jumps are exceedingly

rapid. The jump from one ûxation point to another is known as a saccade. It is important to note that the fixations occur when our eyes come to rest. Most of these fixations are actually on or close to the line of print. But unless one reads quite slowly, one cannot easily control or predict where the eyes will fixate. The fixations are quite short in duration: each one lasts about one quarter of a second and the amount of printed text that a person can perceive within a single fixation pause is called Reading SpanorPerception Spanwhich is usually described as being between seven and ten letter spaces. Thus, a good reader will not read like : The book is on the table. but as: (The book) (is on the table) The longer the reading span, the more rapidly will the reader be able to read. The reading span of a good reader is comparatively wide. Now, let us consider the issue of the instant word recognition. Words are recognised on the basis of their shapes and appearance. This is called Pattern Perception. For example, in reading the word 'women', we would barely notice that the 'o' in the first syllable is pronounced,as 'i' as in 'whim'. The printed word 'women' is a gestalt-like total stimulus that immediately calls to mind the spoken word that corresponds to it. Such 'sight' recognition is co-related rather highly with the frequency of use. Word-perception is a skill that depends upon large amount of practice and exposure. Besides, the number of fixations or pauses per line depends on the difficulty of the material that is given for reading, age and the maturity of the reader. l Word Discrimination: Reading involves the ability to discriminate letters and recognise words. This depends upon: a) The type of letters: Projecting (like t, p, f, l, d) and non-projecting (like a, o, u) letters. Words containing the former type of letters are more easily recognised than words containing non-projecting letters. b) The shape of words: Words similar in shape like receive, deceive; did, bid; etc. may often confuse the beginner. c) The range of learners' experience: Words which are associated with objects and ideas within the learner's experience, and also words which the learners have already heard or practised in speech, are easily recognised.

120 NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 l Association: It is the mental link formed between visual signs (letters, words) and the speech sounds and which they represent. Association implies the ability to recall sounds and meaning immediately on sight of group of letters. l Regression: It refers to the backward movement of the eye along a line of print when reading. Poor readers tend to make more regressions than good readers. In reading aloud, a regression is the repetition of a syllable, word, or phrase that has already been read. l Reading Speed: It refers to the speed at which a person reads. It depends on a) the type of reading material (e.g. ûction or non-ûction) b) the reader's purpose (e.g. to gain information, to ûnd the main ideas in a passage) c) the level of comprehension required (e.g. to extract the main ideas or to gain complete understanding) d) the reader's individual reading skills. The following are typical reading speeds: It is noteworthy here that our talking speed is between 150 – 200 words per minute (w.p.m.). If we read saying each word to ourselves, our speed gets slowed down to less than the talking speed. Also in normal speaking situations, we do not need to think too long for words as the words we use are all in our active vocabulary. But when we read an unseen passage, we may come across new and difficult words which make us hesitate and pause for a while. These words act as stumbling-blocks and hinder our reading speed. Our eyes refuse to move forward with ease unless we are sure of the words we Speed Slow Average Fast Purpose study reading, used whenmaterial is difficult and/ or highcomprehension is required. used for everyday reading ofmagazines, newspapers, etc. skimming, used when highestspeed is required, comprehension is intentionally lower Good reader 200-300 words perminute (wpm); 80-90% comprehension 250-500 wpm; 70% comprehension 800 plus wpm; 50% comprehension

NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 121 read. Sometimes, we go back to difficult words and spend some time decoding their meaning. This regression is one of the major factors that cut down speed in silent reading. Also sub-vocalisation or saying each word while reading or passing the finger under the lines of print is considered a hindrance to efficient reading. These acts do not allow the eyes to make quick jumps; on the other hand they drag the eyes along slowly in undesirable ways and this retards the speed. 9.7.1 Teaching Principles: In teaching silent reading, we should consider the following procedural principles: a) The perception of the form of words should be instantaneous; attempts need to made to increase the recognition of number of words at the single pause. b) The teacher should keep a close watch that the learners do not engage in regression and sub-vocalisation while reading. c) The teacher should ensure that the leaners do not sway their heads right and left as they proceed with the lines. d) The teacher should make all attempts to increase the reading speed but without impairing the comprehension of the content. e) In order to increase the reading speed, the teacher should attempt to reduce the number of fixations; training in eye movements has been a challenge to psychologists and teachers. The simplest way is to get the learners to make three or even fewer regular fixations per line by giving him/her oral instructions and providing him/ her with some usual clues such as: columnal reading, reading in chunks or blocks, underlying key words in a passage, etc. The learners may also be guided not to look at the extreme left of a line but at the second word. f) The teacher should help the learners to stretch their eye span as far as they can and widen their fixation span. We should note that the duration of fixations, as distinguished from their number is not closely dependent on the difficulty on the material. The average time needed for switching from one fixation point to another is about 250 M.Sc. which can be reduced to 168 M.Sc. by systematic training. g) For effective reading teachers may adopt the 'language-experience' approach. It may be noted that some learners may face another kind of difficulty in silent reading. Their eyes refuse to move forward when they come to a 'blind spot' in a line of print. This may be due to the unfamiliarity of the word they have to read next. This results from the lack of language experience on the part of the learners. Hence, at the initial stages the teacher may not present any material which the learners

have not spoken or heard about. Thus, in adopting a passage from a prescribed text the first step should be good oral preparation. Unfamiliar words should be presented in meaningful situations. Difficult words should be written on the board and the learners should be allowed to look at them and read them orally. This language experience would help the learners to read these words used in the reading text. h) There is another difficulty which some learners may face in the early stages. They get reverse images of words or mistake one word for another which look almost similar, e.g. was become saw, no becomes on, and so on. Such words could be listed and presented on flashcards. i) The teacher should ensure comprehension and interpretation of the reading input through various tasks and activities. j) Development of various sub-skills of reading should be targeted by the teacher at intermediate and advanced levels in order to make the learners competent readers (refer to the list of sub-skills in CC1 Mod 1 Unit 4.5.1). k) The teacher should also try to exploit the 'schemata' of the learners to the extent possible. l) The learners are to be given varied experience in both intensive & extensive reading through various kinds of authentic text materials. A detailed discussion on the procedural aspects of the development of various sub- skills of reading including the types of tasks and texts has been included in CC1 Mod 3 Unit 10. 9.8 Check Your Progress 1. Discuss the different methods of teaching oral reading. .... 2. How is oral reading related to silent reading? .... 3. What is 'fixation' and 'reading speed' in silent reading? How can 'reading speed' be increased?

NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 123 .... 4. What are some of the principles you would consider as a teacher while teaching silent reading? .... 9.9. Summary In this unit we have studied the following: l Reading involves not just the physical recognition of words but the interpretation of the message they convey. l Speed in reading depends on the eye span and the accurate return sweep to the next line. l Reading can be oral and silent; both these kinds are to be practised in English classrooms. l Initial training has to be oral; oral reading helps children not only to pronounce words but to group them meaningfully. l Most reading in real life situation is silent. l There are five methods of teaching oral reading at the initial stage: Alphabetic method, Phonic method, Word method, Sentence method, Story method; a combination of these will be advantageous. l Reading aloud is useful in teaching literary pieces especially in teaching poems; reading plays, conversations, skits, stories can be an enjoyable experience for learners. l Silent reading constitutes a complex set of sub-skills. l While reading silently, the eyes of an individual do not sweep across the line of print smoothly and steadily but move in jerks from one fixation point to another. l The number of fixations or pauses per line depends on the difficulty of the material that is given for reading, age and the maturity of the reader. l Regression, sub-vocalisation andfinger reading are considered asobstacles to efficient reading as these practices retard the speed. l Comprehension and interpretation of the reading input through various tasks and activities should be ensured. l At intermediate and advanced levels development of the reading sub-skills to be targeted by the teacher alongside giving exposure to intensive and extensive reading practices.

124 NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 9.10. Review Questions 1. How many types of reading can we promote among our learners? 2. Why is silent reading better than oral reading or reading aloud? 3. How can we develop faster reading habits among our learners? Why should we do it? 4. What are some of the habits that reduce the speed of our reading? How can we gain from reduced speed of reading? 5. How many types of comprehension tasks can we apply in our school classes? Describe at least one of them in detail. 6. Discuss some procedural principles in teaching silent reading. 7. Assess the methods of teaching oral reading at the initial stage. 8. Reading involves the ability to discriminate letters and recognise words. Write a note on the steps of developing this ability. 9. What do you understand by the words "Oral Reading" ? Write an essay on the methods of Teaching Oral Reading. 10. What are the difficulties a language teacher is likely to face in teaching Reading as a Skill? 9.10 References Bajwa, B. (Ed.). (2009). A Handbook of Teaching English. New Delhi. Orient Black Swan. Bowen, J. D. (1985). TESOL techniques and procedures. Rowley, Mass. : Newbury House Publishers. Brown, H.D. (1994), Teaching by Principles. New Jersey. Prentice Hall. Bygate, M. (1987).Foreign Language Study. London. Oxford University Press. Hadfield, Jill & Charles.(2008) Introduction to Teaching English.Eigal S. A. Portugal. Oxford University Press Harmer, Jeremy. (2007). The Practice of English Language Teaching. Essex. Pearson education Limited. Jyotsna, M&Rao.(2009).Methods of Teaching English. Guntur: Sri Nagarjuna Publishers. Kudchedkar, S. (2010).Readings in English Language Teaching in India.Chennai.Orient Black Swan. Kumari, AV. 2014. Methods of Teaching English. Guntur: New Era Publications.

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Sinha, M. (2017).Teaching of English. Kolkata: Rita Publication. Suchdeva, M.S, (2011).A New Approach to Teaching of English in India. Ludhiana: Tandon Publications. Thompson, M. S. H. and Wyatt, H.G. (1952).The Teaching of English in India. New Delhi. Oxford University Press. Tickoo, M.L., (2003). Teaching and Learning English. New Delhi. Orient Longman. Ur, Penny. (1996). A Course in Language Teaching. Cambridge. CUP.

126 NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 Unit - 10 ppppp Reading Skills 2 Structure 10.1 Introduction 10.2 Objectives 10.3 Reading for Comprehension 10.4 Reading Comprehension: Teaching Implications 10.5 Check Your Progress- 1 10.6 Teaching Reading 10.6.1 The Reading Input 10.6.2 Comprehension Tasks and Activities 10.6.3 The Teaching Stages 10.7 Extensive Reading 10.8 Check Your Progress - 2 10.9 Summary 10.10 Preview Questions 10.11 References 10.1 Introduction We are now aware that most real life reading is silent reading involving 'comprehension'. The key word here is 'comprehension' which refers to the identiûcation of the intended meaning of written communication. Contemporary theories of comprehension emphasise that it is an active process drawing both on information contained in the message (bottom-up processing) as well as background knowledge, i.e. information from the context and from the reader's purposes or intentions (top-down processing). Gray (1967) suggests that when we read something we understand it at three levels: "first, the purely literal responding to the graphic signals only with little depth of understanding, the second level at which the reader recognises the author's meaning, and the third level where the reader's own personal experiences and judgements influence his response to the text." These three levels can be summarised as 'reading the lines, reading between the lines and reading beyond the lines'.
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PGEL - 1&2 127 10.2 Objectives After going through this unit you will be able to:
l Understand the
concept of '
reading comprehension' l List the different types of comprehension l Examine some important concepts in teaching reading comprehension l Understand the pedagogical implications of teaching reading comprehension l Understand the teaching objectives and principles underlying reading comprehension tasks and activities l Specify the various sub-skills and abilities involved in reading and understanding l Explore some classroom exercises, tasks and activities to develop reading competence l Specify the different stages of a reading lesson along with the teacher's role in each stage 10.3. Reading For Comprehension Different types of reading comprehension are often distinguished according to the reader's purposes in reading and the type of reading used. The following are commonly referred to: a) Literal comprehension: Reading in order to understand, remember, or recall the information explicitly contained in a passage. b) Inferential comprehension: Reading in order to ûnd information which is not explicitly stated in a passage, using the reader's experience and intuition, and by inferring c) Critical or evaluative comprehension: Reading in order to compare information in a passage with the reader's own knowledge and values d) Appreciative comprehension: Reading in order to gain an emotional or other kind of valued response from a passage. It is noteworthy here that we need not comprehend everything in a text. Comprehension or understanding is not 'all or nothing' process, and from it follows that reading is not an 'all or nothing process' either. Thus, although reading is a process whereby one looks at and understands what has been written, the reader does not necessarily need to look at everything in a given piece of writing. The reader actively works on the text and is able to arrive at understanding it without looking at every letter and word.

10.4. Reading Comprehension: Teaching Implications While teaching reading comprehension the teachers should aim at developing the skills and imparting those strategies that would promote comprehension. Let us take note of the important characteristics of 'comprehension' and their implications for teaching: A) All readers bring something with them to a text in terms of a general stock of knowledge referred to as the 'schemata'. The teacher should, thus, try to exploit the 'schemata' in the best possible way for better understanding of the text. Schemata is congenial for predicting and aids in deeper understanding of the text. B) One can understand something better if one puzzles out things for oneself. True learning involves a large element of personal discovery. The same is true for reading comprehension. The teacher should make learners work out things for themselves and avoid such practices like explaining the meaning of a passage or a word. Rather, such tasks and activities should be devised that learners are required to find out the information themselves or deduce the meaning going through the 'discovery procedure'. C) Understanding something will be deeper and will last longer if one does something with the information one has just acquired. This is equally true for reading. There should be such tasks and exercises that make the learners use the newfound knowledge and information. D) For understanding something the focus and the concentration is restricted to its content while other aspects is paid less attention. In reading for comprehension, too, the focus on the content is required. The teacher needs to encourage silent reading and must not use the reading text for teaching pronunciation. E) Reading is not an 'all or nothing' process. The teacher should not aim at 'total comprehension' of every single word, sentence and item of content of a passage. F) Reading comprehension is based on the competency of a set of sub-skills. The teacher should use a reading input as a vehicle for developing the sub-skills that the learner needs to exploit in comprehension of other passages. G) Like many other activities in life reading involves a variety of purposes, styles and types. The teacher should arrange such reading programmes that the learners are exposed to a variety of reading styles and types viz. intensive and extensive reading.

H) Real life reading is not an isolated activity. Often readers require to respond to the text by means of writing or speaking. While keeping the focus on developing reading skill, the teacher should try to integrate the productive skills through certain tasks and exercises based on the reading input. 10.5. Check Your Progress - 1 What do you understand by term 'reading comprehension'? What are its different types?
....
.... Discuss some of the pedagogical implications of teaching reading comprehension. ....
.... 10.6. Teaching Reading Let us now focus on the procedural aspects of teaching reading.We should note that our job as a teacher is to train the learners in the skills, sub-skills and strategies they will need for the understanding of texts. Hence, the teacher would require to consider the following factors of teaching procedure: A) The reading inputs B) The comprehension tasks and exercises C) The teaching stages 10.6.1 The Reading Input The course books play a significant role in developing reading skills. Most school curricula and language courses have prescribed course books containing a selection of texts in their reading skills section. It is a common experience for teachers that many textbooks are simply a collection of prose passages and poems. Often these texts have descriptive passages on different themes. Very often the subject matter is found to be uninteresting for the learners and do not relate to the learners' real life experience. The textbooks may not even contain a variety of text types and no while-reading activities for the learners. At the most, there a few questions, often of the long-answer type, to test the learners' understanding of the passage. Our role, as teachers, is crucial in this context. We need

to devise such questions and activities which will make the learners read the text. Attempt should be made at cognitive engagement of the learners through suitable reading input. However, there are some textbooks which give a lot of support to the teacher and the learners. There is often a built-in-teacher in the materials with variety of tasks and exercises. The teacher, here, needs to act as a facilitator. The teacher needs to only check whether the texts along with the exercises are pitched at the level of the learners or whether the learners are able to adapt to the given text varieties and the tasks. If not the teacher would require to devise a new set of activities matching the learners' needs and competencies. However, current practices in ELT have stressed more on the use of authentic texts which refer to those texts and materials that have not been originally developed for pedagogical purposes, such as articles, newspaper reports, advertisements, company reports, etc. Such texts are often thought to contain more realistic and natural examples of language use than those found in textbooks and other specially developed teaching materials.Grellet observes, "authenticity means that nothing of the original text is changed and also that its presentation and layout are retained." Planning a reading lesson begins with the reading text, no matter, whatever be the type. The reading texts included in a course book are of varying lengths with some being long pieces while some short. Usually, a text has a number of paragraphs, especially longer texts. So the first job of a teacher is to break the longer texts into smaller manageable units (though in some course books the unit division is pre-designed as in BLISS, NCERT, CBSE textbooks, etc.). A convenient approach to unit division is to allot a certain number of paragraphs which could be completed in one period, considering the total time available for completing the particular lesson. However, the teacher should not make the split arbitrarily, causing a division in ideas or themes; rather, he / she should look for natural boundaries in the text and ensure that each unit is a self-contained unit. One advantage of this approach is that the learners would be motivated to read and work with shorter texts. Moreover, each unit will have its own learning potentials and the teacher can vary their approaches and strategies more easily. Finally, handling a text in units can lead to effective learning as it helps the learners to relate the parts of the text to the whole and see how these contribute to make the total meaning. 10.6.2. Comprehension Tasks and Activities Let us now move on to study some of the tasks and exercises that can be utilised to develop reading skill. But before we move on to the detailed discussion let us first study some of the principles of designing reading tasks and exercises:

NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 131 · The tasks and exercises should be suited to the texts. An exercise should never be imposed on the

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text. It is better to allow the text to suggest what exercises are most appropriate to it.

In the words of Grellet, 'the text...should be the starting point for determining why one would normally read it, how it, would be read, how it might relate to other information.'. l Tasks must also be suited to the learners' purposes and types of reading i.e. intensive and extensive. l The tasks and activities should be varied in order to – (a) to sustain interest in the lesson (b) to prevent anticipating the question type and thus prevent rote-learning (c) to cater to different levels of learners in a heterogeneous class l The tasks and exercises should be targeted at the development of various sub- skills of reading; attempts should be made to cover as many sub-skills as possible as listed by Brown (1994) or Munby (1978). While Brown's list has already been discussed in CC-1,Mod-1, Unit-4.5.1, Munby's list of reading sub-skills are given below for reference: i. Recognizing the script of a language ii. Deducing the meaning and use of unfamiliar lexical items iii. Understanding explicitly stated information iv. Understanding information when not explicitly stated v. Understanding conceptual meaning vi. Understanding the communicative value (function) of sentences and utterances vii. Understanding relations within the sentence viii. Understanding relations between the parts of a text through lexical cohesion devices ix. Understanding cohesion between/among parts of a text through grammatical cohesion devices x. Interpreting text by going outside it xi. Recognizing indicators in discourse Identifying the main point or important information in a piece of discourse xii. Distinguishing the main idea from supporting details xiii. Extracting salient points to summarise (the text, an idea etc.) xiv. Selective extraction of relevant points from a text xv. Basic reference skills xvi. Skimming xvii. Scanning to locate specifically required information

xviii.Transcoding information to diagrammatic display · However, there should not be a plethora of tasks; too many tasks and exercises may spoil the pleasure of reading. A balance need to be struck between leaving the learners without any help on one hand, and on the other, 'squeezing the text dry'. · Learners may be allowed to see the questions they are going to answer before reading the text. This will enable them to opt for the right strategy of reading i.e. they would read in the required way. For example, they would scan the text to extract specific information while skim to understand the theme of a particular text as per the demand of the task Let us now proceed to our discussion on the different kinds of comprehension exercises which can be effectively used to develop reading skills. Broadly, comprehension exercises can be of two kinds: a) Comprehension questions and b) Comprehension tasks and activities and the teacher should present a careful mix of both the types for developing better comprehension competency. a) Comprehension questions: Comprehension questions can be further classified into Fixed Response Items and Free Response Items. Fixed response items include MCQs, True/False statements with justification or supporting statement, matching exercises, fill in the blanks, and sentence completion with information from the text, etc. MCQs consist of a stem which poses the problem followed by four or five options, one of which is the correct or the best answer. The alternatives are known as distractors. They are plausible answers designed to deceive the weaker learners. The stem may be in the form of a direct question, and incomplete statement or a word or a phrase. True-False exercises present a statement. A learner has to decide whether it is true or false in accordance with the text. It should be noted that if the answer is available explicitly in the text then they are less effective as they pose no challenge to the student. The answer should be implicit, requiring inference and deduction which are key sub-skills of reading. In case of 'false' statement the learners should be made to state the correct statement, while for 'true' statements they should be asked to provide the supporting statement or relevant extract from the text. Thus, guess work may be avoided. Matching exercise involves two columns of words or statements in which the items in the first column do not correspond with those in the second column. The learners are required to match.

NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 133 All the above items along with fill in the blanks and sentence completion are ideal for developing the sub-skills of scanning, inference, etc.Besides these, cloze exercises (wherein words are deleted from a reading passage at regular intervals leaving blanks) may be introduced involving grammar and vocabulary items, however, these should be comparatively few in number as the focus need to be primarily on comprehension of the text. Free Response Items: These are the conventional 'Wh-questions' requiring the learners to write a short or a long answer. Thus along with comprehension, these require certain competency in the productive skill of writing. The different types of free response items include: a) Questions of literal comprehension: These are questions whose answers are directly and explicitly available in the text. The learners are free to answer in the words of the text itself, though this is not desirable. These questions are essential preliminaries to serious works on the text, because unless the learner has grasped the plain meaning of the text, the in-depth questions will be of no use. b) Questions of inference: These questions make the learners 'read between the lines', consider what is implied, but not stated explicitly. The difficulty is more of cognitive in nature rather than linguistic in most cases and the learners need to assimilate and synthesise in his/her mind pieces of information that are scattered in the text, so that their joint implication can be recognised. c) Questions of evaluation: Evaluative questions involve the reader in making a considered judgement about the text in terms of what the writer is trying to do and how far he has achieved it. These questions often include literary appreciation and are more appropriate at advanced levels. Through these questions we must ensure that the learner not merely responds but can analyse his/her responses and measure it against the presumed intention of the writer. d) Questions of personal response: Of all the types of questions the answer to this type depends upon the reader and least on the writer. Here, the learners are asked to record their impressions and reactions based on textual evidence. So the learners go beyond their role as readers and essentially get involved with the writer. Nuttall's (1982) observations in respect of the quality and type of questions are important in this connection. His observations can be summed up as follows: Firstly, there should be a repertoire of comprehension questions which will cover the full potential of the text. Questions should go beyond simple recall and recognition to the higher levels of cognitive activity. Thus, the complete reading programme should begin with questions which establish the purpose of reading and then demand information to be verified from the text.

134 NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 Secondly, good questions should be like sign-posts. Signpost Questions (SPQ) are questions which provide directions to the learner for discovering where the meaning or information is to be found. Their purpose is to guide the students when they read, directing attention to the important parts in the text, preventing them from going off the track. SPQs draw attention to that learning point and stimulate thought and exploration. Thirdly, good questions should stimulate interpretation. A subjective response usually results in alternative judgements. If questions generate discussion, exercise the learners' mental skills, lead to defence of arguments or constructive criticism on the basis of textual evidence, them much of the teacher's aim is achieved. Fourthly, all good questions should help the learners in comprehension by engaging the learners in active struggle with the text. If the learners are able to give the answer by merely guessing, then these questions become valueless. Hence, the questions must probe the evidences students use to arrive at the answer. Paradoxically, it is when the students give a wrong answer (due to misreading of the text and not on ignorance) that the real work of developing understanding can begin. Thus, comprehension questions must be followed by process questions like 'how do you know?', 'in which line / passage did you get the answer?', etc. Finally, it must be noted, that although a student may learn to react appropriately to all questions, they are but a means to an end. Reading is a solitary activity. In real life reading experiences learners will not be aided by any external stimulus to focus his/her thinking. Thus, the primary aim of all questions should be to stimulate the learner to develop the art of self-posed questions. However, provocative questions they are, they can never fully cover the special needs and difficulties peculiar to each individual. Thus, from the earlier stages, learners should be encouraged in to ask questions as they read. Such training is useful in teaching them how to read in general. b) Comprehension Activities Different kinds of texts offer opportunities for different kinds of exploitation. Traditionally, texts have been exploited by means of questions. Current practices, however, have adopted more flexible and adventurous methods. Various kinds of activities have been devised to supplement (and not to replace) questions. Different types of such comprehension tasks and activities include: a) Outcomes involving non-linguistic responses: l Drawing figures (geometric, portraits) from a set of written instructions l Plotting a route on a map l Constructing a map from given description / instruction in a text l Marking the correct option from a set of alternatives as in MCQs

NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 135 l Numbering as per sequence l Underlining words / parts of a text b) Outcomes involving linguistic responses (spoken and written) l Suggesting a title to indicate global comprehension l Dramatization of the given text and role play l Debate based on issues given in the text l Discussions based on issues given in the text l Short talk / giving opinion on issues in the text l Designing advertisements / posters for objects described in the text l Writing synonyms / antonyms and framing meaningful sentences l Writing a script / skit based on the text l Writing summary l Writing critical appreciation l Composing text-generated reports, letters, notices, etc. l Information-transfer task l Constructing tables, graphs, charts, flow-charts, from given information in the text 10.6.3 The Teaching Stages Having chosen the text and decided broadly on the tasks and exercises, the next important job of the teacher is to chalk out a plan on how to conduct the entire lesson in a phased manner so that he/she can achieve the targeted broad and specific objectives. We shall now discuss the various stages of a reading session. The receptive model, as also in listening, has three basic

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stages: a) Pre-reading stage b) While reading stage c) Post reading stage a) Pre-reading

stage: This stage is called 'preparation', 'introduction' or 'lead-in'. Here the teacher prepares the students, puts them in proper mental frame to receive the text. Some of the teaching objectives and teacher activities may include the following: Teaching Objectives l To prepare the learners to receive the text l To arouse interest and curiosity in the content l To encourage them to predict / anticipate the reading content l To give them motivating purposes for reading

136 NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 l To exploit their 'schemata' or their existing knowledge regarding the reading content thereby establishing a cognitive link between their knowledge and the content to be read Teacher Activities l Exploiting illustrations to stimulate hypothesis about the content / plot / theme etc. l Showing pictures to introduce the content l Asking few general and topic related questions to the class as a whole and making the learners respond l Organise brief discussions about the theme / content l Clarifying few difficult key words / culturally alien words which may pose difficulty in global comprehension b) While reading stage: This stage is the 'presentation' stage where the students actually read to find out all the information the text has to offer. The learners in this stage are required to engage in different ways for negotiating for potential meaning. The teaching objectives and teacher activity can be summed up as under: Teaching Objectives l To help understand the writer's purpose l To help understand the organisation of the text l To help comprehend and the interpret the meaning / message conveyed in the text l To develop the various sub-skills of reading l To make the learners work on a variety of comprehension exercises, tasks and activities l To help the learners devise their strategy of reading as per the need l To improve on the learners' reading speed and instil good reading practices Teacher Activities l Introducing the reading text / input; the learners may be asked to read twice or thrice considering the difficulty level of the text l Introducing the while reading tasks and exercises; the learners may be asked to work out in phased manner if needed l Managing the class effectively through pair / group work or individual activity l Encouraging time bound reading to improve the reading speed l Broadly acting as the facilitator of the reading process l Conducting task end assessment and evaluation

NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 137 In general, while reading work begins with a general or global understanding of the text, and then move to the smaller units such as paragraphs, sentences and words. c) Post reading stage: This is the 'follow-up' stage wherein the teacher needs to move away from the text to the inner thoughts and feelings of the learners. In this stage the questions of evaluation and personal response can be assigned. Skill integration is another aspect of this stage. Many of the follow-up activities can be done orally, like group discussion, oral presentation of personal views, debate, short talk, etc. Similarly, written work can be a natural culmination of the content in the text. The teaching objectives and teacher activity can be summed up as under: Teaching Objectives l To develop certain sub-skills of reading like extra-integration, etc. l To help the learners relate the text to their own knowledge, interests or views l To consolidate and reflect upon what has been read l To trace the development of thought and opinion l To suggest practical application of theories / principles / concepts / arguments read in the text l To integrate reading skill with other productive skills Teacher Activities l Organising pair / group discussions, debate l Arranging for dramatizing and role-play activities l Writing summary and critical appreciation l Writing notes / reports l Help learners find out parallel texts in English or any other known language l Broadly acting as an observer and facilitator as post reading stage is free production stage beyond error correction 10.7. Extensive Reading In our preceding discussion we have primarily dealt with the principles and procedural aspects that a teacher should keep in mind while planning and executing an intensive reading session. However, as stated earlier, the teacher should also focus on conducting extensive reading sessions or programmes. Extensive reading involves reading in quantity without bothering to check every unknown word or structure, meaning and message of

138 NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 the content. Global comprehension and interpretation is the primary target. The primary purpose is to train the learners to read fluently in English for their own enjoyment and without the aid of a teacher. Learners are encouraged to read widely on subjects in which they find interest (art, politics, sports, social, scientific, etc.) and share what they have enjoyed with their classmates. They are expected to be able to discuss not only the content but the implications of what they read. Reading, thus, becomes a technique, not an end in itself, and language becomes a vehicle, a tool, and a model. Thus, the teacher should consider the following principles while conducting an extensive reading session: l Although extensive reading involves a lot of reading out of class, some class time has to be devoted to it both to maintain the learners' interest in it and to train them how to cope with longer texts. Learners who have not acquired the reading habit are often put off by the long books usually prescribed for supplementary reading. Necessary guidance and encouragement need to be given through an organised extensive reading programme. l The material that the learners are encouraged to read should be more easily and readily accessible in language and content than that which is studied intensively. The aim of an extensive reading programme is to establish the habit of reading among the learners. It is not difficult to create this habit if the books are well chosen. When the teacher chooses books for extensive reading, thecriterion of readability (i.e., suiting the linguistic level of the reader) and suitability of content are even more important than when the teacher chooses atext for intensivereading, because it is expected that the learners will read the bookson their own. Extensive reading materials should, therefore, be: a) Easy: The language must be easier than that found in the coursebook because the guidance of the teacher or the task is absent for the learner. To develop fluent reading it is far more useful to read a lot of easy materials than a few difficult ones. b) Short: The length of the book must not be daunting. Elementary level learners need slim books so that they can finish quickly without a sense of strain and without getting bored. c) Appealing: The book will be appealing if it is attractive in appearance, well-printed and with good coloured illustrations - more illustrations and bigger print for more elementary learners. d) Varied: There must be a wide choice of books to suit the varying needs and wants of the learners in terms of content, language, and intellectual and emotional maturity.

NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 139 In most school curricula, 'literature readers' are meant for extensive reading at secondary and senior secondary levels. l It is noteworthy that the three-phase teaching procedure along with many of the tasks and activities, specifically the while-reading stage and its associated tasks, as discussed in the preceding section are not applicable to extensive reading. Hence, the teacher should ascertain to conduct some activities (if not tasks) to keep track of the learners' reading alongside developing some of the sub-skills. Typical extensive reading tasks and activates may include: summary writing, writing critical appreciation and reviews, peer / group discussion on the theme and issues dealt with in the text, maintaining a study journal which would include their reflections on various aspects of the text as they proceed with the reading, oral or written presentation of chapter or part summary, etc. For further details and samples of reading texts, tasks and activities please refer to CC-1 Mod-4, Unit-15. 10.8 Check Your Progress - 2 Discuss some examples of tasks and exercises involving 'linguistic' and 'non-linguistic' responses.

....
.... What are some of the factors we should keep in mind while selecting a reading text? ....
.... What would be your role as a teacher in the while reading stage? ....
.... In which stage would you like to integrate productive skills with reading and how? Give examples.
....
.... Discuss the sub-skills of reading in details.
....
....

140 NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 10.9. Summary In this unit we have studied the following: l Most reading in real life situation is silent involving 'comprehension' l Comprehension is an active process drawing both on information contained in the message (bottom-up processing) as well as background knowledge, i.e. information from the context and from the reader's purposes or intentions (top-down processing). l Reading comprehension can be of basically four types : Literal, Inferential, Critical or Evaluative and Appreciative comprehension l A teacher would require to consider the following factors of teaching procedure: the reading input, the comprehension tasks and exercises, the teaching stages l Reading input may include texts from prescribed course books or 'authentic' texts l The reading text may be suitably divided into smaller units for better comprehension l Reading comprehension exercises include 'Free Response' and 'Fixed Response' items; Fixed Response items include tasks like MCQs, matching, etc. while Free Response items include long and short questions of inference, literal comprehension, evaluation and personal response l Comprehension tasks and exercises include items of 'linguistic' and 'non-linguistic' responses; items involving non-linguistic response include marking, underlining, etc., linguistic responses call for spoken or written work. l Teaching reading involves three stages: Pre-reading, while reading and post- reading l Pre-reading is the warm up stage where the teacher motivates the students, puts them in proper mental frame to receive the text. l In the while reading stage the students actually read to find out all the information provided in the text and develops an understanding of the text working out certain tasks and exercises; the teacher attempts to develop various sub-skills of reading in this stage l Post-reading stage attempts at integrating reading skill with speaking or writing skill. l Conducting extensive reading programmes and sessions are equally important to make the learners fluent readers.

NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 141 10.10 Review Questions 1. How many types of comprehension have been discussed in this unit? What are some of the subtle differences? 2. What strategies can we use to facilitate easier comprehension for our students? 3. Do all texts lend themselves to information transfer exercises? Give some examples. 4. What are the different stages of teaching in a reading lesson? 5. How can we promote extensive reading in our learners? 6. Which factors should a language teacher stress in particular in the teaching procedure of reading comprehension? 7. Enumerate the salient principles while conducting an extensive reading session. 8. Write your appraisal of teacher activitiesin the pre-reading stage. 9. Sum up teacher activitiesin the reading stage. How best can a teacher help a learner out of probable reading difficulties? 10. How should a teacher conduct himself ideally in post reading 'follow-up' stage? 10.11. References Bajwa, B. (Ed.). (2009). A Handbook of Teaching English. New Delhi. Orient Black Swan. Bowen, J. D. (1985). TESOL techniques and procedures. Rowley, Mass.:Newbury House Publishers. Brown, H.D. (1994), Teaching by Principles. New Jersey. Prentice Hall. Bygate, M. (1987). Foreign Language Study. London. Oxford University Press. Grellet, F. (1981). Developing Reading Skills. Cambridge. CUP. Hadfield, Jill & Charles. (2008) Introduction to teaching English. Eigal S. A. Portugal. Oxford University Press Harmer, Jeremy. (2007). The Practice of English Language Teaching. Essex. Pearson education Limited. Jyotsna, M&Rao.(2009).Methods of Teaching English. Guntur: Sri Nagarjuna Publishers. Kudchedkar, S. (2010). Readings in English Language Teaching in India. Chennai. Orient Black Swan. Kumari, AV. 2014. Methods of Teaching English. Guntur: New Era Publications. Munby, J. (1978). Communicative Syllabus Design. Cambridge: CUP. 142 NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 Nunan, D. (1991). Language Teaching Methodology: A textbook for teachers. New York. Prentice Hall. Nuttall, C. (1982). Teaching Reading Skills in a Foreign Language. London. Heinemann. Oxford, Rebecca. (2001) Integrated Skills in the ESL/EFL Classroom. ESL Magazine, Vol. 6, No. 1, January/February 2001. Palmer, H. (1922). The Principles of Language Study. London. Oxford University Press. Rao, VK. (2012). Techniques of Teaching English.Hyderabad: Neelkamal Publications. Richards, Jack C. & Schmidt, Richard. (2002). Dictionary of Language Teaching & Applied Linguistics. London: Longman.

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Unit - 11 p Writing Skills - 1 Structure 11.1 Introduction 11.2 Objectives 11.3 Teaching Writing 11.4 The Approaches to Teaching Writing 11.4.1 The Controlled-to-Free Writing Approach 11.4.2 The Free-Writing Approach 11.4.3 The Paragraph—Pattern Approach 11.4.4 The Grammar-Syntax-Organization Approach 11.4.5 The Communicative Approach 11.4.6 The Process Approach 11.5 The Principles of Teaching Writing 11.6 The Sub-Skills of Writing 11.7 Levels and Stages of the Writing Process 11.7.1 The Beginners Level or Stage 1 11.7.2 Intermediate Level or Stage 2 11.7.3 The Advanced Level or Stage 3 11.8 The difference between Skilled and Unskilled Writers 11.9 Summary 11.10 Review Questions 11.11 References 11.1 Introduction Let us now focus on writing skills which is considered to be the most difficult of all the skills. As Rosen (1981) points out, the writer is denied a wide range of expressive possibilities that are available to a speaker. In his words, '…the writer is a lonely figure cut off from the stimulus and corrective of listeners. He must be a predictor of reactions and act on his predictions. He writes with one hand tied behind his back, being robbed of gesture. He is robbed too of the tone of his voice and the aid of clues the environment provides. He is condemned to monologue, there is no one to help out, to fill the silences,

144 NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 put words in his mouth, or make encouraging noises'. From this observation we can make out how difficult it is for the learner to emerge as a competent writer unless properly guided. Let us look back to our school days. Do we have sweet and pleasant memories of our writing classes?Perhaps not, with most of us. We have always regarded them as a 'necessary evil' or an activity that has to be gone through. Tricia Hedge points out, "… many students and teachers would recognise, if ruefully, the characterisation of writing periods as times of sighing, pencil chewing, foot-shuffling agony" (1988). Our experience as teachers of composition does not present writing as a very interesting and enjoyable activity. It has often been the practice to convert composition classes into prose, poetry or grammar classes as it is felt that "there is no need to teach writing". While the writing skill is thus dismissed or ignored, it is paradoxical to find that the examination tests only the skill of writing continuously for two to three hours. It is generally assumed that writing is not 'taught' but is usually 'caught'. However, it is to be noted that writing is a learned skill and not an acquired one. It requires training in the art of writing i.e. both how to write words and how to create meanings. Thus, as teachers, first we need to consider the various nuances of writing systematically which in turn will help us to grasp the nature of the skill better, and consequently identify the optimal ways that we should adopt to teach it. 11.2 Objectives

After going through this unit you will be able to: l Understand the

need and importance of teaching writing l Examine some of the theoretical concepts and approaches to teaching writing l Understand the pedagogical implications of teaching writing l Specify the various sub-skills and abilities involved in writing l Differentiate between skilled and unskilled writers 11.3. Teaching Writing As teachers let us now determine some of the objectives of teaching writing. Chastain (1976), in this regard observes: "The goal in writing is twofold. Psychologically students are more impressed by exercises that are to be written and handed in than by those that are to be learned. Realistically, the teacher knows that writing homework exercises and

NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 145 other written activities help the students to acquire the vocabulary and the grammar of the lesson. Practically, the students' minimum contact with the language in the classroom must be expanded as much as possible. The overall objective then will be to help the learners express their ideas in written form." Thus, Donn Byrne (1979) suggests the following objectives of teaching writing: l The introduction and practice of some form of writing enables the teachers to provide for different learning style and needs. Some learners especially those who do not learn easily through oral practice, feel more secure if they are allowed to read and write in the language. For such students, writing is likely to be an aid to retention, if only because they feel more at ease and relaxed. l Writing is often needed for formal and informal testing. l The exposure to a foreign language through more than one medium is likely to be more effective than relying on a single medium alone. Writing also provides variety in classroom activities; serving as a break from oral work and

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increases the amount of language contact through work that can be set out of class.

Additional objectives of a teacher in conducting writing classes may include the following: l Reinforcing learning; writing helps to reinforce learning as the close relationship between writing and thinking makes it a valuable part of any language course. l Generating interest and motivating the learners for taking up writing assignments shedding all inhibitions l Giving exposure to a variety of academic and non-academic real life writing practices. All through the learning years, a learner needs to write various types academic write ups like long and short answers, essays, amplifications, substance, precis, literary appreciation, dialogues, academic papers and articles, dissertation, thesis. Non-academic writings may include literary and creative writings, diaries, reviews etc. along with various professional writings like official letters, business letters, reports, proposals, notice, etc. · Developing the sub-skills that goes into efficient writing. Check Your Progress 1 Based on the above discussion state some of the objective statements that you would consider before conducting a writing class. You may begin your statements in the following manner: 'to develop…', 'to introduce…' and so on. ....

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146 NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 11.4. The Approaches to Teaching Writing An understanding of the various approaches that have been adopted and practiced or experimented with over the years by second or foreign language teachers and researchers across the globe is essential before we justifiably decide on our approach and principles of teaching writing. Ann Raimes (1983) has basically identified six types of approaches: The controlled-to-free writing approach, the free writing approach, the paragraph-pattern approach, the grammar-syntax-organisation approach, the communicative approach and the process approach. We would now try to understand the assumptions and pedagogical applications of each of these approaches in details. 11.4.1 The Controlled-to-Free Writing Approach During the 1950s and early 1960s the audio-lingual method dominated the second language teaching approach wherein speech was considered primary and writing served to reinforce speech in that it stressed mastery of grammatical and syntactic forms. ESL teachers developed techniques to move learners towards this mastery through the controlled-to- free writing approach. The controlled-to-free writing approach is sequential: students are first given sentence exercises, then paragraphs to copy or manipulate grammatically by, for instance, changing questions to statements, present to past, or plural to singular. They may also require to transform or combine sentences. They work on given material and perform strictly prescribed operations on it. With these controlled compositions, it is relatively easy for students to write a great deal yet avoid errors. Only after reaching a high intermediate or advanced level of proficiency are learners allowed to try some free compositions, in which they express their own ideas. This approach focuses on accuracy rather than fluency or originality. 11.4.2 The Free-Writing Approach Teachers and researchers have often stressed on the quantity of writing rather than quality. They adopted the approach of teaching writing by assigning vast amounts of free writing on given topics, with only minimal correction of error. The emphasis in this approach is that intermediate-level students should put content and fluency first and not worry about form. Once ideas are down on page, grammatical accuracy, organisation, and the rest will gradually follow. Concern for 'audience' and 'content' are seen as important in this approach, especially since the free writings often revolve around subjects that the students are interested in, and those subjects then become the basis for other more focused writing tasks.

NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 147 11.4.3 The Paragraph–Pattern Approach This approach is also called the model based approach wherein students copy paragraphs, analyse the form of model paragraphs, and imitate model passages. They put scrambled sentences into paragraph order, they identify general and specific statements, they choose or invent an appropriate topic sentence, they insert or delete sentences. This approach is based on the assumption that in different cultures people construct and organise their communication with each other in different ways. So even if learners organise their ideas well in their first language, they still need to see, analyse, and practice the particularly 'English' features of a piece of writing. Though, this approach lacks creativity and originality on the part of the writer, it is very helpful for the weaker learners, they do not know how to write on their own, and the models provide them good support. It is noteworthy here that this approach is the most popular approach in teaching writing in India and is widely practiced by teachers across all levels largely because of the ease of implementation specifically in dealing with large classes and also due to lack of awareness of the emerging trends. However, this approach can be made more challenging for the learners by adopting the following procedure: Specify Let learners Study Model Compare with Revise task write what learner's writing they can The presentation of the model, in the context of the learner's own writing, especially after his/her initial struggle is sure to be much more meaningful and useful for the learner. 11.4.4 The Grammar-Syntax-Organisation Approach Many teachers and researchers have stressed on the need to work simultaneously on more than one compositional skills. Writing, as per this approach, cannot be seen as composed of separate skills which are learned one by one in isolation. Hence, teachers have devised writing tasks that lead learners to pay attention to organisation while they also work on the necessary grammar and syntax. For instance, to write a clear set of instruction on how to operate a PC, the writer needs more than the appropriate vocabulary; he/she needs the simple forms of verbs, an organisational plan based on functional sequence, sequence words like 'first', 'then', etc. and even sentence structures like 'when…., then….'. This is a sort of whole language approach to teaching writing.

11.4.2 The Communicative Approach The communicative approach stresses the purpose of a piece of writing and the audience for it. Learners are encouraged to behave like writers in real life and to ask themselves the crucial questions about the purpose and audience – who am I writing for? Who will read it? Traditionally, the teacher alone has been the audience for learner writings. But advocates of communicative approach to language teaching have asserted that writers do their best when writing is a truly communicative act, with a writer writing for a real reader. Hence, teachers using the communicative approach to writing have extended the readership. They extend it to the other students in the class, who not only read the piece but actually do something with it, such as respond, rewrite in another form, summarise, or make comments – but not correct. Teachers may also specify readers outside the classroom, thus, providing the learners with a context in which they would require to select appropriate language, content and levels of formality. An ideal writing task in this approach can be thus: 'You are participating in a student exchange programme with another school. Students will exchange schools and homes for three months. A dyslexic student whom you have never written to before will be coming to your house and occupying your room. Write a letter describing the room in detail so that the student can almost visualise it and have a clear picture of your room.' 11.4.3 The Process Approach Emerging trends in ELT have shifted focus from the written product to the process involved in writing. When concentrating on the product teachers are only interested in the aim of a task and in the end product. However, those who advocate a process approach pay attention to the various stages that any piece of writing goes through. Teachers spend time with the learners during pre-writing phases, editing, redrafting and finally 'publishing' their work; the process approach aims to get to the heart of the various sub- skills that should be employed when writing. Ron White and Valerie Arndt (1991) have stressed that 'writing is re-writing; that revision – seeing with new eyes – has central role to play in the act of creating text'. In their model, process writing is an interrelated set of recursive stages which include: l Drafting l Structuring (ordering information, experimenting with arrangements, etc.) l Reviewing (checking context, connections, assessing impact, editing) l Focusing (that is making sure one is getting the message across he/she wants to get across)

l Generating ideas and evaluation (accessing the draft and/or subsequent drafts) White and Arndt's model can be represented diagrammatically in the figure given below: Fig. 11.1 : White and Arndt's process writing model Teachers who use the process approach require to give their learners two crucial supports: time for the learners to try out ideas and feedback on the content of what they write in their drafts. The writing process, thus, becomes a process of discovery for the learners: discovery of new ideas and new language forms to express those ideas. Apart from the aforesaid approaches as identified by Raimes, there are some other approaches that have been proposed by researchers and ELT practitioners. One such approach is the Genre Approach. In terms of writing in a second language, the genre approach has been defined as "a framework instruction". The term 'genre' has been defined as a communicative event and members of each subclass share some communicative functions such as, film reviews containing analysis of movies, editorial columns giving ideas and suggestions, book reviews analysing content of a book, product manuals describing the mode of operation and a set of trouble shooting strategies that writers should know, business letters accomplishing various business purposes like sales, complaint, etc. Thus, each genre intends to fulfil the expectations of an imagined community of readers of that genre. Therefore, each genre constitutes specific communicative features, organisational

structure and linguistic features. In genre approach to writing the leaners need to study sample texts in the genre they are going to be writing before they embark on their own writing. They need to consider certain factors like the knowledge of the topic, the conventions and style of the genre, and the context in which their writing will be read, and by whom. The genre approach is especially appropriate for learners of ESP at the advanced level, however, it may be adopted at the intermediate level too considering some of the genres suitable for that level. Another approach that has been experimented with, specifically in India, is the 'Interactive' approach to teaching writing. As a result of extensive research and experimentation, the Central Board of Secondary Education (CBSE) and the Council for the Indian School Certificate Examinations (CISCE) inducted the interactive approach. The main objective of the interactive approach is accomplishment of language skills (including writing) in an interactive situation. Some of the salient features of this approach are as follows: l This approach involves the actual usage of the language in speech and writing. l It emphasises the eliciting response of the students rather than providing information to the students. l It is an activity-based approach; it is an interaction between the student and the teacher; interaction is made to teach the students. l This approach involves students in different activities such as understanding the text, identifying the main points of the text, pointing out the central idea, selection and extraction of information from the text for specific purposes and engaging in practical activities such as writing. We may note that all of the approaches mentioned above overlap. We may not even restrict our tasks and classroom teaching strategies to a single approach excluding all others. We may adopt the communicative or process approach and may still use techniques drawn from other approaches as the learners need them – model paragraphs, controlled compositions, free writing, etc. It is advisable to adopt an 'eclectic' approach as per need of the learners. Check Your Progress 2 What are some of the major approaches to teaching writing? How would you decide on your approach to teaching writing?

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NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 151 Discuss the process approach to writing in details. How do you plan to implement the process approach in your writing classes? ....

.... 11.5 The Principles of Teaching "Writing" Let us now focus on the various principles of teaching 'writing' that we, as teachers, should consider while planning and executing a writing session: 1. Meaning-focused Input : l We should arrange our class in a manner that the learners are able to bring experience and knowledge into their writing; writing is most likely to be successful and meaningful for the learners if they are well prepared for what they are going to write. l We can ensure the preparation through the choice of topic, or through previous work done on the topic either in the ûrst or second language. l We should then make the learners actively 'brainstorm' for ideas and points to write on the selected/given topic. 2. Meaning-focused Output: l We should always engage the learners in doing lots of writing and lots of diûerent kinds of writing. There are many elements of the writing skill which are peculiar to writing and so time spent in writing provides useful practice for these elements. Diûerent genres use diûerent writing conventions and draw on diûerent language features and so we should make sure that learners are getting writing practice in the range of genres that they will have to write in. l We should make the learners write with a message-focused purpose; most writing should be done with the aim of communicating a message to the reader and the learner/writer should have a reader in mind when writing. l We should also take care that writing should interest learners and draw on their interests and that the learners experience a feeling of success in most of their writing. l Learners should use writing to increase their language knowledge - lexical, syntactic or compositional. 3. Language-focused Learning: l We should let the learners know about the parts / phases of the writing process and ensure that the learners are able to discuss them in relation to their own and others' writing.

152 NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 l We must note that the learners are able to adopt conscious strategies for dealing with parts of the writing process. l Where the L1 uses a diûerent script, as in India, the learners should give attention to clarity and ûuency in producing the form of the written script in L2 i.e. English. l Spelling should be given an appropriate amount of deliberate attention largely separated from feedback on writing. l We should provide and arrange for feedback that encourages and improves writing. l We should make the learners aware of the ethical issues involved in writing and they should be encouraged to reflect originality. 4. Skill-focused learning: l We should attempt to develop all the sub-skills of writing and the learners should be made aware of each of the sub-skills that he/she is required to employ as he/she proceeds through the writing task. A range of sub-skills as proposed by Raimes and Munby has been discussed in Unit 11.6. l We should also make students aware of the various styles and strategies that he/ she needs to adopt in producing an impressive write-up viz. identifying the purpose of writing, writing for the reader or the audience, the tone, the style - humorous or satiric, etc. 5. Fluency Development: l We should take care that the learners are able to increase their writing speed gradually so that they can write very simple material at a reasonable speed with proper reflection of their thoughts. l We need to note that fluency development in writing can occur through repetitive activities and through working with easy, familiar material. Check Your Progress 3 What are some of the major principles of teaching writing? How do you plan to ensure that the principles are reflected in your teaching?

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.... 11.6. The Sub-Skills of Writing We are now aware that being a productive skill writing involves the employment of certain sub-skills, the co-ordinated involvement of which produces a good write up. Raimes's (1983) proposition (as discussed in CC-1, Mod-1, Unit-4.6.2) in this regard is NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 153 immensely helpful for any teacher. Additionally, we may also refer to the list of Munby's writing sub-skills as given below for further guidance and planning writing classes: A. Manipulating the script of a language · forming the shapes of letters l using the spelling system l using punctuation B. Expressing information explicitly C. Expressing information implicitly through l inference l figurative language D. Expressing the communicative value of sentences and utterances E. Expressing relations within a sentence using l elements of sentence structure l modal auxiliaries l intra-sentential connectors F. Establishing relations between different parts of a text through lexical cohesion devices G. Establishing relations between different parts of a text through grammatical cohesion devices H. Using indicators in discourse for l introducing an idea l developing an idea l transition to another idea l concluding an idea l emphasising a point l explanation of point already made l anticipating an objection I. Reducing the text through avoiding irrelevant information (adapted from John Munby: 1983: A Taxonomy of Language Skills) We should take care that the learners are consciously made to employ all the sub-skills in producing a write-up. Check Your Progress 4 Discuss the sub-skills of writing in details. What strategies would you adopt to develop the sub-skills?

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.... 11.7. Levels and Stages of the Writing Process Let us now try to understand the various levels and stages that the learners are required to go through as they go on to master the skills and sub-skills of writing. 11.7.1.The Beginners Level or Stage-1 The first level of basic writing focuses on such writing skills as: legibility, orientation of alphabet, shapes and cursive styles, neatness of handwriting, knowledge of the building blocks of English letters, discerning and arranging the English alphabet in order, etc. Learners are also engaged in identifying, naming and spelling out words to be copied, recognition and production of written form: vowels, consonants and blends, words and syllables, upper and lower case letters, basic spelling patterns, rhyming words, punctuation, phrases and sentences. When learners are able to write words from memory, they are required to: make a detailed and itemized list of objects in pictures, draw and label their own pictures, make personalized linguistic arrangements by creating a personal letterhead, design a monthly calendar or birthday card for a classmate and draw a picture map of the neighborhood in another familiar area. At the basic level of writing, alphabetizing tasks provide writing practice. These tasks include the following: Ø Listing words beginning with a particular alphabet or having a particular sound. Ø Rearrangement of a group of words in alphabetical order Ø Recognition of consonant sounds in the names of classmates. Ø Recalling objects (used in daily situations) whose names begin with a particular sound As the beginner's knowledge of English increases through speaking and listening and reading aloud, new words, phrases, and sentences will be generated, and the learners may then be required to do the following: Ø prepare a list of topical words Ø prepare associational pairs or groups of words Ø prepare a flowchart of antonyms Ø prepare a mind map of synonyms

NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 155 Ø prepare familiar structures of daily usage like names of days and seasons Ø prepare personal lists, grocery lists, food menus, and even stationery lists From words, learners can proceed to short word groups such as phrases, and then they extend their linguistic skills from phrase writing into sentence writing. This is an extended writing exercise. While doing this, they will be engaged in sentence combining, paragraph assembly, paragraph completion, controlled composition (such as rewriting the paragraph in a different tense, modification of names and pronouns, etc.), guided composition (which provides some tips or ideas and the students write short sentences and paragraphs on a topic based on items provided), and questions and answers. 11.7.2.Intermediate Level or Stage Two Next, at the intermediate level, the focus changes to writing with a purpose and learners acquire a plethora words and start writing English for specific usages. They continue to have flawed and erroneous writing. However, at the same time they begin to focus on the use of pronoun links, connecting words for the coherent expression and flow of thoughts expressed, and the use of specific grammatical strategies such as conditional clause and double negatives, modals, tense, etc. Punctuation, arrangement of sentences within a paragraph, transformation of one sentence type into another with or without change in the meaning, stylistic improvements, summarising the ideas found in a passage in their own sentences, completion of sentences and paragraphs to match the ideas contained therein or they want to express, writing with the appropriate tone, style and organisation for the topic focused upon, are some of the things which are important in the instructional design of the intermediate level. This cannot be achieved without supervised practice in which learners are instructed to arrange their ideas in three main ways: Ø Take subjective content or self-gathered information and cast it into a logical format. Ø Analyse a prescribed or suggested (by the teacher) prose model, reconstruct its outline, and use the outline as a model for writing another passage, using parallel or analogous information. Ø Follow an outline prepared by someone else, e.g., teacher or textbook. At the intermediate level, there should be some focus on writing faster, in the same way there would be some focus on reading faster and better. If the students are too slow in writing, it will become increasingly difficult for them to match the speed of their thoughts with their writing speed. It is important that the teacher gives dictation exercises progressively increasing their speed. It is also important that one gives one's students timed writing on given topics. Yet another way to increase speed in writing is to ask

156 NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 them to perform some close exercises. Bowen (1985) describes, "Students copy an incomplete short passage and then complete it in their own words. The objective is not to increase the number of words per minute, but to increase the speed of organizing thought in a second language and of judging and producing in a style that will be compatible with the first part of the passage." 11.7.3. The Advanced Level or Stage Three Students enter the advanced level with a good knowledge of sentence structure, vocabulary, and idiom. They are already exposed to a variety of forms of writing. They can meet almost every need at the end of the intermediate level. However, they may not have much exposure to the specialised literature. They may not have much acquaintance with the specialist vocabulary in English from their fields of specialisation. Thus, at the advanced level of writing in English, the focus is more on English for specific purposes. Writers at the advanced level are also required write routine informal and some formal correspondence, as well as narratives, descriptions, and summaries of a factual nature. They can narrate and describe in the major time frames of past, present, and future, using paraphrasing and elaboration to provide clarity. Advanced-level writers produce connected discourse of paragraph length and structure. At this level, writers show good control of the most frequently used structures and generic vocabulary. Advanced writers are able to write about a variety of topics with significant precision and detail. They can handle informal and formal correspondence according to appropriate conventions. They can write summaries and reports of a factual nature. They can also write extensively about topics relating to particular interests and special areas of competence, although their writing tends to emphasise the concrete aspects of such topics. 11.8.The Difference Between Skilled and Unskilled Writers Let us now study the difference between a skilled writer and an unskilled writer so that we can make our learners aware of the skills requirements and train them accordingly. Less skilled writers tend to focus on the mechanics of writing and are inhibited by their concern for formal correctness. They are also less able to anticipate the likely problems of the reader. In process terms, skilled writers are much more aware of writing as a recursive activity involving revisions of successive drafts of one's texts, during which one's ideas might change, necessitating the rewriting of whole chunk of text. Unskilled writers, on the other hand, tend to limit themselves to teacher-generated rules and modifications of lexis.

Further, in the pre-writing stage, skilled writers spend more time planning the task, while unskilled writers spend little time in planning and, in consequence, remain confused what to write when they begin. In the drafting stage, skilled writers write quickly and fluently, spend time in reviewing what they write, and do most of their reviewing at the sentence and paragraph level. Unskilled writers spend little time reviewing what they have written, review only short sentences of text, and are concerned principally with vocabulary and sentence formation. Finally, at the revision stage, skilled writers revise at all levels of lexis, sentence and discourse, review and revise throughout the composing process, and use revisions to clarify meaning. Unskilled writers, on the other hand, do not make major revisions in the direction or focus of the text, make most revisions only during the first draft and focus primarily on the mechanics of grammar, spelling, punctuation and vocabulary. Check Your Progress 5 How will you identify an unskilled writer? How will you guide him to make him a skilled writer?

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.... 11.9. Summary In this unit we have studied the following: l Writing as a skill is largely ignored in most school curricula. l Learners especially those who do not learn easily through oral practice, feel more secure if they are allowed to read and write in the language. l For many students writing is an aid to retention. l Writing reinforces learning. l There are basically six types of approaches to teaching writing: The controlled-to- free writing approach, the free writing approach, the paragraph-pattern approach, the grammar-syntax-organisation approach, the communicative approach and the process approach. l Emerging trends in ELT have laid focus on the Process approach to teaching writing. l The process approach entails that writing is a recursive activity involving, planning, writing first draft, reviewing, editing, re-drafting, revising at lexical and organisational levels.

158 NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 l Teachers may however adopt an eclectic approach as per the need of their learners. l Writing is a complex set of sub-skills and abilities which requires intensive practice. l While considering the factors for teaching writing, the teacher should focus on: meaning-focused input, meaning-focused output, language-focused learning, skill- focused learning and fluency development. l The levels and stages of writing include beginners, intermediate and advanced levels. l Skilled writers engage themselves in a series of activities while attempting to write which aids them in producing a good write up. 11.10. Review Questions 1. How do you define writing skill? 2. What are some of the sub-skills of writing that make it complex? 3. What are the different stages of a writing lesson? 4. What different strategies can we adopt to teach writing? 5. How do we grade different tasks for use in a range from the lower classes to advanced ones? 6. How would you distinguish between the Skilled and the Unskilled Writers? 7. Summarise the various principles of teaching 'writing' that a language teachers, should give primacy to while planning and executing a writing session? 8. What are the chief requirements for the first level of basic writing skill development? 9. Which approach has been defined as 'a framework instruction'? Write your appraisal of this approach. 10. Discuss White and Arndt's model and its relevance in the teaching of writing skills. 11.11 References Bajwa, B. (Ed.). (2009). A Handbook of Teaching English. New Delhi. Orient Black Swan. Bowen, J. D. (1985). TESOL techniques and procedures. Rowley, Mass. : Newbury House Publishers. NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 159 Brown, H.D. (1994), Teaching by Principles. New Jersey. Prentice Hall. Bygate, M. (1987). Foreign Language Study. London. Oxford University Press. Chastain, K. (1976). Foreign Language Study. Chicago. Rand McNally College Pub. Co. Hadfield, Jill & Charles. (2008) Introduction to teaching English. Eigal S. A. Portugal. Oxford University Press Harmer, Jeremy. (2007). The Practice of English Language Teaching. Essex. Pearson education Limited. Jyotsna, M&Rao.(2009).Methods of Teaching English. Guntur: Sri Nagarjuna Publishers. Kudchedkar, S. (2010). Readings in English Language Teaching in India. Chennai. Orient Black Swan. Nation, I. S. P., (2009). Teaching ESL/EFL Reading and Writing. New York. Routledge. Nunan, D. (1991). Language Teaching Methodology: A textbook for teachers. New York. Prentice Hall. Raimes, Ann. (1983). Techniques in Teaching Writing. Oxford. OUP. Rao, VK. (2012). Techniques of Teaching English.Hyderabad: Neelkamal Publications. Richards, Jack C. & Schmidt, Richard. (2002). Dictionary of Language Teaching & Applied Linguistics. London: Longman.

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160 NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 Unit - 12 p Writing Skills 2 Structure 12.1 Introduction 12.2 Objectives 12.3 Developing Writing Skills: Teaching Procedure 12.3.1 Teaching the English Script 12.3.2 Teaching the Composing and Crafting Skills 12.3.3 The Stages of a Writing Lesson 12.3.4. Types of Writing Tasks and Activities 12.4. Teaching Punctuation 12.4.1 Teaching Grammar 12.4.2 Referring to Examples and Context 12.4.3 Stressing communication 12.4.4 Proof reading and editing 12.5. Teaching Critical Writing 12.6. Teaching Creative Writing 12.7 Summary 12.8 Review Questions 12.9 References 12.1 Introduction We are now aware that the act of writing is only one part of the whole skill. Physical writing is preceded by mental composing. This is the stage of concept formation. Without concepts, ideas and thoughts in one's mind, one cannot write for there would be nothing to write. It is only when one has a mental scheme that one proceeds to transfer his/her ideas on paper in the medium of written language. 12.2

Objectives

After going through this unit you will be able to: l Understand the

basics of

teaching the English script

NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 161 l Understand the procedure for teaching the composing skills l Understand the various stages of a writing lesson l Specify the roles of a teacher in the various stages of a writing lesson l Understand the various types of writing tasks and activities l Understand the principles of teaching critical and creative writing 12.3 Developing Writing Skills: Teaching Procedure Based on our studyof the different sub-skills involved in writing in the preceding units as conceptualised by Raimes, Munby or White and Arndt, we may broadly classify the entire set of sub-skills into two types (as in Fig. 12.1 below) for our convenience of understanding and classroom implementation. Writing Skill Composing skills Crafting skills l Generating ideas l Constructing grammatically correct sentences l Organising ideas l selecting appropriate vocabulary l using cohesive devices l linking text or parts of a text with suitable linkers l using appropriate layout l spelling correctly l using legible handwriting Fig. 12.1 In order to develop writing competence, the learners would require training in both these skills. Hence, we will now attempt to understand the practical aspects of teaching both these skills. Let us now focus on the most important aspect i.e. the steps we need to follow in teaching writing at various levels. Teaching writing skills begins with teaching the letters of the alphabet at the elementary level which is followed by teaching the skills of composing.

162 NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 12.3.1 Teaching the English Script Our teaching of writing begins with teaching the English script. We should note that writing in English requires very fine control of the small muscles of the fingers and the wrist requiring training in writing (penmanship), and hence, it should proceed through certain easy steps. These are called psychomotor skills, and are used commonly while writing almost all the Indian languages. a) Fairly Large Movements: We should advise learners to draw lines of various lengths in different directions. The lines must be large enough so that the wrist movement can be watched by us. Some illustrations are given below: b) Selection of letters: Small letters should be taught first because they are more frequently used in writing than capital letters. After the learners have mastered the small letters, capital letters may be introduced. At this stage all letters must be large in size. c) Spacing of letters: Spacing of letters is important for neat appearance of the write up. We must guide that in forming words, letters must be as close as possible without touching each other and the space between words should be equal, each space must be large enough for a capital 'O' to be fitted into the gap. The principle – 'letters close, words apart' – to be taught at this stage. d) Comparison of letters: While teaching the letters of the English alphabet we need to take decisionon how to group the symbols for effective practice. The features which allow comparisons and contrast must be taken into account. For example, the letter 'n' may be compared with the letter 'm'; the letters 'b' and 'd' must be contrasted. e) Grouping of letters: For the purpose of teaching the new symbols, we need to identify groups of letters which can be effectively and conveniently taught together. Seward (1972) makes eight groups, each identified by a key letter for the lower case symbols.

NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 163 i. e group : e, i, u, t ii. c group ; c, d, a iii. o group : o, w iv. n group : n, m, v, x v. r group : r, s vi. l group : l, h, k, f, b vii. j group : j, p, y viii. z group : z, g, q For capital letters he makes nine groups: i. C group : C, O, Q, A, E ii. N group : N, M. K, H iii. U group : U, V, W, X iv. P group : P, R, B v. D group : D, L vi. T group : T, F vii. I group : I, J viii. S group : S, G ix. Y group : Y, Z The position of the body, arm, head and paper must be carefully observed. They must be upright and parallel to the desk; head must be bent, eyes at least 12" off the paper. f) Position of the script: We should make the students aware that English scripts are usually set on the line and extend upwards and downwards; while, there are scripts like the Devanagari script which 'hang' from the line. Check Your Progress : 1 What are some of the factors that are to be considered while teaching the English script?

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.... 12.3.2. Teaching the Composing and Crafting Skills We are now aware that in order to be efficient writers, the students must practice both the mental and executing activities of writing. Hence, in this section we will focus on the various aspects of teaching composing skills. In this regard, we need to consider

certain aspects of conducting writing lessons like – the stages of a writing lesson and his/her corresponding role along with classroom management strategy and the various types of writing tasks and activities that could be conducted. 12.3.3. The Stages of a Writing Lesson As teachers we should take note that a writing lesson usually proceeds through four distinct stages. They are: i) Planning and preparation ii) Writing the first draft iii) Revising and editing iv) Writing the final draft i) Planning and preparation: In this stage we are required to prepare the learners for the writing task. After assigning the topic we may ask the following questions to the learners: l Why do you think you are writing the text? l Who will read your text? Who are your readers? l What is the message of the text? l What should be its style – formal or informal? These questions will help the learners decide on the goals for writing, the organisation of the text and select appropriate structures and vocabulary. The basic objective is to make the learners identify such factors like the audience and the purpose of writing which would guide them in composing their write up. Next we move on to the planning stage, which is also called the 'brainstorming' session. It includes two steps – generating ideas and organising them. Once the scope of the text is finalised the learners need to collect all relevant information, points and ideas related to the topic. Ideas may be generated from the learners' own information and supplemented by information from outside sources.The basic objective of this stage is to exploit their content schema alongside generating new ideas. We can encourage idea generation in the following ways: Thinking : memory search, imagining Reading for : text books, reference books, articles, newspapers, magazines, Information etc. Discussion : classmates, friends, relations, teachers, parents, etc. Viewing : films, TV, pictures, objects, advertisements, etc.

After the ideas have been generated they need to be organised. This refers to the overall arrangement of the collected inputs. It is to be noted that there are no fixed rules for organisation. The purpose of the writer, the expectations of the reader, and most of all, the nature of the content will determine organisation. The ideas elicited from the learners may then be represented by the teacher on the board adopting various ways or forms (tables, lists, spider grams, web charts,semantic maps, flow-charts, etc.). Learners understand ideas when they can visualise them. Hence, the teacher should 'map' the ideas on the board. Mapping here refers to the graphical representation of the relationship among the facts, ideas or events of a piece of writing. Thus, through these stages i.e. setting goals for writing, generating ideas and organising ideas and materials the mental scheme is prepared. ii) Writing First Draft: Actual writing begins in this stage wherein the learners put all their ideas and information on paper. They get involved with sentence structure, grammar, appropriate vocabulary, punctuation, spelling, layout and so on. We should make the learners sit in groups of three or four and the members consult and discuss with one another the best way of expressing they have planned. Group activity, in this regard, allows the weaker students to benefit from the brighter ones. Thus, we must compose the groups carefully to include representation of different levels of ability. The role of the teacher during group writing is that of a supervisor and a resource person. Hence, as a supervisor we must select and arrange group formation and check whether all members are participating equally. It is in this stage that we should target the development of crafting skills. Also as a resource person we must be available for consultation on the correct structure, an appropriate layout or a suitable word, the use of cohesive devices, linking parts of a text, etc.We should also provide guidance on the development of such crafting skills like avoiding repetitions of points and words, adopting the suitable style matching the topic, legibility, etc. iii) Revising and Editing: In this stage the focus is on identification of syntactic and semantic errors and correcting them along with revision of the content and organisation of the composition at all linguistic levels. We must encourage the learners to go through their write ups repeatedly and look for errors grammatical, semantic, discourse, spelling or punctuation errors. The learners should also be asked to rethink and rearrange the presentation of points and information, if necessary. The teacher can adopt certain ways of conducting

166 NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 the revision exercise. The teacher can put up a list of items on the board (relevance of ideas, logical organisation, correctness of structures, tenses, preposition, sub- verb agreement, etc.) and instruct the groups to revise their drafts on the basis of these issues. Occasionally, the groups may be asked to exchange their drafts and give feedback on the paper they go through. We can also ask one group to read its draft aloud while we suggestsuitable corrections and modifications which are noted down by the learners. The teacher may also write out the piece with necessary modifications. This procedure is called 'reformulation'. The learners can revise and rewrite their draft on the basis of the reformulated points. We should keep in mind that this stage remains a learner-centric stage and the teacher must not focus much on teacher-guided correction as the basic objective of this stage is to develop the learners' sub-skills of editing and revising and encouraging improvisation. iv) Writing the Final Draft: When the revision is complete and all error corrections have been made, the learners can write the final draft in legible handwriting. The final draft needs to be written individually. Post writing we should collect all the drafts for final correction and comments. We may adopt several approaches for correction of script. The most usual approach is that the teacher does the entire correction and puts his/her comments or grade them. However, Brumfit (1980) suggests a useful technique wherein errors and mistakes are indicated but not corrected. We may underline or mark the mistakes only leaving the learners to identify the nature of the mistakes and correct them accordingly. This is aimed at reinforced learning through self-correction. Another technique suggested is that the teacher collects ten or twelve scripts out of the entire bunch in a random manner and does the necessary correction. Then he/she discusses the errors in the class wherein all the learners pay attention to those errors in their write ups as it has been found that many of these errors are common in all the scripts. Hence, learning takes place through such remedial discussions. It is noteworthy that the approach to script correction should adopted considering the class / level of the learners as well as the competency level of the writers. The fourth stage may be supplemented with a 'follow-up' stage wherein a similar kind of writing task is assigned as home assignment in order to reinforce the learners' learning and skill development. We may also adopt the 'skill-integration' approach wherein we engage the learners in group discussion, debate, role-play, etc. as an

NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 167 oral activity based on the writing topic or input thereby integrating the writing skill with the speaking skill. Check Your Progress : 2 Discuss the different stages of a writing lesson in details with special reference to the role the teacher in each stage. ....
.... 12.3.4. Types of Writing Tasks and Activities Let us now discuss the various types of writing tasks and activities that a teacher can make use of, in writing classes; though, the choice of the types largely depends on the class / level and focuses on the 'what' (content) and 'how' (manner of presentation) of writing. These two factors are crucial in teaching writing in a classroom. Basically writing tasks can be of the following types: l Controlled writing l Semi-controlled writing l Guided writing l Free writing a Controlled Writing: In controlled writing tasks much of the ideas as well as the requisite language are supplied in the task to provide support and guidance to the early learners. The learners require to manipulate the given words and structures in order to compose the text. Controlled tasks can be of different types – blank- filling exercise, multiple-choice task, matching task, re-arrange, etc. For example, Task a) Use words from the list and complete the following paragraph: pointed whiskers gleam black round stripes catch grey colours A cat is a domestic animal. It has a _____ head, small _____ ears and set of stiff _____. Its eyes are _____ and they _____ at night. The colour of its fur may be white or _____ or _____. Some cats have _____ while some have patches of different _____. They _____ mice and small birds.

Task b) Arrange the following sentences in proper order: Squeeze the orange to extract juice /Add water and sugar / Select and wash the oranges / Serve cold / Strain the juice b) Semi-controlled writing: In semi-controlled tasks learners are allowed some freedom to use their own language. Here the teacher controls the idea but decontrols the language. The objective is to encourage the learners to rely more on their own linguistic resources. Thus here the production of the learners will be unpredictable because they will write according to their own linguistic capacity. These tasks may be of several types – information-transfer exercise, expanding an outline, developing notes, etc. For example: Task: Based on the following pattern, make five sentences using the clues given below: He introduced the guests to his wife. explain / difficulty / to / friends —— congratulate / winner / on / performance —— spend money / on / child's clothes —— compare / book / with / own / latest novel — give / cheque / for / birthday celebrations This exercise is meant for giving practice in a particular structure, as in this case the pattern - NP-Verb-NP-Prep PH, or the 'how' aspect of writing. The 'given' factor is the content. While the learner tries out this form in five sentences, he/she is using the content of the sentences only to make sense of the form. There is no need to try to think of what to say, the learner only has to think of how to say it. The structure or form or the how of writing is controlled by the task, and the learner is given a chance to actually write. This is a kind of substitution table, which was very popular with the structuralist approach, which upheld practice and repetition. c) Guided Writing: It is obvious to us that there is a relationship between the 'what' and 'how' of writing. Our learners need help and training in both these areas. It is advisable to help learners to tackle one area at a time, especially if they are at the beginner's level or very weak in English. We may give them practice in the 'how' or structuring of language, with the given content, or the 'what' of writing with the how or structuring elements as given. This basically describes what is called guided writing. It is really the kind of writing that is largely required in schools and colleges in the second language writing contexts as in India. For example, Task: Study the details of Tiyasha Banerjee from the following form and write a paragraph describing her.

Name : Tiyasha Banerjee Age : 12 years School : Modern Girls' High School Class : VII Favourite Subjects : Biology, geography, literature Special interests : environment, music, dance, science fiction Hobbies : travelling, meeting people d) Freewriting: Freewriting, popularised by Peter Elbow (1973), draws on the perception that, when presented too early, concerns about audience, aims, organisation, and structure can inhibit writers from fully exploring potential ideas and meanings for topics. Freewriting is intended to force writers to set such concerns aside while they consider potential ideas. The main goal is to discover things to say about a topic rather than to plan the write up. This technique involves writing nonstop for five, ten, or fifteen minutes. During this period, learners keep generating words, even if they cannot think of anything meaningful to say. The rationale is that, eventually,theywillbeginproducingideasthattheycandeveloplaterintoan effective composition. Sometimes we may combine freewriting with an activity called 'looping', in which learners stop freewriting after five minutes and reread what they've produced. If they find a good idea on the page, they use it as the basis for another freewriting period, repeating the process for about fifteen minutes. Apart from the aforesaid four types another type of pre-writing task or activity that has been experimented with is the 'Talk-Write' activity which is somewhat akin to the 'interactive' approach to teaching writing. It isbasedontheperception that speaking, listening, reading, writing, and thinking are intimately related and mutually reinforcing. It is also based on the idea that if learners can explain a concept or an operation to someone they probably understand it pretty well. Talk- write involves asking learners to construct a plan mentally and to deliver an oral composition to the class. The goal is to have learners develop a plan that is as complete as possible, with minimal relianceonwriting.Generally,theyhaveashort span oftimeforplanning— about twenty minutes.Theymayjotdownafew points in the form ofnotesinitially,butwhentheydeliver the oral composition, they must do so without using any notes. After their presentation, the peersprovide suggestions and comments designed to help improve and elaborate the plan. The next step is for students to begin writing, using what they learned from their presentation to

develop a first draft of the assignment. An advantage of talk-write as an invention activity is that it forces learners to develop fairly elaborate plans very quickly and to internalise their details. The writing itself is usually easier as a result, and it also tends to be more successful. Check Your Progress : 3 How would you differentiate between guided and freewriting? ....

.... 12.4. Teaching Punctuation Teaching punctuation is an important aspect of teaching writing. We all know that punctuation is the process of using accepted symbols and protocols to turn a collection of words into a logical, structured piece of writing to be read, and understood by a universal audience. It refers to the set of marks that are used to regulate and clarify meaning and rhythm within a text. Punctuation helps to make the meaning of a text clear by linking or separating words, phrases, clauses, and sentences. There are approximately fourteen different types of punctuation marks commonly used in English: period or full stop, question mark, exclamation mark, comma, semicolon, colon, apostrophe, hyphen, dash, parentheses, brackets, quotation marks, braces & ellipsis. While the basic punctuation marks like the full-stop and comma need to be introduced in the beginners' level, the use of other punctuation may be introduced in the intermediate level. In respect of teaching, we should note that simply explaining the rules for using various punctuation marks is unlikely to be the most successful approach for teaching punctuation. Punctuation is all about context and it is best to employ written examples to explain how each punctuation mark is correctly used. We may adopt the following strategy forteaching punctuation effectively: 12.4.1 Teaching Grammar To use punctuation correctly the learners would require a good understanding of English grammar and be comfortable using terms such as introductory phrases, dependent and independent clauses, coordinating and subordinating conjunctions etc. Things like 'use a comma when you need a short pause and a period when you need a longer one' or 'a period marks the end of a thought', may serve some purpose for beginning writers, but these explanations fail to explain adequately the mechanics of how things work. Only grammar does this adequately. NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 171 12.4.2 Referring to examples and context The punctuation and grammatical explanations should always be accompanied by examples from authentic written texts and materials so that the explanations are visibly clear to the learners. We should also avoid giving examples and references of discrete sentences. Instead a cluster of meaningfully inter-linked sentences carrying a context should be referred to as it would exemplify the conventions of using punctuation based on meaning of the text. 12.4.3 Stressing communication We should take note that teaching grammar and focus on punctuation should not hinder the free flow of communication. We are aware that as per the current communicative approach the focus is more on 'meaning' and not on 'form' and 'accuracy'. Hence, when in doubt, we should advise students to abandon long grammatically complex sentences and use shorter, simpler sentences that are easier to punctuate correctly. 12.4.4.Proof reading and editing Being a necessary sub-skill of writing, we should advise learners to focus on punctuation too along with the other elements during the proofreading and editing process. As learners read through their work on completion, they can revise the punctuation they have used to ensure it accurately conveys the meaning they were attempting to express. Check Your Progress : 4 What strategy would you adopt in teaching punctuation? ....

.... 12.5.Teaching Critical Writing Let us now study in brief the nuances of teaching critical writing in second language at the advanced level which can be quite a matter of challenge for a teacher. Critical writing can be both professional or literary. In professional critical writing analytical reports, commercial reports, datasheet analysis and comparative studies can be included; while, in critical writing of a literary type, one can include summaries, stylistic analysis, reviews, identification of rhetorical figures and genre analysis. This is especially useful in the appreciation of unseen prose and poetic passages and / or extracts in the language and literature classrooms of English. Apart from considering the approach to teach critical writing (genre, process or communicative), the teacher needs to make the learners proceed through the different stages of writing thereby developing the basic sub-skills of writing

as discussed above. Additionally, to write a potent critical work the teacher must enable the learners to: l Think objectively assessing and embracing multiple perspectives and avoiding bias l Organise their flow of thoughts coherently and cogently to present both sides of a picture l Chart a sequence of short, concise and yet powerful assertions that can effectively convey unambiguous meaning l Create a statement of fact and opinion substantiated by reference to the context of the content l Conclude objectively by summation. In this way, critical writing can be taught to ESP and advanced learners and which will enable them to acquire the vital life skills of communication and analysis. 12.6. Teaching Creative Writing The term 'creative writing' suggests imaginative tasks such as writing poetry, stories, and plays. Such activities have a number of features to recommend them. Chief amongst these is that the end result is often felt to be some kind of achievement, and that 'most people feel pride in their work and want it to be read', observes Penny Ur (1996). Creative writing involves self-discovery and this promotes effective learning. When teachers set up imaginative writing tasks so that their learners are thoroughly engaged, those learners frequently strive harder than usual to produce a greater variety of correct and appropriate language than they might for more routine assignments. While attempting a simple poem about someone they care about, or while they are trying to construct a narrative or tell stories of their childhood, for example, they are tapping into their own experiences. This provides powerful motivation to find the right words to express such experiences. Further, these genres embody fundamental elements such as narrative sequence, a plot, conflict and resolution, as well as morality, without which any writing, expressive or imaginative, lacks focus and purpose. Developing awareness of such elements, within the context of creative writing, will lead the learners to acquire concepts that can be transferred to other writing. Teachers may try out various methods, strategies and techniques as per suitability for teaching creative writing. One innovative method that is relevant and effective for both intermediate and advanced learners is the art of sentence stretching. In this exercise, a simple sentence is embellished with detail to make it both interesting and meaningful.

This becomes both a languageacquisition as well as a language enhancement exercise simplifying the process of learning the art of writing correctly and yet creatively. Given below is a simple sentence: "The man went to the big city." This is a very uninteresting and basic sentence that gives minimal information, viz. that a man went to a big city. To change this sentence into one that gives more and detailed information, the student can try to add adjectives to the subject (the man) and then to the object (the city) and also extend the verb (went). To try sentence stretching the learners can do the following: l Start with the word "man." What words could be used in place of "man"? Who is this man? What kind of man was he? Is he a police officer? Teacher? Professor? Plumber? Businessman? Who is this man? What kind or type of man is he? Learners can find some adjectives to describe him. l Next is the word "city." One can describe the city or name a big city (Kolkata, Mumbai, Bengaluru), or give better description (the big, dirty city, the historical city.) l Finally, the verb "went" can be made stronger and more effective by detailing. How did the man get to Kolkata and from where? Did he hitchhike or drive or fly or ride a bus or cab? This detailing will be adequate to replace the verb once the learner has engaged his imagination and decided. l The final sentence may be framed thus: The absent-minded professor travelled by train from Kolkata to New Delhi. In this way creative writing can be taught by transforming a sentence that gave virtually no information to one that enhances a character with details, embellished facts and adds character to a lifeless figure. Check Your Progress : 5 What strategy would you adopt in teaching creative writing? ....

.... 12.7. Summary In this unit we have studied the following: l Writing constitutescomposing and crafting skills l Teaching the English script at the elementary level should proceed through certain easy steps viz. selection of letters, spacing of letters, grouping of letters, comparison of letters, positioning the script.

174 NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 l A writing lesson usually proceeds through four distinct stages: Planning and preparation, writing the first draft, revising and editing, writing the final draft. l In the preparation stage the teacher is required to prepare the learners for the writing task; while, the planning stage, also called the 'brainstorming' includes two steps – generating ideas and organising them. l Learners' actual writing begins in the first draft stage wherein the leaners put all their ideas and information on paper. l The revising and editing stage focuses on identification of syntactic and semantic errors and correcting them along with revision of the content and organisation of the composition at all linguistic levels. l The fourth stage i.e. the final draft stage may be supplemented with a 'follow-up' stage wherein a similar kind of writing task is assigned as home assignment in order to reinforce the learners' learning and skill development. l The different types of writing tasks include: Controlled writing, Semi-controlled writing, Guided writing & Free writing. l In order to teach punctuation effectively the teacher may adopt the following strategy: teaching the English grammar well, referring to examples and context, stressing on communication and proofreading and editing. l At advanced levels the teacher may consider teaching critical and creative writing. 12.8. Review Questions 1. What are the skills that a learner needs to be trained in, to develop writing skill as a whole? 2. In this unit we have discussed three different stages: 'planning' in 'planning and preparation' and 'writing the first draft'. What are the differences in these stages? 3. What is reformulation? Why is it necessary? 4. 'Creative Writing is about self-discovery and it promotes effective learning'- do you agree? Justify. 5. What are the different roles of a teacher in a 'writing lesson'? 6. How would you define 'sentence stretching'? How effective is it in the teaching of writing skill?

NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 175 7. Sum up the types of writing tasks and activities that a teacher can make use of, in writing classes. 8. What are the requisites in writing the Final Draft? 9. How should the 'Talk-Write' activity be effectively carried out by teacher in classroom? Comment on the benefits of this activity for developing writing skill. 10. How important is teaching the rules and uses of Punctuation in developing writing skill or proficiency? Discuss. 12.9 References Bajwa, B. (Ed.). (2009). A Handbook of Teaching English. New Delhi. Orient Black Swan. Bowen, J. D. (1985). TESOL techniques and procedures. Rowley, Mass. : Newbury House Publishers. Brown, H.D. (1994), Teaching by Principles. New Jersey. Prentice Hall. Brumfit, C.(1980). Problems and Principles in English Teaching. New York. Pergamon Press. Bygate, M. (1987). Foreign Language Study. London. Oxford University Press. Chastain, K. (1976). Foreign Language Study. Chicago. Rand McNally College Pub. Co. Elbow, P. (1973).Writing Without Teachers. New York. OUP Hadfield, Jill & Charles. (2008) Introduction to Teaching English. Eigal S. A. Portugal. Oxford University Press Harmer, Jeremy. (2007). The Practice of English Language Teaching. Essex. Pearson education Limited. Jyotsna, M &Rao. (2009). Methods of Teaching English. Guntur: Sri Nagarjuna Publishers. Kudchedkar, S. (2010). Readings in English Language Teaching in India. Chennai. Orient Black Swan. Kumari, AV. 2014. Methods of Teaching English. Guntur: New Era Publications. Munby, J. (1978). Communicative Syllabus Design. Cambridge: CUP. Nation, I. S. P., (2009). Teaching ESL/EFL Reading and Writing. New York. Routledge. Nunan, D. (1991). Language Teaching Methodology: A textbook for teachers. New York. Prentice Hall. 176 NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 Palmer, H. (1922). The Principles of Language Study. London. Oxford University Press. Raimes, Ann. (1983). Techniques in Teaching Writing. Oxford. OUP. Rao, VK. (2012). Techniques of Teaching English. Hyderabad: Neelkamal Publications. Richards, Jack C. & Schmidt, Richard. (2002). Dictionary of Language Teaching & Applied Linguistics. London: Longman.

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Module - 4 p Teaching Literature - 2

Unit - 13 p Activities for listening Skills

Structure

13.1 Introduction

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13.1 Introduction

Implementation of universal education required language educators to redefine the role of English language teaching. Therefore, ELT specialists and language teachers systematically studied the effectiveness of different methods of teaching English. In the process, they relied initially on the field linguistics (a scientific study of the spoken and written form of language which includes its syntax, grammar, and sound system). Subsequently, ELT practitioners, broadening the scope of language education beyond linguistics, took into consideration field experiments conducted on the psychology of language use andsocio-economic background of people (sociology). These disciplines have significantly influenced our understanding of what constitutes a language, learning and teaching. Modern ELT recognizes the value of comprehensively defining the notion of language learning. It emphasizes the need to encourage learners to actively take part in their language learning through activities that provide exposure to various forms of input and offer opportunities to participate in language production. The success or the failure of a task, apart from task administration, depends on a set of context-bound factors. It is important that we understand our teaching-learning context before we administer the activity. The factors include

l Complexity of the topic (known to the learner or unknown; the content of the subjects such as physics, history, and psychology) l Linguistic complexity (use of grammar and vocabulary) l Discourse type (descriptive or argumentative) l Situation (face-to-face or distance/telemediated) l Formality (informal or formal) In addition, we must also consider the nature of the input (monologue or dialogue or interaction among more than two; native varieties or non-native varieties), response type (select an answer type, short response such as true or false/yes or no, long speech, discussion, written production) among other.

13.2 Objectives

This module focuses on different teaching ideas or activitiesthat we can use to teach English.In the language classroom,textbooks or course materials are the primary sources of activities. When we understand that our predesigned materials supplied by the school/ college need to be supplemented with more suitable activities,we attempt to design activitieswhich help us achieve our objectives.We must keep in mind that, in addition to providing us with clear instructions or procedures, the activities we use need tomotivate and engage our students. In this module you will be introduced to a range of activity types that help you meet specific learning objectives for your students.Before we learn about different activities, let us understand how an activity is different from other types of classroom materials.

13.3. Exercise, activity and task

In ELT we use specific terms to refer to different types of activities. While some activities are useful as gap fillers, otherscan be used to supplement the existing teaching materials. Thus, it is importantto know what exactly it means to use the term 'activity', and how activities are different from 'exercises' and 'tasks'. Jack C Richards defines an activity as ... any kind of purposeful classroom procedure that involves learners doing something that relates to the goals of the course. For example, singing a song, playing a game, taking part in a debate, having a group discussion, are all different kinds of teaching activities. In other words, an activity is a pedagogic procedure which is directed towards achieving alearning objective. Therefore, we can interchangeably and loosely use the term 'activity'

NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 179 to refer to both exercises (which mostly focus onproviding learners with 'practice') andtasks (which often require students to use specific language resources to achieve specific learning objectives). In the traditional teacher centred present-practice-produce model (PPP model) we often use different types of exercises:listening for specific information in the form of drills, cloze activities, or comprehension passage with multiple choice questions. Having taught a specific grammatical structure (present progressive, articles),the teacher usually guides thelearners through the language aspect or sub-skill in focus. This guided and controlled practice(the application of the rule or a strategysuch as bottom-up reading, listening for specific information across newcontexts) reinforces the aspect being taught, and it is believed that, these exercises help students internalize the practiced aspects. While tasks generally aim at'meaning making', i.e., achieving a communicative goal such as exchanging information to reach a place or reading through a map to understand the location of a place, they also encourage students to use specific grammatical structures (forms) which areneeded to perform a specific language task.In other words, we can design and use guided-form-focusedexercises as well as meaning-focused communicative activities. In both conditions, the learner is required to use his language resources to accomplish a communicative goal.We will now look at the different activities one can useto teach listening skills. 13.4 Listening Activities Day to day real life listening situations have become complex. Electronic media (internet- driven computers, smart phones), state-of-the art classrooms, different varieties of English (American, British, Australian and other non-native varieties)are now extensively used to provide input (which includes more than one mode of input such as visual, textual and speech)to learners. Our learners should learn to cope with these forms of multi- modalinput, because this type of input is pervasive in real life listening contexts. Learners will have to attend to more than one mode of input at the same time, andperform certain real-life communicative activities. How can we ensure that our learners comprehend such input successfully? What kinds of activities promote listening comprehension? These are some questions we always think about before teaching listening skills. Activity 1:Look at the following list of situations or listening experienceswhich require our learners to listen and act.Think of more situations where listening is crucial and write them down in the space provided.

180 NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 Academic lectures Watching Hollywood/English films (Netflix series) Talking to a receptionist at a hotel Job interviews Stand-up comedy shows Teacher counselling sessions Telephonic conversations Directions from a stranger in a new place Talking to a native speaker in a conference BBC news hour/NDTV English news TED Talks Each of the situations abovehas its content (the subject or topic matter being shared or communicated), purpose (s) (the reasons such aseducatingthe class about a specific theory, reporting an event, making people understand the importance of higher education, for instance) and mode(s) of presentation (monologues with visuals as in BBC News, dialogue as in Interviews, life experiences of various characters as in films).We can identify a set of characteristics which our learnerscan focus on. Activity 2: Look at the following characteristics of real-life listening situations andrelate them to the situations given above. Spoken discourse Listener expectations and purpose Looking as well as listening On-going, purposeful listener response Speaker intention Pronunciation, choice of words, grammar (use of clauses rather than phrases), external noise, repetition (casual speech) /non-repetition (as in films) Listener has purposes (to learn from, to have fun, to fill a form, to reach a specific place) The listener may be attending to other forms of input as well (images, sub-titles, graphs) Listener may have to take part in the speech event(dialogic) or only listen to the speaker (s) Whether or not the speaker has tuned or directed his speech to address the listener requirements, or the speaker is following set of rules and is not concerned about the listener

Your observations can be organized in the following manner. Some of the contexts above are formal (conference presentations, job interviews) and some others informal (English films or Netflix series); some use everyday vocabulary and others opt for context-specific vocabulary (academic lectures); some are free from external noise (TED Talks) while some otherscan't avoid it. Each of these genresalso has specific features which can affect comprehension:Speakers' English pronunciationmay be comprehensible, but require a prior knowledge of the context of language use(academic lectures); or the concepts may be familiar, but the pronunciation of the speaker(s)is incomprehensible for a non-native speaker (BBC News/ English Films with native speakers).The speaker(s) often does not tune her speech to the audience (Netflix English series or English films), rather the characters tend to actively perform their roles as per the script. They may probably offer the audience the sub-titles to follow. 13.5 Learning to listen While delivering a listening sessionmany English teachers would typically sequence theirlessons in the following manner. a. Introduce or pre-teach the vocabulary the students may encounter in the listening b. Play the recording/read aloud a text and ask students to complete an activity (gap- filling, organizing ideas in chronological order, identifying the correct option/ MCQ) c. Replay the recording/re-read the text aloudand ask students to verify their answers d. Either ask students to verify answers with each other or show the correct answers Do you think thistask is effective in teaching listening skills? According to Christine Goh, a researcher in listening,this activity does not teach students how to listen to a passage, rather it tests students' comprehension. Shestates that these activities (b, c, and d) train the students to look for correct answers ignoring the cognitive processes (identifying, guessing, analysing) involved in understanding the content of listening. The teachers using these activities usually assume 'listening as a product' and disregard the complexities involved in the processes, which are crucial for understanding a text. Therefore, the kind of activities we choose or design should help learners not only find correct answers but also make them use strategies. 13.6 Micro-level activities The proponents of the process-approach,notably John Field and Christine Goh, have suggested some useful activities that can help students become good listeners. During

the listening, according to these experts, the learners are required to "actively engage in thinking and talking about their own listening."They believe, when the learners engage in such self-talk, they tend to become aware of the gaps, and consciously try to overcome themthrough the use ofstrategies. John Field identified a set of processes (bottom-up where you work from the phonemic/ sound level and gradually progress towardstext level, and top-downwhere you utilize the background knowledge of context and content to understand the text)and devised "micro-listening-exercises" for listening.The following are some of the processes we can keep in mind while using specific exercises It is not necessary that we use all the micro-exercises in our listening classes. For instance, when we understand that our students have difficulty with comprehending the contractions ('ve,andn't) in native speaker speech, we devise or usephonemic (sound level) and word level exercises that help students notice contractions and word-ending syllables. On the other hand, if we find that our students are unable to relate the pronouns with their reference (denotation), we devisebackward and forward reference exercises in which the listener has to specifically focus on the pre-selected pronouns, which are already mentioned in the listening. 13.7 Contextualizing Listening Depending on the context of input and the purpose of listening (listening for information or listening for language learning) we need to design our activities. If we need our Bottom-up processes/decoding processes a. Phonemic (basic unit of the sound) b. Syllable (cluster of sounds that make a syllable such as able, ism, ment) c. Word (word clusters such as phrases, chunks) d. Syntactic level (clause or sentence level) e. Stress and Intonation (the way the words and sentences are pronounced or produced) Top-down processes/meaning building processes a. Word meaning(meanings of the word in context) b. Syntactic meaning (understanding sentence structure with reference to its context of use) c. Intonation meaning d. Using contextual knowledge (using the knowledge of the situation or topic) e. Using schematic knowledge (using one's background knowledge to understand the text) (There are more meaning building processes)

NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 183 students to understand academic lectures in English, we can focus on a variety of characteristics of academic lectures.While designing activities for listening, we can control some of the factors (accent, gestures, facial expressions, visuals, speech rate) and give importance to other factors such as topic specific vocabulary, logical organization of content, key pointers among others. The more aspects we control, the easier it becomes for the learners to process the input. Whether our focus is one or more than one aspect, we need to consider the following findings before designing/choosing our activities. Activity 3: ELT research findings for listening teachers Read the following findings of research on second or foreign language listening, and reflect on your experiences of using various activities for teaching listening. Write down your reflections in the space provided below. 1. In ESL contexts, exposing students to clear and slow authentic listening input can ensure that the students notice vocabulary and grammar structures. Also, slowing down the pace will put less pressure on students' working memory. (Richard Schmidt on Attention) 2. Learners must be exposed to language across situations and functions— transactional, interactional, and imaginative. Lopsided exposure can affect students' ability to comprehend texts. (Brown and George Yule) 3. Longer video or audio input can be tedious and demotivating for weaker learners as it is difficult for them to process it. (John Field) 4. Before administering an activity, we need to inform the learners about the nature of the activity: how the listening activity is structured, what is expected from the learners, how should she approach the listening. (John Field) 5. For a beginner learner unplanned speech which is typified by false starts, repetitions and omissions can be challenging; using planned speech (minimum number of false starts, evenly paced and sequenced contexts) can help them notice and understand listening better (Andrew Cohen) 6. Small-scale exercises that focus on individual processes of listening (guessing the meaning of words) are useful in the listening classrooms (John Field) 7. During a complex listening comprehension task, students tend to give importance to lexical knowledge rather than grammatical knowledge. (Van Patten) 8. Conscious attention to form in the input competes with conscious attention to meaning… only when input is easily understood can learners attend to form as part of the intake process (Van Patten and Rod Ellis) 9. Usually in ESL listening contexts listeners focus on meaning bearing content words (focus, intention, strategy, competent) rather than on grammar words (and, of, the) (John Field) 10. If the task to be accomplished is beyond the contextual and linguistic knowledge of the learners, the task should include mini-activities that facilitate the process of listening.

184 NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 13.8 Reflection guide on Activities for Listening What was the purpose of the activity? (to help students notice specific sounds; guess the meaning of vocabulary; to understand the thought in action…) What kind of a text/listening input did you use? (fast paced/slow paced; authentic/ contrived; interactional/informative; too long/less than 3 minutes; academic/non- academic…) What did the learner do? (filled in blanks on a page; wrote down key words; identified the key ideas; looked up the dictionary for unknown words; drew a picture/diagram) Penny Ur proposes a classification of activities based on the nature and complexity of response they elicit. She clarifies that it is not always necessary that we expect our learners to produce responses pre/post listening. Sometimes, allowing the learners to experience the language with no specific intent will be equally beneficial for their learning. Thus the response type could be anything between "no overt response" to "producing extended discourses". No over response activities,according to Penny Ur,are activities designed to elicit no specific responses from learners; they mainly aim at exposing learners to the target language. Although on the surface no overt response activities do not pressurize learners to produce any response, carefully selected or designed listening can motivate the learners towards understanding and learning the language. Songs, online podcasts from BBC, and YouTube videos are some excellent resources that not only provide learners with motivating content, but also with contexts that are culturally and linguistically appropriate for language learning. It is important that we expose our young learners to comprehensible input (Stephen Krashen), especially the input which is rich in terms of visual content and appeals to the learner. Much of the content on YouTube makes use of this No response activities Short response activities Longer response activities Extended activities

NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 185 strategy of presenting both the visual and oral input that can be easily understood by anyone. Short response activiessuch as tick off items, cloze, skimming and scanning, and true or false require learners to produce short responses. Some responses are as short as selecting word level options while others require very limited, probably sentence level, information. These activities tend to focus on eliciting, mostly, fixed responses from learners. For instance, word recognition activities and gap filling activities are very commonly used by teachers. In addition, teachers can also design activities that enable the learners understand the intentions and the tone (requesting, warning, ordering) of the interlocutors. In other words, the short response activities can elicit deeper level understanding of the listening passages as well. Longer responses usually require the learners to produce, mostly in writing, responses beyond a sentence length. For instance, listening to lectures and taking notes is one such activity. The purpose of these activities to encourage learners to produce comprehensive responses based on the listening passages. Activities such as answering questions based on the listening, listening to lectures and taking down notes, and long-gap filling activities can be used. Usually, long response activities, where learners learner are required to produce answers in their own words, are administered once the learners have achieved a threshold level competence in English. Extended response activities are 'combined skill' activities that require the listeners to perform or produce language in either spoken or written medium. One type of problem- solution activities, for example, require listeners to listen to carefully to a passage(s) and take down the notes. Having taken the notes, the learner may then be required to take part in a group discussion. In the process, note-taking and group discussion play a vital role in solving the problem. Donn Byrne has recommended some useful 'interactive activities' for developing good listening skills. Interactive activities tend to integrate other skills such as writing and speaking and create a purpose for listening. a. Predictive listening activities: students will listen to a text read aloud by either a peer or the teacher and try to interpret and predict what may follow. b. Dictation: it requires the students to carefully listen to and understand a sequence of sentences and reproduce them in writing. These activities can focus on minimal pairs in specific sentences such as Does this shop sell salt and pepper?

186 NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 Does this shop sell salt and paper? also on using punctuation appropriately. 13.9 Summary Depending on the focus of the class, teachers can design or utilize different types of activities. While administering listening activities one must consider the different external and internal factors (noise in and outside, access to the listening passage, course needs, time available for the activity) which can affect their outcome. Because it is becoming complex day-by-day thatthe listener is needed to comprehend simultaneously various other forms of input (images, texts and gestures),and because One's mind is constantly engaged in multiple processes (bottom-up or top-down processes) which often exclude or include pieces of information crucial for comprehension, listening becomes a complex skill to practice and learn. However, it is important that use a range of activities that help our learners become good listeners. A good listener is always a good speaker! 13.10 Review Questions 1. How do you distinguish between an activity, task and an exercise? Give examples 2. How important is it to understand the sub-skills while designing a task? 3. Can tasks be built across the skills? Is it possible to use one task for developing more than one skill? 4. How are bottom-up and top-down processes different? Which is better, and why? 5. If a task has multiple correct responses, does it cause problems of assessment?

NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 187 Unit - 14 p Activities on Speaking Skills Structure 14.1 Introduction 14.2 Objectives 14.3 Spoken vsWritten Language 14.4 Integrated Activities 14.5 Language awareness activities 14.6 Group-based activities 14.7 Opinion gap activity 14.8 The Pyramid activities 14.9 Small talk activities 14.10 Conclusion 14.11 Review Questions 14.1 Introduction The purpose of a speaking activity is either to make our learners use the language they have internalized or to provide them with opportunities to express themselves. Researchers believe, the ability to speak a language effectively increases only when the person produces it. Therefore, we should think of designing and using those activities that offer opportunities for our learners to produce the language. Recall from your memory some activities you have either taken part in or used in the classroom. Does your list include the following activities? Add more activities to the list. Brainstorming activities: In groups or in pairs students discuss an idea or a problem and try to gather as many points or views. Usually, this activity is followed by a reading of a specific text or a lecture. Role pla\Respond to a text: students listen to or read a text to share their views and ideas (either ina group or a class). This activity is the most frequently used in content-oriented classes, flipped classes. 14.2 Objectives

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At the end of going through this unit, the learners will be able to: a.

Understand the
nature of spoken language

b. Organize speaking activities in pairs and groups c. Understand the intricacies of speaking in different contexts d. Contextualize language use Generally, when we use a speaking activity, we aim at three major aspects of speech: fluency, accuracy and complexity.When we prioritize meaning over form, we expect our students to fluently produce meaningful speech (brainstorming activity and respond to a text activity) that helps them accomplish a task (finding a solution to a problem, giving instructions to a person).Similarly, when we want our students to take fuller control of the elements of language that they have internalized, we focus on accuracy (using question tags effectively in a conversation; using passive voice to impersonalize the findings in a presentation). Complexity, on the other hand, requires our learners to produce elaborated and challenging language (using context specific vocabulary or grammar). In each condition, the focus of the activity is different, and requires the learners to be familiar with the context of language use.Thus, when teaching speaking skills we need to be sure about the aspect of speech we want to focus on. In Modern ELT research some experts argue that it is good to use accuracy-based activities with the beginner level students fluency-based activities with the advanced students.However, depending on the requirements of the course—to provide speaking opportunities for students, toprepare the students ask questions—and dependingon the motivation levels of the students teachers can organize their speaking activities. 14.3 Spoken vsWritten Language It is important that we understand the nature of spoken language before we teach speaking. For instance, a study of authentic speech samples (real life examples of English use in different contexts)that covered a wide range of genres and registers by Douglas Biberand his associates helped us understand the complexity of speech in terms of word choices, grammar, and genres. The findings of these studiescan be considered while designing speaking activities. Take a careful look at the following findings of Biber's research and discuss with your peer your observations about how speech differs from writing. a. While nouns and adjectives are more frequent in the expository or 'information giving' genres such as academic writing, verbs and adverbs are more frequent in conversations.

b. While lexical verbs such asrun, eat, think are more common in conversations and fiction primary verbs such as be, have, and do are frequently used in formal academic writing. c. There are twelve lexical verbs that are extremely common in conversation.They can be divided into three types: activity verbs: get, go, make, come, take, give; mental verbs: know, think, see, want, mean; communication verb: say. On the other hand, written registers use a wide range of verbs. d. Speakers often tend touse combinations of words (collocations) rather than individual words (Paul Nation's research). Teaching speaking is a challenging task. Prior to making someone speak we must provide them with necessary resources such as vocabulary, grammar and content. It is important we guide the learners through different stages. For instance, for a learner to fluently produce a coherent speech he must be good at using the most frequently used 2000 words (for example, the General Service List of English Words, GSL by Michael West) of the language. Also, he must have a fair knowledge of the way the grammatical rules function in the language. If these concerns are not addressed, learners tend to face some problems. According to Penny Ur, the following are some problems the students face in the speaking class, if they are not adequately prepared for the activity. a. Worried about making mistakes and fearful of criticism they shy away from speaking b. Unfamiliarity with the content can even force them to give up on participating in the activity c. They tend to switch to their mother tongue to respond to the prompts or the activity d. They talk very less as opposed to the activity requirements Task 1: Did you ever face a situation where the outcome of the activity was poor? What did you do to ensure that the students participated in the activity? Your answer: Working in pairs or in groups can facilitate language learning. Collaborative classroom activities which promote peer interaction will also help the tongue-tides to overcome their fears of participation.Visually stimulating topics, cognitively less demanding conversations, contextually appropriate to the learners' schema/background knowledge

190 NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 (familiar topics related to local folk-literature, festivals...) can help students produce meaningful discourses. 14.4 Integrated activities In order for the activities to be productive, we also need to provide students with the stimulus such as a reading or a listening text that not only functions as a model text but also as a source of information and language.These integrated skills activities, by providing the learners with natural language learning contexts, promote engagement and interaction. During an integrated skills activity, learners produce the desired outcome (making a structured in-class presentation, finding out solutions to a problem) not by directly answering a question but through responding to various texts. In Donn Byrne' words "the students talk, read or write in order to get something done"(text was originally italicized by the writer). We can also use the following strategies by Donn Byrne and CLT pedagogues to make our learners produce the desired outcome. • Before administering a speaking activity related to the input, prepare your learners to understand the input through minimal response type activities (completion- type activities, finding differences, identifying mistakes, yes or no /true or false activities, and follow the instructions and draw a picture). Minimal response type activities need to emphasize careful listening/reading. • Since retention of information is difficult for the beginner or lower-intermediate level learners, provide simplified input (listening or reading) for longer than is natural and provide as much contextual support as you can. • Try as much as possible to bring input for classroom practice from the natural spoken language rooted in the spoken models of English use (Carter & McCarthy, 1997) • Ensure, if possible, that you providewitty and engaging with visual stimuli for the learners • During the speech practice emphasize more on meaning making and correct only those grammatical errors that affect the process of meaning making. • Promote learner-centerednessrather than teacher-centeredness; and assess student performance in relation to the motivation and other affective factors that influence individual performance.

NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 191 • Encourage the use of chunks (prefabricated units of meaning such as I feel much better, it's interesting, I agree with you...). A speaking activity, whether intended toelicit meaningful utterances or to facilitate the use of specific language structures or items, as mentioned above, should consider the contextual barriers that affect studentoutput before judging his/herperformance against the norms. As Chafe and Danielewicz (1987) put it "Speaker are so strongly constrained by their need to produce language rapidly and by their inability to edit, that they are unable to imitate the lexical richness and explicitness of writing..." Some of the following communicative activities can be effective in promoting speaking skills 14.5 Language awareness activities Corpus studies in spoken grammar and corpus-based discourses analysis have introduced an innovative method of developing speaking skills. Unlike the traditional spoken class where the input is modelled by the coursebook writers on a specific function, in language awareness activities we use "real speakers in real interactions and in socially and culturally diverse situations"(Hughes & Reed, 2017). For instance, the following instances drawn from Michigan Corpus of Academic Spoken English (MICASE) can help us understand the visual and structural appeal of the input for speaking.This text was produced in a university context and topic of discussion/lecture specific to an academic discipline. The interaction/lecture is decoded and organized into "turn-taking patterns" for each of the speakers involved, and it is given away to a group of advanced studentsfor analysis. This language analysis task of can also be accompanied by the original source listening.During the activity the students go through every instance and analyse the way the discourses has progressed: how people interrupted each other, how they got their doubts cleared, how they added or disagreed with the other speakers, what words they used to communicate the ideas etc., These texts make an excellent resources for raising the awareness of different aspects of speech. Advanced learners interested in understanding the nature of communication in the universities will benefit from the analysis.

192 NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 Figure: An excerpt from MICASE Title : Intro to Groundwater Hydrology Lecture Transcript ID: LES205JG124 Academic Division: Physical Sciences and Engineering Publisher: Michigan Corpus of Academic Spoken English, English Language Institute, University of Michigan Interactivity Rating: Mixed

NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 193 14.6 Group-based activities Unlike other skills, speaking skills generally require students to collaborate and share their views, perceptions and ideas. However, often we notice that some students take control of the activity and let others remain passive throughout the activity. In order to prevent that from happening, we can use some group activities that require all the students to participate in the meaning-making process.Information gap activities are a good way to engage all the students in speaking. During this activity, a. the teacher selects and distributes in parts to a group of students a chronologically organized text (story/experience), where each part is a mandatory to complete the text. b. each student is given an event/a part which naturallyhas to be related the other event. c. upon receiving his part the student is expected to memorize it and return it to the teacher. d. together as a class/group the students has to reconstruct the whole narrative without losing any information. During the process of collecting information, the teacher can insist, the students should ask specific questions or interact in a specific manner. 14.7 Opinion gap activity These activities appreciate individual positions and perspectives with reference to a (controversial) text. The students are encouraged to share their opinions freely and confidently. For instance, ranking activities require students to rank order their preferences based specific criteria, and thestudents need to defend their order of preference. They can be designed for both beginner and advanced learners. In case of beginner the choice of items/ideas to be ranked could be drawn from simple, familiar and local contexts, and in the case of latter it could be based onabstract and highly academic contexts such as readings from specific subjects.Even simple changes in 'number' like selecting two ideas/items/viewsas opposed to three could make a significant impact on student cognition, and reduce/increase the complexity of the task. It is important that we understand the key aspects of a speaking activities—level, text/genre type, time allocated for the activity, number participants,expected outcome—class before administering them. 14.8 The Pyramid activities When texts are overloaded in terms of content and language, it is important that we put them into smaller groups and share specific parts of a larger text with each group, rather

194 NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 than consider the whole text. Each group will read their part of the text, and together they reconstruct the whole text by gathering ideas of each part from different groups. In integrated learning activities, listening to a text or reading a text gives students necessary language and conceptual resources to produce their opinions and views. Students could gather ideas and language to be able to express their views. Subsequently, they could also practice the use of specific language items that are usually found in specific discourses. 14.9 Small talk activities Small talk activities tend to create a stress-free speaking conditions where the students take fuller control of their speech. However, the 'talks' are led by one of their own classmates. During the speech event the students are provided with necessary language resources such as vocabulary and question prompts to initiate and discuss the topics given by the leader. At the end of discussion, the students report on their conversation to the whole class.According to James Hunter (Hunter, 2012)if we allow students "use their communicative ability in conversation without intervening" it can help students improve fluency, accuracy as well as complexity during the activity, a. pre-appoint a student leader who will chose a topic for the class, b. provide questions and relevant vocabulary to further the discussion, c. put classmates into small groups d. allocate time to engage in the conversation, and e. lead a check-in session in the end (each group reports to the whole class on their conversation) Although the teacher does not intervene into the process directly, he/she will offer the feedback at the end of the discussions.

NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 195 Finally, we must acknowledge the fact speaking alone does not adequately prepare the students become autonomous users of language. The chain of events we organize to facilitate speech production must above all consider what David Crabbe(Crabbe, 2007) calls "learning opportunities. Figure source: (Crabbe, 2007) Opportunity category Input Output Interaction Feedback Rehearsal Language understanding Learning understanding Learning activity covered by the concept Listening to and reading monologues or dialogue that can be understood with limited difficulty. Producing meaningful utterances in written or spoken form, either as a monologues or in the context of interaction. Speaking and writing with one or more interlocutors in real or simulated communication situations. Receiving information relating to one's own performance as a second language user. This may include indirect feedback (for example, that one has not been understood)or direct feedback (for example,that one has made a specific error). Deliberately,repeating specific aspects of performance including experimentation with pronunciation,memorization of words or word patterns, and repeated role-play of a piece of communication. Consciously attending to facts of language usage or use in order to be able to explain, describe or gloss an aspect of grammar or sociolinguistics conventions. Consciously attending to the process of one's own language learning in order to establish better metacognitive control over that learning. This would include a detail representation of the overall task of language learning, ananalysis of the specific difficulties encountered in performance and an awareness of strategies to overcome the difficulties.

196 NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 14.10 Conclusion The language learning opportunities should encourage learners to consciously pay attention to different aspects of performance. At every stage of a learning activity the learner should try to take control of the activity and aim at achieving the goals of the task. As he utilizes his opportunities, he develops a positive sense of his own learning. 14.11 Review Questions 1. What are some of the sub-skills of speaking we need to remember? 2. What strategies are best used for teaching speaking skills? 3. How important is vocabulary learning, especially in terms of stress and meaning? 4. How are pair and group activities better suited for developing speaking skills? 5. What are the major problems a teacher can face while teaching speaking?

NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 197 Unit - 15 p Activities on Reading Skills Structure 15.1 Introduction 15.2 Objectives 15.3 Aspects of Reading comprehension 15.4 Language Input: Reading Materials 15.5 Strategies and Reading Activities 15.5.1 Intensive Reading Activities 15.5.2 Summarizing Strategies 15.5.3 Creating or asking questions 15.5.4 Student-set questions 15.5.5 Rewriting Activities 15.5.6 Elaborative interrogation 15.5.7 Comprehension Questions 15.5.8 Collaborative think aloud activities 15.6 Activating the background knowledge of the student 15.7 Recognizing the structure of the text 15.7.1 Discourse and Genre Approaches to Reading 15.7.2 Genre Approach to Reading - CARS model activities (Advanced Level) 15.7.3 Critical reading activities 15.8 Transcribing Text into Visuals 15.9 Dictionary use 15.10 Guided Activities 15.11 What does research say about reading comprehension? 15.12 Extensive Reading 15.12.1 e-books 15.13 Conclusion 15.14 Review Questions 15.15 References

198 NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 15.1 Introduction When we think about reading skills texts, we must not restrict it to the printed word on a page. Reading materials are of various types. We can read pictures, graphs, charts, and maps. Therefore, when we teach the primary school children in India, we must keep in mind that many of them learn to read for the first time only in the schools. Their reading skills, unlike listening and speaking skills, are learnt consciously, step-by-step. Therefore, we need to ensure that they receive appropriate and adequate instruction for reading. As mentioned above, we must provide them with 'comprehensible' input, which not only introduces them to the letters and words of the language, but also helps them to relate those sound and symbols they learn with their respective concepts. So, whenever we choose materials, we must always consider the nature of help the materials offer to students. If the reading materials do not have any support in the form of pictures or diagrams, you need to consider providing them that support. 15.2 Objectives

reading different types of texts l Identify different types of texts and read them appropriately l Read and comprehend a text according to the purpose of reading l Appreciate the need for background knowledge in understanding the text l Create alternate texts both linguistically and non-linguistically l Use reference materials in understanding a text l Read for pleasure and enjoyment. 15.3 Aspects of Reading comprehension Paul Nation(Nation, 2009)describes a balanced course as something which has a mix of activities, and focus on various strands of language proficiency. For reading skills, this meanswe should focus oncomprehensible input and extensive reading, intensive reading (language focussed reading), and speed reading (fluency development). All three strands overlap and are important in a reading course.However, these terms mean differently to different learners. For example, children who are learning the English alphabet try to make sense of the 'input' (picture books) by combining letters (a-p-p-l-e, b-a-l-l) and by relating the sounds and symbols with images. Comprehensible input here is both symbols

NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 199 and their associative images. Without the pictures, the symbols or letter will not make sense. At a later stage, once the child acquires the ability to put letters together to make words, perhaps, we can give reading materials (rhymes, sentences, and stories) with more words. Once the child acquiresthe basic knowledge of the most frequently used words (spelling and pronunciation and meanings) in the language (around 800 words), they can be given some 'graded readers' such as 'reading cards', and texts that are written in simple language (both in terms of grammar and vocabulary) for extensive reading.As children attempt to read extensively, they acquire a natural speed in reading, which is called fluency development

200 NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 Task 1 Text is crucial factor in reading. If the texts we give to our students arechallenging, students' will give up. In the language classes we have to choose or design reading materials that are both interesting and understandable. If we increase the complexity of the text, by excluding pictures and glosses, students will find them difficult to understand. What kind of texts have you been using in your reading classes? Are they suitable for your learners? At a later stage, as mentioned, we can give students purposeful reading materials which introduce them to both language and the contexts. Reading these texts—stories, newspaper reports, menus, notices, emails—students become aware of how the real world is presented in different contexts and formsthrough the printed word. So, we have reading materials which help students learn the language, and we have materials which make students act on their reading.We must consider several factors in selecting or writing reading materials, however. Task 2 When you select reading materials, what criteria do you use? Type of the Text narrative or exportory Student Competence Student Competence Familiarity of the context in the text Course requirements Students Skills Language difficulty in terms of vocabulary and grammar

NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 201 Starting from notice-board circulars to restaurant menus to WhatsApp messages, everything can be used to teach reading skills. However, while teaching reading skills, we consider two important aspects: language input in terms of the criteria mentioned in the diagram and how we make the students process that input. In this module we focus on these aspects of reading comprehension. 15.4 Language Input: Reading Materials Among other aspects, texts (materials) and the way we choose to use them (methods) constitute crucial components of reading courses. Jeremy Harmer (Harmer, 1996) simplifies this notion of reading materials and their authenticity within an educational context. Similar to what some notable applied linguists have said, Harmer believes that teachers should plan integrated reading sequences in which every reading text is preceded and followed by a set of practice activities which enable the students to remember what they have read and practiced. We will look at the activities later in the module; we now look at texts for reading. Task 3 Before you read Harmer's views about reading materials, reflect on your experiences of using different reading texts. What kind of texts did you use? (novels, textbook readings, poems, stories, newspaper articles…) Did you write them yourself or extractthem from other sources? Read Jeremy Harmer's views about reading texts. The reading texts which we give students to work with must appear to some degree authentic, even if they are specially written for students. And they must be at a level which the students can cope with, even if they do not understand every single word. Just about any kind of reading material is usable in the English teaching classroom. Students can be shown menus and timetables, application forms and E-mails. They can read poems and narratives, newspaper articles and advertisements, letters and postcards. What the teacher chooses to show the students will depend on four things: the students' future needs, the students' interests, the teacher's interests and the textbook they are using.

202 NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 Many a time we succeed in finding linguistically rich texts—variety of grammatical structures, rich illustrations, idioms, and phrasal verbs, but those text might fail to engage our students' attention.We also come across texts with less content and more visuals; when we use such materials, interestingly, we notice that our students' inferences go beyond the visuals, into the real world. On other occasions, we use texts which are within the proficiency range of students but fail to generate curiosity and discussion. What should we do? When we choose reading materials, we must apply some criteria. In the diagram above three important characteristics of reading texts are given: authenticity, register, and genre. For some authenticity is not an intrinsic quality of a text.However, for many it means, texts that are not exclusively designed to teach language skills, but drawn from real-life contexts for teaching purposes. In our context, we can understand this notion in a different manner. When we establish a purpose for a reading course, we keep in mind the needs and expectations of the students andset targets for the course. This target text is the "authentic text". We can either choose to use, if we are confident, the authentic text from the beginning or progress gradually through other texts to that level.For example, if our aim is to make a student read and understand a novel from the Victorian age (Dickens or Hardy), we can use some short-stories which usesimilar storyline, characterization, linguistic devices and rhetorical paragraphs, or make the students read the target texts from the beginning. Henry Widdowson argues, we must use texts which are comprehensible and make the students engage with the text. If the authentic or

NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 203 target text is challenging, then we must think about what Widdowson is proposing: use texts within the learning range of the student. Some academic purpose and specific purpose English courses demand us, the teachers, to use specific registers (situations such as academic essays, research papers). In these contexts, we cannot choose any text. If the course demands us to choose specific texts from specific registers (professional, academic, conversational), we must use those texts since the course objectives require the students to learn the language of those registers. Similarly, genres are "structures" how the registers are organized into specific moves (for more details look below at Discourse and Genre Approach to reading) As Jeremy Harmer mentioned, any text is suitable for language teaching provided we know how to use them in the classroom. It can be a picture with no language input or a graph with less language support.Arousing the curiosity of learners through various strategies is important. There are various strategies to do that: asking questions, showing pictures, narrating events. What we need to do is to give students specific instructions as to what they should do during the process (pre-reading, while reading, and post reading). Task 4 While identifying a text is one important aspect of reading instruction, enabling the students to use various strategies is crucial. We can guide student learning effectively, only when we establish a purpose for why they should read and what they should look for. Think about some strategies you have encouraged your students to use. Before exploring different strategies, we focus on two key terms that are important for any reading practice: Skimming and Scanning.Skimming a kind of fast reading. When we read the text faster, we aim at general understanding. We ask questions like 'what is this text all about?', 'what kind of a text is it? narrative or a persuasive text.' On the contrary, when we scan through the text, we look for specific information, probably for facts such as years and names or any specific example or evidence. Whether we choose questioning strategy or the strategy of activating background, when we read text werely on these two ways of reading: either we look for general information or specific information. We will now look at some of the strategies that most reading teachers use in their classes.

204 NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 15.5 Strategies and Reading Activities Each of the activities we design or choose need to direct students' attention to using specific cognitive processes such as noticing, identifying and analysing. In other words, in our teaching we use the external stimuli (texts) and instructions to affect the internal cognitive processes of students.By administering sequences of activities we can guide their attention. The primary focus of teaching methods can be to help students, for example, identify key arguments/opinions, notice bias, predict the effects of a phenomenon, compare and contrast ideas/objects/places among others. This can be demonstrated through an example. To process a map (text/materials), a student should know how to read it (method). He should understand different cues used to refer to different modes of transportation, boundaries, places, landmarks etc. As he reads the map, he also needs to understand and apply various 'cognitive strategies' such as analysing the map, comparing different routes, and evaluating consequences taking specific routes. In this context, language as input is relatively simple; however, the task of reading the map and arriving at a specific travel plan and discussing that plan with peers or teacher involve a wide range of cognitive problem-solving strategies. The example above is an intensive reading activity, which requires students to understand the input and act on it. Acting on the input could be in the form of creating a route map, writing a set of instructions using imperatives or sharing their observations with the peers orally. Several such "communicative reading activities" we can design for our learners. Task 5 How did you use the reading texts in your class? (asked students to read first and ask comprehension questions, read the title and guess what the text is all about, look at the picture(s) and figure out what the content is...) Read what Jeremy Harmer says about the methodology of teaching reading. It is much more likely that students will be engaged if the teacher has aroused their curiosity about what they are going to see through provocative statements or questions, looking at pictures or predicting. One way of getting students to predict is to let them look at the text but not read it. Does it have a headline? Then it's probably from a newspaper/magazine. Is there a picture? What does that tell

NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 205 you about the subject matter? The subject is 'Sleep': what would you expect to find in the article? Then, when the students start reading, curious to see if their predictions are right, they are engaged at least at some level. Lastly, and most importantly, teachers have to tell students how to read. Explain that 'you don't have to understand every word; just try to get a general picture of what the writer is saying', if that is what you want the students to do. Tell them to only look for the specific information they need if you want to give them scanning practice. 15.5.1 Intensive ReadingActivities While designing intensive reading activities,it is important we establish a reading purpose and devise activities with a focus on comprehension strategies.Simply, we need to guide our students toward using the strategies mentioned below. Whether the purpose of teaching-reading is general (newspaper or magazine reading) or specific (reading a research paper), or for pleasure, we need to always remember that we approach texts with a purpose. Purposeful reading motivates us to use a variety of strategies. Reading Purposes to learn new words to answer questions to make a choice to look for alternatives to analyse a situation to create a new model to understand punctuation to solve a problem to prepare a summary, and to share an opinion Effective reading comprehension strategies summarising forming questions answering questions and elaborative interrogation activating prior knowledge monitoring comprehension using text-structure awareness using visual graphics and graphic organisers, and inferencing

Task 6 Think about an activity you have frequently used in your reading class. What was the purpose of that activity? Did you focus on any of the strategies mentioned in the list? How did you introduce these strategies? We will now closely examine some of the effective reading strategies that research has endorsed. Some of the ideas given below are endorsed by the renowned reading specialists William Grabe. 15.5.2 Summarizing strategy It is common we summarize information we read or listen to. Most of the classroom reading in schools give importance to this strategy. The teachers generally ask students to present a brief account of the reading orally or in the written form. In these contexts, our focus is on the key ideas and a few supporting points. Also, a wide range of everyday encounters with people demands this skill. For example, we are asked to summarize a movie we have watched, share the gist of a novel we have read, ornarrate an event. Researchers state that this is an effective reading strategy as it helps readers identify selectively those pieces of information which are important while providing information about their understanding. If the student can generate a good summary, it is an evidence of how much he has understood from the text. 15.5.3 Creating or asking questions Most reading lessons rely on questioning. Usually, teachers plan pre- and post-reading questions to stimulate interest among students and to check their level of comprehension. Questioning is an important skill. Through questions students can make sense of the content and evaluate the effects of it beyond the written word. However, unlike conventional reading classes, where the teacher takes the initiative to ask the questions, here the teacher will ask students to make specific questions based on the reading. He will only support their process of making effective questions. Furthermore, the teacher can encourage students to make questions in pairs as a collaborative activity. During the collaboration students tend to discuss the content of the text deeply and make questions that can be used for in-class quizzes by the teacher.

15.5.4 Student-set questions During pre-reading phase, as Harmer said, we can guide student attention to the title, pictures, sub-headings and ask them to guess what they are going to read in the text. As they predict, we ask them to formulate questions for which they wish to find answers in the reading. This task, in fact, creates an authentic learning context for the students as well as a purpose for the reading lesson. 15.5.5 Rewriting activities We do not always have to design comprehension questions to check the level of understanding of a text. Rewriting activities requires learners to make changes to the text. Depending on the proficiency level of the students we can increase and decrease the complexity of the activity. For example, we can ask our learners to change the tense of the text or ask them to rewrite it from first person point of view to second person point of view (Roberts, 2014). While changing the personal pronouns warrant changes in terms of verbs and their inflections (you – are/do; he – is/does), changing the tense might just affect the tense of the verb (do-did-has done). 15.5.6 Elaborative interrogation Understanding and interpretation meaning(s) is not a straightforward process. In order to comprehend a text, the student has to answer several questions. While answering fact-based questions is relatively easy, to infer meanings that are appropriate to the context of reading is deeper and require the students to answer "why" questions. Teachers can intervene in the process of text understanding by asking students specific questions. As mentioned, critical reading is not straightforward; the teacher canask students to justify and elaborate their answers, which can be done through "why" questions. During the process of elaboration and justification students tend to look into the text/information deeper. In other words, teacher asks students not only confirmatory questions of the passage, but also questions which require them to justify and explain their answers with reference to the reading. 15.5.7 Comprehension Questions One of the time-tested activities we usually administer in our reading classes is the multiple-choice items (MCQ), which precede or follow the reading. For example, course materials such as textbooks and workbooks as well as other renowned testing services

such as IELTS administer MCQs. The focus of MCQ items is usually on skimming and scanning, on guessing the meaning of words in context. AnatShapira(Shapira, 2007) suggested an effective way to conduct a reading class using Bloom's taxonomy and the principle of 'reading in phases'. This principle requires teachers to administer reading questions in several phases. Instead of giving away all the questions in one go, we give students sets of graded questions—"beginning with knowledge questions and going through comprehension, application, analysis and synthesis, up to evaluation". After we share questions (around 4 items) with students, we give students ample time to figure out the answers. In the meantime, we walk up to the weak learners and check their progress. Finally, we identify students to answer the questions. Very often, we realize that the reading comprehension questions cover only a few parts or the whole reading texts. Sometimes, we wish to have more questions/statements or item types (yes/no type, true/false type, fill in the blank type). 15.5.8 Collaborative think aloud activities Often while reading alone we miss out on some details crucial for the understanding of the text. In collaborative activities, where each individual student reads the text in his/ her own way, there is ample scope to read and discuss the text together. In this process, they discuss the main ideas, identify problems related to unknown words and try to guess their meanings, provide different perspectives etc., If the teacher wants to increase the complexity of reading, he/she can focus on 'critical dispositions'. Students can be asked to not only to explore the logical connections within the text, but also to study the author's dispositions such as empathy towards other views,

NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 209 scepticism towards ambiguity and motives of the writer. In this context, for example, teachers can ask students to analyse the use of specific reporting verbs such as state, say, claim, and suggest that report the critical position of the writer. Also, teachers can ask students to examine in the reading text both adverbs and adjectives which usually signal the attitude of the writer. 15.6 Activating the background knowledge of the student While bottom-up reading strategies of going from letters to syllables, syllables to words, words to phrases, from phrases to clauses and clauses to text would be very useful for students who are below the threshold level of proficiency, when we are training students to cope with challenging reading tasks, and when the reading texts are unknown to readers and include low frequency vocabulary items, we need to help our students to use their background knowledge in understanding the meaning potential of the texts. Students bring to class their real-life experiences. Their world knowledge is particularly useful in understanding a reading text. In top-down process approaches to reading, a student's background knowledge helps him to predict or guess the content beforehand. It is also important, in formal reading contexts, we help the student activate this knowledge before he reads the text. Furthermore, this prior knowledge enables the reader to read longer texts in shorter time.Helping students to predictthe meanings of unknown words through context, to guess what comes next in the reading text, and to analyse the key words of the text, ease the process of understanding. We can use questioning as a strategy here to guide the students activate their knowledge about the context. 15.7 Recognizing the structure of the text Text is more than information packed into paragraphs. Texts are communicativeevents. When people desire to communicate their ideas, they follow certain conventions of organizing them; and each communicative event is different from the other in terms of content, context, relationship between people, and modality (written or spoken). However, each text organizes information in a manner that is appropriate to the context. We call them genres. Genres are the ways we structure information. When we produce "instances" of a particular genre (novel, short story, email message, cover letter, research paper), we tend to organize the information in specific moves. For example, a narrative generally involves the following "moves"(Moves from SuzzaneEggins' Introduction to SFL) Orientation: indicating a narrative is about to be told Setting: giving the time and place of the event Action: events leading up to the main action 210 NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 Complicating Action: the pivotal drama of the story Resolution: the outcome of the drama Evaluation: reactions to the story Coda: wrapping up and finishing off When students understand the organization of the moves or stages, they understand how much they have read and what is left. They will also be able to connect the various steps in the text to get a coherent picture of it. Our reading texts can have different organization structures: narration, order of importance, chronological, problem-solution, cause-effect, and advantage-disadvantage. And once the students understand these structures, their ability to analyse and understand texts gets better. 15.7.1 Discourse and Genre Approaches to Reading John Swales in the early 1970s produced a series of activities which required the students to analyse a series of reading passages/paragraphs. As the students analyse the passages they needed to identify the purposes of both the paragraphs and the sentences that constituted the passage. This approach was popular among the teachers teaching in technological institutions (English for Science and Technology). Task 7: Read the passage and the analysis given below. A water tap is a device for turning on and off a flow of water. Its most important parts are a rod with a handle on the top and a washer which is fixed to the bottom of the rod, the metal parts of a water tap are usually made of brass because brass resists corrosion. The washer is made of flexible materials such as rubber or plastic. (water tap diagram) When the handle is turned the rod either rises or descends because of the spiral thread. The column descends until the washer fits firmly in its 'seat'. (this position is shown in the diagram) The tap is now closed and water can flow out of the pipe. Exercise: Cross out the wrong alternatives (S = sentence) 1. the description consists of 1/2/8 paragraphs. 2. The first paragraph describes a tap/explains how it works. 3. The second paragraph describes a tap/ explains how it works. 4. The first sentence is / is not a definition. 5. S2 describes the main moving parts of a tap/ the main fixed parts.

211 d you notice how different the text and methodology in this activity was? This 'specific purpose' (could be general academic, specific academic, or professional purpose reading) reading materials or activities aim at helping students understand and produce language in a specific manner. The underlying objectives of the activities not only focus on text understanding but also on enriching the knowledge of vocabulary knowledge (context- specific words, technical vocabulary, collocations, context-specific meaning senses) grammatical structures appropriate to the content and context, and the presentation and organization of the ideas within a text. Activities that specifically enrich learner reading within specific academic and professional contexts (English for business purposes, emails, reading PPTs, reading research articles) require the students to be familiar with the context and content knowledge: why do some people write or communicate the way they communicate. This knowledge about the texts (move structure in genres) helps students comprehend the texts easily. 15.7.2Genre Approach to Reading - CARS model activities (Advanced Level) Similar to the example cited above we can introduce our students to model/authentic texts where each move or step (a functional, not a formal, unit) has a specific purpose. For example to help understand the "introductions" of research articles in Social Sciences (SS), John M Swales introduced a 4 move-sequence Move 1 Establishing the Field Move 2 Summarizing Previous Research Move 3 Preparing for Present Research Move 4 Introducing Present Research It is expected that any writer who is producing research papers for SS should adhere to the above conventions, with a few exceptions. In other words, the writers who produce these scholarly articles generally include information related to these four steps in their introductions. While designing RC activities we can focus on these four moves and design items (comprehension check, jigsaw, critical reading...). This process can be captured in the following diagram

212 NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 15.7.3 Critical reading activities The complexity of the task can also be determined by the focus. In top-down and bottom- up processing models of reading, the strategies used are usually text-centric. The reader, in a classroom situation, is generally asked to decipher, understand or explicate the intended meaning of the writer whereas in a reflective-critical approach to reading, the readers is asked to "respond to the text critically". While in both contexts reader's background knowledge plays a crucial role in comprehending text, the goal of reading goes beyond skimming and scanning to critical evaluation of the text. In this process of critical reading, according to Wallace, the reader is asked to explore the various socio- political dimensions of the text. For example, the activities will: a. question the existing the inequalities in society and how the text represented those inequalities, b. extend the scope of reading to other similar or related contexts or view points c. observe and critique the gaps in the text (which can be interpreted from certain theoretical perspectives, for example, analysing GT method and its drawbacks from the point of view of TBLT) The activities we design generally consider texts which are socially relevant and open up for multiple viewpoints and arguments. Controversial and debatable topics are more appropriate than narratives which describe and present a series of events. This brings us to the next aspect of reading: texts and genres. 15.8 Transcribing Text into Visuals Understanding means to process and retain information in different forms. Even a narrative can be transcribed or presented in the form of a chart or a picture. When students translate their understanding into pictures, graphs, and diagrams they are giving it a new shape. This process of analysing and organizing a text in the form of visuals needs students to Identify the Text to be Read by students Design questions/ items relatd to the move structure/content Ask students to identify the genre and key views/arguments Ask students to compare their move structure analysis with others Discuss the critical aspects (linguistic choices, use of adverbs, stance markers...)

NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 213 comprehend the text thoroughly. Once the student transfers information into a diagram such as Venn diagram, a pie chart or a flow chart, he remembers it longer. 15.9 Dictionary use When students read authentic texts, which often contain words from different levels of frequency, it is challenging to understand them. Sometimes, authentic texts are lexically dense (too many content words) and pose comprehension challenges. Dictionaries are extremely useful tools here. However, using a dictionary itself is a skill to be mastered. For example, many high frequency words such as take, get, make, gain, givewhen used with specific prepositions take on specific meanings. Similarly, some texts use highly technical words—schemata, plosives, discourse, codify—which are usually found in specific fields, which need to be understood. Effective dictionary use enables the students to become independent readers. Various dictionary activities that focus on the spelling, meanings, grammar, collocations, and examples of word can be used. For more activities on dictionary skilllook up Adrian Underhill's website on pronunciation and vocabulary (https://www.adrianunderhill.com/ pronunciation-resources-links-resources/) Task 8 While focusing on strategies is important at the macro level text comprehension, we need to extend our focus to help students learn the micro level aspects. Some guided activities are very useful. Have you ever used such exercises? 15.10 Guided activities Sometimes, asking students skimming (for general information) and scanning (specific details) questions won't help them to navigate through the texts. We may have to exercise some additional effort in channelling their thinking processes. It means, we may have to use a series of small-tasks or exercises that guide their path of learningthroughguided activities such as: getting students to guess about someone/something (meanings of unknown words), narrating real events to generate opinions, questioning or asking students to figure out which of the options would best fit in, blanking out some sentences and adding a distractor to the options,

214 NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 inserting appropriate linkers, and asking students choose the appropriate supporting detail/ thesis statement from options. In a 60-minutereading class where the students have to understand a daunting quantum of reading material,it is practically unproductive to use a long text (1000-wordtexts) for intensive reading practice. If you desire to use longer texts, it is important you bring contexts and texts that, to a large extent, are familiar to students. Newspapers are everyday contextsthat cover a wide range of social-cultural contexts that most of our learners are familiar with; also, they are usually written in a style accessible to common literatereaders. In terms of length,they provide us with a range-paragraph to a few thousand words. While lead articles, written by expert writers such as doctors, lawyers, and political analysts, range between 800 to 2000 words, the regular reports of events are between 50 to 500 words.Moreover, they are authentic and use a range of vocabulary and grammatical structures-reporting verbs, defining and non-defining relative clauses, concession adverbials among others. An advantage is that the texts are supported by photographs and other visual media-charts, graphs, maps-that facilitate reading. Put simply, we choose texts from specific sources or we write texts in a specific style not only because we want to expose our students to rich language in context, but also because they engage reader's attention, they are relatable, and, more importantly, they guide thereading processes effectively. Task 9 While discrete activities with a focus on specific aspects of reading can be useful once we establish the purpose of a reading lesson. However, we need to understand the fact that we teach reading skills within a course and within a program. While designing activities for courses, we need to consider what the research says about reading skills. Can you make a guess what are some reading research findings? 15.11 What does research say about reading comprehension? We can accomplish our reading instruction goals effectively if we understand our dilemmas and conceptualize our plans accordingly. William Grabe and Fredricka L. Stoller's(Grabe & Stoller, 2011)conceptual map highlights some factors that can guide our approaches to developing effective reading materials. While some aspects refer to external aspects of reading (text length, choice of vocabulary, genre type, themes), some indicate to

NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 215 internal aspects (background knowledge of the reader, recognition vocabulary, metacognitive strategies (knowledge about how knowledge is constructed), motivation levels). a. We need to thoroughly understand the context factors such as students' background knowledge and his/her ability to read in L1 and L2 (proficiency) before designingactivities. b. Whether or not the students have achieved a degree of automaticity in processing spellings, words and phrases and structures(reading fluency and rate of speed). c. We also need to understand what strategies our studentsare able to apply while reading different texts: l previewing texts, l paying attention to text structures or genres, l using discourse markers to check internal cohesion and overall coherence of the texts, l identifying the frequently occurring linguistic expressions and their general meaning potential (negative or positive) d. It is believed that to comprehend a reading text effectively one must be familiar with at least 90-95% of the words used in the text. If you want your students to be fluent readers,you should give texts which are within the range or competence of the students. Competence here refers to one's receptive knowledge of vocabulary (how many words does she/her know in English), grammatical structures, and awareness of the genre structures. e. Attitude and motivation levels of learners is another aspect that affects our reading tasks f. Before we design a reading activity, we need to understand our "purpose of reading". William Grabe identifies several reading purposes such as reading to skim, to learn, to integrate information, to write, to critique, and for general comprehension. g. Once we identify the purpose, we can direct the focus of the activity to any one or more purposes through instructional practices such as: vocabulary building, strategy training, teacher modelling, extensive reading, and content-based instruction. 15.12 Extensive Reading Extensive reading is an approach to teaching reading. It's goal to let the students read texts for pleasure and understanding. There are generally no intensive language practice

216 NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 activities that evaluate your level of comprehension. Stephen Krashen's notion of comprehensible, however, can help us identify the type of text that best help our students with extensive reading practice. According to his theory, we must encourage our students to read texts that are within his proficiency range. If the text is too difficult, the student may not fully benefit from reading it; moreover, complex texts affect reading fluency. Paul Nation's website has a good number of reading texts for extensive reading. Please look up his website for downloadable e-books for level-specific extensive reading practice. Paul Nation/ I. S. P. Nation (https://www.wgtn.ac.nz/lals/about/staff/paul-nation) 15.12.1 e-books An e-book is a computer file of a book or a text.Ever since computer and mobile technology has taken over the physical copies of the books, several websites are sharing for free books in the e-format. Interestingly, many e-books on devices such as Kindle help the readers with difficult vocabulary by supplying the meanings of words. All we need to do is to click on the word, it throws up its definition. Also, e-books can help you navigate through pages quickly and easily. Students with vision problems can magnify or enhance the print size almost double the size. In fact, e-copies are cheaper than the physical copies, while they are also permanent. Some of the useful websites for e-books are given below Electronic Teacher Tap: http://eduscapes.com/tap/topic93.htm Scholastic: http://teacherexpress.scholastic.com/ Internet Archive http://archive.org/about/about.php Project Gutenberg http://www.gutenberg.org/ Ebooks: http://www.ebooks.com/ 15.13 Conclusion Reading is an interactive process and depends largely on why someone is reading something (image, text, symbols...). It also depends on the purpose of teaching reading, as Harmer rightly said. If you are teaching a reading course which is designed to develop the reading comprehension skills of students (helping students to move from intermediate to advanced reading) you have tasks that can help you; if your focus is specific purpose reading such as reading for academics, where the texts are specific characteristics conventionally practices, we have activities for that as well. Also, if you are trying to motivate students to read for pleasure, which some researchers believe, will improve both the breadth and

NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 217 depth of language knowledge, you have different activities (extensive reading, using graded readers such as the ones Paul Nation has designed). Designing reading activities should, above all, consider the learners and their needs. An activity that was successful in one context may not work in the other. Therefore, one must always rely on strategies or small activities that help achieve the goals of reading. 15.14 Review Questions 1. Create your own definition of reading and justify it with reasons. 2. Having gone through the strategies of reading for different purposes, what strategies would you recommend for a student in Class X in a Bangla-medium school? He/ she is preparing for the examinations. 3. You have taught an interesting story to students in Class VIII. Other than asking comprehension questions, what alternate strategies can you use to assess their understanding? 4. How many types of reading are you familiar with? If you are asked to teach a novel how would you teach it and what skills of reading will it promote? 5. How do you help your students cope with difficulties in vocabulary without affecting their fluency in reading? 15.15 References Grabe, W., & Stoller, F. L. (2011). Teaching and Researching Reading. New Delhi: Pearson. Harmer, J. (1996, October). Teaching reading. English Teaching Professional, pp. 32- 33. Lynch, T. (1996). Communication in the Language Classroom. Oxford: OUP. Roberts, R. (2014, March). Do something different with your coursebook: using pictures. English Teaching Professional(90), pp. 16-17. Shapira, A. (2007, March). Reading in Phases. English Teaching Professional, 49, pp. 15-16.

218 NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 Unit - 16 p Activities for Writing Skills Structure 16.1 Introduction 16.2 Objectives 16.3 The Basic Units for Teaching Writing 16.4 Aspects of Writing 16.5 Materials and Activities for Teaching Writing 16.6 e-genres and Writing 16.7 Genre-based Writing Activities 16.8 Feedback Activities 16.9 Conclusion 16.10 Review Questions 16.11 References 16.1 Introduction For many students in English as Second Language (ESL) contexts, writing is a challenging task. Because the exposure to the printed English word outside the formal schooling is minimal, many of them are deprived of adequate practice. It has been found that only 10-15% of Indians can use English fluently in India. In other words, schools have to take up this responsibility of improving the writing skills (literacy skills) of all young people in our nation. Task 1 Although speaking and writing are called production skills, they are different in many ways. What do you think are the major similarities and differences between speaking and writing skills? 16.2 Objectives After going through the unit, learners will be able to: a. Know how writing skills can be learnt

NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 219 b. Understand how to teach the basic units of writing c. Understand the different aspects for developing writing 16.3 The Basic Units for Teaching Writing Unlike speaking skills, which can be mastered throughconsistent and qualitative exposure to various forms of spoken input such as television and other internet-basedmedia, writing skills require the students to consciously put in a lot of effort. Students' have to master, among other aspects such as spelling and word-formation, a range of other additional skills (notetaking/note making, dictionary use, reading the printed page). Writing therefore is not a mere representation of speech.For example, while sharing our views orally with friends, family and colleagues, wethink and act spontaneously;however, while writing down something (an essay, a short story, a report, or even a grocery list),we tend tonot only translateour speech sounds into visible 'graphemes' (letters and words), but also follow certain conventions in organizing those graphemes into words, phrases, clauses and sentences, and genres. Like a skilled mason, we put our wordstogether and cement theminto texts appropriate for the purpose. In addition, to convey meanings effectively, we use punctuation marks (colon, comma, question mark) and specific organization patterns (grocery list is organized vertically in terms of nouns and measuring expressions while the essays are written horizontally into paragraphs). Many of these aspects of writingare absent in speaking. Therefore, we must distribute our focus equally on all the key aspects to help our students master the skill. Use of punctuation marks changes the meaning of the sentences. The policeman said the boy broke the window. The policeman, said the boy, broke the window. The policeman, said the boy broke the window. The policeman said the boy, broke the window. Source: (Hyon, 2018) For many students,both understanding the printed word and producing writtentexts,followingcertain conventions (wording with punctuation marks, paragraphing, using appropriate grammatical structures, indentation and referencing), are important.For the students to produce written texts, they must first learn the basic units that constitute writing

220 NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 Alphabet Syllables/WordsWord-formation Lexico-grammar Text When we are developing writing courses, we need to organize our activities aroundspecific writing needs of the students based on their level of proficiency. If the learner is an adult who has started learning English, we need to focus on the system of English first (letters, words, word-formation); however, if the learner is admitted to an undergraduate programme in a university, we design activitiesfor academic language needs (essay writing and term-paper writing). Depending on the course requirements and learner proficiency, we design our activities. Teacher's beliefs about language teaching usually interfere with the teaching. Some teachers believe in the view teaching writing means teaching grammar and vocabulary; some others believe both meaning and form are equally important.However, research indicates to the view both meaning (writing purposes) and formare equally important. We must not forget the fact that writing is a skill that only develops through conscious learning; it cannot be acquired, without practice, naturally like the way we acquire our mother tongue speech. Task 2 Did your teachers, in school or college, make you write in the classroom? What kind of writing did you practice? (Writing short notes, answering questions at the end of each lesson, writing in the examinations, writing letters/e-mails). Whether it was an English class or a History class, we all had responded to teacher's prompts in writing. Some of our responses were in the form of 'answering questions after a reading passage' or 'filling the blanks with appropriate words'. Sometimes we would also practise writing short notes/phrases or sentences, and occasionally paragraphs. Sporadically, we wouldalso focus on spelling and punctuation while other times we wrote longer texts such as stories or speech presentations. Task 3 Do you consider this 'writing practice' in the form of short notes or responses useful for writing development? What kind of writing activities helped you learn 'writing' better?

NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 221 16.4 Aspects of Writing Whether we write short notes or long essays, every single attempt helps us understand and practise an aspect of writing. However, it is important that we should know what constitutes good writing. To understand that, we must look at some good writing courses.If we consider a proper writing course, all the aspects are embedded and well-organizedinto several unitsacross the textbook/ course materials.While some courses emphasize moreonsentence structures (grammar)such as simple, complex, and compound sentences, some courses encourage students to write freely. The latter is a model of writing that is popular in countries like America, where English is the mother tongue of students. In many non-native contexts (ESL and EFL writing), however, teachers encourage students to go through a series of steps before they write independently. They call itstep-by-step writing. There are also courses, at an advanced level, which teach writing through model texts (see below genre-based writing). By analysingand emulating model texts or expert texts, the students practice and learn their writing. Although different models of writing exist, most writing courses focus on at least five important aspects of writing. These five major aspects of writing help us devise pedagogical activities. We can integrate all the five aspects in one "process approach" activity, which requires the students to produce drafts of writing, or we can also design separate activities for each aspect. For example, if our focus is on mechanics, we can design activities exclusively on using appropriate punctuation marks, using numbers in writing, or on using capitalization. In this module, we will look at these activities from different perspectives.

Task 4 Although we have various activity types available to address specific writing concerns of our students, before we start teaching a writing course, we need to be aware of the needs of our students. Think about three questions you would ask to understand the needs of your students. Asteachers of English, the first question we usually ask in a writing class is "who are my students?"(Kindergarten or preschool, primary, secondary/high school, or college going students.)This question helps us to understand our learners, their entry-level proficiency in the language and their language background (whether they can write anything). Once we size up the class and understand their strengths and weaknesses, we then closely examine the writing syllabus we are required to teach. This examination of a writing syllabus will help us with the focus: what has to be taught on the course (writing words or the alphabet, writing simple sentences, writing paragraphs, writing stories, writing essays or writing research papers...). As Amy Lightfoot (Lightfoot, 2010)puts it, we should focus on some questions about student needs: l What are the learning outcomes that the course will need to address? l What are the students' current strengths and weaknesses? l What type of language or skills do they need to learn? Task 5 Once you read through the syllabus for writing instruction, you would generally think about materials to teach the skills. What kind of materials/activities did your teachers use to give you practice in writing skills? Which activities you think helped you with your writing skills? 16.5 Materials and Activities for Teaching Writing The focus of instructional activities can be classified into two major purposes: writing to learn and writing to write.Writing to learn activities focuses on helping students practice specific aspects of writing, such as the use of tenses and use of punctuation. Writing to write, however,gives importance to the audience, who will be reading the

text you produce. In other words, writing to write is purpose-driven that the activities focus more on the authentic (real-life writing) contexts to be written by the students. Any writing teacher is expected to strike a balance between these two purposes to make students achieve the writing objectives. For example, if the writing syllabus of a course requires students to write effectively a five-paragraph essay, you need to first define the nature of a five-paragraph essay (the aspects of writing which constitute the production of a five-paragraph essay: a thesis statement, writing examples, using data to support the claims, writing an appropriate conclusion etc.,). Once you define the basic focus of writing, you then design or choose those activities that focus on the different aspects. To understand this idea, let us now take a look at some activities. Task 6 Take a look at the following 'writing to learn' activities and explain to yourself what their focus/purpose in terms of writing. a. Fill in the blanks in the following passage with words used in the reading text 1 on "Health Benefits of Meditation".Yoga pose has lots of health benefits that we can take _____. It calms our mind and body which is beneficial to those individuals who are disturbed. When you are disturbed, both your mind and body experiences _____. Your thinking triggers reaction on your body. So, a pleasant or not so pleasant ____ is just a result of the content of your thoughts. b. Rewrite the composition, in the present tense. Your first sentence will read: Minu, the monkey lives in a small village with her big family.Minu, the monkey lived in a small village with her big family. She was different from the other monkeys in her clan. While the other monkeys snatched and stole food from passers-by, Minu sat outside the grocer's shop waiting for children to give her pieces of sweet or salty snacks of their own free will. Minu knew there was something missing in her life, but she didn't know what it was until the grocer's daughter, Pinky started school. The grocer's house was behind the shop. c. Picture Description: Take a look at the picture and write at least 5 sentences using be-forms (am, is are) or in the present tense. (supported by a picture) For example: There are/There is... in the line.

These activities are modelled on the principle of controlled composition. If you use controlled composition activities, you will be guiding students through a series of independent steps which, when mastered, can lead them to the overall mastery of the skill. These activities focus on 'accuracy' aspects (being grammatically correct) through 'text manipulation'. For example, in the preparation stage of the lesson, you teach the students 'tense consistency' or 'writing stories in the past tense or in the present tense'; in the practice stage, you provide students with hands-on practice through / controlled practiceexercises. Guided activities, instead of asking the students to create a new text, make them "manipulate or convert" a given text, let's say from simple present to simple past. While working on the activity, the students do not have to create, for example, any characters, events, logic, or storyline. They need to simply follow the rules of grammar and change the tense of the verbs (example b). In order to reduce or increase the difficulty level of the activity, the teacher or the textbook- writer 'controls' some aspects (choice of words, punctuation marks, grammar) of the input. For example, the teacher may use only singular third person pronouns (he, she, it) to ease the process of conversion (activity b), or she might provide example model sentences, as in the activity a, and ask students to make similar sentences. In all these activities, there is a greater amount of control exerted on what the students will be writing. Task 7 Do you think these controlled or guided activities, which focus more on the grammar and vocabulary aspects, constitute a comprehensive writing course? Or do you think, every writing activity should include a social purpose as well? We certainly need activities that help us 'study writing'. Because writing skills include a range of conventions such as capitalization, use of pronouns (referencing), paragraphing, and using transitions, and teachingthemisimportant. So, asking students to: a. join two clauses (one dependent and one independent) using a comma; b. read a text and identify the words that have to be capitalized; c. use appropriate pronouns to refer to specific nouns/noun phrases within the text (endophoric reference); d. change the tense of an event; help them with the conventions or the basics of writing skills.

We can have different types of exercises where a degree of flexibility in terms of student writing is possible. For example, Sharwood-Smith's experimental formats of exercises describe an activity which encourages the students to creatively supply "sentence sequences" or fill in the blanks. Unlike the mechanical drills that only require students to replace a word or tense with another word or tense, here students can come up with responses appropriate at the text level. An activitySharwood-Smith suggested is given below. Exercise 1 INSTRUCTIONS: Fill in each of the following blanks with a full sentence. Make sure it fits into the story as a whole. Do not repeat words unnecessarily as in *The wind was strong. I fought against the wind. Write: _____ I fought against it. "It was a typical winter morning._____ We had to have the lights on in the classroom._____ The teacher was two or three minutes late. Suddenly Tomek said: "_____ " We all agreed to ask the teacher._____ He looked pale and tired. _____ He thought for a moment about her suggestion. _____ Seeing our faces he smiled and then said with a note of apology: "_____"We all protested in vain. _____ "If you really want to invite me to coffee, we can go when the lesson is over."_____ !" Teaching the conventionsof writing alone won't be enough if our aim is to make them write socially relevant texts: e-mails, reports, essays, andresearch papers. Real- life writingshould besituationallyrelevant. Relevance here refers to achieving asocialpurpose: to purchase a product, to entertain a reader, to share one's feelings or emotions, or to report an event. Tasks such as writing an email, writing an academic essay for a course, writing examinations, and writing a story for publicationare called "writing for writing".

Task 8 Take a look at the following activity designed by Sandra L McKay and compare the context of the activity, input (the language choices), and the expected outcome of it with the a, b, and c guided activities above. a. Situation: The Traffic Officer You are a traffic officer. As part of your job you have to file a report of the accidents you cover while on duty. Yesterday you were on the scene of a car accident which took place on a single lane country road. You now need to file a report of that accident.Activity: Write a report of the accident. The following information what you scratched down in your notepad. Use this information to write your report of what happened yesterday. Be certain to make clear the sequence of events. Time: 7.20 a.m. April 14 th Place: highway 652, two miles south of the city an overturned Volkswagen on the shoulder of the southbound lane skid marks leading from the southbound lane to Volkswagen a pickup truck blocking the north bound lane of traffic... This activity is different from a, b and cactivities that it does not ask the student to produce any 'random' sentences that confirm to grammar rules only. It requires students to write sentences'appropriately' within a context (writing an accident report); it has a specificcommunicative purpose. What do we mean by writing sentences appropriately? Being appropriate refers to the notion of 'readers' who will read the text. So, when a student, who was a witness to an accident, writes the report, it is important he/she writes the report in a style (formal or informal) that is accepted normally by people (may be police!) who read it. In other words, this writing involves the skill of knowing how to use language within a particular situation. Although this activity is in some sense controlled (in terms of input and expected output) in its nature, there is a degree of autonomy conferred on the writer. It does not explicitly demand the writer to use any specific grammatical structure although it indirectly guides the writer to report an event that had already occurred.The writer enjoys a degree of freedom in organizing the sequence of ideas, events or arguments (schematic structure of what goes into every stage or part of the text)to achieve the goal of writing. Similar activities (with a little more input) include:

Write an email to your teacher requesting an extension for the submission of the assignment. l For a newspaper review, compare the latest mobile phone series from Appleand make recommendations to prospective buyers. In these activities you are required to provide the students with guidance as to what the context is, who the text is addressed to, what ideas to be included, and what language choices to be used (vocabulary and grammar). For advanced level students, we can focus on how writers achieve coherence and cohesion in longer essays. While coherence in writing refers to the way the clauses or sentences relate to the context, cohesion refers to the text internal aspects, i.e., the way we relate or tie together bits of our text, says Michael Halliday.For example, to teach text cohesion, we can ask students to analyse how the writers organize different pieces of information using different adverbials (however, therefore, consequently, on the other hand) and conjunctions (although, if, and, or, so). 16.6 e-genres and Writing Conventionally, writing activities focused on certain genres such as story writing, essay writing and email writing. Our textbooks generally opt for tasks or activities which give importance to writing sentences, paragraphs, and essays. Students are encouraged to write appropriate and concise thesis statements and support them with relevant details in the form of examples and explanations. These days, however, the nature of writing has evolved. A wide range of tech or internet-based e-genres have become increasingly popular. Blog writing (personal and professional), web posting, online reviews, messages, and chats (on the social media such as Twitter and Facebook) are predominantly used written genres. These genres too have specific goals (requesting someone for detailed information as in email messages, describing something that has impressed you as in blog writing, and sharing your opinion about an event, idea or a person as in Tweeting). Much of the internet-based writing is interactive and synchronous. For example,real- time interactive writing on WhatsApp requires the writers to be spontaneous and appropriate.Adrian Doff calls this type of writing as 'write then write interactive activities.'Similar to real-time chat, students in these activities are assigned specific roles. Working in pairs, students prepare a message—news item, email, plan—and send it across to another pair. The other pair has to now work together and write a response to the message. As a follow up, we canhaveskill-integration activities. When we use writing activities which require students to spend a considerable chunk of time (about 30-50 minutes), it is challenging for them to sustain their motivation to

228 NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 write. Especially, in contexts where students' proficiency and the skills of writing are weak, the task of writing a complete text, even if it is short in length, will be difficult. However, when we know that students should be able to write a specific type of text, we tend to integrate the writing component with other skills. In some of these integrated interactive/communicative activities, we consider writing skills, not only as an end product or the goal of the activity, but as a means to achieve other goals: making a classroom presentation (speaking),making/taking notes for future reference, collecting ideas from a group for an oral presentation,andwriting out answers to reading. Some activities for writing Aspect Activities Content Peer-discussion or brainstorming activities which encourage students to discuss and explore ideas relevant for the writingFlipped reading that is relevant for the writing task. Students read a text at home and discuss their analysis with peers before they identify ideas; Organization Cohesion and coherence activities: can focus exclusively on specific aspects Coherence Generic coherence: rhetorical structure (jumbled sentences; jig saw exercises; write the correct topic sentences; identify the appropriate evidence to support the thesis statement from the options; delete the odd sentence from the passage CohesionTextual cohesion: use of transition words appropriately (fill in the blanks or MCQ type or CLOZE)Grammatical cohesion: Use of parallel structures in writing; use of appropriate pronouns (referencing— anaphoric and cataphoric) Grammar Cross comparison of genres: Take two different genres (one spoken and one written) and compare the use of grammar structures throughout; Explicit grammar practice through multiple examples (example to rule); Complete the blanks with appropriate clauses Vocabulary Word-formation exercises (syllabification, use of prefixes and suffixes); use of collocations (fill in the blank with suitable words); MCQ (what does the word in bold mean?) Mechanics Read the text above and use punctuate its summary; Rewrite the jumbled words into meaningful sentences using punctuation marks; Read the text and capitalize the words that are given in lower case

NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 229 16.7 Genre-based Writing Activities Genre: Genre is a staged, goal-oriented, purposeful activity, or genre are how things get done, when language is used to accomplish them(Hyon, 2018). There are a range of written genres: literary genres (novels, sonnets, short-stories), popular written genres (newspaper articles, recipes, magazine reports), educational genres (lectures, examinations, essays), and e-genres (blogs, WhatsApp chats, emails). And these genres have specific purposes: tell stories, exchange opinions, and chat with friends.While achieving their communicative goals,people/writers use language in a manner that is appropriate to the context, similar to the example given below. If someone has the purpose of sharing a recipe, he knows its purpose: to instruct the people who might be interested in preparing the dish. Once he is aware of his goal, he should also be aware of the way the purpose is realized in terms of the genre or the 'schematic structure' of organizing information in stages. Generally, the schematic structure or the stages of a recipe includes: a. Title (Purpose: to differentiate individual recipes from each other) b. Enticement (purpose: to tell why you should bother to make this dish) c. List of ingredients (purpose: to tell what you need to add) d. Method (purpose: how to make the dish) e. Serving quantity (purpose: to tell how many the dish will feed) Stage Lexico-grammatical patterns Title A nominal group or a noun phraseBenganbartha Enticement A complete sentence with positive attitudinal wordsThe traditional dish of Indian origin offers an easy to cook delicious vegetarian meal List of ingredients Nominal group or noun phrases of numbers and measuring words500 grams of eggplant Method Clauses in the imperative mood (expressed as orders)Cut the bengan to small pieces.Boil two spoons of mustard oil in a skillet.Use of action-oriented verbs (heat, wash, slice...) Serving quantity An elliptical declarativeThis dish serves 4.

230 NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 The content for the schematic structure is drawn from SuzzaneEggins' work of Systemic Functional Linguistics. If the writer is aware of the 'broad shape the text takes' prior to writing it, along with the language choices such as vocabulary and grammar, it makes the process of writing easier. Tony Lynch states it is important to be aware of the product, its social purpose, and the order in which this purpose is achieved, prior to the process of writing. Knowledge of how and in what order people communicate isparticularly important. Language-awareness activities, which focus on'how the context of writing shapes a piece of writing' can help learners with writing. Task 9 If texts have specific social purposes and use specific linguistic choices such as vocabulary and grammar to realize these purposes, how do we go about teaching specific genres? Once the student analyses the genre of an expert text, it then becomes clearer as to what should be done.In other words, the student should become a discourse-analyst first before he produces the text. So, in order to apply the genre-approach the teacher can think about organizing instruction in the following stages. \ Model text-analysis can provide novice writers with models from authentic contexts— well-known cookbooks, newspaper articlesandblogposts. Writers of these texts tend to use specific lexical and grammatical choicestocoherently organize their texts. When our students analyse them, they become aware of how language is in the production of texts, which serve specific purposes. For example, Douglas Biber shows us how different text types or registers make use of specific features in realizing their goals of writing. He shows how the language of the textbook differs from other genres(Biber et al., 1999; Shin, 2016). Model/expert text genre analysis by the learner The process of writing Final product and

a. Impersonal voice b. Uses weak verbs with minimal lexical meaning (have, is, be) c. Long and complex noun phrases (the attitudes of the persons in charge of the internal control system) d. Academic vocabulary (significant, analysis, concept, provide) Some texts such as feature articles published in newspapers or magazines are similar to what we generally come across in academic contexts; theyhave multiple stages and include variety of goals: description, narration, compare and contrast, analysis and more importantly persuasion. To persuade the readers, for example, the writers subscribe to a variety of devices such as humour, puns, dialogues, satire, and metaphors.Each of these devices can be the focus of genre-based instruction. In other words, our activities and materials can focus on three distinct aspects(Chiu, 2013; Morgan, 2012)of the genres.

Activities Compare and contrast activities: Students will be given two different texts which have the same purpose. For example, sales promotion letter and Job application cover- letter. Both the textsare part professional registers and are instances of 'promotional genre'. They both share the communicative purpose and their participants have similar role-relationships; however, the way they realize their purposelinguisticallyis different. Student, either working in pairs or groups, compare the texts for its moves/schematic structure and linguistic choices. Once they identify the following structure, they compare each other's analysis for the aspects mentioned in the diagram above. According to Vijay K Bhatia, the schematic structure of both the text types is similar(Bhatia, 1993). 1. Establishing the credentials 2. Introducing the offer 3. Offering incentives 4. Enclosing documents 5. Soliciting response 6. Using pressure tactics, and 7. Ending politely Theme-focussed activities: Theme-focussed activities are organized around a theme. For example, different registers—magazines, blogs, and research article—which deal with the same theme could be analysed by the students. Themes such as obesity and health risks, education and technology,andfood and culture can be considered for genre analysis. In theme-based activities, there can be greater variation in terms of genres. It means, the purposes as well as genres can be different, although the topics are the same. When students analyse two texts on the same theme/prompt, they will be able to understand the variations in terms of role-relationships between the participants, nature of examples and evidence, style of definitions, and formality of the registers with reference to the genres. Rhetorical device/creative writing activities: Sometimes the writers have the freedom, within specific genres such as creative writing and journalistic writing, to present their ideas in a unique manner. They use literary devices such as metaphors and similes. Some awareness-raising activities can exclusively ask students to identify such uses of linguistic devices in writing.

Rhetorical consciousness-raising activities can also focus on text organization. Once the students analyse an authentic expert text, the teacher can reinforce text-analysis with text-organization tasks such as jig-saw activities. A text (preferably longer than a paragraph) can be cut into pieces (moves). The students will be asked to assemble the text and justify the order. Once the students develop 'genre analysis' skills, they will be able to write better essays. Although text/genre analysis helps students understand the moves, sometimes students need some language support to produce similar genres. Customized feedback can be especially useful in these contexts. 16.8 Feedback activities The correction of students' work is an important part of a teacher's job. However, teachers can make the students become autonomous through peer-feedback activities. These peer- feedback activities can be classified into meaning-focussed and form-focussed. In meaning focussed activities, the reviewer or the peer verifies the text for its content (appropriacy of the content or ideas, thesis statement, use of appropriate supporting ideas such as statistics and examples, and text-organization or moves); in the form-focussed activities they look -grammatical choices and the use ofwritten codes (V for vocabulary, Sp for spelling, G for grammar, etc.). 16.9 Conclusion The nature and scope of writing activities have evolved over decades from being grammar- centric to purpose-centric. In the past, we believed teaching grammar would directly affect students' writing skills. In this module, we have shown how different activities can help students with different aspects of writing. When we teach writing, we need to ensure that we use a range of activities, which not only teach students the language, but also make them understand use the language appropriately. Similarly, while teaching writing, we must also consider how different registers and genres achieve specific social purposes through writing. Student needs, writing styles, course requirements, textbooks, resource materials, and time are only a few aspects that affect the design and implementation of a good writing course. However, if we desire to improve students writing, we must include a variety of activities that cater to different styles of learning. We may have to provide grammar practice, share vocabulary appropriate to the context, offer feedback both on grammar

234 NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 and content, and perhaps, we give students an assessment rubric to crosscheck their writing quality. Teaching writing skills require us to do a lot more than just assigning a topic prompt and awarding grades for writing. 16.10 Review Questions 1. How is writing different from speech, though both are productive activities? Give some examples based on your experience with your mother tongue. 2. You have seen several activities in this unit. How many of these can you use in your class? If you cannot use a few, can you give reasons for the same? 3. Look at the report writing exercise (policeman reporting an accident). If you were to use this with your students in Class X, what changes will you make to it? 4. If you are teaching writing to a group of intermediate students, how much of grammar support will you give? How do you choose these items of grammar? 5. What are some of the rhetorical devices? How does an understanding of these make our writing better? Give an example. 16.11 References Bhatia, V. K. (1993). Analysing Genre: Language Use in Professional Settings. Longman. Biber, D., Johansson, S., Leech, G., Conrad, S., & Finegan, E. (1999). Longman Grammar of Spoken Written. Chiu, H. L. W. (2013). Using feature articles for a university writing course. Modern English Teacher, 22(4). Hyon, S. (2018). Introducing Genre and English for Specific Purposes. Routledge. Lightfoot, A. (2010). Write your own course. English Teaching Professional, 69(July). https://www.etprofessional.com/write-your-own-course Morgan, S. (2012). Getting to grips with genre 3. English Teaching Professional, 62– 64. Shin, Y. K. (2016). Lexical Bundles in Native and Non-Native Scientific Writing: Applying a Corpus-based Study to Language Teaching. English for Specific Purposes, 41, 82–83. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.esp.2015.07.005

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NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 237 Methods and Concepts in ELT-2 (Grammar, Vocabulary, Literature)

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NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 239 Module -1 ppppp Importance of Grammar Unit : 1 p p p p p Grammar Structure 1.1 Introduction 1.2 Objectives 1.3 Types of Grammar 1.4 Definitions of the Basic Types 1.5 Modern Concepts and Values in Grammar Study 1.6 Real-World Uses of Grammar 1.7 Grammar Studies for ELT 1.8 Traditional Grammar vs. Theoretical Grammar 1.9 Descriptive Grammar vs. Theoretical Grammar 1.10 Lexicogrammar 1.11 How Words and Grammar Are Interdependent 1.12 Lexicogrammar and Corpus Linguistics 1.13 Summary 1.14 Review Questions 1.15 References 1.1 Introduction Grammar Word Origin The word grammar comes from the Greek word 'grammatike techne', meaning "craft of letters", etymologically from the root, 'gramma'[letter]. It is metaphorically an apt description. During the Middle Ages, grammar was often used to describe learning in general, including the magical, occult practices popular among the scholars of the day. People in Scotland pronounced grammar as "glam-our," and extended this association to meaning magical beauty. In the 19th century, the two versions of the word went their separate ways, so that our study of English grammar today may not be quite as glamorous as it used to be. In any language, grammar signifies:

240 NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 Ø the systematic study and description of a language (as compared with usage). Ø a set of rules and examples dealing with the syntax and word structures (morphology) of a language. Cutting across all its ramifications or varieties, the term grammar at its basics signifies the gamut of principles and rules, that governs the structure of language, given that the word 'structure' encompasses phrasing, grammatical collocation, morphological formulation according as the placement of a word demands syntax and sentence, elliptical or finished. Intensive reading of and listening to a second or foreign language are the most comprehensible accesses to the sense of grammar. Grammar seems to be the expressive or communicative sense in a coherent manner rather than cramming a set of rules, which slips through the fingers like a fluid when it comes to speaking or writing L2 or FL. Therefore, it is highly recommended that L2 learners get themselves exposed to and familiar with conversational and reading sessions rather than get glued to a grammar book. 1.2 Objectives When we just start learning a second language, here obviously it is English, we need to know some basic rules of the language. Developing a good awareness of how grammar works in the English language not only helps us create our own sentences correctly but also make it easier to improve our communication skills in both spoken and written English. [Here we might have written 'start to learn' and 'help us to create...'; but these expressions are ungrammatical and contrary to usage as well. Yet these expressions are getting into vogue these days, and in course of time they will be accepted grammatically.] We study, learn and practise grammar in order Ø To build up an elementary sense of phrasal and sentential form and their meanings or significations in speech performances or discourse settings, be they academic or professional, or dialogical Ø To identify and understand grammatical structures in text and speech and how these structures moderate meanings and their effects on readers or audience Ø To suggest corrections and modifications in grammatically faulty expressions

NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 241 Ø To variegate the form of expression without affecting meaning, in other words, to compress or expand an expression according as the context warrants with none of ungrammatical forms that may intrude for lack of attention to grammar and may produce an adverse impression on the discerning readers or listeners Ø To integrate syntax and semantics, in other words, to harmonize word-order and intended meaning Ø To achieve a sense of confidence in handling words and organizing them into a flexible, lucid and easy-to-understand structure; we must understand that 'language performance' is largely psychological. For a better understanding of grammar in its quintessential sense we may take David Crystal's extremely pertinent and incisive view into our account for a think over it and proceed to study grammar to make the most of its application to comprehending and speaking/contextualising language: Two steps can usually be distinguished in the study of grammar. The first step is to identify units in the stream of speech (or writing, or signing) – units such as 'wordand 'sentence'. The second step is to analyse the patterns into which these units fall, and the relationships of meaning that these patterns convey. Depending upon which units we recognize at the beginning of the study, so the definition of grammar alters. Most approaches begin by recognizing the 'sentence', and grammar is thus most widely defined as 'the study of sentence structure'. A grammar of a language, from this point of view, is an account of the language's possible sentence structures, organized according to certain general principles. (Crystal, 88) 1.3 Types of Grammar Within the broad spectrum of grammar study, there are two distinct applications of the term 'grammar', one specific and the other general (Crystal, 88). In the specific sense of grammar, it is a subject related to the analytical study of the structure of language, traditionally followed in the teaching of school boys, with special emphasis on syntax and morphology. The comprehensive and general sense of grammar was popularized by Chomsky. Chomsky's concept includes within the ambit of grammar an interactive and mutually subservient study of phonology, morphology, syntax and semantics. In the general sense of grammar, emphasis is laid on vocabulary and usage problems as well,

242 NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 which are admittedly important segments of semantics. In any case, across the wide variety of approaches to English grammar, common focuses are on how to use a particular structure and how errors are to be avoided. In the brief compass of this module on grammar, correlated issues such as 'formality, 'slang', nature of Standard English and dialects are not addressed. But it is advisable for the advanced ELT students to study and be aware of these areas alongside grammar. Linguists are ever ready to remind us that there are different types of grammar, that is, there is a variety of ways for conceptualizing and analysing the functions and structures of language. Basic types of grammar discourse are six in number, in David Crystal's view: 1. Descriptive Grammar 2. Pedagogical Grammar 3. Prescriptive Grammar 4. Reference Grammar 5. Theoretical Grammar 6. Traditional Grammar On top of these six basic types, one easy-to-understand approach to grammar is Practical/ Functional/Communicative Grammar, which is our focus in this Module.This particular approach is the combination of all the different approaches in grammatology, and is in tandem with the patterns and forms of usage. L2 learners may look up a good book on the practical aspects of grammar titled Practical English Usage by Michael Swan, (Fully Revised International Edition, 2017). It is in place to mention here that through the expansion of linguistic studies over the last few decades several variants of grammar studies have developed, viz., Comparative Grammar, Generative Grammar, Mental Grammar, Transformational Grammar, Performance Grammar, Case Grammar, Relational Grammar, X-bar Theoretical Grammar, Montague Grammar, Phrase Structure Grammar, Realistic Grammar, Systemic Grammar, Universal Grammar and Network Grammar. Predictably more approaches to grammar studies are in the offing.

NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 243 1.4. Definitions of the Basic Types a. Descriptive Grammar: It studies and presents constructions that are grammatically correct vis-à-vis incorrect in an objective manner without any prescriptive suggestions or judgements. The standard norm of Descriptive Grammar is to investigate and describe in detail the patterns adopted in a corpus of materials, written and spoken. b. Pedagogical Grammar: Pedagogical Grammar is specifically designed for teaching and learning a second or foreign language. This type of grammar is popular in school level teaching, and textually mediated to L2 learners through setpiece lesson plans and testing. c. Prescriptive Grammar: Prescriptive Grammar is a manual of prescriptive rules for socially accepted usage of language, and was a major influence in the academies throughout the whole of Europe and America in the 18 th and 19 th centuries. It survives in our contemporary times in the form of handbooks for practical usages and their governing rules in such books as A Dictionary of Modern English usage by Henry Watson Fowler (1926) and Practical English Usage by Michael Swan, (Fully Revised International Edition, 2016). d. Reference Grammar: Reference Grammar is self-explanatory in the sense that any clarification of grammaticality of phrasing, usage, syntax or sentence structure is consulted or looked up in a comprehensive grammar book that covers all features and facets of grammar between its two flaps. It is used in the same way a dictionary of words, rather a book of 'reference lexicon' is used by one interested in the grammatical correctness of language. e. Theoretical Grammar: Theoretical Grammar is concerned with the linguistic universals that are not confined to any particular language but characteristic of all human languages or dialects, spoken or written. It is more an analytical and scientific approach to language study as a set of principles manifested in speech and textual mechanism, a phenomenon underscored by an innate rational organisation as in any other phenomenon of natural growth or constructs. "Theoretical grammar or syntax is concerned with making completely explicit the formalisms of grammar, and in providing scientific arguments or explanations in favour of one account of grammar rather than another, in terms of a general theory of human language." (Antoinette Renouf and Andrew Kehoe, 2009)

244 NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 f. Traditional Grammar: Traditional Grammar refers to the entire historical gamut of grammar studies originating from the classical Greek and Latin works of grammar and intensifying through the Renaissance epochs and reaching its apogee in 18 th century prescriptive grammar books and manuals. 1.5. Modern Concepts and Values in Grammar Study Let us consider the word interface. A descriptive grammarian would have observed, among other things, that the word is a mix of the prefix (inter-) and a stem word (face) and that it can be used as both a noun and a verb. The prescriptive grammarian, however, would be more interested in deciding whether or not it is "correct" to use interface as a verb. The study of grammar provides us with a clearer understanding of how language works. It helps us with greater control over the way we shape words into sentences and sentences into paragraphs. Descriptive grammarians generally advise us not to be overly concerned with matters of correctness: language, they say, is neither good nor bad; it simply is. As the history of the glamorous word grammar demonstrates, the English language is a living stream of communication, a dynamic and evolving phenomenon. Within a generation or two, words and phrases come into fashion and fall out again. Over centuries, word endings and entire sentence structures can change or disappear. Prescriptive grammarians prefer giving restrictive advice as to using language in all possible correctness. They dish out hard and fast rules to preserve the grammatical sanctity of language by avoiding errors. They view grammar as the mover of language. It would simply make no sense without grammar. Language users must function in a fixed system in order to understand one another. In other words, a language without grammar is like a pile of bricks without mortar to hold them together. The British linguist David Crystal tells us that ''grammar is the study of all the contrasts of meaning that it is possible to make within sentences. The 'rules' of grammar tell us how. By one count, there are some 3,500 such rules in English." Even though we do not know all the lexicographical terms and pedantic minutiae involved in the study of grammar, we may take a whiff of hope from the noted novelist and essayist Joan Didion: "What I know about grammar is its infinite power. To shift the structure of a sentence alters the meaning of that sentence." Grammar is actually something all of us begin to learn in our

NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 245 first days and weeks of life, through interaction with others. From the moment we are born, language—and the grammar that makes up that language—is all around us. We start learning it as soon as we hear it spoken around us, even if we do not fully comprehend its meaning yet. Although a baby does not have a clue to the terminology, they begin to pick up and assimilate how sentences are put together (syntax), as well as figure out the pieces that go into making those sentences work (morphology). "A pre-schooler's tacit knowledge of grammar is more sophisticated than the thickest style manual," explains cognitive psychologist, linguist, and popular science author Steven Pinker. "[Grammar should not] be confused with the guidelines for how one 'ought' to speak." 1.6 Real-World Uses of Grammar Of course, anyone who wants to be an efficient speaker or writer must have at least a basic grasp of grammar. The further beyond the basics we go, the more effectively and clearly we will communicate in any situation. "There are several applications of grammatical study in modern-day language schools: (a) A recognition of grammatical structures is often essential for punctuation. (b) A study of one's native grammar is helpful when one studies the grammar of a foreign language. (c) A knowledge of grammar is a help in the interpretation of literary as well as non- literary texts, since the interpretation of a passage sometimes depends crucially on grammatical analysis. (d) A study of the grammatical resources of English is useful in composition, in particular. It can help us evaluate the choices available when we come to revising an earlier written draft."[An Introduction to English Grammar by Sidney Greenbaum and Gerald Nelson] In a professional setting, advanced knowledge of grammar can help us interact efficiently and easily with our colleagues, subordinates, and superiors. Whether it is giving directions, getting feedback from seniors or juniors, discussing the goals of a project, creating marketing potential for merchandise, an ability to communicate effectively and correctly is extremely important.

246 NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 1.7.Grammar Studies for ELT Teachers generally hang on a course of pedagogical grammar while instructing English language learners. Students still in our academies have to deal with the nuts-and-bolts of prescriptive and traditional grammar (such as making sure verbs and subjects agree and to put commas at the right places in a sentence), linguists keep on focussing on the infinitely more complex aspects of language. They study how people acquire language and debate whether every child is born with a concept of universal grammar, examining everything from how different languages compare to each other (comparative grammar) to the variety of permutations within a single language (descriptive grammar) to the way in which words and usage interrelate to create meaning (lexicogrammar). ELT students are advised to explore and put to uses while teaching L2 learners the following approaches to grammar: • Case grammar • Cognitive grammar • Construction grammar • Generative grammar • Lexical-functional grammar (LFG) • Mental grammar • Theoretical grammar • Transformational grammar Here follows a brief discussion on the different approaches to grammar studies. In linguistics, generative grammar is the set of language rules that indicates the structure and interpretation of sentences that native speakers of a language accept as belonging to their language. Adopting the term generative from mathematics, linguist Noam Chomsky introduced the concept of generative grammar in the 1950s. This theory is also known as transformational grammar, a term still used today. In Linguistics for Non-Linguists: A Primer With Exercises, Frank Parker and Kathryn Riley argue that generative grammar is a kind of unconscious knowledge that allows a person, no matter what language she speaks, to form "correct" sentences. They continue:

"Simply put, a generative grammar is a theory of competence: a model of the psychological system of unconscious knowledge that underlies a speaker's ability to produce and interpret utterances in a language … A good way of trying to understand Noam Chomsky's point is to think of a generative grammar as essentially a definition of competence: a set of criteria that linguistic structures must meet to be judged acceptable," (Parker and Riley 2009). l Generative grammar is a theory of grammar, first developed by Noam Chomsky in the 1950s, that is based on the idea that all humans have an innate language capacity. l Linguists who study generative grammar are not interested in prescriptive rules; rather, they are interested in uncovering the foundational principles that guide all language production.• Generative grammar accepts as a basic premise that native speakers of a language will find certain sentences grammatical or ungrammatical and that these judgments give insight into the rules governing the use of that language. Principles of Generative Grammar Proponents of the universal grammar believe that children, when they are very young, are not exposed to enough linguistic information to learn the rules of grammar. That children do in fact learn the rules of grammar is proof, according to some linguists, that there is an innate language capability that allows them to overcome the "poverty of the stimulus." Generative grammar is a "theory of competence," and is concerned with what is called grammaticality judgment task. The main principle of generative grammar is that all humans are born with an innate capacity for language and that this capacity shapes the rules for what is considered "correct" grammar in a language. The idea of an innate language capacity or a "universal grammar" is not accepted by all linguists. Some believe, to the contrary, that all languages are learned and, therefore, based on certain constraints. This involves presenting a native speaker with a series of sentences and encouraging them to decide whether the sentences are grammatical (acceptable) or ungrammatical (unacceptable). For example: "Man is a mortal being" vis-à-vis "Mortal man is a being". A native speaker would judge the first sentence to be acceptable and the second to be unacceptable. From this, we can make certain assumptions about the rules governing how parts of speech are ordered in English sentences. For instance, a linking 'Be-verb'

that links the subject [a noun] to a subject complement [be it just an adjective] must follow the subject and precede the subject complement in an assertive form. Generative grammar includes the rules determining the structure and interpretation of sentences that speakers accept as belonging to the language. "Simply put, a generative grammar is a theory of competence: a model of the psychological system of unconscious knowledge that underlies a speaker's ability to produce and interpret utterances in a language" (F. Parker and K. Riley, Linguistics for Non-Linguists. Allyn and Bacon, 1994). Mental Grammar is the generative grammar stored in the brain that allows a speaker produce language that other speakers feel quick to understand, is mental grammar. "All humans are born with the capacity for constructing a Mental Grammar, given linguistic experience; this capacity for language is called the Language Faculty (Chomsky, 1965). A grammar formulated by a linguist is an idealized description of this Mental Grammar" (Culicover, 2003). Pedagogical Grammar is the analysis and instruction designed for L2 learners. Pedagogical grammar is a slippery concept. The term is commonly used to denote (1) pedagogical process—the explicit treatment of elements of the target language systems as part of language teaching methodology; (2) pedagogical content—reference sources of one kind or another that present information about the target language system; and (3) combinations of process and content" (D. Little, "Words and Their Properties: Arguments for a Lexical Approach to Pedagogical Grammar." (Odlin, 1994). Performance Grammar is the description of the syntax of English as it is actually used by speakers in dialogues. "Performance grammar . . . centres attention on language production; it is my belief that the problem of production must be dealt with before problems of reception and comprehension can properly be investigated" [Carroll, 1985]. Reference Grammar is the description of the grammar of a language, with explanations of the principles governing the construction of words, phrases, clauses, and sentences. Examples of contemporary reference grammars in English include A Comprehensive Grammar of the English Language, by Randolph Quirk et al. (1985), the Longman Grammar of Spoken and Written English (1999), and The Cambridge Grammar of the English Language (2002). Theoretical Grammar is the study of the essential components of any human language. "Theoretical grammar or syntax is concerned with making completely explicit the

NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 249 formalisms of grammar, and in providing scientific arguments or explanations in favour of one account of grammar rather than another, in terms of a general theory of human language" (Renouf and Kehoe, 2003). Traditional Grammar is the collection of prescriptive rules and concepts about the structure of the language. "We say that traditional grammar is prescriptive because it focuses on the distinction between what some people do with language and what they ought to do with it, according to a pre-established standard. . . . The chief goal of traditional grammar, therefore, is perpetuating a historical model of what supposedly constitutes proper language" (Williams, 2005). Transformational Grammar is a theory of grammar that accounts for the constructions of a language by linguistic transformations and phrase structures. "In transformational grammar, the term 'rule' is used not for a precept set down by an external authority but for a principle that is unconsciously yet regularly followed in the production and interpretation of sentences. A rule is a direction for forming a sentence or a part of a sentence, which has been internalized by the native speaker" (Bornstein,1984). 1.8. Traditional Grammar vs. Theoretical Grammar "What generative linguists mean by 'grammar' should not be confused, in the first instance, with what ordinary persons or non-linguists might refer to by that term: namely, a traditional or pedagogical grammar such as the kind used to teach language to children in 'grammar school.' A pedagogical grammar typically provides paradigms of regular constructions, lists of prominent exceptions to these constructions (irregular verbs, etc.), and descriptive commentary at various levels of detail and generality about the form and meaning of expressions in a language (Chomsky 1986a: 6). By contrast, a theoretical grammar, in Chomsky's framework, is a scientific theory: it seeks to provide a complete theoretical characterization of the speaker-hearer's knowledge of her language, where this knowledge is interpreted to refer to a particular set of mental states and structures. 1.9. Descriptive Grammar vs. Theoretical Grammar "A descriptive grammar (or reference grammar) catalogues the facts of a language, whereas a theoretical grammar uses some theory about the nature of language to explain why the language contains certain forms and not others." (Baker, Hardie, and McEnery, 2006)
250 NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 1.10. Lexicogrammar Lexicogrammar, also called lexical grammar, is a term used in systemic functional linguistics (SFL) to emphasize the interdependence of vocabulary (lexis) and syntax (grammar). The term, introduced by M.A.K. Halliday, is an amalgamation of the words "lexicon" and "grammar." Adjectival derivation is lexico-grammatical. "The advent of corpus linguistics," notes Michael Pearce, "has made the identification of lexico-grammatical patterns much easier than it once was," (Pearce 2007). Lexicogrammar is not simply a combination of two fields of study but a spectrum that contains aspects of lexical studies and aspects of grammatical studies. "According to systemic functional theory, lexicogrammar is diversified into a metafunctional spectrum, extended in delicacy from grammar to lexis, and ordered into a series of ranked units," (Halliday 2013). What M.A.K. Halliday and John Sinclair want us to understand is that in lexicogrammar, grammar and lexical patterns do not carry the same weight. "Lexico-grammar is now very fashionable, but it does not integrate the two types of patterns as its name might suggest—it is fundamentally grammar with a certain amount of attention to lexical patterns within the grammatical frameworks; it is not in any sense an attempt to build together a grammar and lexis on an equal basis … Lexico-grammar is still firmly a kind of grammar, laced, or perhaps spiked with some lexis," (Sinclair 2004). Lexicogrammar is still just grammar. Halliday, goes on to further explain why, if lexicogrammar can really just be considered a branch of grammar and vocabulary isnot as significant as syntax; he gave it a new name. "The heart of language is the abstract level of coding that is the lexicogrammar. "I see no reason why we should not retain the term 'grammar' in this, its traditional sense; the purpose of introducing the more cumbersome term lexicogrammar is simply to make explicit the point that vocabulary is also a part of it, along with syntax and morphology." (Language of Early Childhood. Halliday 2006). 1.11. How Words and Grammar Are Interdependent The flexibility of verbs, Michael Pearce suggests, proves that grammar and vocabulary are mutually dependent. "Vocabulary and grammatical structures are interdependent; so much so that it is possible to say with some justification that words have their own

NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 251 grammar. This interdependency of lexis and grammar is evident everywhere in language. For example, lexical verbs have valency patterns: some verbs can be used with a direct object (I made some oven gloves), or with both a direct object and an indirect object (The government awarded them a pay rise), others need no object at all (The Colonel was laughing)." (Pearce 2007). 1.11.1 Lexicogrammar and Semantics Lexicogrammar captures the big picture of language better than the study of grammar or lexicon alone. And in so doing, it also provides a stronger understanding of meaning- making in communication, otherwise known as semantics. "Just as lexis and grammar are considered to form a single stratum, Halliday considers that the lexicogrammar is not a separate system or 'module' apart from semantics, but is rather an underlying component of the meaning-making system of a language. The stratum of semantics is thus not thought of as an abstract or logical structure, but rather as the medium through which humans use language to interact in their social and cultural context. A consequence of this is that the language, and in particular the lexicogrammar, is structured by the expressive and communicative functions it has evolved to convey," (Gledhill 2011). 1.12. Lexicogrammar and Corpus Linguistics Researching the role of lexicogrammar in the formation of language is only so useful when we ignore considering how language is actually used rather than just how it's used in theories and models. This is where corpus linguistics, the study of real-world language, comes in, and what author of The Lexicogrammar of Adjectives: A Systemic Functional Approach to Lexis Gordon Tucker advocates for. "Generalizations on the structure of language tell us little about how people actually use the language, and consequently how a language really is. The patterns of structural and lexical behaviour are not revealed by the linguist's introspection or from a few examples chosen to fit the pattern. This is the conclusion that increasingly is being drawn from a growing body of linguistic research on large computer corpora or databases. It is only when we come to investigate a language from samples of millions of words of running text that we can really begin to understand how words and structures behave and interact...

252 NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 A theory of language or a model of a particular language ... has to account for use as attested by corpus linguistic research. If such a theory purports to give rise to language description, it must have the potential to incorporate the vagaries and idiosyncrasies of lexico-grammatical behaviour and the cryptotypical phenomena which are uncovered by the observation of language use on a significantly larger scale," (Tucker 1999). 1.12.1 Universal Grammar Universal Grammar is a comprehensive system of categories, operations, and principles shared by all human languages and considered to be innate. "Taken together, the linguistic principles of Universal Grammar constitute a theory of the organization of the initial state of the mind/brain of the language learner, that is, a theory of the human faculty for language" (Crain and Thornton, 2000). Languages are fluid systems and in all likeliness newer grammar approaches are emerging all the time. There's word grammar, for instance. And relational grammar. Not to mention case grammar, cognitive grammar, construction grammar, lexical functional grammar, lexicogrammar, head-driven phrase structure grammar and many more, more in the queue up over the coming year. But no single grammar approach can possibly ever encompass the whole of language as an evolving flux. The system of categories, operations, and principles shared by all human languages is considered to be innate. "Taken together, the linguistic principles of Universal Grammar constitute a theory of the organization of the initial state of the mind/brain of the language learner—that is, a theory of the human faculty for language" (S. Crain and R. Thornton, 2000). 1.13 Summary In conclusion, it may be said that a strong grounding in grammar sense is a necessity for L2 learners as well as teachers, of course more importantly, to identify that a 'form' is 'correct' or 'incorrect'. For examples, it is a common practice in the English of the L2 speakers/writers to say or write, 'You have been nominated/elected/selected/ appointed as a member of this committee', or less people instead of fewer people, or Ihavemet him yesterday instead of I met him yesterday or We should stress on/emphasize on the fact...

instead of We should stress/emphasize the fact... They are prone to using 'double negatives' or forms like ain't, which do not occur in standard language. Knowing grammar helps us tide over these slips and mistakes. [In the US variant of English, we would have used '...helps us to tide over these slips and mistakes'.] 1.14 Review Questions a. How do we define grammar and what is its role in language learning? b. How many types of grammar are you aware of? Are there any differences between and among these types? c. What are some of the modern concepts in grammar that you have become aware of? Do they disturb you? Explain. d. What is Lexicogrammar? How does this branch account for word grammar? e. What are the major differences between traditional grammar and modern grammar? f. 'Through the expansion of linguistic studies over the last few decades several variants of grammar studies have developed'. Mention these variants. g. 'A strong grounding in grammar sense is a necessity for L2 learners as well as teachers'. Justify. h. Summarize the scope of Universal Grammar. i. 'Words do have their own grammar'. How would you justify this statement? h. Alongside semantics or study of word-meaning, mention two other studies that may effectively contribute to the second language acquisition. 1.15 References 1. Baker, Paul, et. al, (2006). Andrew Hardie, and Tony McEnery, A Glossary of Corpus Linguistics. Edinburgh : Edinburgh Univ. Press. 2. Bornstein, D. D. An Introduction to Transformational Grammar. New York: University Press of America. 3. Carroll, John. (1985). "Promoting Language Skills." Perspectives on School Learning: Selected Writings of John B. Carroll, ed. by L. W. Anderson. Erlbaum. 4. Crystal, D. (1988). The English Language. Harmondsworth: Penguin. 5. Crain, S. and R. Thornton. (2000). Investigations in Universal Grammar. Cambridge: MIT Press.

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Unit - 2 p Communicative / Functional Grammar Structure 2.1 Introduction 2.2 Objectives 2.3 Sentence 2.4 Clausal Classification of Sentence 2.5 Three Kinds of Dependent or Subordinate Clauses 2.6 Secondary Types of Sentence 2.7 Parts of Speech or Word Classes 2.8 Structure Words 2.9 Basic Components of Sentence 2.10 Forms of Subjects 2.11 Understanding Structures of Sentences 2.12 Duality of Sentences: Values 2.13 Summary 2.14 Review Questions 2.1. Introduction Communicative / Functional Grammar as we look at the subject, presents a set of theoretical aspects as well as demonstrative/illustrative aspects. Theoretically it is part of Systemic Functional Grammar (SFG). It is a form of grammatical discourse that owes its origin to Michael Halliday. It is a development out of a social semiotic approach to language called systemic functional linguistics. The term systemic refers to the view of language as "a network of systems, or interrelated sets of options for making meaning" (Halliday, M.A.K. 1994. Introduction to Functional Grammar, 2nd ed. London: Edward Arnold. p. 15). The term functional refers to Halliday's view that language is as it has been shaping itself through its evolution. Halliday refers to the multidimensionality of language. Language "reflects the multidimensional nature of human experience and interpersonal relations." (Halliday, 1994). 2.2. Objectives By going through this unit we will come to know a) how grammar operates rationally in a flexible, more flexible way b) explore content words, structure words and c) about formation of sentences from a describable set of options.

256 NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 2.3. Sentence Let us, at this point, review what a grammatically complete sentence stands for or signifies. A sentence is a meaningful, ordered string of words that forms a statement, question, command, request, feeling, abstraction or ideation, condition or/and hypothesis. To put it more adequately, a sentence is not a random grouping of words but a meaningful structure of word classes, governed by the laws of agreement among its different components at syntactical levels and giving expression to the whole gamut of human emotions at the syntactic levels. Naturally, the sentence is not homogeneous and static in type. It is a variable verbal arrangement or system. Its structural character may be Simple, Complex and Compound or a mix of Complex-compound. But as a unit of expression it is still more various and polytypic. The range of sentences is spread over many types to accommodate the entire scale of human responses in verbal or lexical medium. Primary Types of Sentence Assertive or Declarative [Expressing a statement] Examples: He lived a happy life till the end and breathed his last peacefully. Interrogative [Verb + subject type or Wh-type] [Asking questions for answer to come to the rest of affirmation] Examples: Are you happy with what you have? Who did you meet yesterday? Exclamatory [Expressing strong feeling] Examples: What a piece of work it is! Lo and behold, the sun set is marvellous. Imperative [Expressing command, advice, request] Examples: Please help me out of the situation. Get me my bow of burning gold. Subjunctive or Optative [Hypothesis, Condition with wish verbs 'had', 'were'] Examples: I wish I had this car. I wish I were a king. Sl. No. 1 2 3 4 5 End-marker/sign . [Full-stop/Period] ? [Question mark] ! [Exclamation mark] . [Full-stop/Period] . ! [Period/Exclamation] Semantic Value Positive [+] Negative[-] or Positive [+] Positive [+] Positive [+] Positive [+]

NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 257 2.4. Clausal Classification of Sentence Simple Sentence: is a unitary construction of sentence with only one subject and a matching verb with or without any phrasal extension that may include object, object complement, subject complement and/or adverbials. Example: My father has been living a sedentary life after his retirement from service. Complex Sentence is a sentence split into a principal or independent clause that has the nature of simple sentence, but upon it there has to be one or more dependent/subordinate clause – dependent on the principal clause for meaning. Example: My father has been living a sedentary life after/since he retired from service. Or, After his retirement from service my father has been living a life which is sedentary. Compound Sentence is a sentence that must have at least two independent clauses connected by a conjunction like 'and', 'or', 'but' and 'otherwise' with or without any subordinate clause(s). Example: My father retired from service and since then he has been living a sedentary life. Complex-Compound Sentence is a sentence which must have at least two principal clauses with at least a subordinate clause or more. Example: My father retired from service and since then he has been living a life which is sedentary. [Italicized parts indicate principal or independent clauses] 2.5. Three Kinds of Dependent or Subordinate Clauses: 1. Relative/Adjective Clause: indicative of the qualifying property of an Adjective 2. Adverbial Clause: indicative of the modifying property of an Adverb 3. Noun Clause: indicative of the Noun/Nominal property of a NP. It is also called 'that-clause'. ELT students may profit from reading the chapter on clause analysis in any standard grammar book

258 NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 2.6. Secondary Types of Sentence 1. Formulaic: Greetings 2. Block: Specific Communicative purpose 3. Passive: Stress on the thing done rather than the doer with BE + Past Participle + By/ With/To as in differing contexts. 4. Quasi-passive: Stress on the thing done rather than the doer in intransitive use of Verb. Defining the Secondary types FORMULAICS: A nucleic focus is maintained and projected. The sentence is truncated to a point of focus to make cryptic and catchy reference to a particular information, idea, or activity. These elliptical formulaic expressions serve the specific purposes of Responses, Greetings and Farewell messages, Approval and Disapproval, Encouragement etc. These structures do not follow the normal pattern and sequence of subject and predicate. Examples: Formulaic response type Ø No room, please. Ø Only for the asking. Ø May I help. Ø Sorry, can't. Ø Take a seat Ø Here you are Formulaic greetings type: Ø Hello[formal] or Hi[informal]! Ø Good day. Ø See you. Ø Bye. Approval and Disapproval type: Ø Yes, you can.

NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 259 Ø Okay. Ø Thanks. Ø Well done. Ø Damn it. Ø To hell with it. Encouragement type: Ø Buck up. Ø Three Cheers. Ø Thumbs up. Blocks:Blocks are set-piece expressions. Ø Stolen idol recovered. Ø A silent war against AIDS. Ø Massacre that wounded peace. Ø Tender for survey of gas pockets. 2.7. Parts of Speech or Word Classes Across both the primary and secondary types of sentence, as we understood them from the definitions already given, certain components or constituent parts of sentences are necessarily to be there to frame a sentence of any type. They are popularly called Parts Of Speech or Word-Classes. The traditional and long-standing popularity of the Parts of Speech in classroom teaching and L2 courses can be gauged from the Rhyme cited below: It is a rhyme written by David B. Tower & Benjamin F. Tweed, that teachers used in earlier days to help students learn the parts of speech. Why the song leaves out the pronouns is a mystery. Maybe, as proxies of Nouns, Pronouns are dismissed from this song. A writer from Richland, Washington, suggests "A pronoun replaces any noun: / he, she, it, and you are found. It has been set to music, but we'll leave that to you to discover or create for yourself":

260 NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 Three little words you often see Are ARTICLES: a, an, and the. A NOUN's the name of anything, As: school or garden, toy, or swing. ADJECTIVES tell the kind of noun, As: great, small, pretty, white, or brown. VERBS tell of something being done: To read, write, count, sing, jump, or run. How things are done the ADVERBS tell, As: slowly, quickly, badly, well. CONJUNCTIONS join the words together, As: men and women, wind or weather. The PREPOSITION stands before A noun as: in or through a door. The INTERJECTION shows surprise As: Oh, how pretty! Ah! how wise! The whole are called the PARTS of SPEECH, 2.8. Structure Words RELATION WORDS FOR PROVIDING STRUCTURE

NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 261 Structure words have no word-equivalents or lexical definitions unlike content words. Some of the structure words are: I, THE, AT, AND, CAN. So dictionaries give meanings for 'content words' and uses for 'structure words'. Content words have 'a substance of meaning' representable by other words or even by pictures, whereas structure words are marked by definitive uses. If structure words produce any meanings, they come from relationships with content words, indicating Reference, Association, Particularity, Time of action, and in the process transmuting the meanings of content words. An Example : I will never go abroad. With the removal of the structure words – 'I' and 'will', the meaning of the sentence is transmuted into something quite different: 'never go abroad'. So the totality of the sentence-meaning or sentential meaning emerges from the combination of content words and structure words. In other words, the meaning of a sentence comes from the interpenetration and dovetailing of 'lexical item' and 'structure item'. 2.9. Basic Components of Sentence A sentence in order to be grammatically a complete sentence must have an ensemble of two parts: Subject and Predicate. A Predicate may be a single lexical verb with not necessarily any post-verb adjunct whatsoever, or a lexical transitive* verb necessarily with object (one object in case of Mono-transitives, two objects, one Direct Object and the other Indirect in case of Di-transitives, and one Object and one Object Complement in case of Complex Transitives) or a Lexical/Non-lexical Link Verbwith necessarily a Subject Complement. A Predicate may spill beyond a mere verb, depending on the nature of the Verb and add on to other components like Complements, Objects of any types, Adverbials and Apposite. It again hinges on the nature of the Verb used, that is, whether the Verb-in-use allows for such additions if wanted by the speaker or writer. For this structural importance of verb, English is called a predominantly Verb-based language. In this part of the Module on Grammar, different uses and forms of Verbs will be treated in a separate segment. But in point of the axial relationship between Subject and Verb, a cursory view of which can be grammatically entitled to forming the Subject Component of a sentence may be expedient, and conducive to our understanding of Sentence.

262 NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 2.10. Forms of Subjects 2.10.1 NOUN PHRASE [NP] as Subject 2.10.2.ING-Subject[Gerundial Subject] denoting the presentness of action implied in subject Examples: Smoking is injurious; please quit it. l Here 'smoking' is not futurity, but a present reality. Swimming is all-out exercise; good that you are doing it. 2.10.3.To-infinitive Subject denoting the futurity of action and advice implied in subject Example: To smoke is injurious; never take to it. l Here 'To smoke' is a future probability, and it is an advice. To swim is an all-out exercise; try it. Here 'To swim' is a future probability, and it is an advice 2.10.4.WH-Subject: denoting a suggestion or suspicion as subject

NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 263 Examples: Who did the mischief is an open secret. Why he married into an upstart family is none of our concerns. 2.10.5.Verbal Noun as Subject denoting subject as process or performance being done Examples: Nationalization of banks was a good step towards economic betterment. Corporatization seems to be shrinking private space in an individual's life. 2.10.6.That-Clause or Noun Clause as Subject Examples: That elegy is a formal type of the lyric should be known to a student of literature. That corruption is mounting drains away the economic benefit of this welfare scheme. 2.11. Understanding Structures of Sentences: How they are formed: Looking at the Components of Sentences in English As we are going to comprehend the intricacies of grammar, we may choose a quick-to-understand tabular orm of approach. And to do that we need to be familiar with a few abbreviations ofSentential Components. List of Abbreviations of Sentential Components for the Tables of Sentence Structures: 1. NP-S = Subject [NP and any other of the subject components as listed in 1.4] 2. AV = Auxiliary Verb as predicate opener/ subject-quantifier 3. LMV = Lexical Main Verb as meaningful agent of work, further broken down into: 4. ILV = Intransitive Lexical Verb, requiring no object at all. 5. MTLV = Mono-transitive Lexical Verb requiring an object to follow. 6. DTLV = Di-transitive Lexical Verb, requiring Indirect Object [IO] and Direct Object [DO]to make a complete meaningful sentence. 7. CTLV = Complex Lexical Verb, requiring an Object and Object Complement to make a complete meaningful sentence.

264 NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 8. P AV = Primary Auxiliary Verb that takes the dual roles of Auxiliary and Lexical Main verbs [AV + LMV] 9. MAV = Marginal Auxiliary Verb that denotes tense, aspect, number of Subject to ensure agreement between Subject and Verb 10. MOV = Modal Auxiliary to Main Verb, denoting the mode and tone of speech/ speaker 11. LV = Link Verb [both lexical and non-lexical/functional] between Subject and Subject Complement 12. AOE = Adverb or Adverbial(s) as verb-modifier/intensifier of adjective or any other adverb as Optional Extension 13. NP = Noun, Pronoun, Noun Phrase [Noun, Pronoun, Adj+ Noun/ Article+ Adj+Noun/ Article+Adv+Adj+Noun] 14. ADJ = Adjectives as attributive (prenominal) or predicative (postnominal) qualifier/ modifier/quantifier 15. ADV = Adverb, free-floating qualifier/modifier/intensifier/quantifier; always non- additive attribute to Noun/Pronoun 16. ADVL = Adverbials, lexical chunk performing as Adverb 17. G = Verb-ing used as Subject or Object, as Gerund 18. TI = To-infinitive as To + Stem Verb in Present tense, used as both Subject and Extension Predicate to Verb. 19. O = Stem Object: DO = Direct Object: IO = Indirect Object [all subject components can be used as the components of object; only in the uses of pronouns, Cases of Pronouns change from the Nominative to the Objective. i, e. from 'I' to me, from 'she' to 'her', from 'he' to 'him', from 'they'to 'them', from 'you'to 'you'. 20. SC = Subject Complement[an adjective only or a NP or ING or To-infinitive or Past Participle] 21. OC = Object Complement [an adjective only or a NP or ING or To-infinitive or Past Participle] 22. N = Negatives as 'No'/'Not'/'Never'/'Hardly'/'Scarcely'/ 'Seldom' As Halliday says so wisely that language is a free-choice system as far as its functionality and meta-functions are concerned, we will now study in tabular forms a few of the systems that operate in language. But as a prelude to the table forms of complete sentences, we take into account the multidimensional uses of ING-FORM of verbs in phrasing and sentences. Only a selective few are being discussed here. If we say, learning grammar

NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 265 is difficult, we are absolutely correct. Here the gerundial subject 'learning' takes its own object 'grammar' to make a NP-subject 'Learning grammar'. But the expressions such as 'Learning of grammar' or 'The learning grammar' should be wrong choices. There is another choice which is grammatical and correct: 'The learning of grammar is difficult'. We may now proceed for the tables of sentential forms, which again are not exhaustive. Unless we get familiar with the listed abbreviations above, we may not understand the Tables. So let us remember the abbreviations and get going with language system as presented in the following tables. Table 1

266 NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 Table 2 Note: S + LMV+ IO +DO is the general syntactical organization. IO is the recipient of action, and DO is the instrument of action. IO generally precedes DO. If and when their placements are inverted, that is, DO comes before IO, a relation word, usually the preposition 'to', at times 'for' is interposed between them. For examples, "He gave me a book..." will be "He gave a book to me". "He did me a great help" will turn into "He did a great help for me". Table 3

NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 267 2.12. Duality of Sentences: Values

268 NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 2.13 Summary Taking a cue from this way of looking at the different types of sentence we may conclude that every sentence in English is a dual entity, in terms of form and content rolled together. Indeed, we can and should study language as a natural phenomenon, and like any other natural phenomenon it has also an underlying logic or rationale beneath the surface. If we can grasp it, a large number of our problems with teaching and learning English as a second or foreign language will be effortlessly solved. 2.14 Review Questions a. Give the definition of a sentence and compare your answer with the several definitions given in the unit. How is your definition different? b. How many types of sentences do we have? Give an example for each and explain why you \have labelled it so. c. What are clauses, and why/how are these important in making different types ofsentences? d. What do you understand by parts of speech? Is this classification complete? Is there something missing when we mention eight parts of speech? e. What is the role of phrases in sentences? How many phrases are there in English? f. 'Every sentence in English is a dual entity.' Justify. g. Differentiate between 'to-infinitive subject' and 'gerundial subject. h. Compare the uses of Direct Object [DO] and Indirect Object [IO]. How should they be used in passivized form of sentences? i. Write a note on Adverb and Adverbials. j. Discuss the varieties of Noun Phrase. l. Give as many examples as possible of Verb Collocations. m. 'Language is a free-choice system as far as its functionality and meta-functions are concerned.' How would justify this observation? 2.15. References: 1. Halliday, M.A.K. (1994). "On the 'Architecture' of Human Language". in On Language and Linguistics, Volume 3

NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 269 2. Carroll, John. (1985). "Promoting Language Skills." Perspectives on School Learning: Selected Writings of John B. Carroll, ed. by L. W. Anderson. Erlbaum. 3. Culicover, P. W., and A. Nowak. (2003). Dynamical Grammar: Foundations of Syntax II. Oxford: Oxford University Press. 4. Gledhill, C.(2011). "The 'lexicogrammar' approach to analysing phraseology and collocation in ESP texts". Open Edition Journals. Vol 59, p. 5-32. 6. Halliday, M .A.K. (2013). Introduction to Functional Grammar. Revised by C. M I M Matthiessen. New York: Routledge. 7. Greenbaum, S., and Gerald Nelson. (2016).An Introduction to English Grammar. New York: Routledge. 8. Sinclair, R. (2004). "Participation in Practice: making it meaningful, effective and sustainable." Children and Society. Vol 18(2), p.106-118. Exercises introduce the L2 learners to a process of imbibing a second/foreign language through drilling and repeating the problem areas and working them out through exercises. It is a kind drilling for mental grammar, without taking an elaborate stock-taking of the theoretical aspects of language. At a level, language becomes an automotive response pattern through a sustained activity or work-through in grammar exercises.

270 NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 Unit - 3 p Grammar Exercises - Types and Uses Structure 3.1 Introduction 3.2 Objectives 3.3 Verbs 3.4 -ING Forms 3.5 Interrogatives 3.6 Exercises on Sentence types 3.7 Exercises on Clause Analysis 3.8 Exercises on Phrases in Sentences 3.9 Summary 3.10 References 3.1. Introduction Grammar Exercises introduce the L2 learners to a process of imbibing a second/foreign language through drilling and repeating the problem areas and working them out through exercises. It is a kind of drilling for mental grammar, without taking an elaborate stock- taking of the theoretical aspects of language. At a level, language becomes an automotive response pattern through a sustained activity or work-through in grammar exercises. 3.1. Objectives The obvious objectives of Grammar Exercises are to master the target second/foreign language to the level of spontaneous linguistic reflexes and responses, without any significant departure from the grammar rules or patterns. This is achievable only through vigorous grammar exercises. Through practices of error-identification and knowing the linguistic logic behind the identified errors, gradually all individual eccentricities, assumptive uses and wrong impressions received earlier and nurtured over time are purged from the L2 learner's expressive idiom and vocabulary alongside structural command of the acquired second language. The prime objective of Grammar Exercises is to inculcate on the learners a high level of correctness in the spoken and written forms of the target language which is here English.

NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 271 3.2. Verbs Verbs are the central element in the English sentence. Let us begin with verbs. Basically, English verbs are of two types: lexical [having a meaning of its own] and non-lexical [functional for structuring a sentence, having had no meaning of its own]. For examples, in the sentence, "Mr John is a simple man" the linking be-verb "is" connects the subject "Mr John" to the subject complement 'a simple man'. It is working as a functional, non-lexical verb, while tempering the sentence with no meaning of its own. But, if we say, "Mr John seems a simple man", 'seems' presents itself as a Linking Lexical Do-verb tempering the sentence with its own meaning. The meaning becomes: Mr John is seemingly a simple man. Again between the two statements, there is a distinction: "She is beautiful" and "She looks beautiful". Let us find similar distinctions in the following: Exercise 1 : A. She hails from an elite class. She appears to have hailed/to be hailing/to hail from an elite class. B. He is angry. He seems angry. C. He is dead tired. He turns dead tired. Distinguish the three pairs of sentences given above in terms of structure and meaning. 3.4. -ING Form: -ING form of a verb in its present base form is variously used in English sentences. Let usreview this briefly in the following examples: a. -ING makes a continuous aspect of verb across present, past and future, with an aux. be-verb before it. For examples: 1. He is sleeping a deep sleep. 2. He has been sleeping a deep sleep. 3. He had been sleeping a deep sleep before he woke up, being disturbed by the noise.

272 NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 4. On taking this sleeping pill, he will be/must be/ should be/would be sleeping deeply. b. -ING makes a gerund, verbal noun, gerund, participle and play the roles for NP subject and Gerundial subject, attributive participial adjectives, verbal absolutes, nominative absolutesandadverbials also with a sense of contemporaneous action implied in it. Exercise Identify the grammatical uses of -ING in the following examples: 1. Drafting this letter is not easy. 2. The drafting of this letter is not easy. 3. Swimming is an all-out exercise of the body. 4. Is life only day-dreaming? 5. I want your joining the project. 6. She leapt down from the running bus singing a fascinating song, thus inciting her friend to mimic her and fall over on the road. 7. He will come out with flying colours. 8. The flying and fluttering flags on the barking borders show that humanity is falling apart. 9. The sun sinking/ having sunk, we hastened back to the hotel. 10. Arriving at the spot, the police lathicharged and dispersed the mob. 3.5. Interrogatives Interrogatives are tricky structures. The forms that we hear or see so frequently are Interrogatives opening with Prepositions, with a shifting pattern of verbs to follow. This happens particularly with Wh-questions. Exercise Do you think the following are grammatical? If not, reframe/reconstruct the correct forms. Answer and address each question from the viewpoint of syntax. 1. In which book did you read this story? 2. With whom did you discuss this topic yesterday? 3. In which form of poetry do we get tonal unity? 4. In which city was King Asoka born?

5. To what, doctors say, are you allergic? 6. In which place riots broke out over this incident? 7. With what is this name associated? 8. To which country Lal Bahadur Shastri travelled and died there? 9. At what time the sun sets in the month of July? 10. Is he a pleasing personality to talk and work? [Verb-led question] Answers to Exercise 3.5: Questions with deferred prepositions: 1. Which book did you read this story in? 2. Who did you discuss this topic with, yesterday? 3. Which form of poetry do we get tonal unity in? 4. Which city was King Asoka born in? 5. What, doctors say, are you allergic to? 6. Which place did riots break out in, over this incident? 7. What is this name associated with? 8. Which country did Lal Bahadur Shastri travel to and die there? 9. What time does the sun set at, in the month of July? 10. Is he a pleasing personality to talk to and work with? [Verb-led question] Appendage: The interrogatives that begin with prepositions are in popular usage and we may go with them in spoken English. But when it comes to textualization, it is better to avoid this 'Begin-with-Preposition' types of interrogation. For exhaustive Grammar Exercises, L2 learners may look up Michael Swan's Practical English Usage,Fully Revised International Edn. OUP, 2016. Important areas for grammar exercises are diverse forms of verb uses and verb collocations, uses of prepositions as relation words, uses of determiners and noun markers, uses of articles, varieties of passivization, uses of apposites [apposition], different uses of Auxiliaries – Modal, Primary and Marginal – and extensive applications of adverbials among other items. A study of Swan's Practical English Usage will effectively supplement the deficiency of our Grammar Exercise Studies in the short span of our Module. 3.6 Exercises on Sentence types 1. The north wind blows fiercely/ in a fierce manner.

Q. Identify the sentence type from all possible angles, and in every case nomenclature the components that form the sentence. Ans. Clues i. An affirmative and assertive sentence. ii. The wind:NP-subject[NP-S]. iii. Blows: Intransitive lexical verb [ILV]. iv. Fiercely: Adverb [ADV] of manner modifying the verb, 'blows'. Structure : v. In a fierce manner: Adverbial [ADVL] Q. Taking cue from the above, identify structural contents of the following: 1. I saw the tottering old man cross the road with the help of a traffic guard. 2. I saw the tottering old man crossing the road with the help of a traffic guard. 3. I saw the tottering old man to have crossed the road with the help of a traffic guard. 4. How would you distinguish the differences of meaning among the above three sentences? 1. I noticed him seated on the park bench lost in thought. 2. To just breathe and live is holy in the grand design of God. 3. A book twice carefully is better than reading two books in haste. 4. She came down the staircase humming a song. 5. Why did you not advise him on this matter in time 6. He gave me a good book on cosmology to read. 3.7 Exercises on ClauseAnalysis Q. Identify clausally/in clause segmentation the given sentences. Reframe each, then, into a different type without affecting meaning, be it simple, compound or a complex one. 1. I saw the tottering old man when he was crossing the road with the help of a traffic guard 2. I noticed him seated on the park bench and he was lost in thought. 3. To just breathe and live is holy as it is in the grand design of God. 4. To a book a book twice carefully is better than reading two books in haste. 5. She came down the staircase humming a song 6. Why did you not advise him on this matter in time? 7. He gave me a good book on cosmology to read. 8. Corona virus is aerosol turning out to be a pandemic affecting almost all continents.

9. Vocabulary study plays a large part in a second language acquisition 10. Rabeya was a simple and poor woman who used to sleep on a floor-mat with her head placed upon a brick as pillow. 3.8 Exercises on Phrases in sentences 2.9. Q. Write out ten different structures of sentence that should be syntactically correct and in your examples you are to identify the constituent parts and types of phrases keeping in viewthe list of phrases discussed in CC 2 Unit 2.9- Basic Components of Sentence, and abbreviations given in section 2.11 -Understanding Structures of Sentences. 1. ——————————————————————————————

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276 NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 3.9 Summary This unit is a revision study of the structural components and variations in phrasing and collocations that go into the making of text and speech in the English language. This revision study purports to drill a prospective teacher or a learner of English as a second language by a systemic analysis and repetitive exercises. The appendage of the tail- ending review questions are meant to be a spur to activating learner-interest in richness and fluidity of English as a language of scholarly discourse and everyday communication that is globally accepted or acceptable. This unit has been arranged in an organized and well-orchestrated way to begin from sentence patterns/syntax and proceeding to a consummate perception of the constituent parts in terms of lexical chunks, phrases and differing sentential expressions, not excluding se-piece expressive idioms and formulaics that form an integral part of language study. 3.10 References 1. Michael Swan,Practical English Usage, Fully Revised International Edn. OUP, 2016. 2. Culicover, P. W., and A. Nowak. (2003).Dynamical Grammar: Foundations of Syntax II. Oxford: Oxford University Press. 3. Halliday, M.A.K. Halliday's Introduction to Functional Grammar. 4th ed., Routledge, 2013. 4. Halliday, M.A.K. "Systemic Background." On Language and Linguistics. New ed., Continuum, 2006. 5. Pearce, Michael. The Routledge Dictionary of English Language Studies. Routledge, 2007. 6. Sinclair, John. Trust the Text: Language, Corpus and Discourse. Routledge, 2004.

NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 277 Unit - 4 p Grammar Games and Activities Structure 4.1 Introduction 4.2 Objectives 4.3 Games for Grammar and Vocabulary Learning 4.4 Grammar Games for Adults 4.4.1. Would You Rather? 4.4.2. Taboo 4.4.3. Role Playing Grammar Games 4.4.4. Online Grammar Games 4.5 Grammar Games for Kids through VLS 4.6 Shape Names: Worksheets 4.7 Flashcards Worksheet: Missing Letters 4.8 Review Questions 4.8 References 4.1.Introduction Grammar seems a confusing subject, even for more advanced learners. Learning the basics with grammar games can make reading and writing lessons feel interesting. In the grammar games below, our students will explore parts of speech like nouns, verbs, and adjectives, and how to tell a complete sentence from a fragment sentence, and much more. Grammar should not look daunting when we break it down and learn how each part of a sentence works. With games suited for kids of all skill levels, our collection of grammar games will help our children strengthen their understanding of concepts they have learned, as well as challenge them to discover new ideas and push their writing to the next level. We can show our younger students the basic building blocks of sentences, like nouns and verbs, and let them see how descriptive adjectives and adverbs can add spice to their writing. For more advanced learners, let them experiment with using transition

278 NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 words and commas as road signs in stories, spot fragment sentences and build complete sentences of their own, and even master the tricky concept of subject-verb agreement. Grammar games help our learners develop 'tools' to make correct grammatical expressions with confidence and excitement for writing and speaking acts. A "grammar game", then, is essentially any technique for memorising or practising a particular aspect of grammar – be it verb conjugations, sentence structure, spelling and punctuation, or any other feature of the target language – with more fun than tedious memorisation. Grammatical game approach is the prompt emotional involvement of L2 leaners at primary specially to grasp the target language via "look, cover, write, check". The category could include group games to be played in a classroom or with a language partner. Grammar review games can be played online or on Android/i-phone systems. Grammar practice games can be played mentally in spare moments with a fictitious language exchange partner or tutor. 4.2. Objectives Generally a second language learning course is intimidating to the L2 learners, especially to the beginners. For them the native language interference is a barrier for imbibing a quite different tonal, phonological, morphological and syntactical pattern of expression or articulation. In order to tide over the psychological and verbal factors that distance the L2 learners grammar games are devised to make the learning of a second/foreign language attractive and interesting. The objective of this unit is to make the prospective language teacher aware of the types and patterns of grammar games that are likely to induce and induct the L2 learners into a fun way of learning the second language. 4.3. Games for Grammar and Vocabulary Learning 4.3.1. Sketching a Person Give everyone a piece of paper, and nominate one person to be the "describer" or "sketcher". It is their task to think of someone they know, or a famous person (it should be more interesting if they pick someone who is in the room), and then to word-sketch that person's appearance. At lower levels this helps practise simple adjectival phrases like "he is lanky " or "she has auburn hair", and the descriptions can get more suggestive and complex with practice.

NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 279 More advanced learners could describe what someone is wearing or what their personality and mannerisms are like. As the nominee gives more detail, everyone draws on their piece of paper what they think the person being described looks like. When they have been given enough detail, they are to try and guess who they have drawn. The word-sketcher then discloses who they have been thinking of, and all are to show their drawings to the rest of the class to see how well they have done it. This last step often produces huge laughter, since most of the drawings may appear ludicrous caricatures of the real person. 4.3.2. Twenty Questions This is a game that works as follows: Let one [key player] pick a celebrity or an object, and the other players have to figure out who or what it is. To gain information, they are allowed to ask "yes or no questions" (a maximum number of twenty, the key player can pick whatever arbitrary limit s/he likes) to try and narrow down the possibilities: "Are you male? Are you American? Are you an actor? A singer?", and so on. A variant on this game was made famous by the film Inglourious Basterds where it is played in a bar by Allied spies and an unwitting SS Officer (just watching the movie will make sense). In this version, everyone writes a celebrity's name on a piece of paper and passes it to the person on her or his left, who then sticks the paper to their own forehead so that everyone except him or her can see what it says. Now instead of the group asking questions to figure out who it looks like, the key player will ask the group questions to figure it out. Whichever version this game plays, it is a good way to practise forming and answering questions. To expand the range of potential grammar practised thus, the key player can permit questions that require more in-depth answers than mere "yes" or "no". S/he can also insist that the questions-answers exchangesbe dished out in full sentences each time – "Are you male?" "Yes, I'm male" – which helps the practice of switching between different forms of the same verb and closer. The round goes on until the key player replies to their questions with "it's dinner time!" and chases the players back to where they started. If Mister Wolf as the key player catches another player before thestarting line of the next round, that player becomes Mister Wolf for the next round of the game. This is just one classic game that children love and that has the side effect of teaching them a bit of grammar.

280 NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 There are plenty of other children's games we can improvise in this way. "Simon Says" is a game , for example, to deal withimperatives, while "I Spy" teaches us the sense ofspelling. Now that we have covered grammar games for kids, let us take a look at some grammar games for adults. 4.4. Grammar Games for Adults Some of the games might seem too simplistic, but grammar should not become boring just because we are adult learners.Here are some grammar games we may play as adults: 4.4.1. Would You Rather? This is a classic game that some of us have probably played before. One person poses an interesting and/or ridiculous choice between two options – would you rather fight 100 duck-sized horses or one horse-sized duck? Then each person in the group gives her or his respective answer and a corresponding brief explanation of why that choice is made. As well as it prompts some thoughtful discussion, these types of questions are a good way to practise some less commonly-used verb forms like the conditionals, and can be adapted to any language. 4.4.2. Taboo Taboo is a classic parlour game where we have to help our teammates correctly guess the word written on our card without saying the word itself or any of the other words on the card. For example our chosen word might be "car", but we are not allowed to say "car", "vehicle", "drive", "transport", "road", or "travel" or any other words associated with "car". Taboo is a great way to build vocabulary, not just because it represents exactly what we should say exactly when we need to say something in a foreign language but do not know the word: this is called stick within the target language and through this game we try to get our point across in other words, rather than immediately blurting it out in English and asking for a translation.

NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 281 As well as vocabulary, Taboo helps our grammar, because when the most obvious words are not available to us, the only alternative is often a winding, roundabout sentence with a complicated structure.Foe example, if we do not know the exact word, 'bicycle', we may refer to the bicycle as "It is a big metal thing we sit in/on and press the pedals with our feet to travel faster than walking from one place to another." 4.4.3. Role Playing Grammar Games Role-playing games with a language partner simulates a real-world encounter we are likely to face in real life. Some everyday situations might want us to practise while we check into a hotel, introduceourselves to new people, asking for directions, and ordering something over the telephone. We can think of many more situational set-piece expression called blocks and formulaics to cope with real-life communication problems. Role-playing game ideas are suggested below: l Fortune teller. One person is the fortune teller, and the other has come to get their fortune read. What does the fortune-teller see in their crystal ball? How does the other person feel about it? This is a good way of practising the future tense. l Alibi. The police suspect you for a crime, and they want to know if you do have an alibi. Where were you on Friday night? Who were you with? What were you doing? The suspect will not be able to talk his way out of this situation unless he has got a good grasp on the different types of past tense. l Late for work. One person is the boss, and the other is an employee who is just shown up late. What's their excuse? The boss should question the employee's story, pick holes into it, and try to figure out the possible causes of his delay. Or if he is simly lying. In the process, the boss practises asking different kinds of questions (why? how? when? who?), while the employee will practise answers and the past tense. 4.4.4. Online Grammar Games If we go to Google or to the Android or Apple App Stores, type in the name of our target language, we will probably find a zillion free grammar games (and lots of paid ones too). A detailed list of available games for every language uses are beyond the scope of this unit of a Module, but two digital resources are worth mentioning here:

282 NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 4.4.5. Duolingo Duolingo is one of the most popular language-learning downloadableApps, and it offers free courses in over 20 different languages. Duolingo gradually introduces you over time to new grammatical concepts and provides detailed explanations of how to use them. Duolingo is no substitute for real face-to-face speaking practice, but it can make a nice supplement. 4.4.6. Anki Anki is a proponent of using spaced repetition systems – more commonly known as "flashcards" – to learn languages, and the most popular digital SRS tool. Anki lets you create customisable flashcards on whatever topic you like (not just languages!), and if you do not feel like creating your own there is an enormous directory of pre-made contents on their website where you can download flashcards that other people have created.The most basic benefit of using SRS is to learn vocabulary; create flashcards with English words (or pictures) on one side and your target language's translation of those words on the other side. 4.5. Grammar Games for Kids through Visual Learning System [VLS] Common Shape Names:Visual Learning System [VLS] Note: This method is best suited to the needs of L2 learners at the primary/rudimentary stage. Lessons are to be projected to the beginners and young leaners in a lively, colourful picturesque and catchy manner in order to impress the lessons on their tender minds. This free downloadable worksheets include vocabulary for different shapes:

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NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 291 4.6 Shape Names:Worksheets Dictionary Poster The Dictionary Poster lists the names of the shapes. Print it and attach it to your classroom wall!

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NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 293 4.7 Flashcards Worksheet: Missing Letters Let your students fill in the missing letters to complete the shape names and colour in the illustrations.

294 NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 Let your students assign the shapes to their names by drawing lines.

NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 295 Reward your students for their effort with a personal printable certification.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT: ADAPTATION SOURCE: https://jimmyesl.com/shape-vocab/ 4.8 Review Questions a. 'Learning the basics with grammar games can make reading and writing lessons feel interesting.' Do you think this statement is oversimplified. If so, give reasons. b. Write a review on role-playing game ideas. c. Twenty Questions is a game. What are its features?

296 NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 d. How effectively can Sketching a Person contribute to vocabulary study? e. Conservative paradigms of language teaching dismiss Grammar Games as a waste of time. Do you subscribe to this view? f. Write a short note on the grammar game 'Would You Rather?'. g. Write a short note on the grammar game 'Taboo'. h. The film Inglourious Basterds uses the variant of a grammar game. What is the name of the game? How was it represented in the film? i. What is Duolingo? j. Discuss the scope and uses of VLS [Visual Learning System] k. What is Flashcards worksheet? How is it worked out? 4.9 References : Crystal, David. The Fight for English. Oxford University Press, 2006.

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NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 297 Module -2 : ppppp Vocabulary Unit - 5 ppppp Vocabulary and its Importance Structure 5.1 Introduction 5.2 Objectives 5.3 What is Vocabulary? 5.4 Aspects of Vocabulary Knowledge 5.5 Criteria for Vocabulary Selection 5.5.1 Collocation 5.5.2 Familiarity 5.5.3 Range 5.5.4 Frequency 5.5.5 Learnability and coverage 5.6 How to work on developing vocabulary in a classroom? 5.6.1 Lesson plan 5.7 Conclusion 5.8 Review Questions 5.9 References 5.1 Introduction In your own language, there are many words that you use regularly when speaking or writing. These words are part of your active vocabulary. And then there are many words that you understand when you listen to them, on television for example, but do not use in your everyday speech or writing. These words are part of your passive vocabulary. In our own individual vocabulary, there is a difference between words that we understand and use (our active vocabulary), and the words that we understand but do not or cannot use (our passive vocabulary). This is true of native speakers as well as learners of a second language.

298 NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 5.2 Objectives This unit introduces the leaner to l Vocabulary and its importance l Vocabulary selection for SL Teaching l Aspects of vocabulary: form, meaning and use 5.3 What Is Vocabulary? As we begin learning vocabulary, let us stop to find the definition: Task 1 l My definition(s) of English vocabulary: Vocabulary can be defined

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as the words of a language, including single items and phrases or chunks of several words which convey a particular meaning, the way individual words do.

The noun vocabulary refers to the collection of words used in a language. The word vocabulary can have at least three different meanings: 1. All the words in a language. e.g. New words are constantly being added to the vocabulary of English. 2. Words used in a particular context. For example, If you want to do an MBA you need to improve your business vocabulary. My neighbour is a doctor, so he has an extensive medical vocabulary. I've just bought a book on the vocabulary of slang. 3. The words an individual person knows. e.g. The teacher says that my vocabulary is good.

When learning a foreign language, our individual vocabulary in that language is one of the most important components to develop. Of course, all other components like grammar, vocabulary and pronunciation are also important. But it is far more difficult to communicate with no vocabulary than with no grammar. 5.4 Aspects of Vocabulary Knowledge Vocabulary represents one of most important skills necessary for teaching and learning a foreign language. It is the basis for the development of all the other skills: reading comprehension, listening comprehension, speaking, writing, spelling and pronunciation. Vocabulary is the main tool for the students in their attempt to use English effectively. When confronted with a native English speaker, when watching a movie without subtitle or when listening to a favourite English song, when reading a text or when writing a letter to a friend, students will always need to operate with words. In what follows, the focus of this introductory unit is on why vocabulary is important, on what makes words difficult, on the main reasons for which students often forget the words they learn and on some techniques which help them remember the vocabulary. By the beginning of 1970s, there was a major change in teaching English. The focus turned from the Direct Method and Audio-lingualism to the Communicative Approach which emphasized the importance of teaching vocabulary. Students were exposed to diverse vocabulary and speaking activities. Many words began being introduced during such courses and students were encouraged to express themselves as much as possible. The concept of a word can be defined in various ways, but three significant aspects teachers need to be aware of and focus on are form, meaning, and use. According to Nation (2001), the form of a word involves its pronunciation (spoken form), spelling (written form), and any word parts that make up this particular item (such as a prefix, root, and suffix).An example for word parts can be seen with the word uncommunicative, where the prefix un- means negative or opposite, communicate is the root word, and '-ive' is a suffix denoting that someone or something is able to do something. Here, they all go together to refer to someone or something that is not able to communicate, therefore uncommunicative. Nation (2001) stated that meaning encompasses the way that form and meaning work together, in other words, the concept and what items it refers to, and the associations that come to mind when people think about a specific word or expression. Use, Nation noted, involves the grammatical functions of the word or phrase, collocations that normally go with it, and finally any constraints on its use, in terms of frequency,

level, and so forth. For form, meaning, and use, Nation (2001) declared there is both a receptive and productive dimension, so knowing these three aspects for each word or phrase actually involves 18 different types of lexical knowledge, as summarized in Table 1. Table 1. What Is Involved in Knowing a Word? Aspect Form Meaning Use Component Spoken Written Word parts Form and meaning Concepts and referents Associations Grammatical functions Collocations Constraints on use(register, frequency . . .) Receptive knowledge What does the word sound like? What does the word look like? What parts are recognizable in this word? What meaning does this word form signal? What is included in this concept? What other words does this make people think of? In what patterns does the word occur? What words or types of words occur with this one? Where, when, and how often would people expect to meet this word? Productive knowledge How is the word pronounced? How is the word written and spelled? What word parts are needed to express the meaning? What word form can be used to express this meaning? What items can the concept refer to? What other words could people use instead of this one? In what patterns must people use this word? What words or types of words must people use with this one? Where, when, and how often can people use this word? Source : Adapted from Nation (2001, p. 27)

When teachers teach vocabulary to build students' knowledge of words and phrases, helping them learn any and all of these different components assists them in enhancing their English vocabulary knowledge and use. Unfortunately, vocabulary teaching has not been enough responsive to such problems, and teachers have not recognized the tremendous importance of helping their students to develop an extensive vocabulary. If we look back in the past, we discover that for a long time, English used teaching approaches such as Audio-lingual approach which emphasized the primary importance of teaching grammatical structures. Since the accent was on grammar, few words were introduced in such courses and most often, they were limited and related to the grammar structures taught. After you have looked through Table 1, which is to consider your students' particular strengths and weaknesses with English in terms of these three aspects of vocabulary knowledge. Task 2 •Impression of students' strengths and weaknesses with English vocabulary: Strengths Weaknesses By the beginning of 1970s, there was a major change in teaching English. The focus turned from the Audio-lingual approach to the Communicative Approach which emphasized the importance of teaching vocabulary. Students were exposed to diverse vocabulary and speaking activities. Many words began being introduced during such courses and students were encouraged to express themselves as much as possible. Nowadays, there is more freedom in choosing the methods to be used during English classes. The English syllabus is organized around both vocabulary and grammar structures.

302 NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 Since there is a certain number of classes allotted for each item in the syllabus, teachers usually have the necessary time to insist on teaching and practising vocabulary. Vocabulary is no longer treated as an add-on and teachers become more aware of the importance of vocabulary and attention is paid to the grammar of words, to collocations and to word frequency. Nevertheless, students still have difficulties in expressing themselves fluently and still consider speaking tasks exhausting. 5.5 Criteria for Vocabulary Selection Teachers of foreign languages should be aware of the fact that teaching vocabulary is one of the most important and difficult aspects in teaching process. Even the choice of vocabulary which is to be taught to the learners does not belong to the simplest decisions. Most of classes are heterogeneous hence, every student is not the same. Essentially, teachers should accept that particular situations differ from each other and vocabulary components that are critical in some circumstances might be absolutely useless in other situations. However, one fact remains unaltered, namely, while selecting vocabulary the teacher should take account of several criteria. These benchmarks are frequency, need and level, cultural factors, expediency, and also an aspect of learnability and coverage (McCarthy 1990: 66). 5.5.1 Collocation This term means the words or types of words which co-occur with particular other words. According to experts, collocations "teach students expectations about which words go with which ones. Students will not go about reconstructing the language each time they want to say something". Taylor (1990, p. 2) says that collocation means knowing the syntactic behaviour associated with the word and also knowing the network of association between that word and other words in the language. It shows the relationship between words. For example, we can say heavy rain, but not heavy sun. 5.5.2 Familiarity How often some words are used? According to experts, it is better to start off with the words with which learners are familiar with in order to give the learners a basic set of tools for communication. For example, the words tardy, tardily and tardiness will hardly sound familiar to the learners because they are familiar with the synonym of tardy which means slow and not refined. The familiarity depends on how frequently a word occurs in our daily use of language.

NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 303 5.5.3 Range Range denotes the extent to which a word occurs in the different types of texts. Some words are relatively frequent but restricted in the range of situations or registers in which they are used. Words which are used in various situations are more useful, though often words of greater range also have greater frequency. 5.5.4 Frequency To start with, the educator should think about the number of occurrences of words in the target language. According to McCarthy (1990: 66), "[i]t seems self-evident that the most frequent words in any language will be the most useful ones for the learners of that language, and therefore, the best to start off with, in order to give the learner a basic set of tools for communication." The more iterated a word is, the more useful it becomes. Nation (1990: 18) suggests that word-frequency counts may help mentors and course designers in some ways. First and foremost, they may help the teacher build up a feeling about which words are valuable and should be given attention and which are uncommon. As a result, they can contribute to creating word lists for teaching, for designing vocabulary tests, and for preparing graded courses and reading texts. Unluckily, frequency does not always promise usefulness. That is to say, a word of low regularity may be essential if it is either hard to find its synonym or it is the only item that represents a specific semantic value. Very often useful and important words do no appear in the first or second 1000 words of frequency counts. It commonly happens that these words are concrete nouns, for example, a stomach, a bath, and stupid (Nation 1990: 20). 5.5.5 Learnability and coverage The last two aspects which should be taken into account while choosing vocabulary to be learnt in the classroom are learnability and coverage. According to McCarthy (1990: 86), learnability of vocabulary is not unconnected with the notion of frequency, hence, the most repeated words will presumably be absorbed and learnt because they occur routinely. However, words may be easy of difficult for a variety of other causes and also may need specific attention or focus in teaching. Next, the author describes the problems connected with learning new words. Firstly, he tells about spelling difficulties which may be troublesome even to native speakers of English. Secondly, words may present phonological problems, either because they consist of awkward clusters of sounds, or because spelling conflicts with perception of what the sound is. Additionally, some

304 NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 words may be perceived as very close in meaning by the student, and as a result, difficult to separate one from another. For instance, 'make' and 'do' are prominent in this respect of English (McCarthy 1990: 86). 5.6 How to work on developing vocabulary in a classroom? (Activity based) The three phases of applying tasks based on Willis, 1996, are: Pre-task Task cycle Post-task Practice l Introduction to task l Report l Analysis l Planning Let us take an example from Task-based technical vocabulary teaching in the experimental group. 5.6.1 Lesson plan Topic: Indian writing in English A sample lesson might be presented in this study as lesson 1: Indian writing in English. One of the objectives of this unit was to teach the students the technical vocabularies related to the topic in English using the Task-based approach. This lesson contains the pre-task, the task and the post-task phases. Pre-task 1. In pre-task phase in order to activate students' schemata the teacher asks questions based on the topic of the reading passage. For example: - Who can talk about the history of Indian Writing in English tradition? - Can anyone name some of the famous writers? - What was the style of these Indian English writers? 2. Look at the text and try to guess the meaning of the words. Don't worry if you do not understand them. Context will help you to understand the meaning of the word. The impact of western civilization, which began to affect life in India in the course of their stay, did not leave its literary tradition untouched. 3. Cooperative dictionary use: A group work based on trying to work out definitions of words. Students go through the new words in pairs and have dictionaries/e- dictionaries at their disposal to check meaning.

NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 305 During tasks 1. Negotiation of meaning: Divide the class into A and B groups of 5 students in a group. They sit facing each other. Each group has the word with definitions; they try to ask each other. A asks: what is the meaning of literary tradition? B replies: literary beliefs, customs, and styles A asks: what is the meaning of poetical expression? B replies: the way a poet uses to show his feelings, opinions 2. Information-gap task: Student A would have the vocabulary words written on strips of paper and student B would have the definitions of those words. Working together, they pair words and definitions to learn new vocabulary(the words used may not necessarily been adapted from any Indian Writing in English piece. Words used are only to understand). Student A Student B Adaptability The ability to adjust Wage To begin and carry on a war Genuine original, real 3. The teacher writes three new vocabularies on the board and then describes the meaning of one of them; students in group should guess which word is described and say aloud the correct one. 4. Guessing: What is it? After you hear the teacher's description, try to figure out what is described and write down on the paper. Then the teacher asks groups to check the correct answer. For example: Person acting as one's substitute or representative (deputy) 5. Matching: students work in groups. In the blank they should write the correct letter to match items on the right column. 1. Amateur ……. a. a very skilled person 2. Nationalism…… b. the roles of pattern and sound in poetry 3. Prosody…… c. the ability to change so as to be suitable 4. Court….. d. an artist who is not paid for his art 5. Prose…… e. love for one's own country 6. Adaptability….. f. poetical expression g. the official home of a king or queen h. written language in its usual form

306 NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 Post-task 1. Read the text again and find the vocabularies which seem problematic to you. Then ask the teacher for help. 2. The teacher considers students' performance on different types of tasks and finds problematic areas to be worked or practiced. 3. Fill in the blanks with words at the end. 1. The rules of pattern and sound in poetry are …………… 2. Although he is only an/a ………….. , he is a first class player. Lines, structure, prosody, constitution, intellectual, attitude, Amateur, waged, vicissitude, poem 3. Britain is governed with unwritten …………… . 4. A few of the Iranians ………….. participate in Persian literature Conference. 5. A battle was ………… against the enemy. 6. Literature has important role in political and social …………… of nation. 7. The ancient……………… of Persian literature was changed in the course of 19th century. 8. The writer composes ………….. . 9. Western civilization caused fundamental change in the ………… of the poet toward his art. 10. In court poetry, most of the poets works on traditional …………. . poetry, wage, vicissitude, innovatively, remarkable, constitution, poetically, western, attack, genuine, evolve, entirely. 5.7 Conclusion: English vocabulary is complex, with three main aspects related to form, meaning, and use, as well as layers of meaning connected to the roots of individual words (Nation & Meara, 2010). Teaching vocabulary is not just about words; it involves lexical phrases and knowledge of English vocabulary and how to go about learning and teaching it, which the next unit explores. 5.8 Review Questions A. Teaching Vocabulary Quiz You can do this quiz online or print it on paper. 1. The majority of vocabulary acquisition occurs a) independently by learners studying word lists b) incidentally through oral and written exposure

NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 307 c) intentionally through formal classroom instruction 2. Which of the following is NOT a word learning strategy? a) chunking b) choral reading c) contextual analysis 3. Vocabulary acquisition tends to happen more quickly when a student's L1 and L2 share a) inflection b) cognates c) diphthongs 4. Match this definition to the correct vocabulary teaching strategy: Students encounter the same word in a variety of contexts a) multiple exposure b) multisensory approach c) multiword verb introduction 5. In the word development the letters "-ment" form the a) root b) suffix c) prefix 6. Which sentence is an example of a figure of speech called "hyperbole"? a) I asked him a million times. b) Her voice is as sweet as candy. c) There was a deafening silence in the room. 7. When the direct object of a separable phrasal verb is a pronoun, it a) MUST go after the two parts b) MUST go between the two parts c) can go between or after the two parts 8. A group of words with a meaning not deducible from the individual words is called a) an idiom b) a proverb c) onomatopoeia 9. Phrases that help learners perform everyday tasks, such as giving advice or apologizing, are often called a) surviving language b) language c) self-access language 10. When a teacher uses language games to encourage students to acquire an interest in words, students are more likely to develop a) whole language b) vernacular style c) word consciousness B Review Question 1. What are some deliberate vocabulary learning activities that you do in the classroom? 2. Why do students have difficulty to describe the concepts in social studies courses? 3. What is the best way to learn new vocabulary with flash cards? 4. Which areas of vocabulary teaching do you prefer as more effective than others ? 5. Can you think of any studies that justify the inclusion of collocations (alongside single-word items) in L2 vocabulary lists? 6. How should a teacher activate students' schemata in the pre-task phase ?

308 NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 7. What are the different types of lexical knowledge ? 8. Define the terms with examples: a) inflection b) cognates c) diphthongs 9. Define the terms with examples: a) an idiom b) a proverb c) onomatopoeia 10. What is meant by'self-access language'? How best can it be acquired? C Illustrative questions(i.e. Questions followed by hints or short answers) 1. What is the effect of stories on adult learners' vocabulary retention? 2. What are the reasons of using stories to teach vocabulary? 3. How can we memorize new vocabulary? 4. How can we improve drafting skill with rich vocabulary? 5. What are the essential stages of teaching a vocabulary lesson ? Explain each stage briefly 6. Draw a lesson plan for vocabulary teaching. 7. Write a note on an effective learning strategy for vocabulary acquisition. 8. Write notes on the following: a) chunking b) choral reading c) contextual analysis. 9. Draw an 'activity-based' exerciseon developing vocabulary in a classroom? 10. What does the term, 'collocation 'signify ? How important is it in second language acquisition? 5.9 References 1) Essays, UK. (November 2018). The Importance Of Teaching And Learning Vocabulary English Language Essay. Retrieved from https://www.ukessays.com/essays/english-language/the-importance-of-teaching-and- learning-vocabulary-english-language-essay.php?vref=1 2) International Journal of Teaching and Education Vol. III, No. 3 / 2015 3) https://www.tesol.org/docs/books/bk_ELTD_Vocabulary_974 4) www.scholink.org/ojs/index.php/grhe Global Research in Higher Education Vol. 2, No. 1, 2019 69Published by SCHOLINK INC. 5) World Scientific News 43(1) (2016) 1-55

NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 309 Unit - 6 p Qualities of a word Structure 6.1 Introduction 6.2 Objectives 6.3 Word-level Grammar 6.4 How to Identify Parts of Speech in Paragraphs 6.5 Activities for teaching Sentence-level Grammar 6.6 Components of the Lexicon 6.6.1 Meaning 6.6.2 Form 6.6.3. The Pedagogical Implication 6.7 Pronunciation 6.7.1 Teaching Pronunciation in ESL classes 6.7.2 ESL Pronunciation Phonology Charts 6.7.3 Pronunciation Practice 6.8 Strategies for use of Vocabulary in Language Teaching 6.9 Summary 6.10 Review Questions 6.11 References 6.1 Introduction Grammar is the way we arrange words to make proper sentences. Word level grammar covers verbs and tenses, nouns, adverbs etc. Sentence level grammar covers phrases, clauses, reported speech etc. We will learn about them in this

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unit. 6.2 Objectives After going through this unit, the learners will be able to:

l Classify words according to their grammatical categories l Identify the word grammar based on their contextual use. l Associate meanings with their grammatical functions l Distinguish word grammar based on its pronunciation l Plan a lesson for teaching vocabulary in a comprehensive way.

6.3 Word-level Grammar These are the words that we use to make a sentence. The nine types of word-level grammar are: a) Verbs and Verb Tenses: Action verbs, express what is happening (do, work). State verbs express a situation (be, have). b) Nouns: Nouns represent people (teacher, Mary), places (town, Asia) and things (table, music). c) Adjectives: An adjective is a word that tells us more about a noun (big, red, expensive). d) Adverbs: Adverbs tell us more about verbs, adjectives or adverbs (loudly, really, extremely). e) Determiners: Determiners are words like the, an, this that start a noun phrase. f) Prepositions: A preposition expresses the relationship of a noun or pronoun to another word (at, in, from). g) Pronouns: Pronouns are small words like you, ours, some that can take the place of a noun. h) Conjunctions: Conjunctions join two parts of a sentence (and, but, though). i) Interjections: Short exclamations with no real grammatical value (ah, dear, er) 6.4 How to Identify Parts of Speech in Paragraphs Being able to identify parts of speech in paragraphs is an important tool that can help a student to better understand what he reads. Knowing which words are which parts of speech and which parts of speech should modify those words will also help a student to write clearly and correctly. There are eight parts of speech: verbs, nouns, pronouns, adjectives, adverbs, prepositions, conjunctions and interjections. The parts of speech are the foundation for all writing and reading, so it will benefit a student greatly to gain a strong grasp of the parts of speech. a) How to identify the verbs in the paragraph. Every sentence requires at least one verb. A verb is a word that expresses action, occurrence or being. Verbs have different tenses such as past, present and future. Verbs include "run," "see," "is,"

"bought," "came," and "drove." It is important to know that many words that are verbs can also be other parts of speech such as adverbs and nouns. The word "exit," for instance, can be a verb or a noun depending on its usage within the sentence: In the sentence, "Please exit through the back," "exit" is a verb. In the sentence, "We couldn't find the exit," "exit" is a noun. b) How to identify the nouns in the paragraph. A noun is a person, place, thing or idea. A noun usually acts as the subject of the sentence, but it can also act as a direct object, indirect object, appositive or complement. Some examples of nouns include "Peter," "China," "table," and "happiness." Nouns can be singular or plural. Note that every sentence will contain at least one noun because every sentence must have a subject. Identify the pronouns in the paragraph. Pronouns take the place of nouns and function just as nouns do. Examples of pronouns include "her," "I," "we," and "him." Note that "his" or "your" are considered possessive adjectives. c) How to identify the adjectives in the paragraph. Adjectives modify, qualify or describe nouns and pronouns in the sentence. Adjectives will answer the questions, "Which one?", "What kind?", and "How many?". Some examples of adjectives include "that," "blue" and "seven." d) How to identify the adverbs in the paragraph. Adverbs are words that modify verbs, adjectives and other adverbs. In the sentence, "She ran quickly," "quickly" is the adverb that modifies "ran." Note that not all sentences will contain an adverb. Other words that act as adverbs include "unfortunately," "therefore" and generally any word that ends in "-ly." e) How to identify the prepositions in the paragraph. A preposition links nouns, pronouns and phrases to other words in the sentence. Examples of prepositions include "of," s"in," "at," "from," "to," "since," "up" and "with." Prepositions generally indicate a spatial, temporal or logical relationship between the prepositional phrase and an object in the sentence. Note that not all sentences will contain prepositions. f) How to identify the conjunctions in the paragraph. Conjunctions are words that connect other words, phrases and clauses. The words "and," "but," "or," "for,"

"nor," "yet" and "so" are conjunctions. Note that not all sentences will contain conjunctions. Task 1 Parts of Speech Quiz Look at the following sentences and identify the category to which each word belongs: 1. I bought a beautiful dress at the mall. a) preposition b) adjective c) noun 2. What did she ask you to do? a) conjunction b) preposition c) pronoun 3. I left my shoes under the kitchen table. a) adjective b) preposition c) pronoun 4. If we finish our work quickly we can go to the movies. a) adverb b) conjunction c) verb 5. On Saturdays I work from nine to five. a) verb b) preposition c) adverb 6. I want to go to a university in the United States. a) adjective b) preposition c) noun 7. I'm sure I've met your girlfriend before. a) verb b) preposition c) interjection 8. Well, I don't think I'll be home before 6. a) interjection b) preposition c) pronoun 9. Andy knocked on the door but nobody answered. a) adverb b) adjective c) conjunction 10. After lunch let's go out for a coffee. a) pronoun b) preposition c) verb

6.5 Activities for teaching Sentence-level Grammar: Phrases (Phrases Quiz) 1. Phrases are grammatical units that consist of a) one or more words b) more than one word 2. A noun phrase with more than one word can consist of a noun and words that a) replace the noun b) qualify the noun 3. "The tour includes three Asian countries." Which is a noun phrase? a) The tour b) three Asian countries 4. A verb phrase consists of a main verb and its a) auxiliary verbs b) phrasal verbs 5. "She has been studying all day." Which is a verb phrase? a) studying all day b) has been studying 6. An adjective phrase can be a single adjective or a group of words built around a) an adjective b) a single noun 7. "Cats are playful pets, but dogs are very loyal as well." This sentence has a) one adjective phrase b) two adjective phrases 8. Which sentence has an adverb phrase? a) She sings very nicely. b) She sings very nice songs. 9. A prepositional phrase consists of a preposition and its a) object b) subject Your Score is: —————— 10. "We always play football after work." Which is a prepositional phrase? a) always play football b) after work

CORRECT ANSWERS: Task 2 Linking, Intransitive and Transitive Verbs Quiz 1. What do all verbs have? a) a subject b) an object 2. A linking verb connects a subject with a noun or adjective that tells you about a) the object b) the subject 3. In which sentence does a linking verb connect the subject to a noun? a) My daughter is a teacher. b) My daughter teaches English. 4. "Daniel looks tired." The linking verb connects the subject to a) an objective b) an adjective 5. Intransitive verbs don't have a) an object b) a subject 6. "Katy runs every morning." In this sentence "run" is a) an intransitive verb b) a transitive verb 7. In which sentence is "run" used as a transitive verb? a) She runs slowly. b) She runs a business. Your Score is:

NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 315 8. "They bought a new car." The verb is a) monotransitive b) ditransitive 9. "They bought their son a new car." The verb is a) monotransitive b) ditransitive 10. Which is a list of di-transitive verbs? a) give, show, tell, lend b) want, like, eat, kill CORRECT ANSWERS: To understand sentence construction, we need to know Direct Object. The direct object receives the action of the verb directly. Task : 3-Direct Object Quiz 1. The order of an English sentence is normally a) Subject Verb Object b) Subject Object Verb 2. Which performs the verb's action? a) the subject b) the object 3. Which receives the verb's action a) the subject b) the object 4. If the object receives the action directly from the subject, it's called a) an indirect object b) a direct object Your Score is:

316 NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 5. "David writes the best songs." The direct object is a) the best songs b) David 6. If a verb's action is directed at a direct object, it must be a) an intransitive verb b) a transitive verb 7. Which sentence has a transitive verb and a direct object? a) Maria came in and sat down.b)Then we watched a movie. 8. Which cannot be used with direct objects? a) linking verbs b) phrasal verbs 9. Pronouns that are direct objects must be in the objective case, as in a) Do you like I? b) Do you like me? Your score is: 10. A direct object can be a) a word, phrase or clauseb) a phrase or a clause CORRECT ANSWERS: Next we come to Indirect Object. The indirect object receives the direct object. Task - 4 Indirect Object Quiz 1. The indirect object is something or someone who receives a) the direct object b) the main verb 2. "Sue passed Ann the ball." The direct object is a) Ann b) the ball Your Score is:

NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 317 3. "Kelly sent her friend an email." The indirect object is a) an email b) her friend 4. The indirect object is always between the verb and a) the direct object b) the subject 5. If the indirect object is a noun phrase, it will contain a) one word b) one or more words 6. "She taught all her kids English." The indirect object is a) all her kids b) kids 7. An indirect object can be rephrased and repositioned as part of a) a noun phrase b) a prepositional phrase 8. "She taught English to all her kids." The prepositional phrase is a) to all her kids b) taught English to 9. To find the indirect object, ask yourself who or what received a) the direct object b) the subject 10. If you replace the indirect object "our friends" with a pronoun, it must be Your score is: a) they b) them CORRECT ANSWERS: Here is sthe structure that we use to "report" what another person has said. Your Score is:

318 NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 Task - 5 : Reported Speech Quiz 1. Which is a reporting verb? a) tell b) go c) be 2. He said that it was cold outside. Which word is optional? a) said b) that c) was 3. "I bought a car last week." Last week he said he had bought a car a) a week ago b) next week c) the week before 4. "Where is it?" said Mary. She a) said where it is b) asked where it was c) asked if it was there 5. Which of these is usually required with reported YES/NO questions? a) if b) do c) why 6. Ram asked me where I worked. His original words were a) "Do you work there?" b) "Where do I work?" c) "Where do you work?" 7. "Don't yell!" is a a) direct request b) direct order c) reported order 8. "Please wipe your feet." I asked them to wipe a) your feet nicely b) their feet nicely c) their feet 9. She always asks me not to burn the cookies. She always says a) "Not to burn the cookies!" b) "Please don't burn the cookies." c) "Do not burn the cookies." 10. Which structure is not used for reported orders? a) order somebody to b) tell somebody to c) ask somebody to

NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 319 Your score is: CORRECT ANSWERS: Parenthetical Expression is words added to a sentence without changing its meaning or grammar. Let us find out how this can be learnt from the following quiz. Task - 6 : Parenthetical Expression Quiz 1. A parenthetical expression is a word or words that a) add details to a sentence b) are essential to a sentence 2. A parenthetical expression doesn't change a sentence's basic a) punctuation or length b) structure or meaning 3. If a parenthetical expression is cut from a sentence, the sentence a) won't make sense b) will still make sense 4. "Global temperatures, as expected, are rising." The parenthetical expression is a) as expected b) are rising 5. In Question 4 above, which shows where the parenthetic begins and ends? a) a set of quotation marks b) a pair of commas 6. Which can separate a mid-sentence parenthetic from the rest of a sentence? a) commas, round brackets or long dashes b) commas, semi-colons or quotation marks Your Score is:

320 NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 7. Which sentence includes a parenthetical expression? a) The traffic's terrible, as usual. b) It isn't always this bad, is it? 8. "She likes him very much – or so it seems." Which is the parenthetical expression? a) very much b) or so it seems 9. Which includes a correctly-punctuated parenthetical expression? a) Rock music (or rock-n-roll) began in America. b) Rock music, or rock-n-roll – began in America. Your score is: CORRECT ANSWERS: Grammatical Category includes number, case, gender, tense, aspect etc. Task - 7 : Grammatical Category Quiz 1. Grammatical category is related to a) word indexation b) word agreement c) calligraphic form 2. Only _____ can be affected by the grammatical category known as "number". a) nouns b) adverbs c) adjectives 3. Possessive is a value of the grammatical category called a) number b) case c) gender Your Score is:

4. Modern English uses _____ gender. a) grammatical b) political c) natural 5. The grammatical category "person" is a property of pronouns and has _____ values. a) one b) two c) three 6. "Tense" is a grammatical category that applies to a) verbs b) adverbs c) adjectives 7. Continuous and perfect are examples of the grammatical category known as a) tense b) mood c) aspect 8. The subjunctive "mood" expresses _____ . a) a statement of fact b) unreality c) something desired 9. "Voice" is a grammatical category affecting a) transitive verbs b) intransitive verbs c) all verbs 10. _____ can be affected by the grammatical category known as "degree". a) gradable adverbs b) non-gradable adverbs c) all adjectives Your score is: CORRECT ANSWERS: Your Score is:

6.6. Components of the Lexicon An entry of a word in the mental lexicon includes its form and meaning. It means that, knowing a word needed to know its form and meaning which includes phonological form, orthographic form, morphological form, semantic knowledge and syntactic knowledge. Schreuder and Flores d'Arcais (1989) describe the mental lexicon to stand for the store of all our knowledge related to words. In other words, the mental lexicon could be regarded as internalized knowledge of the properties of words. 6.6.1 Meaning When a lexical item is retrieved from the mental lexicon (in the productive mode), this is done on the basis of its meaning, but in addition to the meaning, it contains syntactic, morphological, andphonological information (Levelt, 1989, p. 6). He believes that each item in the mental lexicon is a listing of four kinds of features. Thesearemeaning, syntactic properties, morphological specification of the item, and its phonology form.Besides that, systematic relations are existed in its meaning, syntactic properties, morphological specification and phonology form. In that case, there exist two kinds of internal organization in themental lexicon: one according to the meaning of items and the other one on the basis of their formproperties. According what has been discussed above, the word in the mental lexicon contains two main components: 1) form which includes phonological and morphological information, and 2) meaningwhich contains semantic and syntactic information. 6.6.2 Form Form includes phonological information, orthographic information and morphological information. To recognize a word, we need to know both phonological and orthographic form. However, given the fact that a speaker may have any one of a number of regional accents or that a written text may appear in any one of a number of different typefaces, there is existing variations of phonological and orthographic representations (Field, 2003, p. 12). Field (2003) regards the identification of a word as the result of a simple matching process. In other words, when encountering with the words in the speech, it is

required to match it to the phonological form of the word; when encountering with the words in reading process, it is required to match it with orthographic form of the word. Furthermore, the two are closely connected to the same unit of meaning. Besides the situation that different form sharing the same unit of meaning, there is still another kind of situation related to the homonymy. The same phonological form may have associated with different meanings. Take "way" for an example, it may mean a method, style or manner of doing something, or it may mean a route or road that you are taken in order to reach a place.Before considering precisely what it means to know a word, the question what constitute a lexical entry should be consider at first. It has been heated debated that all derived forms of a word should be regarded as an entry or as separate entries. According to Levelt (1989), the various inflections of a verb (e.g., eat, eats, ate, eaten, eating) are items belonging to the same lexical entry. The diacritic features for person, number, tense, mood, and aspect will take care of selecting the right item inflections (Levelt 2016). However, it is not the case for derivations; happy, unhappy, happiness, unhappiness, happily, etc. are different lexical entries (Field, 2003). Thus, an entry includes the base form of the word and its entire range of inflections. In the mental lexicon, therefore, a lexical entry, includes the base form of word and its inflections. If we knew a word, we need to know the base form and all the inflections. Take "take" for an instance, we would need to know "took", "takes", "taken", "taking". Besides the inflections, it is still needs to know the derivations. Take "act" for an example, it is still need to know "action", "activity", "actor" and so on. All in all, both inflections and derivational morphology of a word should be associated with the base form of the word and stored in the mental lexicon. 6.6.3. The Pedagogical Implication Ellis (1994) has proved that there are specialized modules, the input and output lexicons, which require the word forms and regularities of the surface form of language by implicit learning process. In other words, it means that the form of the mental lexicon seems to be learnt implicitly. And the learning of the form of the mental lexicon is related to the frequency, and regularity of the mental lexicon. According to the Ellis (1994), the meaning of the mental lexicon is likely to be learnt by explicit learning. Furthermore, it is heavily affected by depth of processing and elaborative integration with semantic and conceptual knowledge. The form is learnt implicitly. In contrast, the meaning is learnt explicitly,however,form-learning is heavily affected by its frequency.

Albrechtsen, Haastrup and Henriksen (2008) suggest that the language learner could via repeated language exposure to constantly establish internal links between the lexical items in the mental lexicon. The word, therefore, was required to be repeated and increase its exposure, which would enhance the memory. At the same time, form-learning is related to its frequency. Therefore, the word needed to be reviewed which would make the word more impressed. Furthermore, form-learning is connected with its regularity. So, words need to be learned and reviewed regularly. It would be an effective way to enhance memorization. According to the Nagy and Herman (1987), Vocabulary knowledge—knowledge about word meanings—is both subset of, and highly correlated with, general knowledge. It means that the specific word is highly related with other general words they have already known. Therefore, the learner should be encouraged to build systematic links with words they already know. The more links are established, the more likely that the word is going to be retained. When it comes to teaching, the instructions must aim at establishing explicit, deep, elaborative processing concerning semantic and conceptual representations that prevents the meaning of the word fading from memory .It would be much more effective for the vocabulary teaching, if the vocabulary instruction could contain:multiple exposures to instructed words, the establishment of ties between instructed words and students' own experience and prior knowledge. 6.7 Pronunciation Pronunciation is important, but it is also difficult both to teach and to learn. Perhaps that is why every ESL teacher should make it a part of what they teach their students. The International Phonetic Alphabet identifies approximately 25 consonant sounds and 18 vowel sounds that are used in the English language. The approximations are a result of the many different dialects of English including: i) American English, ii) British English, iii) Southern American English, iv) Cockney English, v) African American English and so on. Teaching pronunciation can be intimidating, especially if you are technically teaching other areas of the English language.In order to improve your English pronunciation, it is important to understand a number of terms and concepts. This article introduces the most important components from smallest—a unit of sound—to largest—sentence level stress and intonation. A short explanation is given for each concept with links to more resources to improve, as well as teach, English pronunciation skills.

a) Phoneme A phoneme is a unit of sound. Phonemes are expressed as phonetic symbols in the IPA (International Phonetic Alphabet). Some letters have one phoneme, others have two, such as the diphthong long "a" (eh - ee). Sometimes a phoneme may be a combination of two letters such as "ch" in "church," or "dge" in "judge." b) Letter There are twenty-six letters in the English alphabet. Some letters are pronounced differently depending on which letters they are with. For example, "c" can be pronounced like a hard /k/ or as an /s/ in the verb "cite." Letters are made up of consonants and vowels. Consonants can be voiced or voiceless depending on the sound (or phoneme). The difference between voiced and voiceless is explained below. c) Consonants Consonants are the sounds that interrupt vowel sounds. Consonants are combined with vowels to form a syllable. They include:

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b, c, d, f, g, h, j, k, l, m, n, p, q, r, s, t, v, w, x, z

Consonants can be voiced or voiceless. A voiced consonant is a consonant that is produced with the help of the vocal chords. A good way to tell if a consonant is voiced is to touch your fingers to your throat. If the consonant is voiced, you will feel a vibration. / b, d, g, j, l, m, n, r, v, w/ are voiced consonants. A voiceless consonant is a consonant that is produced without the help of the vocal chords. Place your fingers on your throat when speaking a voiceless consonant and you will only feel a rush of air through your throat. /c, f, h, k, q, s, t, x/ are voiceless consonants. d) Vowels Vowels are open sounds caused with the vibration of vocal sounds but without obstruction. Consonants interrupt vowels to form syllables. They include:a, e, i, o, u and sometimes y NOTE: "y" is a vowel when it sounds as /i/ such as in the word "city." "Y" is a consonant when it sounds as /j/ such as in the word "year." All vowels are voiced as they are produced using the vocal chords. e) Minimal Pairs Minimal pairs are pairs of words that differ in only one sound. For example: "ship" and "sheep" differ in only in the vowel sound. Minimal pairs are used to practice slight differences in sound.

f) Syllable A syllable is formed by a consonant sound combining with a vowel sound. Words can have one or more syllables. To test how many syllables a word has, put your hand under your chin and speak the word. Each time your jaw moves indicates another syllable. g) Syllable Stress Syllable stress refers to the syllable that receives the main stress in each word. Some two-syllable words are stressed on the first syllable: table, answer — other two syllable words are stressed on the second syllable: begin, return. There are a number of different word syllable stress patterns in English. h) Word Stress Word stress refers to which words are stressed in a sentence. Generally speaking, stress content words and glide over function words (explained below). i) Content Words Content words are words that convey meaning and include nouns, main verbs, adjectives, adverbs, and negatives. Content words are the focus of a sentence. Glide over function words to stress these content words to provide the rhythm of English. j) Function Words Function words are required for the grammar, but they provide little or no content. They include helping verbs, pronouns, prepositions, articles, etc. k) Stress-Timed Language When speaking about English we say that the language is stress-timed. In other words, the rhythm of English is created by word stress, rather than syllable stress as in syllabic languages. l) Word Groups Word groups are groups of words that are commonly grouped together and before or after which we pause. Word groups are often indicated by commas such as in complex or compound sentences. a) Rising Intonation Rising intonation occurs when the voice goes up in pitch. For example, we use rising intonation at the end of yes/no questions. We also use rising intonation with lists, separating each item with a short rise in the voice, before a final, falling intonation for the last item in a list. For example in the sentence:

I enjoy playing hockey, golf, tennis, and football. "Hockey," "golf," and "tennis" would rise in intonation, while "football" would fall. b) Falling Intonation Falling intonation is used with information sentences and, in general, at the end of statements. c) Reductions Reductions refers to the common practice of combing a number of words into a short unit. This generally occurs with function words. A few common reduction examples are: gonna -< going to and wanna -< want to d) Contractions Contractions are used when shortening the helping verb. In this way, two words such as "is not" become one "isn't" with only one vowel. 6.7.1 Teaching Pronunciation in ESL classes 1 Listening First It is virtually impossible for students to produce the right sounds for English words when they cannot hear and distinguish those sounds from one another first. So to teach pronunciation well means starting with teaching listening and making sure your students can distinguish the sounds they will soon be producing themselves. 2 The Phonetic Alphabet I am a firm believer that every ESL student should know the phonetic alphabet. Rather than depending on spelling, it is used to transcribe the exact sounds in English words. Students who know the phonetic alphabet and whose teachers use it get additional input when they are learning the correct pronunciation of words. They not only hear the correct pronunciation, but they see it, too. Phonetic transcriptions show students, even those who are struggling to hear the correct pronunciation, exactly how an English word is supposed to sound. 3 Teach Minimal Pairs Minimal pairs are words that differ in only one sound. When you teach English words in groups that point out differences as well as similarities, your students will be able to hear the differences and then produce the differences that distinguish words from one another. 4 Know Cultural Pronunciation Patterns Speakers of the same native language often have mispronunciation patterns that are recognizable and predictable. Spanish speakers often struggle with the difference

between the long and short i sounds such as those in city and seedy. Speakers of Japanese will often struggle to hear and produce the difference between /l/ and /r/ . If you know the common pronunciations your students are likely to struggle with, you can better prepare and instruct them in correct English pronunciation. 5 Let Your Students Look at Your Mouth I know this may be uncomfortable for you, especially if you have never done it before, but it is important. The reason is this: speakers of different languages actually hold and move the muscles of the mouth in different ways. For correct pronunciation, students will have to hold their mouth properly. Additionally, some students will not be able to produce a sound simply because they can hear and identify it. They will need the visual input that comes from looking closely at you while you produce certain sounds. Once you have let your students look at your mouth as you pronounce certain words and sounds, have them look at their own mouths. You can do this with mirrors or with the reverse camera on most smart phones. If students can see how your muscles move as you pronounce English sounds and words, they can see if they are moving their muscles in the same manner and can hear if they are producing the same sound as you. 6 Group Students by Native Language and against Native Language Grouping students with the same native language can be very helpful for correcting some of those predictable pronunciation struggles, so you should try it if you teach a class of internationals. They will often be able to help each other achieve more accurate pronunciation. It is also helpful to group students with speakers of different native languages. When students have to make themselves understood to someone not familiar with their accent, they will have to achieve more standard pronunciation to get their meaning across. So make sure when you group your students that you switch things up and sometimes group by native language and sometimes against it. 7 Let Them Mock You (and Others) Well, mock may not be the right word, but mimic is. Have your students listen to what you say and repeat it like a good younger brother loves to do to older siblings. Don't stop with your own speech, though. Have students copy the speech of newscasters, actors, and English speakers who are not also teachers. When they do, they will ingrain correct pronunciation and intonation into their own spoken English. 8 Combat Anxiety with Games

NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 329 Games make everything more fun, don't they? And you will want to make pronunciation instruction as fun for your students as possible. They will need it since working on correct pronunciation is stressful and can cause anxiety in even the best students. So make sure you have some great pronunciation games you can play as you work with your students. If you are stuck for ideas, Busy Teacher has lots of ideas to share. 9 Record and Re-record Your Students It may come slower than they would like, but your students will make progress in their pronunciation of English. You can give them clear cut evidence of their progress if you take the time to record them reading the same English passage at the beginning of your school year, in the middle, and again at the end. When you record your students' pronunciation, you can play the tapes one after another to show their progress. This is important for increasing your students' confidence and bolstering their self-esteem. If your students are like most language learners, they will need encouragement and boosts to keep going when it feels like they are making no progress at all. Your recordings can do just that. In addition, it gives you material on which to base their grade when it comes to their final evaluations on pronunciation. 10 Don't Get Hung up on Accent Teaching good pronunciation skills in English is not the same thing as eradicating a first language influenced accent. ESL teachers walk a fine line when addressing pronunciation issues of English. Ultimately, the goal is for your students to speak so they can be understood by native English speakers. For some students, they will be able to communicate clearly even if they retain part of their native accent, and your students may want it there. When the accent becomes too strong, however, it becomes a barrier to communication. So focus more on communication rather than perfect pronunciation, and you and your students will both be happy. 6.7.2 ESL Pronunciation Phonology Charts Students and teachers of English as a second language often find ESL pronunciation phonology charts helpful. Aside from the all-important semantic and syntactic aspects of language learning, it can be argued that the most crucial task for second language learners is to grasp proper English pronunciation. If students have mastered all the rules of English grammar, yet still speak with a heavy dialect influenced by their native language, much of their grammar proficiency will be overlooked in daily conversation.

It is common knowledge that not all languages spoken on Earth use the same sound systems. This can cause ESL students a great deal of difficulty when they are learning to phonetically navigate their new language. If English includes a sound that was not spoken in their native language, it can be very challenging for the students to learn how to produce the sound physically. Since the sound will remain foreign to them for some time, remembering how to create the sound while in the flow of typical conversations poses an even greater challenge. ELS pronunciation phonology charts work to give students a tool to keep on hand while they practice their mastery of English phonetics. The charts will phonetically transcribe familiar English words so the students are sure to know exactly how the words should sound. The phonetic transcriptions will give the student exact pronunciation tips to assist them in forming correct English words when they speak. Some of the resources may be more intuitive than others to you, so explore all the options and select those that you think will work the best for your needs. 6.7.3 Pronunciation Practice The first step in learning correct English pronunciation is to focus on individual sounds. These sounds are named "phonemes". Every word is made up of a number of "phonemes" or sounds. A good way to isolate these individual sounds is to use minimal pair exercises. To take your pronunciation to the next level, focus on stress on intonation. The following resources will help you improve your pronunciation by learning the "music" of English. Practice with Pronunciation Using English is a stress-timed language and, as such, good pronunciation depends a lot on the ability to accent the correct words and successfully use intonation to make sure you are understood. Simply put, spoken English stress the principal elements in a sentence - content words - and quickly glides over the less important words - function words. Nouns, principal verbs, adjectives and adverbs are all content words. Pronouns, articles, auxiliary verbs, prepositions, conjunctions are function words and are pronounced quickly moving towards the more important words. This quality of quickly gliding over less important words is also known as 'connected speech'. This feature takes a look at how intonation and stress influence the way English is spoken.

332 NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 6.8 Strategies for Use of Vocabulary in Language Teaching 1. How to remember

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NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 335 6.9 Summary In this unit we have discussed in detail aspects of word grammar. Word grammar is explained in terms of the context in which a word appears and its importance in understanding the meaning. Along with the meaning, it is equally important to understand the stress the word receives which influences the grammar of the word. The unit also discusses strategies for teaching word grammar in terms of lexicon, pronunciation and meaning. Some help is given by including the phonetic chart and a few tasks for practising vocabulary. 6.10 Review Questions 1. How is grammar of a word related to its meaning? 2. How do we decide the parts of speech, a word belongs to, by reading the words in context? 3. Pronunciation is an important aspect of word and is related to grammar. Give some examples to prove this? 4. What are some of the strategies to teach words in different contexts? 5. Design two tasks to show how the same word can be used in different situations to bring out its differences in meaning and grammar. 6. "Pronunciation is difficult to teach and learn." Do you think so? Justify your answer. 7. Discuss the semantic and conceptual representation of five words which you may use while teaching vocabulary. 8. What are the differences between inflectional morphology and derivational morphology in adding new words? Give examples. 9. Discuss the strategies you feel would be suitable for the learnerswhile teaching vocabulary, . 10. Learning the use of vocabulary can follow certain strategy. Suggest your strategies as a learner.

336 NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 6.11 References I)https://www.lexico.com/en/grammar/grammar-a-z II) Studies in English Language Teaching ISSN 2372-9740 (Print) ISSN 2329-311X (Online) Vol. 4, No. 1, 2016 www.scholink.org/ojs/index.php/selt Vocabulary Acquisition: What does It Mean to Know a Word? Xin Zhang1* 1 English Language Center, Shantou University, Guangdong, China * Xin Zhang, E-mail: zhangxin@stu.edu.cn III) https://esl.yourdictionary.com/lesson-plans/ESL-Pronunciation-Phonology-Charts.html IV) https://www.thoughtco.com/using-a-focus-word-to-help-with-pronunciation-1211978 V)https://www.englishclub.com/grammar/ VI)https://www.google.com/search use+of+vocabulary+in+ELT

NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 337 Unit - 7 p Teaching Vocabulary Structure 7.1 Introduction 7.2 Objectives 7.3 The Techniques in Teaching Vocabulary 7.4 Online Resources for Teaching Vocabulary 7.5 Developing a Love for Vocabulary Learning 7.6 Word Association 7.6.1 Word Association ESL Vocabulary Activity 7.6.2 ESL Travel and Holiday Activities 7.6.3 Future Activities for ESL/EFL 7.7 Summary 7.8 Review Questions 7.9 References 7.1 Introduction Commonly, there are several techniques concerning the teaching of vocabulary. However, there are a few things that have to be remembered by most English teachers if they want to present a new vocabulary or lexical items to their students. It means that the English teachers want students to remember new vocabulary, then, it needs to be learnt, practised, and revised to prevent students from forgetting. 7.2 Objectives The unit istroduces you to l Techniques used in presenting meanings and form of vocabulary l Investigating new techniques l Vocabulary resources and activities 7.3 The Techniques in Teaching Vocabulary Techniques employed by teachers depend on some factors, such as the content, time availability, and its value for the learners. This makes teachers have some reasons in

338 NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 employing certain techniques in presenting vocabulary. In presenting one planned vocabulary item, the teacher usually combined more than one technique, instead of employing one single technique. Teachers, furthermore, are suggested to employ planned vocabulary presentation as various as possible.Here are some techniques of teaching vocabulary. A. Using Objects Using this technique includes the use of realia, visual aids, and demonstration. They can function to help learners in remembering vocabulary better, because our memory for objects and pictures is very reliable and visual techniques can act as cues for remembering words (Takaè, 2008). In addition, Gairns&Redman(1986) statethat real objects technique is appropriately employed for beginners or young learners and when presenting concrete vocabulary.Objects can be used to show meanings when the vocabulary consist of concrete nouns.Introducing a new word by showing the real object often helps learners to memorize the word through visualization. Objects in the classroom or things brought to the classroom can be used. B. Drawing Objects can either be drawn on the blackboard or drawn on flash cards.The latter can be used again and again in different contexts if they are made with cards and covered in plastic.They can help young learners easilyunderstand and realize the main points that they have learned in the classroom. C. Using Illustrations and Pictures Pictures connect students' prior knowledge to a new story, and in the process, help them learn new words. There are plenty of vocabularies that can be introduced by using illustrations or pictures. They are excellent means of making the meaning of unknown words clear. They should be used as often aspossible. The list of pictures includes: posters,flashcards, wall charts, magazine pictures,board drawings, stick figures and photographs.Pictures for vocabulary teaching come from many sources. Apart fromthose drawn by the teacher or students, they are sets of colourful pictures intended for schools. Pictures cut out of newspapers and magazines are very useful as well. Nowadays many readers, vocabulary books and coursebooks contain a vast number of attractive pictures that present the meaning of basic words. The teacher can use learning materials provided by the school. They can also make their own visual aids or used pictures from magazines.

NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 339 Visual support helps learners understand the meaning and helps to make the word more memorable. D. Contrast Some words are easily explained to learners by contrasting it with its opposite, for instance,the word" good" contrasted with the word "bad". But some words are not. It is almost impossible to contrast the words whose opposite is the gradable one. When the word "white"iscontrasted with the word "black", there is an "in between" word" grey".Furthermore,verb "contrast" means to show a difference, like photos that reveal how much weight someone lost by contrasting the "before" and "after" shots .Many more studies have also shown that vocabulary is best acquired if it is similar to what is already learnt (e.g. Rudska et al., 1982, 1985), it is not surprising that learning synonyms is a way to expand our vocabulary. Learning about synonyms is important also because this is how dictionaries are organised. Putting bilingual dictionaries aside, mono-lingual dictionaries essentially use words to explain words, and in this process, synonyms are often used (Ilson, 1991). A. Enumeration An enumeration is a collection of items that is a complete, ordered listing of all of the items in that collection. It can be used to present meaning.. In other words, this technique helps when any word is difficult to explain visually. We can say"clothes" and explain this by enumerating or listing various items. Teacher may list a number of clothes e.g. a dress,askirt,trousersetc ,and then the meaning of the word "clothes" will became clear.The same is true of 'vegetable'or"furniture", 'for example(Harmer 1991). B. Mime, Expressions and Gestures Klippel (1994) implies that "mime or gesture is useful if it emphasizes the importance of gestures and facial expression on communication.At the essence it can not only be used to indicate the meaning of a word found in reading passage, but also in speaking activity as it stresses mostly on communication. Many words can be introduced through mime, expressions, and gestures. For example, adjectives: "sad" ," happy"; mime and taking a hat off your head to teach hat and so on. Several studies have emphasised the role of gestures in second language (L2) acquisition (Gullberg, 2008). Teachers tend to gesture a lot (Sime, 2001; Hauge, 1999), especially when addressing young learners and/or beginners. It is commonly acknowledged that

340 NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 "teachinggestures"capture attention and make the lesson more dynamic. Using analyses of video recordings of English lessons to French students, Tellier (2007) determined three main roles for teaching gestures: management of the class (to start/end an activity, to question students, request silence, etc.), evaluation (to show a mistake, to correct, to congratulate,etc.) and explanation to give indications on syntax, underline specific prosody, explain new vocabulary, etc.). Teaching gestures appear in various shapes: hand gestures, facial expressions, pantomime, body movements, etc. They can either mime or symbolize something and they help learners to infer the meaning of a spoken word or expression,providing that they are unambiguous and easy to understand. This teaching strategy is thus relevant for comprehension (Tellier, 2007). However, its utility may depend on the kind of gesture used by the teacher. It has been highlighted that foreign emblems, for instance, may lead to misunderstandings when it is not known by the learners (Hauge, 1999; Sime, 2001).In addition to supporting comprehension, teaching gestures may also be relevant for learners' memorisation process. Indeed, many second language teachers who use gestures as a teachingstrategy declare that they help learners in the process of memorising the second language lexicon.Many of them have noticed that learners can retrieve a word easily when the teacher produces the gesture associated with the lexical item during the lesson. Others have seen learners(especially young ones) spontaneously reproducing the gesture when saying the word. The effect of gestures on memorisation is thus something witnessed by many but hardly explored on a systematic and empirical basis(Tellier, 2008). C. Guessing from Context Guessing from context as a way of dealing with unfamiliar vocabulary in unedited selections has been suggested widely by L1 and L2 reading specialists (Dubin, 1993).Nation and Coady (1988) claim that

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there are two types of contexts. The first type is the

context within the text,

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which includes morphological,semantic and syntactic information in a specific text, while the second one is the

general context, or non-textual context,

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which is the background knowledge the reader has about the subjects being

read. Williams (1985) agrees with Nation and Coady in considering the specific context as ''the other words and sentences that surround that word..... it follows that other words in the context of the unfamiliar word often 'throw light on' its meaning. These other words can be found in the sentence containing the unknown word or other sentences beyond the sentence of the unknown item. Similarly, McCarthy (1988) sees context as within the text itself NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 341 i.e. the morphological,syntactic, and discourse information, which can be classified and described in terms of general features.

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Learning from context not only includes learning from extensive reading, but also learning from taking part in a conversation, and learning from listening to stories, films, television or the radio (

Nation, 2001).

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In order to activate guessing in a written or spoken text, there should be

four elements available: the reader, the text, unknown words, and clues in the text including some knowledge about guessing. The absence

of one of these elements may affect the learner's ability to guess. Furthermore, this technique encourages learners to take risks and guess the meanings of words they do not know as much as possible. This will help them build up their self-confidence so that they can work out the meanings of words when they are on their own. There are many clues learners can use to establish meanings for themselves, such as illustrations, similarity of spelling or sound in the mother tongue, and general knowledge(Walters, 2004). The

Eliciting technique is more motivating and memorable by simply giving pupils a list of words to learn. D. Translation Even though translation does not create a need or motivation of the learners to think about word meaning (Cameron, 2001), in some situations translation could be effective for teachers, such as when dealing with incidental vocabulary (Thornbury, 2002), checking students' comprehension, and pointing out similarities or differences between first and second language, when these are likely to cause errors (Takaè, 2008). There are always some words that need to be translated and this technique can save a lot of time. 7.4 Online Resources for Teaching Vocabulary One resource that teachers may explore to model and teach English words and phrases is the Website, http://freerice.com/, which calls itself "the world's only vocabulary game that feeds the hungry." Through the World Food Programme (WFP), this site allows those with Internet access to check their vocabulary knowledge using multiple-choice questions. For every correct answer 10 grains of rice are donated through the WFP to help feed the hungry. Your students can even practice listening to target words by clicking on an icon, 7 Vocabulary and Its Importance in Language Learning which can help with hearing and repeating the spoken form. You might bookmark this site and share it with your students.

342 NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 Task 1 Explore other vocabulary resources matching your learner needs. 7.5 Developing a Love for Vocabulary Learning English vocabulary is challenging. As Ur (2012) aptly stated, unlike grammar, "lexical items . . .are an open set, constantly being added to (and lost, as archaic words gradually go out of use)" (p. 3). Perhaps this situation is most evident with computer-related vocabulary, such as the Internet, e-mail, and Web browser, which was not commonly used even 15 years ago. Now, though, everyone seems to know these items and how important such realities are to their lives and work. English vocabulary's expansion is exciting, but it also means that teachers and students alike need to be in the habit of learning vocabulary. People can expand their English vocabulary knowledge in many different ways. 7.6 Word Association

Word Association is an ESL vocabulary activity that can be used to introduce a new topic, lesson, theme, etc. You have to write a single relevant word in the middle of the board or paper and have students take turns adding as many words or images related to that word as possible.

This word association activity is an ideal way to help students activate prior knowledge that they might have about a topic. Or, you can use it at the end of a unit to show students how much they have learned!

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The key to having a happy ESL classroom is to mix things up in your classes. After all, nobody likes doing the same thing over and over again. Try out some new activities today...here's a simple vocabulary one you can start with 7.6.1

Word Association ESL Vocabulary Activity Skills: Reading/writing/speaking Age: UG level Materials Required: Worksheets or butcher paper and pens Word Association is an ESL vocabulary activity that can be used to introduce a new topic, lesson, theme, etc. You have to write a single relevant word in the middle of the board or paper and have students take turns adding as many words or images related to that word as possible. For example…the centre word could be "school." Some of the other branches could be subjects (Math, English, History, Gym, etc) while another branch could be school supplies (pen, paper, ruler, etc.) Finally, you might have one about recess or break time (play games, tag, climb, jump, swing set). And keep going with more associations from there. The subject or topic can be whatever you're teaching that day. Another topic it works well for is body parts. Check out some more parts of the body activities here. For large classes, have students work in groups with separate pieces of paper taped to the wall or the top of the table/ grouped desks. After a given amount of time (3-5 minutes, or when you see no one is adding anything new), discuss their answers.

Teaching Tips for This ESL Vocabulary Activity For large classes, butcher paper works best, so more students can write at one time. If that isn't possible, have 5-6 board markers available. If using butcher paper, prepare in advance, including taping to the wall, unless students will be working at their desks. Finally, if students will be working at their desks, write the word on each table's page in advance, but don't hand them out until you have given your instructions. This activity is often quite a fun way to start off a holiday themed class. For even more ideas, check out: ESL Christmas Activities and Games.

Warm-ups Travel and Holidays ESL Activities, Games, Worksheets can be used

344 NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 If you need some fresh, new ideas for the ESL travel and holiday unit that you can find in most textbooks, then you're in the right place. Here you find 15 ideas for games and activities, along with travel vocabulary, worksheets and lesson plans. 7.6.2 ESL Travel and Holiday Activities: Top 15 to try out with students. Activity 1: Plan a Trip Have your students plan a dream vacation in English! Instead of researching in their first language, use Google in English. In order to practice writing, keep notes only in English. Here is an example of how you might plan your trip using English. You can have your students add as little, or as much detail as you'd like. However, the point of the activity is to practice writing in point form which is useful when writing outlines for tests or essays. Day 1: Monday, January 1 Fly Seoul (3pm) — < Vancouver (7am) Rest, relax Day 2: Tuesday, January 2 Stay Hotel ABC Tour Stanley Park Eat Pub XYZ dinner Day 3: Wednesday, January 3 Check out Hotel ABC Rent car Budget 123, Drive Whistler Rent skis shop ABC, Go Skiing Lunch ski lodge Check in Hotel ABC Whistler Bed early Procedure: Give students time to do some Internet research about a place they want to go. It's helpful to specify the number of days. I generally make a rule that they must do this research in English. Suggest some helpful websites where they might like to start (Trip Advisor, Air Bus, etc.).

NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 345 Students can make a day-by-day itinerary of what they're trip is going to look like. They can share about their trip with the class or turn it in for a graded assignment. Activity 2: A-Z Alphabet Game If you know that your students already know a fair bit about holiday and travel, you may want to try this quick warm-up game. Or, you could consider using it as a review game at the end of a class. The way it works is that students, in pairs or small groups write down the alphabet on a piece of paper. Then, they have to think of one travel related word for each letter. It doesn't have to be done in order. For example: B: Beach F: Food H: Hotel P: Passport S: Sun The winner is the team with the most completed letters at the end of the allotted time. Do you want to find out more? Check this out: A-Z Alphabet Game ESL. Activity 3: Travel Word Association This is nice ESL activity to do if you know that your students have studied about travel and holidays before. They can shout out vocabulary words related to this and you can make a mind map or sorts on the board. Group similar things together. For example, articles of clothing. Activity 4: Postcards If you can get your hands on some cheap postcards or have some laying around your house or teacher's office, try out this fun writing activity. It may just be the novelty factor, but students seem to love it. This activity is ideal for working on common greetings, the past tense, using descriptive words, as well as using synonyms to avoid repetition. Distribute the postcards to the students. You can do one per student, or put the students into pairs. They have to look at the picture on the front of the postcard and imagine that they went on this vacation. Then, they can write about their trip to a friend or family member.

346 NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 Next, the students trade postcards with another student or group. After reading them, they can write a response back of at least a few sentences. Finally, you may want to display them around the class as they're colourful and fun and other students may enjoy reading them! Procedure: Give each student or pair a postcard. They look at the picture and imagine what they did on that vacation, and then pretend that they're writing to a friend or family member. Exchange postcards and another student or group has to write a response to what they read. Display the postcards around your classroom (optional). Activity 5: Travel or Holiday Videos I'm ALL about using videos with my ESL/EFL students. They're fun, engaging and a nice way to grab student's attention and introduce a topic. Of course, you can base an entire class around one too if you design the activities well. If you want to find out more about using them in your classes and some activities and games to do with them, you'll want to check this out: Using Videos for Teaching English. 7.6.3 Future Activities (FA) for ESL/EFL FA 1:

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Future Tense Surveys I'm ALL about using surveys in my English classes. They are one of the most versatile ESL activities out there and can be used for a ton of different grammar points and topics. However, they lend themselves especially well to talking about the future. The questions you include can be related to the following: After class plans Vacation plans After graduation Marriage and kids

FA 2:

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Just a Minute This is a fun ESL activity that gets students talking for one entire minute about a certain topic without stopping. You can turn it into a fun, interactive activity by putting students

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into groups of four and requiring that each student who was listening ask a follow-up question or two at the end of the minute. The key to using Just a Minute with the future tense is choosing good topics. Check the previous future activity for some ideas.

FA 3:

100%	MATCHING BLOCK 57/83	W

Future Sentences Activity- Videos I'm ALL about using YouTube or English Central videos in my classes. You can find one on literally every single topic, vocabulary set or grammar point under the sun. But, there's more to it than just popping the video on and chilling out. There are so many things you can do with the, pre and post-watching. Or, you may want to mix things up and let another teacher do the heavy lifting and explain the differences between the tenses. I mean, I'm sure my students get tired of hearing me talk sometimes!

FA 4:

100%	MATCHING BLOCK 58/83	W

Find Someone Who Bingo Usually I use this Bingo game as an icebreaker activity on the first day of class. However, you can very easily adapt it to make it an ideal exercises for future tenses. Instead of asking icebreaker questions related to hobbies, family, etc., you could make questions related to the future.

FA 5:

Is that Sentence Correct? If you're working on future forms and constructing grammatically correct sentences with your students, then you'll want to check out this activity. It's very simple and makes an ideal review at the end of a class, or beginning on the next one. The way it works is that you write a few sentences on the board using the future tense. Some of them will have errors that can relate to either form or meaning. Students have to work together to correct the errors.

FA 6:

Going to Activities: Dictogloss If you want to challenge your students' listening and writing skills, then you'll want to consider using Dictogloss. The way it works is that you find a passage of some kind at a slightly higher level than your students are at. Then, you read it at a normal pace and students have to work together to recreate the story.

FA 7:

Listen for One Specific Thing (Future Forms) If you do listening with your students, one really valuable thing you do is to get your students to listen for just one specific thing. In this case, it'd be examples of people talking about the future using will/going to/simple present or other future tense constructions. 348

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The best places to find listening passage related to what you're teaching are the textbook that you're probably using.

FA 8:

Picture Prompt for Making Future Predictions A fun way that you can get students using future tenses to make predictions is to find an interesting picture of some kind that lends itself well to different future possibilities. Then, students have to tell you (or a partner) what they think is going to happen.

FA 9:

Talking about the Future Exercises- Proof-Reading + Editing I sometimes think that if students only practice something by speaking, it never really becomes solid and gets to the level of actually "knowing." This is where written practice is ideal for an ESL/EFL class. And one of the ways to do is to get your students practicing some proofreading and editing. Find a passage (or write one yourself) with lots of examples of will/going to. But, make some mistakes and use them in the wrong situations, or make the grammatical construction wrong. Then, students have to go through the worksheet and find the mistakes.

FA 10: Yes/

No Question Games and Activities If you've taught your students about the future tense before, you'll probably notice that there are a lot of question/answer style of activities. That's because it's difficult to talk about the future without talking about future plans and of course, you'll need to have some questions for this in most cases.

FA 11:

Conversation Starters If you ask your students what they want to work on in your speaking or conversation classes, they'll often say "free-talking." This can be a little bit difficult when you just tell your students to, "Talk about the future!" It helps to give them something more concrete and specific. That's why I like to make some conversation starter questions that students can talk about. Some students will only make it to the first 1-2 questions, while others will make it through all 10 in the allotted time. The important thing is that students are talking in English!

FA 12:

Future Board Games I LOVE to play board games in real life, so like to introduce them into my classes too. However, if you want to target a specific language concept, you'll probably need to

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make your own. It's very easy to do this with future sentences. You can write some questions on the board game like the following: What are you going to do this summer? Where are you going to eat lunch today? Or, you may want to write some answers and students have to think of the question. I'm going to take an English class this summer. I will probably have dinner with my friend tonight.

FA 13:

My Future Plans In this simple activity, students write down a few of their future plans using the correct grammatical construction. I generally narrow it down to a more specific topic like weekends plans. Then, students have to give me all their papers with plans using future forms. Depending on the class size, I do one of two things. For smaller classes, I'll read out the papers and the entire class can guess who it is. For larger classes, I give each student one paper and they have to walk around asking questions to find out who it is.

FA 14:

Plan a Holiday One task based activity that I like to do with my students for the future tenses is to tell them that my parents are coming to visit their country for a week and that they have to plan a trip for them. Think about that—it's all future tenses, right? Then, they have to do a short presentation in front of the class and I choose the trip that my parents will like best!

FA 15:

Just One Question Survey Activity Try out this ESL survey activity to round up our unit on future plans. The way it works is that students work in pairs to think of one interesting question related to a future plan. Then, they have to survey their classmates, compile and report the results. It's interactive, engaging and lends itself well to using lots of future tense sentences!

FA 16: Future Forms Telepathy Game Check out this video on YouTube for a fun future sentences activity you can try out with your students today:

Future Will vs Going To: What's the Difference Between these Future Forms? 350

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Although when to use going to and will may seem complicated, it's actually not! Basically, here are the rules: You can use either will or going to when making predictions about the future with no difference in meaning (I think it's going to snow tonight/I think it will snow tonight). Will is used to express future actions decided at the moment of speaking (Who can turn off the lights? I will). Going to describes future plans decided before speaking (I'm going to go to the University of ABC next year). Will is used for a future fact (The sun will set tonight). Going to is useful for something that will happen right now (Hurry up! We're going to miss the bus). What about the Simple Present to Express the Future? Have you noticed some sentences that use the simple present to talk about the future? Here are some examples: The plane takes off at 7pm. The bus leaves at 2. Notice the similarity? The present simple is used to express a future time or schedule of some kind. 7.7

Summary In this unit we have focussed on some of the techniques that can be used fruitfully in our classroom to develop learner vocabulary. In doing this we have not only provided strategies of teaching, but also suggested ways of motivating the learners to develop an interest in building a good vocabulary. For this we have helped you with a bunch of activities that can be carried out in the class, which engage the learner and help them learn new words in a relaxed manner. Besides these, we have also provided sources, both offline and online, which can be exploited to learn new words. 7.8 Review Questions 1. What aspects of English vocabulary currently interest you?
NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 351 2. Which two or three strategies for learning English words and phrases do you model and teach? 3. How best can you use the net resources to develop your vocabulary? 4. Are you aware of any vocabulary games that you played as a child? Describe. 5. How can vocabulary games be used in the classroom? 6. Mention some sources of vocabulary games that you come across in newspapers and magazines. 7. Suggest ways of using vocabulary games from newspapers and magazines in your classroom. 8. What are the techniques of teaching vocabulary, that can be guessed from the context? 9. How does the first language contribute to learning vocabulary in ESL? 10. Describe a future activity of teaching vocabulary that you may want to utilise in your classroom? 7.9 References
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NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 353 Unit - 8 p Vocabulary Exercises Structure 8.1 Introduction 8.2 Objectives 8.3 Word Formation Worksheets 8.4 Dictionary Skills 8.5 Idioms in ESL Learning 8.6 Tips for Teaching English Idioms Wisely 8.7 References 8.1 Introduction: In the previous unit you have learnt in detail the need for vocabulary and the ways in which we can develop our vocabulary. You have also been introduced to the strategies and activities that can be used for this purpose. This unit is a continuation of the same work, and is entirely devoted to providing you with several tasks and exercises. This will not only help you become familiar with tasks, but also enable you to design new tasks based on your knowledge of various types of items that can be used. 8.2

Objectives

At the end of this unit, the learners will be:

a. acquainted with a large number of tasks for teaching vocabulary b. able to analyse a task for its components and measure its strengths and weaknesses c. able to develop some tasks on their own for use in the classroom.

354 NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 8.3 Word Formation Worksheet english-grammar.at

NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 355 WORD FORMATION WORKSHEET - 2

356 NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 WORD FORMATION WORKSHEET - 3

NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 357 8.4 Dictionary Skills References: https://www.teachingenglish.org.uk/article/dictionary-skills-secondary-students

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360 NSOU l PGEL - 1&2

NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 361

362 NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 8.5 Idioms in ESL Learning: Teaching Idioms Is Teaching Fluency Colourful language and powerful imagery make idioms a lot of fun for ESL learners. When you throw cats and dogs in a scene where they are falling from the sky, it's hard to know exactly what a phrase might mean. It's almost like a code-breaking game, where students must learn that when certain words come together in a phrase, they can mean something very different. It's important to not only teach the meaning of idioms, but to also teach how to use them correctly and effectively. When a non-native speaker uses an idiom correctly, he or she will sound very fluent. But, on the other hand, if they bumble the phrase, they will sound the exact opposite. Learning idioms is appropriate for intermediate to advanced students. If you teach an idiom lesson to beginners or low-intermediate learners, you may well be putting them in the bumbling category mentioned above. Teach idioms wisely and sparingly to ensure your students' success. 8.6 Tips for Teaching English Idioms Wisely Provide idioms in context, so students can fully understand the meaning. Be sure to provide a sample conversation around it. For example, take the following dialogue featuring the idiom "to be a chicken" when at a local amusement park. Jack: Ooh, wow. Look at that roller coaster, Jane! It goes upside-down! Jane: My stomach aches just looking at it. I will not ride that. Jack: Ah, come on. Don't be a chicken! Teach idioms in spoken form, not written, and explain to students how they are conversational, rather than formal. Have students practice the idioms in dialogue to help them understand they're used in spoken colloquial English. Be sure to explain how the individual words have different meanings from the whole idiom phrase. For example, how much does an arm and a leg actually cost? Who knows? Don't just hand out a long list of idioms. Be sure to provide a small selection of 5-10 idioms (or less!) and explain each one. If you provide too many examples, it'll simply turn into an introduction of what an idiom is, rather than how to actually remember the meaning and use one effectively in dialogue.

That brings us to just how important it is to help your students understand idiom usage. Easy as Pie: Everything You've Gotta Know to Teach English Idioms Effectively 4 Exercises to Help Your Students Understand Idioms 1. Teach idioms with pictures Provide a picture to explain the context. This works best if you show an image that humorously illustrates the literal meaning of the idiom. It will make students laugh, but also help them understand or guess what a phrase means. Idioms are full of colourful imagery, perfect for a flashcard or photo. Show the picture to your students and have them guess the meaning of the idiom. From there, give examples of when you would use it and how the words and the actual meaning of the idiom are different. Looking for a good resource? Check out this website for an example of great images to explain the meaning of idioms. And for some beautiful images depicting idioms, be sure to check out this site. 2. Use small groups to present dialogues Break your class into small groups and have each group look up two idioms. Dave's ESL Cafe has a great collection of idioms and their meanings for student reference. Before they look them up, have the students make an educated guess on what the idiom means, and then let them search for the real meaning. Have students explain the meaning to the rest of the class and use the idiom in a short sample dialogue. 3. Introduce Amelia Bedelia No, Amelia! You don't actually throw the tent into the woods! You don't have to be a kid to adore Amelia Bedelia and her literal mind. She's the perfect teacher for an idiom lesson. Visit the publisher's website for activities, book excerpts, worksheets and games. While the material is oriented for children, it's also a great way for older students to learn English idioms through a fun and quirky character! 4. Use a theme A great way to teach idioms is to use a theme. For example, you could use all weather- related idioms (see this great worksheet!). Or teach sports-related idioms with this helpful worksheet. By using a common theme to teach idioms, it's easier for students to grasp the meanings of the phrases, and see how similar words can mean very different things.

Some idioms to talk of: 1. (to be) A fish out of water Meaning: to feel awkward or uncomfortable, usually in a new situation Teaching tips: Start the lesson by talking to your students about feeling awkward. What makes them feel awkward? Give an example of what makes you feel awkward. Then, present the below dialogue. Sample dialogue: Sam: Gee, learning to rollerblade isn't easy. I keep falling down! Sarah: I know, it's so hard! I feel like a fish out of water. 2. To be broke Meaning: to be out of money, to have no money Teaching tips: Provide the students with two images. One image should be of a broken item (such as a broken pencil) and one should be an image of a person with no money

(this is a great one). Explain how both images mean "to be broke." Then, present the following dialogue and have the students match the correct image to the meaning of the idiom. Sample dialogue: Sam: I really want to buy that cool hat. But I'm completely broke. Sarah: Would you like to borrow some money? Sam: That'd be great. I promise, I'll pay you back later. 3. Rule of thumb Meaning: an unwritten but generally accepted guideline, policy or method of doing something Teaching tips: Talk with your students about laws of society. Which ones are actual legal laws? Which ones are social norms or generally accepted rules? Make a list of each. Then, introduce the "rule of thumb" idiom. Practice with the below dialogue. Sample dialogue: Sam: These potato chips are so delicious. Want some? Sarah: Sure, thanks. Sam: Ooh, sorry! I dropped that handful. Well, it's the 5-second rule. They were on the ground less than 5 seconds, so it's still okay to eat them. Sarah: What? Yuck. That doesn't sound like a good rule of thumb. Give me some that haven't dropped on the ground, please!

4. (to be) Up in the air Meaning: undecided or indefinite, usually because often because other matters should be decided first Teaching tips: Present this image, featuring the idiom "up in the air." Talk to the students about what it means, and then present the following dialogue. Afterward, talk about what your students are currently up in the air about. Then, have them come up with their own sample dialogue. Sample dialogue: Sarah: Hey, Sam! Remember, you need to let us know by tomorrow if you're going to go on the class trip with us. Sam: That's right. I'm still up in the air. I need to figure out my work schedule first and see if they'll let me have a few days off work. Sarah: I see. Well, let us know. I hope you can come! 5. (to be the) Devil's advocate Meaning: to present a counter argumen

Teaching tips: After explaining the meaning of this idiom and practicing the following dialogue, present the class with a debate exercise. Split the class into two groups, and have each side come up with a different argument to the same issue. (Choose an issue you think might be relevant to your students). Have them debate the issue, using the idiom when appropriate. Sample dialogue: Sam: I just can't understand why healthcare is so expensive in the United States. It just doesn't seem right. Sarah: Tell me about it. But, to be the devil's advocate, doctors get paid more in the US than any other country. And so that attracts the best doctors in the world who possibly provide some of the best care in the world. Sam: Well, maybe. But it still shouldn't be so expensive. 6. (to) Give someone the cold shoulder Meaning: to no interest in someone or something, to ignore Teaching tips: Provide the sample image and have the students guess what they think the idiom means. Ask the students if they've ever given someone the cold shoulder. Or, if they've ever received the cold shoulder. Practice below dialogue. Sample dialogue: Sarah: I ran into Sallie yesterday and we had a nice conversation at the coffee shop, catching up with each other. Sam: Oh, really? Last time I saw her, she gave me the cold shoulder. I couldn't figure out what I had done to make her angry.

368 NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 Sarah: Well, it probably doesn't help that you are dating her best friend. 7. Happy camper Meaning: a person who is happy and cheerful Teaching tips: Explain the idiom and practice the sample dialogue. Ask your students what makes them happy. Also, practice using the idiom in the negative. Such as, "I'm not a happy camper today." Sample dialogue: Sam: Sarah, why are you so happy today? Sarah: Well, I made a perfect score on my English test. I also won first prize in an English writing contest and received a $100 prize. So yes, I'm a happy camper today. Sam: Wow, congratulations! 8. (to) Sit tight Meaning: to stay where you are

NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 369 Teaching tips: Explain the definition of the idiom and practice the dialogue below. Have the students come up with scenarios where they could use this idiom in context. Sample dialogue: Sarah: Sam, are you okay? What happened?! Sam: I fell down the stairs and now my leg really hurts. Sarah: Sit tight! I'll go call 9-1-1. 9. (to be) Head over heels (in love) Meaning: to be really or completely in love with someone Teaching tips: Show this image explaining the idiom. Talk to the students about being in love. Ask which students are currently in love (guaranteed to elicit a few giggles from your students!). Practice the below dialogue. Sample dialogue: Sarah: Sam, what are you writing? Sam: I'm writing a letter to my new girlfriend. Sarah: Ooh, really? You just wrote to her yesterday. You must be head over heels! Sam: I really am. I want to marry her. 10. (to) Get the ball rolling

370 NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 Meaning: to get started Teaching tips: Write the idiom on the board in front of class. Have the students make guesses on what it means. Then, practice the below dialogue and have them guess again. Sample dialogue: Sam: Have you started the English class project yet? Sarah: No, not yet. I need to ask the teacher a few more questions first. Sam: You better get the ball rolling! The project is due next week! Sarah: Don't worry about me. I'll get it done. [Illustrative pictures used are adapted from Google Web Resources] 8.7 References: https://www.fluentu.com/blog/educator-english/teach-english-idioms/ 1. Takac V P (2008). Vocabulary Learning Strategies and Foreign Language Acquisition. Electronic form. 2. Gairns, R. & Redman, S. (1986).Working with words: a guide to teaching and learning vocabulary.(1st Ed.), Cambridge: Cambridge University Press: Ilson, R. (1983). 'Etymological Information: Can it help our students?' in ELTJ Vol 37:1. (pp 76 – 82) 3. Harmer, J (1981). The Practice of English Language Teaching. London: Longman. 4. Klippel, F. (1994). Keep Talking. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press

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372 NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 Module -3 : p Teaching Literature -1 Unit : 9 p Importance of Literature 9.1 Introduction 9.2 Objectives 9.3 Revision of Module 1 and Module 2 9.4 Literature and its Genres 9.5 Roles of Literature in Language Teaching 9.6 Summary 9.7 Review Questions 9.8 References 9.1 Introduction This course deals with Methods and Concepts in the field of English Language Teaching. In the earlier modules you have looked at some aspects Grammar and Vocabulary. In this module we shall take a look at how some of the literary pieces can be used for teaching language. This will be interesting and also a little challenging. So let us begin with a revision of what you have learnt in the first two modules. Quickly answer the following questions in your own words based on the understanding of earlier modules. a. What is the importance of learning grammar to learning language? b. How many types of grammar are you familiar with? c. What are some of the common types of exercises used for teaching grammar? d. How essential is it to have a large vocabulary? e. Do we use all the words we know? How do we classify words we know based on our use? f. How do we develop our own vocabulary?

NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 373 Your response: a. b. c. d. e. f. 9.2 Objectives

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At the end of reading this unit, the learners will be able to: l Understand the

salient features of different genres of literature l Identify a given text as part of a specific genre l Find ways of using a literary text for teaching language skills. 9.3 Revision of Module 1 and Module 2 Let me give you some information regarding the previous modules. Grammar and language learning go hand in hand in a formal situation. That is, when we learn a new language under a tutor in a school, we learn it better when we become aware of grammar. (Mother tongue is learnt without the need for grammar.) Grammar helps us control the types of errors we make while using a language. There are quite a few types of grammar. They are broadly divided into two groups, the prescriptive grammars and descriptive grammars. Prescriptive grammars give us rules and ask us to follow the rules – e.g. Wren and Martin Grammar. Descriptive grammars tell us how language works or functions and guide us to analyse our own use of language. The modern day grammars, popularly known as Functional Grammars or Communicative Grammars are examples of this. Grammar is best learnt with practice. (This is similar to learning mathematics, you don't need to read, but do the sums and practice.) Similarly, grammar exercises help us gain competence in language. Some of the popular exercises are – blank filling, matching,

374 NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 sentence construction, transformation, spotting errors, etc. There are more types than what is mentioned here. Grammar provides us with knowledge of how to use language while the words help us capture the content of what to say. More important than grammar is knowledge of words. This is called vocabulary. We all know quite a few words in the languages we use. We do not use all of them in the same manner. Some words we understand when we read or listen to them. Such words are part of our passive vocabulary. There are other words which we not only understand, but also use it in our language to speak and write. Such words form part of our active vocabulary. In English, there are more than a million words (ten lakhs). Nobody who knows English knows all these words. We need just a few thousand words in our daily life to communicate with others. But this stock of vocabulary (called repertoire) keeps changing constantly. This means, we learn some new words and forget the words we already know. Thus the size of our vocabulary keeps changing constantly. How do we ensure we have good vocabulary? We need to keep reading. This is one of the best methods of learning new words, and retaining them in our memory. We also need to consciously use the words we come across, and this could be while reading or listening to someone. The larger the vocabulary one has, the better a communicator the person will be. This briefly summarises the previous two modules. Now we move to the present module on using literary texts. In this module, we have four units dealing with an introductory module talking about the importance of literature while the other three modules are pedagogic in their orientation. 9.4 Literature and its Genres Let us begin with a question. Do you know what literature is? How is it different from language? I am sure these words, literature and language are familiar to you, and let us quickly take a look at these two words. What is literature? A good dictionary defines it as 'a body of written work'. Literature is also something that lasts long (e.g. we still consider the works of Kalidasa and Shakespeare far beyond their age) and impacts the human life. Should literature be necessarily fiction or drama or poetry? Then what about terms like – medical literature, literature of science,

NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 375 literature of inventions, literature of historical facts, literature of music, etc. Literature can focus on any subject from medicine to music, engineering to ecology and science to social events. The canvass is really wide. What does this mean? In language teaching, we can use literature of various types and use them as texts for interpretation and language learning. However, for our purpose in this unit, we will look at literary texts and make references to other types of literature tangentially. There are quite a few definitions of literature available from noted authors. One of the definitions I personally like is 'Best words in the best order' by Coleridge. He used this definition with reference to poetry, but this is equally applicable to all genres of literature. If we accept this definition for our purposes of language teaching how useful is it? Language teaching has a focus on developing a learner's proficiency to use language. This is best done by exposing the learner to samples of good use, and literature is obviously one of the best forms of language expression. Hence it is certainly a valuable input to language teaching. Literature is perceived as different genres. What do we mean by genre? Would you like to respond? Your response: Genre means type. You must be familiar with the words 'genus' (singular) and 'genera' (plural). (You must be familiar with the term 'generic medicine' which is becoming popular these days). These words are taken from the science of biology and used while classifying animals and plants. Genus denotes a group of plants or animals which can have further smaller divisions called 'species'. Let us not go into those details. Literature is expressed in many types, and each type is called a 'genre'/ÈʹQnrY/ (this has a French origin, so check its pronunciation properly). We have novels (fiction), prose, poetry, drama, graphic novel, fantasy, science fiction, narrative, biographies, autobiographies, travelogues, diaries, and many more types. You may have read all these, or at least a few of these. You may in the space given below mention a work or two from each category. I will not give any examples. Recall the English textbooks you read in your higher secondary level or college days at the undergraduate level. You must have read a few essays, short stories which were anthologized. Similarly a few poems must have been put together in the form of an anthology. Along with these two, you must have read one or two novels and one or two plays. Do you remember the names of the novels and plays you studied? Can you mention those names in the space given below?

376 NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 a. Plays b. Novels c. Titles of some short stories d. Titles of some essays e. Titles of some poems. (If possible give a brief summary of each one of them. It is not compulsory though.) This task was to see how familiar you are with literature and the various genres that you have studied as an undergraduate student. How helpful was the study of literature in developing your language. The fact that you are able to read these lessons, understand them and also respond to the questions is a sign that you have learnt language reasonably well. But these uses need to be specified properly. Let us try and do this before concluding the unit. (Besides genres mentioned above, we also have other genres such as autobiography, biography, historical novels, fantasy, picaresque, science fiction, crime fiction, travelogue, and adventure stories.) Can you guess some of the benefits of using literature in language teaching? Note down your points here: Your response: 9.5 Roles of Literature in Language Teaching Literature has other roles to play in teaching language. If you recall your lessons in applied linguistics, one of the features of language is transmission of culture. Culture can best be taught using stories, exposing the learners to life in different parts of the world, and life sketches. All these form integral part of literature, and it becomes an excellent source for teaching appropriate language use in our society. Literature helps develop good reading skills. A literary text can be read independently (without the teacher's help) and this makes for developing good vocabulary as well as proper use of language. Good reading habits besides developing good comprehension skills also develop vocabulary and strengthen the writing skills of the learner. Plays which form an integral part of literature, help learners develop good spoken skills – expressions appropriate to context including various forms of addressing other people. The skills so developed can be harnessed to read and understand content subjects as well. This is the primary purpose of language teaching. Language, we should remember, is taught as a service subject in our schools and colleges.

NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 377 9.6 Summary Let us quickly recall what we have said so far in this unit. We began with a revision of what was learnt in the first two modules on Grammar and Vocabulary. Subsequently, we moved to defining literature and its uses. Finally, we looked at how using a literary text is useful in teaching learning language. Now you have some idea of why literature is used in language teaching. Here are a few books for you to read on this subject. 9.7 Review Questions a. How do we define literature and what are some of its features? b. What are the characteristics of good literature? c. Does literature become outdated with time? Give reasons d. How many genres of literature are you familiar with? Name them and given an example of each genre you have known. e. When were you introduced to the concept of genres in literature? f. What does a good anthology of prose include? Does it represent different genres? g. Is literature basically different from language? h. Do you think literature can be used for language teaching? i. What are some of the strategies for using literature in the language class? j. What are some of the literary texts you have read recently, and how do you think these have helped you learn language? k. What are some of the language skills that can be best developed using literature? l. Does teaching with a focus on language neglect literary studies? 9.8 References a. Lazar, Gillian. (1996). Literature and Language Teaching. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. b. Joan, Collie and Slater. (1988). Literature in the Language Classroom: A resource book of ideas and activities. (Cambridge Handbook for Language Teachers). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

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l PGEL - 1&2 Unit -10 p Teaching Prose 10.1 Introduction 10.2 Objectives 10.3 Prose and its forms 10.4 Functions of Prose Forms 10.4.1 Narrative 10.4.2 Descriptive 10.4.3 Explication 10.5 Teaching a Prose piece 10.6 Summary 10.7 Review Questions 10.8 References 10.1 Introduction In the previous unit, we looked at literature and its uses in language teaching. That was a general discussion, and in this unit, we shall take up one of the genres – the prose. In discussing teaching of prose, we will look at different types of prose texts we can have and illustrate each type with a small sample. Towards the end of the unit, we shall discuss in detail how a prose piece can be taught. 10.2 Objectives

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After going through this unit, the students will be able to: l Understand the term

prose as a genre of literature. l Identify different types of prose texts. l Understand how a piece of prose can be analysed for teaching l Develop a lesson plan for teaching prose.

10.3 Prose and its forms Let us begin with an understanding of the term Prose. Perhaps, it is easier to define it using negative terms: It is not poetry, it is not drama. A piece of writing that is neither a poem nor a play can be called as prose. But this is not helpful. Let us go about it a little differently. As children, you must have listened to several stories. These stories must have been narrated by someone who was much older than you. (India had this excellent tradition of storytelling by the grandparents. Unfortunately, we are fast losing this practice due to the increasing number of nuclear families.) The stories that were narrated were oral. The same stories can be written down for many people to read. While writing the stories, we make some changes, for example, the long pauses, some repetitions, a few diversions, a few questions that make the story interactive are sacrificed. The story that is written will be a contiguous narrative which an individual can read and enjoy. The writing of a story in this manner is one form of prose. Read the last sentence of the previous paragraph once again. It says 'one form of prose', which means there are other forms as well. Yes, there are. Now you are familiar with one form of prose. Think of other pieces that look like a story, but are different in their purpose and make a list in the space given below: Your response: 10.4 Functions of Prose Forms Have you read an article in a newspaper? Do you receive letters on email or by post? Have you in your schools written science laboratory journals? Have you come across reports? And finally, what about the unit you are reading now? All these and many more examples constitute what we call 'prose'. Each piece has a different function to perform, and let us classify prose based on the functions they perform. 10.4.1 Narrative We began with a story. What type of language function is it? I am sure this is an easy question, and you know the answer to this. Yes, it is narration. A story is narrated. A story is a narrative. Stories can be of different length. Some stories are long, some are very short, some have a definite ending, some do not have any ending (open-ended stories) etc. A very long story is called a novel. You have read several novels in English

and perhaps in Bangla. You know how long a novel can be. Some novels are very long running into nearly a thousand pages. Some are hardly sixty to eighty pages. The length of a novel does not decide its quality, there are other factors, and to discuss that aspect is not within the scope of this unit. What are the features of a narrative? There is a narrator, or a person who tells the story or something which is in the form of an anecdote or an incident. Often the narrator can be the author. The narrative can be in the first person or the second person or the third person. More often than not, narratives are in first person. This is to ensure the involvement of the reader. Task: Can you mention some instances where narration is essential in our life? Your response: Normally children resort to narrating the day's happenings in the school as soon as they come back. We tend to recall the day and narrate some special incidents and share them with our friends and family members. We narrate the stories of movies we have watched and discuss them with friends. While writing we narrate some incidents when we write letters. Very short narrations related to life of a person are called 'anecdotes'. These are very popular, and you have several famous anecdotes about Akbar and Birbal, the conversations between Ramakrishna and Narendra (Vivekananda). 10.4.2 Descriptive The second type of prose is what we call a 'descriptive' piece. This provides for description of an object, or a place or a person or an event. In our classroom we may be asked to describe something – an animal, or a plant, or an object. (This was a common practice in early school days.) A description is objective and it needs to be systematic. When a person reads the description, he/she should be able to imagine the object. This often happens in your textbooks. A diagram is given, and the lesson describes what is there in the diagram – a picture describes something without words, and a paragraph draws something without lines. This is a good source of language exercises in our classrooms. We use descriptions in our letters, our reports, the answers we write in our examinations, and for several other purposes. Descriptions are also used in articles that you read in the newspapers, and these may relate to some incidents of the recent or distant past.

Task: Mention a few instances when you use descriptions in your writing? Your respnse: We often do this in our letters, reports, and complaints. Quite a lot of writing is descriptive in nature. 10.4.3 Explication This is the third type of prose which is also quite popular. Here we explain things. Generally, when concepts need to be presented to an outsider, explication becomes an essential feature. For example, I am using a mixture of narration and explication. Occasionally, I am also using a bit of description, but largely, this piece of writing is explication and narration. When you read books on science, or other content subjects, they have detailed explications. You may recall the lessons you have read in science, geography, social sciences and other subjects where concepts like transpiration (biology), savannah grasslands (geography), and parliamentary system of governance (social sciences) are explained. In life we resort to explaining things with children and youngsters to help them understand difficult concepts. To the categories mentioned so far, we can add terms like extrapolation, critical analysis, etc. We shall not discuss these things here. Having discussed what is prose and the types of prose texts that we have, let us now go to the main part of the unit. How to teach prose in our classrooms? How do we use a prose piece for teaching language in the classroom? What are the purposes of teaching prose? We also look at the reasons for teaching prose. 10.5 Teaching a Prose piece We know that language is a set of skills. One of the important skills of language is reading. To help someone develop this skill, we need materials in the form of written texts. Prose forms the best type of reading materials for us to use in the class. You must have had a look at several textbooks in use at the school and college levels. These books include more prose pieces than poems and plays. The reason for this is easy to understand, prose lends itself to reading more easily than poems and plays. (While reading poems and plays, we need to be careful with pronunciation, intonation, rhythm and other related factors. Prose can be read without paying too much attention to any of these factors.) Before we proceed, mention a few interesting reading lessons you have had in school. If possible, mention why you remember these lessons. Write your answers in the space given below:

Your response: Having understood one reason for teaching prose, let us take a look at one more use. Reading a prose text exposes us to good use of language. While going through the text, we come across several words and a few sentence structures. These get registered in our memory unconsciously and resurface when we use the language either for writing or speaking. In simple words, reading a text helps us develop our vocabulary as well as grammar. While focusing our attention on meaning, we learn these without our realizing it. In fact, this is a good process of learning a language. We are now sure of two reasons for using prose to teach language. The primary purpose is to develop reading comprehension (meaning focus) and the secondary purpose is to acquire words and grammatical structures. Both are equally important aspects of language use. Are there some more uses of prose in a language classroom? We will think about it a little later. Having looked at the major reasons, we will now move on to the question 'how' to teach a prose lesson. For this we will use a small piece of text (a story) and look at the steps to follow while teaching prose lesson. Here is the text, do not read it now. You may read a little later. The Appointment There was a merchant in Bagdad who sent his servant to market to buy provisions, and in a little while the servant came back, white and trembling, and said, "Master, just now when I was in the marketplace, I was jostled by a woman in the crowd, and when I turned I saw it was Death that jostled me. She looked at me and made a threatening gesture, now, lend me your horse, and I will ride away from this city and avoid my fate. I will go to Samarra and there Death will not find me." The merchant lent him his best horse, and the servant mounted it, and he dug his spurs in its flanks and as fast as the horse could gallop he went. Then the merchant went down to the marketplace and he saw me standing in the crowd and he came to me and said, "Why did you make a threating gesture to my servant when you saw him this morning?" "That was not a threatening gesture", I said, "It was only a start of surprise. I was astonished to see him here in Bagdad, for I have an appointment with him tonight in Samarra."

All reading lessons begin with a pre-task. The purpose of the pre-task is to motivate the learners to read the lesson. It can introduce the theme of the lesson, some important words that are used in it as well as the grammatical structures. For this small piece, let us think of a pre-task which also takes care of the uncommon (not difficult) words and the grammar focus. The pre-reading task could have a few questions related to the theme. For the text given above, you may ask questions like: Have you had any unusual experience in your life? Do you think supernatural creatures exist? Do you know any stories or instances involving supernatural elements? When you elicit answers, you may note down a few words and phrases the students use on the chalkboard. At the same time, you can draw their attention to terms used in horse riding – stirrups, flanks (sides), gallop, and a few words associated with fear – frightened, go white with fear, surprised, shocked, etc. As part of grammar, you may check their knowledge of reported speech as well as some prepositions and conjunctions. Having gone through the pre-reading task (the questions can be given the previous day to help the students think about the answers), which takes about six to seven minutes, provide a brief introduction to the passage – you will read a story about an unusual incident and write two pre-reading questions on the board. The questions could be: a. Do you really think the merchant liked his servant a lot? Give some evidence for this. b. Does the ending of the story surprise you? Did you expect the story would end this way? These questions will motivate them to read, or provide a purpose for reading the story. These questions are called lead questions – they lead the students to read. Having written these questions, allow the students to read the lesson silently. Allow them to pair up and discuss the story. Give adequate time to read it more than once. Once, all of them have read the story, ask a few questions (other than the two lead questions you have written on the board). The questions you ask now should elicit short answers and the same answer may be elicited by more than one question. Alternately, each question may elicit more than one answer depending on the students' understanding of the text. Don't ask an impossible question (something not given in the text e.g. How long was the servant working for the merchant?) Your questions could be inferential (take a look at the lead questions). Once you are sure the students are able to answer all the questions, provide a shadow summary. This is a summary with a few fact wrongly

stated, and check whether the students can locate the errors and correct them. Alternately, provide the summary with a few gaps in between and check whether the students can fill in the blanks to complete the summary. You may conclude the class by asking students to narrate the story in as many different ways as possible – narrate in first person, or third person, or in plural (a group experiencing this) or change the tense, or not use direct speech etc. The number of changes you can make are left to your imagination. This is just one way in which prose can be taught. There are many more ways, and you can gather more ways by looking at some good books suggested at the end of this unit. 10.6 Summary Let us now conclude this unit with a quick summary. We began with a summary of Unit 9 on what is literature, and established how prose is one form of literature. We looked at different types of prose available to us and how story is one popular form of prose included in our textbooks. We finally saw one way in which a small story can be taught to an intermediate class. In the next unit we shall look at how a poem can be taught. 10.7 Review Questions a. How is prose a distinct genre of literature? b. How many types of prose have been discussed in this unit? Can you give an example for each? c. Which is the most popular form of prose and why? d. Which form of prose do we use more often in our life? e.g. for writing letters etc. e. Are you familiar with any other form of prose than the three types mentioned here? Mention an example. f. What language skill can best be developed using prose as a source? g. What other aspects of language can also be taught using prose in the classroom? h. What are the steps one needs to follow while teaching reading?

i. How is pre-reading task relevant to teaching reading? Is this a classroom strategy or outside the classroom strategy? j. Are pre-reading questions the same as pre-reading tasks? k. What questions can you frame based on the story – The Appointment? l. How were you taught a story in your student days? Mention some of the features of that lesson. 10.8 References a.

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386 NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 Unit - 11 p Teaching Short Stories Structure 11.1 Introduction 11.2 Objectives 11.3 Poem: Definition and Structure 11.4 Types of Poems 11.4.1 Ballads 11.4.2 Sonnet 11.4.3 Elegy 11.4.4 Ode 11.4.5 Free Verse 11.5 Uses of Poem for Teaching English Language 11.6 Teaching a Poem 11.7 Summary 11.8 Review Questions 11.9 References 11.1Introduction This unit is similar in its structure to the previous unit, except for the fact we will discuss the teaching of poetry. In this unit we shall look at the term poetry for its various meanings, some of its characteristics, the varieties of poems we have in English literature, and finally discuss the reasons for teaching poetry as well as a plan for teaching it.
11.2
Objectives

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After going through this unit, the learners will be able to: l Understand the term

poetry as it is used in literature l Identify different forms of poetry l Understand the reasons for teaching poetry and NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 387 l Teach a poem in the class. 11.3 Poem: Definition and Structure Before we start this unit, as usual, let us express our views on what a poem is. You have come across this term since your school days, and you must have read quite a few poems by now. You must have some broad idea of what a poem is, and write down your thoughts in the space below: Your response: We often say, 'a poem is a metrical composition'. This definition needs a bit of explanation. There are two words that need a proper understanding – metrical and composition. Let us take a look at these words. 'Metrical' comes from the word meter. (Not a term associated with the measurement of length) This word needs to be understood in terms of literary studies, especially a branch called Prosody. One of the topics dealt with while studying prosody is scansion. Scansion comes from the word 'scan' which means to take a quick but a comprehensive look at something. The scansion on the other hand, takes a close look at every line, in fact every syllable in a line in the poem. Let us understand this better. In your spoken English course, you have come across terms like – syllable, stressed syllable, word stress, sentence stress, intonation, and rhythm. These words are also used while analysing a poem especially to see the meter in which the lines are written. Words are made of syllables. Each word has one syllable that is stressed. A group of words strung together form a line in the poem. The number of syllables in every line of the poem remain the same and they also follow a pattern – e.g. unstressed syllable followed by a stressed syllable (Iambic); or stressed followed by unstressed (Trochaic); or stressed followed by another stressed (Spondaic); or unstressed, unstressed and stressed (Anapaestic); or stressed syllable followed by two unstressed syllables (Dactylic). Each of these combinations is called a foot, and depending on the number of feet, you have either a pentameter (five feet) or a tetrameter (four feet). The number of feet, decide the length of a line in a poem. When lines like these are organised in a meaningful manner, and can be based on a theme, we have a poem. To understand these concepts we need some examples. Go to a good anthology of poems, start reading the poems aloud and consciously, try to identify the pattern of each foot, and find out what meter the poem uses.
388 NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 Shall I compare thee to a summer's day(Shakespeare) You have five feet, each with an unstressed syllable followed by a stressed syllable. This is an example of Iambic Pentameter. I wandered lonely as a cloud(Wordsworth) Can you find out what meter this is? This is Iambic tetrameter. I have shown a way of indicating the stressed and unstressed syllables differently. You can use the same technique and analyse other poems. Here are a few lines from different poems for you to mark the stressed syllables and identify the number of feet in each line. a. One impulse from the vernal woods Can teach you more of men and mortals could. (Wordsworth) b. Curfew tolls the knell of parting day (Robert Burns) c. Thou still unravished bride of quietness. (John Keats) d. In the room women come and go (T S Eliot) e. I have spread my dreams under your feet (W B Yeats) I am sure you enjoyed doing this work. 11.4 Types of Poems Having looked at what poetry is we shall quickly take a look at the types of poems that are identified traditionally in English literature. You must be familiar with some names, and you may write those names in the space given below: Your response: We have quite a few types of poems in traditional English literature. Some of the popular ones are as follows: 11.4.1 Ballads These are some of the oldest form of poems we have. These are usually sung to the accompaniment of a stringed instrument, and they have a story to tell us. The story usually centres on some adventure or a romantic relation between two young people. Some of the best known ballads are Sir Patrick Spence, and La Belle Dame Sans Mercy. Christabel is also a ballad written by Coleridge.

NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 389 11.4.2 Sonnets These are short poems with just fourteen lines. There are two types of sonnets: the Petrarchan, and the Shakespearean. They have a fixed rhyme scheme and can be written as first eight lines separated by last six lines. They are also written as three stanzas with four lines each and conclude with a couplet. 11.4.3 Elegies Elegy is a poem written on the death of a person in his/her honour and memory. There are quite a few famous elegies,Lycidas by Milton is a well-known elegy. This brings out the pathos on the loss of a friend, and also glorifies the qualities of the departed person. 11.4.4 Odes An ode is a song based on a theme. Keats has written five odes which are famous and also beautiful – Ode on a Grecian Urn, Ode to a Nightingale, and Ode to Autumn are some of the best known odes. Dryden, Wordsworth and Shelley have also written some odes. 11.4.1 Free Verse This is a more recent variety. Here the poet does not stick to the meter, each line can have a different length and the poem could even read as a piece of refined prose. T S Eliot uses this style in his poems Love Song of Alfred J Prufrock and The Hollow Men. G M Hopkins used this style earlier in some of his poems. To these varieties, we can add Satire, and from the modern day versions we have Limericks and Haikus. We will not discuss these varieties here, you may look up a book on History of Literature and find more information. Before we proceed further, since you have read several poems to date, please give two examples for each variety explained above. Your response: 11.5 Uses of Poem for Teaching English Language So far you have looked at what is poetry, and how many types of poems we have. You have also provided examples of some poems. These need to be verified by you. We

390 NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 will now proceed to see, what the uses of learning a poem are and how it can be taught in a class. We know the reasons for using a prose lesson for teaching English language. We have stated them explicitly in the previous unit. Based on that understanding, can you mention some possible uses of using a poem in the language classroom? Your response: While we can use a prose lesson for teaching grammar, provide illustrations of language use, develop vocabulary, there are a few other reasons for teaching a poem. The language of poetry need not always be grammatical – a poet has a licence (freedom) to alter the rules for creating an effect. Such alterations are called stylistic devices, such as foregrounding, using imagery, coining a word etc. Look at the following examples: I caught this morning morning's minion, (Hopkins) This morning I caught the morning's minion (prose version) You can see how different the prose version reads in comparison with what Hopkins has said. He has just changed the order of words to bring a different effect on the readers. You must have come across several examples of this type. From this example, we find that while a poem may not be a very good source for teaching grammar, it can still help us build our vocabulary, it can help us express our ideas in a manner other than the conventional way e.g. A grief ago (Dylan Thomas). This is an enrichment activity. Besides this, we will understand the role of rhyme and rhythm in language. Rhyme scheme is easy to understand, while for rhythm I will give an example. Rhythm is the regular beat that one can keep while speaking or reading a poem. English language is characterised by stress timed rhythm (not syllable timed as it is in most Indian languages). To understand this concept, reciting the nursery rhymes is helpful. Most poems have a rhythm that approximates the English speech. Go back to the section where we have illustrated different types of feet and meter. Read those lines aloud with proper stress, and you will see the rhythm of English speech. A poem can be taught to develop vocabulary, sensitising us to rhyme scheme, understanding the rhythm of speech, and also use of stylistic devices such as imagery and symbolism. A poem necessarily needs to be read aloud and enjoyed. The meaning of a poem is revealed more through the use of imagery and symbolism rather than the surface meaning of the words. We shall look at this when we discuss how to teach a poem.

NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 391 11.6 Teaching a Poem In this last section, we shall look at a poem and see how it can be taught. Here is a poem, and just read it aloud a couple of times. A slumber did my spirit seal— I had no human fears. She seemed a thing that could not feel The touch of earthly years. No motion has she now, no force— She neither hears nor sees, Rolled round in earth's diurnal course With rocks and stones and trees. Can you guess who the poet is? What are your reasons for your guess? Please write your answers in the space given below: Your response: This poem is by William Wordsworth, and it is one of the five Lucy poems. He wrote these poems in her memory after she passed away. His sadness at her death forms the theme of all the Lucy poems. A lesson on teaching a poem can begin with a pre-reading task. This can help motivate the learners to appreciate the poem. For this poem, let us plan a pre-reading task: Have you ever been separated from a person you like a lot – a friend or a relative? Can you describe your feelings at the time of parting with your friend? What words express your feelings best? What do you call such emotions? These questions need not be asked in a bunch. You could space them, elicit responses and prompt your learners with a few expressions and finally consolidate all the responses and summarise them for the class. You could also choose one of the learners to consolidate and summarise. Alternatively, you could ask your students to meet a few people in the neighbourhood who are lonely and ask them about their past life and the people they had lived with earlier. Once you have done this, read the poem aloud to the learners. Let them not look at the poem (let them keep their books closed), but just listen to it for its rhyme and rhythm.

392 NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 Let the sound of the poem make an impact on them. Read the poem slowly and deliberately such that each word sinks into the learner to enjoy. Having read the poem, you may ask them to open the books, and read the poem a second time. This gives the learners an opportunity to relate the sounds they listen to the words as printed on the page. Their involvement in listening to the poem becomes greater and they enjoy the poem. Allow the learners to read the poem aloud for a while and draw their attention to unfamiliar words: slumber, human fears, diurnal etc. Some students may know the meanings of these words. Try and help them explore the meaning by creating contexts – slumber chamber; slumber effect, slumber shade, are the phrases you can use and illustrate these pictorially and help the students derive the meaning of the word. 'Human fears' is a philosophical expression. You can elicit responses on some of the common fears we have as human beings, from there you can extrapolate it to the fear of ageing and dying. The term diurnal can be explained using contrasting words. Check if they are familiar with the word 'nocturnal' and use this word in expressions like nocturnal animals, nocturnal habitat etc. Nocturnal refers to things associated with the night, and the term diurnal is the opposite of it. With this the learners will be able to arrive at the meaning of the word diurnal. The next step will deal with interpretation. You can begin with asking some questions. Obviously there are two stanzas of four lines each. How are they related to each other? Try and elicit answers by asking some prop questions. You may use questions like: a. What does line 1 of the poem talk about? Slumber of the spirit. b. What do you understand by this? I had become unaware of my surroundings, I was not conscious of what was happening around me. c. The second line talks about human fears. What are some of the common human fears? Fear of losing the present time, fear of getting old, etc. d. Can you now relate the two lines? Being young, and happy, I did not have any human fears. You can continue in this manner till you get to the end of the stanza. Later, you may elicit answers with the theme of the second stanza and show the relationship that exists between the two. The first stanza reflects the pride of the poet as a young man in love with his girl (Lucy) and thinks she is immortal. In the second stanza, we see that Lucy is dead and has

NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 393 become part of nature. Nature is eternal, and his idea of Lucy being immortal becomes a reality with her death. This is a strange relationship. This can be called harsh truth. The emotion is expressed using a figure of speech called irony. Now look at the rhyme scheme. Read out the last word in each line and help the learners arrive at the following rhyme scheme abab, in the first stanza and cdcd in the second stanza. Finally, ask them to read the poem once or twice and give a task. The task is to look for the rhyme scheme and ironical expressions in the following poem. The Rainy Day The day is cold, dark and dreary, It rains and the wind is never weary, The vine still clings to the mouldering wall, But at every gust the dead leaves fall, And the day is dark and dreary. My life is cold, dark, and dreary, It rains, and the wind is never weary, My thoughts still cling to the mouldering past, But the hopes of youth fall thick in the blast, And the days are dark and dreary. Be still, sad heart and cease repining, Behind the clouds is the Sun still shining, Thy fate is the common fate of all, Into each life some rain must fall, Some days must be dark and dreary. H W Longfellow Do you like this poem? Why do you like this poem? How is this different from Wordsworth's poem? Point out the rhyme scheme used in each stanza. Where do you find instances of irony?

394 NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 What other figure of speech you are aware of is used in this poem? Why does the poet call this poem 'The Rainy Day' and not 'A Rainy Day'? That brings us to the end of this unit. Let us quickly revise what we have discussed so far and go to the last unit of this module. 11.7 Summary We began the unit with a quick revision of the previous module which discusses the teaching of prose. We looked at some definitions of the term poetry and also understood some of its features. We became familiar with terms like foot and meter and saw a few examples of different types of feet and meter. Finally, we looked at a poem and saw how it can be taught in a school classroom. Remember, a poem is meant for reading aloud and enjoying it for its rhythm and rhyme scheme first. As you keep reading a poem, the meaning gets understood and your pleasure increases. Here are a few books you can read to look at how poems are analysed. 11.8 Review Questions a. What are some of the distinct features of a poem? b. How is a poem different from a prose? c. Can you define a meter? How many meters are there in English? d. How does the meter contribute to the length of a line in a poem? e. Define rhythm and differentiate it from rhyme. From the examples given in the unit illustrate these two terms. f. How many types of poems have been mentioned in this unit? Give an example for each type? g. Are you aware of other types of poems in your language? Mention one or two examples. e.g. Gazals in Urdu and Hindi h. What are some of the important reasons for teaching a poem in a language class? i. Why do we need to read a poem aloud and not silently?

NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 395 j. Can we use the term comprehension while teaching a poem? Give your reasons. k. How does a poem use a variety of figures of speech to convey meaning? l. Give some examples of symbolism, and irony. 11.9 References a. Forrester, Jean. (1968). Teaching Without Lecturing. Madras: Oxford University Press. b. Joan, Collie and Slater. (1988). Literature in the Language Classroom: A resource book of ideas and activities. (Cambridge Handbook for Language Teachers). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. c.

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396 NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 Unit - 12 p Teaching Poetry Structure 12.1 Introduction 12.2 Objectives 12.3 Revision of Unit 10 and Unit 11 12.4 Classification of Literary Forms 12.4.1 Poem 12.4.2 Drama 12.4.3 Fiction 12.4.4 Non-fictional Prose 12.5 Conclusion 12.6 Review Questions 12.7 Reading List 12.1 Introduction The focus of this entire module has been on using literature for language teaching. In the first unit of this module (Unit 9) we looked at the definition of literature, and in discussing what literature is, we also mentioned terms like types of literature or genre /ÈˈQnrY/. We will recall some of it here and discuss different form of literature here. 12.2
Objectives

Become familiar with the names of different forms of literature b. Understand some features of each form c. Become familiar with some examples of each form d. Will be able to identify the form a book belongs to.
NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 397 Poetry Poems Sonnets Ballads Odes Lyrics Songs Couplets Haiku Limericks Drama Comedies Tragedies Tragicomedies Romance Farce Melodrama Absurd Poetic drama Fiction Novels Short Stories Tales Anecdotes Legends Myths Graphic novels Nonfiction Essays Biographies Autobiographies Diaries Speeches Descriptions Prospectus Instruction sheets Reports 12.3 Revision of Units 10 and 11 Before we proceed further, let us recall your learning in units 10 and 11. In these two units you have looked at two different genres of literature - prose and poetry. Now we shall look at a few more genres and the types of subdivisions each genre can have. What did you learn about prose and poetry? How are these two forms different? Mention briefly your understanding based on the reading of the two units. Your response: Prose inclues fiction and nonfiction. This forms the bulk of writing, and we come across prose more often than other forms of literature. This form of literature is best used for developing reading skills, and improving the vocabulary of the learner. Prose also provides good illustrations of grammatical structures. Poetry on the other hand helps us use language in a beautiful and pleasing manner. We read poetry aloud to enjoy its rhyme scheme and also the rhythm. That makes a brief answer the questions. 12.4 Classification of Literary Forms Look at the flow chart given below. Take a proper look and understand how the literary forms are classified. Try to describe this grid in your own words. Your response: Classification of Literary Forms (Genres)
398 NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 It is clear from this grid (classification table) that literary forms can be broadly divided into four categories. These are large categories and are confined to the variety we find in literary texts. Content writing can have other forms and these are not discussed here. The four categories mentioned are Poetry, Drama, Fiction and Nonfiction. Each of these categories has been sub-divided into the varieties of forms that they include. However, the varieties mentioned are not exhaustive, and more varieties can be added. We shall restrict ourselves to these varieties for our discussion. 12.4.1 Poetry This is a popular form of literature, and almost everyone is familiar with this form. Poetry comes naturally to language and we perceive this in the numerous folk songs that we hear in different languages. Folk songs are typical to each language and music is integrated into them. English is no exception. Ballads are in fact folk songs and are sung to the accompaniment of stringed instruments. We have listed eight varieties of poems in our grid. Let us look at some of these varieties and also provide names of one or two poems as illustrations. We will not provide the text of the poems, you can get these by browsing the net. The first of these varieties we have mentioned is called Poems. This is a generic term and does not specifically refer to one variety. The rest of the varieties are all poems. In English literature, the Romantic period (nineteenth century) is supposed to have produced the richest poetry. We had major poets like Wordsworth, Coleridge, Blake, Byron, Keats, Shelley, Browning and Burns during this period. Each one of them produced large volumes of poetry and they had variety in them. i. Sonnets: We will begin with sonnets. Sonnets are short poems of no more than fourteen lines. Very often they are said to be very personal and deal with an experience that touches the poet's life in an emotional way. These could have varied themes of love, dejection, sadness, wonder, philosophical outlook or humour. There are typically two types of sonnets – the Petrarchan (Italian) sonnets and the Shakespearean sonnets. The Petrarchan sonnets were divided into two parts – the first eight lines called the octave and the next six lines called the sestet. Sestet provided a solution to the problem raised in the octave. Both styles of sonnets are written to this

399 day. Besides Wordsworth and Keats, Elizabeth Barrett Browning wrote some of her sonnets in the Petrarchan style. Shakespearean sonnets had three stanzas of four lines each and the sonnet ended with a couplet. Shakespeare wrote more than one hundred fifty four sonnets in this style and made this form popular. All decent libraries have copies of complete works of Shakespeare which include all the sonnets. ii. Ballads: Having looked at what sonnets are, let us move to Ballads. These are quite ancient forms of poems that are available to us. These were popular even during the pre- Shakespearean day, and often the names of the poets are also lost to us. Ancient ballads were collected, curated and published in the form of a volume by Bishop Percy during early eighteenth century under the title Reliques of Ancient English Poetry. This is a valuable work that has been handed down to us. Some of the best known ballads Keats' 'La Belle Dame Sans Merci'; Yeats' 'Second Coming'; Tennyson's 'Lady of Shallot', Wordsworth's 'Solitary Reaper'; Coleridge's 'Rime of the Ancient Mariner' are some of the famous examples. iii. Odes: The third variety is the ode, which actually means a song to be sung. It is generally written in appreciation of a person or a thing. (Dryden's Alexander's Feast; Keats' Ode on a Grecian Urn) These originated in Greece, and are attributed to Pindar; in fact, the odes are called Pindaric Odes. Some of the best odes were written by Keats (the five famous odes), and Shelley's Ode to West wind are well known poems. iv. Lyrics and Songs: We will not discuss this here. These are stylistic variants and you will find examples of lyricism in the varieties discussed earlier. Ballads and odes are songs. v. Couplets: A few poets expressed their ideas crisply in two lines. Though the poem was longer than two lines, each couplet expressed one complete thought which was carried forward as part of the larger theme of the poem. Alexander Pope was one of the best known poets who popularised couplets –which are memorable. A story is popular about him

being chastised by his father for writing poems. When it was his turn to apologise, what he said came in the form of a couplet: 'Father, father, mercy take, I shall never verses make.' When Newton died, he was commissioned to write the epitaph which reads as follows: Nature and nature's laws all lay hid in night. God said, 'Let Newton be!', and then there was light.' Dryden was also known for his heroic couplets, and these were later picked up by several younger poets. Sanskrit literature is popular for its couplets based on providing value based lessons. vi. Haiku and Limericks: Haiku is a recent addition to the genre of poetry in English. This style of writing poems has been borrowed from Japanese poetry. Like a couplet (which is restricted to two lines), a Haiku is restricted to seventeen syllables arranged in three lines. The lines need not rhyme, but shouldconvey a complete meaning. Limericks like Haiku are also short poems of five lines each with a definite rhyming scheme. Often, limericks are bordered on humour, but not without a message. The authors of limericks are often not known. Take a look at this limerick There was a lady from Niger, Who went for a ride on a tiger. They returned from the ride, With the lady inside And a smile on the face of the tiger! I am sure you enjoyed reading this limerick, which has humour as well as caution on choosing a ride. Edward Lear has written some of the best limericks to date. This brings us to the close of discussion on different forms of poetry. We shall now proceed to look at Drama in the next section. 12.4.2 Drama Drama is a major genre which acquired popularity during the Elizabethan period with playwrights like Shakespeare and Marlow. Drama was a popular form of literature in

ancient India and Greece, and the English theatre has adopted the form from both these sources. Drama and Shakespeare have been synonymous. Shakespeare introduced quite a few types of plays – Tragedies, Comedies, Tragi-comedies, Historical plays, and Romances. These largely form the varieties and the characteristics of each one of them remain the same. A Drama portrays life of a person, period or a family. It could borrow themes from history, epics, popular legends, and day to day life. The technique of presenting a real life story accounts for the success of drama. Let us briefly look at some types and provide names of a couple of popular plays as illustrations. i. Tragedy This is a play which centres on the fall of a hero. Hero is a famous person, (a king, baron, queen, a brave soldier, a well-known merchant, or a wealthy lord). The hero has several good qualities, but also has a few weaknesses (hamartia) due to which he falls from grace. That fall accounts for the tragedy. (In the Indian plays, tragedies were not accepted, and most plays ended on a happy note. But Greek plays were profound tragedies – Oedipus Rex, Agamemnon, and Hippolytus). Shakespeare was known for his tragedies such as King Lear, Hamlet, Julius Ceaser, Macbeth, and Romeo and Juliet. Marlow a contemporary of Shakespeare also wrote some tragedies and the best known play of his is Doctor Faustus is a famous tragedy. ii. Comedies Comedies largely dealt with social issues based on the life of ordinary people. It could reflect the nuances as they existed in the society and it held a mirror to the society. There have been a large number of comedies across the ages in English literature. Shakespeare did write a few comedies such as Midsummer Night's Dream, Two Gentleman of Verona, The Merchant of Venice, and All's Well that Ends Well. Apart from this, immediately after the Elizabethan period (when Shakespeare wrote and produced his plays) the Restoration Drama became popular. Some of the comedies of this era are Rivals, School for Scandal, Way of the World and She Stoops to Conquer. Early twentieth century was marked by good comedies which were called Farce. George Bernard Shaw was a pioneer in the field and his plays like Arms and the Man, Candida, Major Barbara, and Doctor's Dilemma. Galsworthy, Oscar Wilde and other contemporaries of Shaw

402 NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 also wrote comedies. Around this time, theatre was popular in Europe and plays in English, French, Italian, Norwegian and German languages were popular. iii. Romances Romances were plays which glorified nature and the life of peasants in the country. There was no struggle, and it generally talked about young couple who got separated, pined for each other and finally got together with divine intervention (deu-ex-machina). AWinter's Tale by Shakespeare is an example of such plays. iv. Tragi-comedies Merchant of Venice is a good example of a tragi-comedy. This play recounts the story of a merchant who loses all his wealth due to a storm in the sea and is harassed by a Jew (money lender). His friend who assumes the role of a lawyer, saves him from the Jew and with divine intervention the wrecked ship reaches the shore. v. Absurd Plays These are a new generation plays that were experimented at the beginning of the last century. This movement began in France and soon caught the attention of playwrights in other parts of the continent. Today, we have absurd plays in Indian languages including Bangla. (BadalSarkar's plays EvamIndrajit, PaglaGhoda are some plays in this category). The best known playwrights in this category are Samuel Beckett and Edward Albee. Waiting for Godot by Beckett has made a history in the field of theatre. vi. Poetic Drama This is a variation in style that was ushered in during the twentieth century. Shakespeare used this technique but this has not been noticed. This form of using poetry in drama was also popular in ancient Indian literature and it was called ChampuKavya. T S Eliot was well known for his poetic play – Murder in the Cathedral. W B Yeats and J M Synge also wrote similar plays. Yeats is said to have been influenced by the Japanese theatre that staged Noh plays. This brings us to the close of discussion on drama. In the next section we will look at Fiction briefly. Before doing so, here is a small task for you. How well can you compare the poetry in English with the development of poetry in Bangla? Give examples and show the similarities and differences.

NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 403 Your response: 12.4.3 Fiction In the previous unit we looked at the teaching of prose. While discussing prose, we said, it constitutes the largest part of literature and several types of writing happen in prose. One major part of prose is Fiction (which means, an imaginary story) and this has several sub-categories within. We shall take a look at some of these for our understanding. i. Novels There are very few of us who are not familiar with the term novel. Novel means something new. It tells us a story with which we are familiar, but in a new way. Hence it is called a novel. Novel as a genre was first used in English literature during the seventeenth century. (English was influenced by novels in Spanish language Don Quixote). Most novels during this period described an adventure where the hero was an ardent traveller and met with new experiences in life. Some of the well-known novels are Robinson Crusoe, Gulliver's Travels, Joseph Andrews, and Pilgrims Progress. Later in the nineteenth century, the novel developed into a mature form and dealt with social problems and had a curative effect on the readers. Charles Dickens, Jane Austen, Bronte sisters were some of the famous authors. The tradition of writing novels has continued to this day and we have a variety of novels dealing with varied themes such as histories, adventure, social drama, scientific discoveries, fantasy, espionage, travel and political commentary. Indian authors have also contributed to the volume of fiction produced in the world. (The tradition of writing novels in ancient India began in sixth century with BanaBhatta'sKadambari and Dandi'sDasha Kumara Charita.) ii. Short stories, tales and anecdotes Short stories are miniaturised novels. They have a similar structure as a novel (a plot, characters, developments, struggle, resolving the struggle etc.). There are no strict guidelines on how short or long a story could be. There are stories that are hardly a sentence or two to some stories running to more than fifty pages. However, all stories have similar structure that binds them. The stories are also recognised as tales (which are largely oral in tradition) and sometimes anecdotes also pass off for stories. (Anecdotes are narration of some incidents which are personal.)Rabindranath Tagore is one of the best short story writers from India.

iii. Legends and Myths Legend is a term used in two senses. One of the meanings is assigned to an ancient story that has been handed down to us. The origins of such a story are not traceable. In India we have quite a few legends that have been handed down to us from our parents and grandparents. This is true of all cultures. In most languages, the proverbs we use have a legend to support them. You can think on these lines and collect some legends. When you visit certain religious places, or ancient monuments, you will get to hear of several legends – I am told there is a village in UttaraKhand where they hate Hanuman. This is because, he plucked a part of the Sanjivini Hills from the village and deprived them of the benefits that hill could give. This is a legend. (The second meaning, is a person who is famous for the good work he has done, and is remembered forever is called a legend. e.g. Gandhiji is a legend.) Myths are also stories which we believe in. There is an element of divinity associated with myths and some people dismiss some of the myths as superstitions. Read a book called Myth or Mythya by DevaduttPattanaik you will have a clearer idea. This brings us to the last part of the literary forms – the non-fictional prose. We will discuss this as one category without going into the details of each sub-category. 12.4.4 Non-fictional Prose In the previous section while discussing prose, we have mentioned how vast this particular category is. Fiction forms a large part of prose writing and the non-fictional writing is even larger and includes sub-categories such as Essays, biographies, autobiographies, diaries, speeches, descriptions etc. i. Essays Essay is a long continuous piece of writing based on a theme. It uses the techniques of analysis, description, explanation, argument and other strategies. The main aim of the essay is to convince the reader the viewpoint held by the authors. You must have seen a large number of articles that are published in newspapers every day. Each of these articles is an essay. The answers our students write in the examination are in the form of essays. Each unit in this book is an essay. Depending on the theme and style the essay acquires its name and importance.

ii. Biographies and Autobiographies These are life histories. Life history of a person can be written by someone else, or the person can write it himself/herself. Biographies have been an important part of literature and one of the best biographies that made history was the story of Samuel Johnson written by James Boswell. There are quite a few other biographies and in the recent days, this genre has become more popular. Several of the state leaders and politician have their biographies written. Some of the famous personalities have also written their own life stories and such works are called Autobiographies. There are quite a few well known autobiographies which you can find on the shelves of bookstalls. iii. Diaries Diary writing has been a disciplined habit by many people of prominence. Not all diaries are published, and some diaries are published as a matter of tribute to the person posthumously. The most famous diary that was published to understand the holocaust days of Nazi rule is by Anne Frank. Other famous diaries are by Gibson, and also Jawaharlal Nehru. iv. Speeches Like diaries, speeches of famous people are collected and published. Some of these make for good reading. Speeches of Vivekananda have been published by the Ramakrishna Mission. Like speeches, there has been a practice to publish the letters written by famous people. Letters of Keats, Bertrand Russell, Nehru, and others are available in print. 12.5 Conclusion In this module you have looked at two aspects of teaching - Literature and language teaching. Here we have attempted to show how the two are integrated and do not serve cross purposes. Literature is seen as a sample of good language use which can be offered to the learner to develop language proficiency. The only difference is seen in the approach to teaching literature. In a literature class, the focus is on analysis of the text to appreciate its composition, while in a language class we analyse the same text to exploit it for language use. This point needs to be understood clearly by all teachers of English.

12.5Review Questions a. What are the two new forms of literature discussed in this unit? b. Into how many categories can we divide literature? c. Today, new genres of literature have emerged. e.g. Graphic novels. Mention other genres you are aware of. d. Mention some of the early pieces of fiction produced in English by Indian authors – especially the ones who belonged to Bengal e. How many types of plays (drama) do we have? Can you name a few plays you have read? f. Give two examples of Absurd plays that are universally famous. Can you name plays of this genre from Bengali literature? (remember Badal Sarkar) g. What is the development of fiction in English literature? h. What type of fiction was the oldest and which is the most recent form of fiction? i. How popular is non-fiction among the students? Give reasons. j. Give examples of non-fiction that is available for reading every day. k. Have you changed your views on employability of literature for language teaching after going through this module? What are some of the changes in your thinking? l. Read this poem and analyse it for its meter and rhyme scheme: Rainbow My heart leaps when I behold A rainbow in the sky: So was it when my life began; So is it now I am a man; So be it when I grow old, Or let me die! The child is the father of the man; And I could wish my day to be Bound each to each by natural piety.

Here is a limerick for you to read and enjoy: There was an old man on the Border, Who lived in the utmost disorder; He danced with the Cat, And made tea in his Hat, Which vexed all the folks on the Border. 12.6Reading List Forrester, Jean. (1968). Teaching Without Lecturing. Madras: Oxford University Press. Joan, Collie and Slater. (1988). Literature in the Language Classroom: A resource book of ideas and activities. (Cambridge Handbook for Language Teachers). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Leech, G N. (1973). A Linguistic Guide to English Poetry. London: Longman.

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408 NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 Module - 4 p Teaching Literature - 2 Unit : 13 p Teaching Skits and Plays Structure 13.1 Introduction 13.2 Objectives 13.3 Stepstowards the Implementation of Skits 13.4 Steps of Pre-Skit Monitoring 13.5 Cross-Cultural Polite Speaking [CCPS] 13.6 Non-Verbal Communication 13.6.1 Pronunciation Lessons 13.7 Defining Unfamiliar Words and Terms 13.8 Demonstrating Appropriate Cultural Behaviour 13.9 Learners' Skit Theatre [LST] 13.9.1 Variation on LST 13.9.2 Key Components of Reader's Theatre 13.9.3 Skits as Reader's Theatre 13.10 A Sample of Skits Resource 13.11 Summary 13.12 Review Questions 13.13 References 13.1 Introduction The term'skit' refers to: a] a satirical/humorous/burlesque/comic sketch in a dramatic performance such as a revue; b] a short serious dramatic piece especially one done by amateurs; c] a short comedy sketch or piece of humorous writing, especially a parody. It has synonyms, such as parody, pastiche, burlesque, satire, informal spoof, takeoff, and stand-up. In its essential sense skit means a short piece of humorous writing or a performance that makes fun of something by copying it.

NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 409 Teachers use skits in the classroom to impress upon the learners a message that cuts deep into their minds, especially if it is dished out in a humorous manner. Skits dealing with serious issues like drug abuse or addictions may come up but need to be handled in a sensitive way. Humorously written skits impress the youngsters, as messages are presented in a light-hearted way. A variant of skits is already there in our kindergartens. Children enjoy it acted out in nursery rhymes, such as Jack and Jill, or in role-plays in open house stage plays, as in birthday parties. In this Unit we will go infor reinterpretingskits asLearner's SkitTheatre 13.2 Objectives This Unit introduces the learner to: l The ways of interpreting skits l The use of skits methodology in classroom teaching. l Learner's Skit Theatre l Reader's Theatre 13.3 Steps towards the Implementation of Skits Ø To decide how many skits we think fit to enact, and accordingly to split the class into groups or allow the students choose their own group members, though this may lead to cronyism or someone being left out. Ø To have the students work on the skits together, including every member of their groups in the process, either as actors, directors, or writers. Ø To explain to the students the responsibility of each role. Students can certainly have their choices to play more than one role. All group members will most likely contribute to the writing of the skit, with one member taking notes as needed. Ø A formal director may or may not be needed for short skits; group consensus can decide on the action and timing of the skit. Ø To decide a particular day and time for presenting the skits. The acting-out can take place on the same day or during the same class-period. If more elaborate or more difficult skits are planned, it is necessary to give a few minutes for practice/ rehearsal for two or three daysbefore the designated day of presentation. At the appointed time an area inside or outside the classroom is to be provided to the students to perform the skits.

410 NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 Ø To hand out a printed sheet with the directions for each skit and to choose groups to act out each skit. Ø To say to the participating members/groups the following: I will choose one group at a time to act out its assigned skit. When the group has finished, we will discuss what was demonstrated.Thematic, motivic and linguistic features involved and developed through Classroom Skits are to be discussed and evaluated. 13.4 Steps of Pre-Skit Monitoring For monitoring over skit programmes, the concerned teacher has to ensure a step-up process of assigning duties and responsibilities to the students about to participate in skit programmes. Let us identify these roles of the students before their role-plays in skits, giving to each pre-skit role an acronym: a) Accountability Students [AS] are those who are assigned the responsibility for a specific part of the skit production and for contribution to other parts if needed. They are the key performers in a given skit. b) Co-ordination Students[CS] are assigned the task of organizing and coordinating with all members to produce a skit. Each student may have a specific job, but the CS must communicate with one another, and eventually the participating students must pull their parts together: to read the play, rehearse the parts, set up the props, and put on the production. A single student is not held responsible for the entire skit production. c) Socialization Students[SS] are to work for socializing the members, that is, pulling the participants together in a one-to-one meet and letting them spend time together. d) Interaction Students[IS] are to work as a group to develop a skit. They are to talk to one another in respect of the individual participant's role to play, and to enact the roles before production in front of one another. e) Open Communication Students[OCS] must talk openly to one another and discuss their ideas for the skit, problems they are facing, and oversee the progress of practice as to the final production. Open communication among the role players builds a sense of mutual trust and securityas an individual given to enact a particular part needs feeling confident and safe in order to express his or her ideas and opinions.

NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 411 f) Shared Goals Students [SGS] are to work together on one project. Each member has his or her own part, yet each job is a small part of a larger project. All students should share the same end goal of putting up a skit for their class. 13.5 Cross-CulturalPolite Speaking [CCPS] A teacher is supposed put the students into groups of three or four or five, preferably students from various cultures, and then let them have a discussion on the following questions. Ø When should you be polite? Ø What happens if you are not polite? Ø What instructions would you give someone about being polite in your speech and attitude? When students discuss these questions, they are likely to hit on some interesting topics, such as:is it important to show politeness to our eldersor superiors in any cultural hierarchy? Different cultural attitudes and values will emerge out of these discussions and a teacher is supposed to assign role-plays to the students, taking into account their respective cultural values and behaviour patterns. One or more interactive sessions between the teacher and the students hailing from diverse social strata may effectively bridge the cultural and behavioural gaps pre-existent among the students. For example, a lesson on how to be polite in speaking and how to avoid slangs in open social conversation may be taken before inducting them into a skit. At this point we are going in for a little more elaboration onpolite speaking. Impolite speech starts with a negative attitude towards a situation or a person. The first step towards the students' acting politely is for the teacher to look after, by showing politeness in speaking to the students. A person can learn a lot about how someone else feels by looking at his or her facial expressions on listening to the delivered words and tone of voice. If the listener's face is tense, eyebrows are drawn together, or lips are pressed together tightly, that person is probably upset. Other body languages can indicate fear, irritation, annoyance, anger, discomfort, boredom, confusion and disbelief. These are negative features of response via bodily expressions. There are as well positive body expressions. The American Behaviourist School and the German Gestalt School are pioneers in the study of human behaviours and physical

412 NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 expressions as indicative of the happenings inwardly in man. A teacher engaged in skit method of teaching is to be conversant with the findings of these two Schools in order to moderate the gestures, articulations and behaviours of the skit-players in an academic class. For example,using a loud voice or forceful speech is considered impolite among the native English speakers. When role-playing as part of skit-programme, a student- participant must be made aware of the normative vocalization in speech as accepted in the English-speaking societies. So, a teacher is supposed to help his or her students understand the proper volume and tone of voice at which to speak. Using an inappropriate voice volume may make a situation worse rather than better in a skit production, and may send forth wrong signals to the audience of co-learners. Using forceful gestures, pointing up and hitting are all considered aggressive behaviour in a conversation. A teacher is supposed to help the students understand just how much is too muchwhen it comes to using their bodies while they speak. This is in point to address personal space. We generally leave about two feet between us and the persons we are speaking to, and we do this without even realizing this space gap. Standing too close to a person or too far from him or her, and shouting may send the wrong message in a conversation. Answering someone with sarcasm, insults, dismissive gestures or a lack of seriousness is another way to send the wrong message to someone we are speaking to. Although these responses are sometimes acceptable in specific situations, our students would do better to follow this rule: if in doubt, shy away from such situations. Insulting a conversation partner may do so much damage that the person to converse with may get unwilling to continue any conversation. A teacher is to tell the students that avoiding the negative responses is the safest strategy. Native speakers sometimes struggle with this polite conversation guidelines. Our grandmothers used to tell us to think before we speak. Reacting and responding are not the same thing in a conversation, and sometimes saying the first thing that comes to mind can be very damaging. Taking a moment to think about what we want to say, making sure that it is appropriate and kind, can make the difference between a relationship deepened and a relationship destroyed by conversation. Depending on the home cultures of our ESL students, they may have a very different understanding of eye contact than do native speakers of English usually have. In some

cultures, it is impolite to make eye contact with a superior. This gesture is seen as threatening, challenging or rude. Native English speakers, however, interpret a lack of eye contact not as a sign of humility and respect, but as a sign of guilt, the inability to trust the speaker, or lack of intelligence. We are to encourage our students to make eye contact as they are speaking, and to help them understand that eye contact while listening shows that you are paying attention and care to what the other person says. We are to encourage them to try and appreciate eye-line catches of conversation as normative and standard societal behaviour. This summary activity will encourage creativity and sense of humour in our students. As teachers we have to have groups of four or five to work together to write a skit about a situation The selected students should choose a situation from the master list compiled by the teacherin consultation with the students in a class. Each group will write and perform two skits about the selected situation. In the first skit, they will show how NOT to act in their situation. In this version, they should not follow the polite speech guidelines. They should also write a second skit about the same situation. In this skit, students should show how to speak politely following the six polite conversation guidelines. Each group should perform both skits for their class, and the viewers are sure to have as much fun as the performers when they watch their classmates being intentionally rude in a conversation. Acting in and watching skits will help the students remember what it means to speak politely. 13.6 Non-Verbal Communication More than anything else, our students should understand that body language is important.It can aid communication, set the mood for a conversation or help accomplish a discourse goal. Being aware of theirown body language as well as that of their listeners can make all the difference in an important conversation. Talking about body language across cultures may be unusual, but it will ultimately help the students become better English communicators.While words may be our main focus as ESL teachers, for the student who truly wishes to communicate with ease, we have to go deeper. Body language and nonverbal clues are extremely important in communication. 60-90% of our communication comes from paralinguistics that is,communication beyond the words we speak, and Body language includes posture, gestures, facial expressions and suggestive limb movements, and like so many other things, does not necessarily translate from one culture to another. Though linguistic fluency is probably number one

priority in ESL class as it should be,students will find it worthwhile taking a moment or two to talk about body language.Intentionally or unintentionally, we mimic the body language that we see. Mirroring body language can put a speaker at ease. For students learning English as a second language, mirroring in conversation is important. Many people will wrongly assume a non-native speaker cannot understand even the simplest of conversations. Students, who learn to mirror their conversation partners, may earn themselves more credit in a conversation test. This technique is particularly useful during professional conversations, such as job interviews, where the speaker is trying to make a strong first impression. 13.6.1 Pronunciation Lessons A lot of struggle with pronunciation comes from the first language and the sounds that compose it. The best way to learn speaking a second language is to listen to and mimic the tonal speech of a native speaker. Showing them how we position our mouth and how we move the muscles in articulation can make them understand the difference between ignorance and understanding. If we teach them the anatomy of the mouth and how it plays in English pronunciation, and show our students the motions we are going through when we articulate English speech or make certain sounds, they are likely to imbibe all they need in order to correctly produce the sounds by themselves. 13.7Defining Unfamiliar Words and Terms What is the best way to help students understand the difference between strolling and marching? We are to act it out for them. Perhaps the most common context under which ESL teachers should act out is for defining new vocabulary. For most nouns, a picture is a great way to help students understand what we are talking about. But for verbs, it is a different story. We can try and put an action into a picture, but a lot of times the drawing just falls flat. It is much more effective to just show our students what the action looks like. Charades is a good help for the students, and we often use the game to review words before a test or at the end of a unit. 13.8 Demonstrating Appropriate Cultural Behaviour Body language seldom crosses cultural borders. What is perfectly acceptable in one culture may cause great offence in another. Culture is important because even though most people cannot define their own culture, it is deeply ingrained in their cultural inheritance. Inappropriate cultural behaviour, even when it is unintentional, can cause

NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 415 problems. A teacher must show the students the standardized appropriate way to speak, respond, react and act in a normative society, beyond their respective cultural trappings. Falling short of standard and normative language behaviour may create ludicrous and laughable effects. Sheridan's restoration comedy The Rival presents the character of Mrs Malapropos engaging in inappropriate but bombastic words to show off her cultural superiority. For example, she would have used 'pineapple' instead of 'pinnacle'. This phenomenon is called Malapropism. Our students should be made aware of the comic effects of malapropism. . 13.9 Learners'Skit Theatre [LST] The term 'skit' may coextend to Learner's theatre, an activity in which students are asked to adapt a text and act it out orally in the form of a play. In Learner's theatre, students read out from literary works,often without costumes and sets, and letting their voices convey the emotion and situations of the characters taken up. Skits as part of teaching and learning techniques score over conventional one-way method in which the learners are rendered passive recipients and can hardly have any scope to actively participate in the contents of teaching and generate meanings and a proper expressive presentation of the same. Learners' or Readers' Theatre is as an oral presentation of drama, prose or poetry by two or more readers. It is a form of dramatic reading in which a play, narrative or the dramatic scrap of a work is performed for an audience. The actors first read a story and then transform it into a script involving several characters. Learners' theatre, frequently defined as theatre of the mind or minimal theatreor readers' theatre, is, to quote Aaron Shepard, a convenient and effective means to present literary works in dramatic forms. In Learners' Theatre, individuals read out chunks from literary works, most often without costumes and sets, but letting their voices convey the emotion and situations of the various characters. Learners' Theatre always involves a group reading aloud a text from visible scripts with an authentic communicative purpose. The emphasis is on the oral reading of the text, the print coming alive through reading speed, intonation and stress.Learners' Theatre is a holistic method that integrates reading, speaking, listening and thinking. It is especially useful for struggling readers as it provides them with a meaningful context to enhance their skills, interest and confidence.

416 NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 A wide range of texts can be harnessed for Learners' Theatre purposes. These maybe fictional texts, such as narratives, short stories, folk tales, myths and extracts from novels, or non-fiction texts, such as biographies and autobiographies, diaries, speeches, letters, newspaper articles and historical documents. 13.9.1 Variation on LST Shepard (2004) distinguishes between two main models of Learners' Theatre. First, in the 'traditional model' readers have relatively fixed positions, for example sitting or standing in a row or semi-circle. The text is splitamong the readers so that, for example, each reader in a group reads the part of a character in a story. Alternatively, the reading may be shared by narrators, each providing background information, and reading dialoguesof characters. Another alternative is for the text to be shared randomly by the readers irrespective of whether it is narrative or character's dialogue. Secondly, in the developed modelReaders'orLearners' Theatre, in contrast,several or all of the readers are mobile. In Shepard's own adaptation of Reader's Theatre those reading the roles of characters are mobile, while the narrators are stationary. For example four narrators will be there, one in each corner of a room. If students are totally unfamiliar with Reader's Theatre,the teacher normally introduces the concept to them, informs them of what kind of script they will be working with and how long the process will take. The next step is to assign roles. 13.9.2 Key Components of Reader's Theatre Scripted Reading Unlike conventional theatre or drama, Reader's Theatre is an uncomplicated classroom activity because it does not require full costumes, stage sets and memorization of scripts. To implement Reader's Theatre in the classroom, students first read a story, and then transform the story into a script through negotiations with other group members. The students then rehearse their scripts by reading aloud their lines, paying attention to the way they articulate the words in the script, varying their tone and projecting their voice. They finally perform for an audience by reading aloud from their hand-held scripts. Reader's Theatre is particularly important in developing reading and oral skills. Scripted dialogues provide EFL students with an opportunity to express their thoughts and ideas

NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 417 (Adams, 2003). In addition, scripted dialogues have often been used in the language classroom to enable students to acquire the vocabulary, idioms, grammar and syntax of English speech (Berlinger, 2000). As they involve all aspects of language use, scripts that are rehearsed in class can offer students an authentic communicative context to practise spoken English. 13.9.3 Skits as Reader's Theatre Variations will enable students to spring the script into a living performance. They must not too much depend on the script. They can express broader and wider ideas based on their interpretations.The use of drama, in the traditional sense, promotes 'talk' in the classroom. Jordan and Harrell (2000) recognized LST as an effective drama activity for providing authentic speech practice.Theatre Variation inspires the students to be more active in speaking. Through this technique, the students may act out to balance with the story script. It also can build the students' confidence. Interpretative Reading LST is important for learners to be able to interpret and respond appropriately to nonverbal clues such as the speaker's facial expressions and the speaker's tone of voice. Sloyer (1982) viewed it asa specific interpretative reading activity. LST is a strategy that showcases the power of language. It is an interpretative reading activity in which readers bring characters, story, and even content area or textbook material to life through their voice, actions, and words. Learners'Theatre provides an oral interpretation of literature, becoming an integrated language event in the classroom. Students may adapt and present self-selected material. A story, poem, scene from a play, song, or even material from a textbook, newspaper, historical document, or biography can provide ingredients for a script. Learners'Theatremakes a unique contribution to the language study through its integration with thinking, reading, writing, speaking, listening, and viewing experiences. For a teacher it is important to evaluate the learner's language acquisition in terms of skit performance, and this can be done through Skit Evaluation Rubric. An example of Skit Evaluation Rubric is given below:

418 NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 Performance Criteria Preparedness Adequacy and Relevance of Content Facial Expression, Body Language and Energy Level Excellent Students are well prepared and they have done rehearsals sufficiently There is a plethora of information and the correlation of each point to the topic is very well explained by the students The facial expressions, body language and energy- level of the performers are strongly appealing and conducive to invoking audience- interest in the topic. Good Students are prepared but they seem to be little lacking on rehearsals There is sufficient information and the correlation of most of the points to the topic is clearly explained by the students Students have paid attention to create audience interest in the topic by using appropriate facial expression and body language. However the energy level dips at some point during the performance. Satisfactory The students are prepared, but they clearly needed few more rehearsals There is a lot of information but its connection to the topic is not well explained Students seem to have paid attention to create audience interest in the topic by using appropriate facial expression and body language. However the energy level frequently dips during the performance. Fair Students are under- prepared and they did not rehearse adequately Insufficient information on the topic is provided by the students Insufficient attention is paid towards facial expression and body language in the presentation. The energy level and enthusiasm is generally low during the presentation. Poor Students did not prepare and rehearse at all There is a clear lacunae in presentation of relevant information and demonstration of its connection to the topic Very little attention is paid towards facial expression and body language in the presentation. The energy level and enthusiasm is also very less.

NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 419 Performance Criteria Acting and Dialogue Delivery Audience Engagement Excellent The students use appropriate voice modulation, facial expression and gestures to make the characters alive on-stage. Points are presented in an innovative ways so as to ensure active engagement of audience- attention throughout Good There is a clear effort from the students to make the characters alive on-stage but the voice modulation, pitch, expressions and gestures are not consistently appropriate throughout the performance. The performance includes some interesting points and is able to retain audience- attention for most of the time Satisfactory TThe students seem to make an effort to make the characters alive on stage but their voice modulation, expressions and gestures are often inappropriate. Though some relevant points have been made but the presentation of the points is done in slipshod manner. Fair The students make insufficient effort to use appropriate voice modulation, facial expression and gestures to make the characters alive on- stage. The performance is incoherent and rambling and as a result audience frequently lose interest. Poor The students tell the story but do not use voice modulation, facial expression and body movements/ gestures to make the characters alive on stage. The performance is incoherent and irrelevant to the topic. The audience seem to be totally disengaged during the presentation. Skit Evaluation Rubric Generally, skits require minimally four characters or role-plays to be enacted. However, Chekhov's A Marriage Proposal is a fund of resources for building skits with three major characters, Chubukov, Lomov and Natalia. We may go into this play to frame Skits and Reader's theatres. The entire play is cited below, and our L2 learners are advised to squeeze out of the play as many skits as possible involving the social meet between Chubukov, and Lomov , between Lomov and Natalia and the two incidents of quarrels among them leading to the comic finale of Chubukov's celebration of Lomov's marriage proposal.

420 NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 13.10 A Sample of Skits Resource A Marriage Proposal: Play by Anton Chekhov [A Marriage Proposal is a one-act farce by Anton Chekhov, written in 1888–1889 and first performed in 1890. It is a fast-paced play of dialogue-based action and situational humour.] The scene is laid at CHUBUKOV's country-house A drawing-room in CHUBUKOV'S house. [LOMOV enters, wearing a dress-jacket and white gloves. CHUBUKOV rises to meet him.] CHUBUKOV: My dear fellow, whom do I see! Ivan Vassilevitch! I am extremely glad! [Squeezes his hand] Now this is a surprise, my darling... How are you? LOMOV: Thank you. And how may you be getting on? CHUBUKOV: We just get along somehow, my angel, to your prayers, and so on. Sit down, please do.... Now, you know, you shouldn't forget all about your neighbours, my darling. My dear fellow, why are you so formal in your get-up? Evening dress, gloves, and so on. Can you be going anywhere, my treasure? LOMOV:No, I've come only to see you, honoured StepanStepanovitch. CHUBUKOV: Then why are you in evening dress, my precious? As if you're paying a New Year's Eve visit! LOMOV: Well, you see, it's like this. [Takes his arm] I've come to you, honoured StepanStepanovitch, to trouble you with a request. Not once or twice have I already had the privilege of applying to you for help, and you have always, so to speak... I must ask your pardon, I am getting excited. I shall drink some water, honoured StepanStepanovitch. [Drinks.] CHUBUKOV: [Aside] He's come to borrow money! Shan't give him any! [Aloud] What is it, my beauty? LOMOV: You see, Honour Stepanitch... I beg pardon, Stepan Honouritch... I mean, I'm awfully excited, as you will please notice.... In short, you alone can help me, though I don't deserve it, of course... and haven't any right to count on your assistance....

NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 421 CHUBUKOV: Oh, don't go round and round it, darling! Spit it out! Well? LOMOV: One moment... this very minute. The fact is, I've come to ask the hand of your daughter, Natalya Stepanovna, in marriage. CHUBUKOV: [Joyfully] By Jove! Ivan Vassilevitch! Say it again—I didn't hear it all! LOMOV: I have the honour to ask... CHUBUKOV: [Interrupting] My dear fellow... I'm so glad, and so on.... Yes, indeed, and all that sort of thing. [Embraces and kisses LOMOV] I've been hoping for it for a long time. It's been my continual desire. [Sheds a tear] And I've always loved you, my angel, as if you were my own son. May God give you both His help and His love and so on, and I did so much hope... What am I behaving in this idiotic way for? I'm off my balance with joy, absolutely off my balance! Oh, with all my soul... I'll go and call Natasha, and all that. LOMOV: [Greatly moved] Honoured StepanStepanovitch, do you think I may count on her consent? CHUBUKOV: Why, of course, my darling, and... as if she won't consent! She's in love; egad, she's like a love-sick cat, and so on.... Shan't be long! [Exit.] LOMOV: It's cold... I'm trembling all over, just as if I'd got an examination before me. The great thing is, I must have my mind made up. If I give myself time to think, to hesitate, to talk a lot, to look for an ideal, or for real love, then I'll never get married.... Brr!... It's cold! Natalya Stepanovna is an excellent housekeeper, not bad-looking, well-educated.... What more do I want? But I'm getting a noise in my ears from excitement. [Drinks] And it's impossible for me not to marry.... In the first place, I'm already 35—a critical age, so to speak. In the second place, I ought to lead a quiet and regular life.... I suffer from palpitations, I'm excitable and always getting awfully upset.... At this very moment my lips are trembling, and there's a twitch in my right eyebrow.... But the very worst of all is the way I sleep. I no sooner get into bed and begin to go off when suddenly something in my left side—gives a pull, and I can feel it in my shoulder and head.... I jump up like a lunatic, walk about a bit, and lie down again, but as soon as I begin to get off to sleep there's another pull! And this may happen twenty times....

422 NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 [NATALY A STEPANOVNA comes in.] NATALYA STEPANOVNA: Well, there! It's you, and papa said, "Go; there's a merchant come for his goods." How do you do, Ivan Vassilevitch! LOMOV: How do you do, honoured Natalya Stepanovna? NATALYA STEPANOVNA: You must excuse my apron and négligé... we're shelling peas for drying. Why haven't you been here for such a long time? Sit down. [They seat themselves] Won't you have some lunch? LOMOV: No, thank you, I've had some already. NATALYA STEPANOVNA: Then smoke.... Here are the matches.... The weather is splendid now, but yesterday it was so wet that the workmen didn't do anything all day. How much hay have you stacked? Just think, I felt greedy and had a whole field cut, and now I'm not at all pleased about it because I'm afraid my hay may rot. I ought to have waited a bit. But what's this? Why, you're in evening dress! Well, I never! Are you going to a ball, or what?—though I must say you look better. Tell me, why are you got up like that? LOMOV: [Excited] You see, honoured Natalya Stepanovna... the fact is, I've made up my mind to ask you to hear me out.... Of course you'll be surprised and perhaps even angry, but a... [Aside] It's awfully cold! NATALYA STEPANOVNA: What's the matter? [Pause] Well? LOMOV: I shall try to be brief. You must know, honoured Natalya Stepanovna, that I have long, since my childhood, in fact, had the privilege of knowing your family. My late aunt and her husband, from whom, as you know, I inherited my land, always had the greatest respect for your father and your late mother. The Lomovs and the Chubukovs have always had the most friendly, and I might almost say the most affectionate, regard for each other. And, as you know, my land is a near neighbour of yours. You will remember that my Oxen Meadows touch your birchwoods. NATALYA STEPANOVNA: Excuse my interrupting you. You say, "my Oxen Meadows...." But are they yours? LOMOV: Yes, mine.

NATALY A STEPANOVNA: What are you talking about? Oxen Meadows are ours, not yours! LOMOV: No, mine, honoured Natalya Stepanovna. NATALYA STEPANOVNA: Well, I never knew that before. How do you make that out? LOMOV: How? I'm speaking of those Oxen Meadows which are wedged in between your birchwoods and the Burnt Marsh. NATALYA STEPANOVNA: Yes, yes.... They're ours. LOMOV: No, you're mistaken, honoured Natalya Stepanovna, they're mine. NATALYA STEPANOVNA: Just think, Ivan Vassilevitch! How long have they been yours? LOMOV: How long? As long as I can remember NATALYA STEPANOVNA: Really, you won't get me to believe that! LOMOV: But you can see from the documents, honoured Natalya Stepanovna. Oxen Meadows, it's true, were once the subject of dispute, but now everybody knows that they are mine. There's nothing to argue about. You see, my aunt's grandmother gave the free use of these Meadows in perpetuity to the peasants of your father's grandfather, in return for which they were to make bricks for her. The peasants belonging to your father's grandfather had the free use of the Meadows for forty years, and had got into the habit of regarding them as their own, when it happened that... NATALYA STEPANOVNA: No, it isn't at all like that! Both my grandfather and great- grandfather reckoned that their land extended to Burnt Marsh—which means that Oxen Meadows were ours. I don't see what there is to argue about. It's simply silly! LOMOV: I'll show you the documents, Natalya Stepanovna! NATALYA STEPANOVNA: No, you're simply joking, or making fun of me.... What a surprise! We've had the land for nearly three hundred years, and then we're suddenly told that it isn't ours! Ivan Vassilevitch, I can hardly believe my own ears.... These Meadows aren't worth much to me. They only come to five dessiatins [Note: 13.5 acres], and are worth perhaps 300 roubles [Note: £30.], but I can't stand unfairness. Say what you will, but I can't stand unfairness.

LOMOV: Hear me out, I implore you! The peasants of your father's grandfather, as I have already had the honour of explaining to you, used to bake bricks for my aunt's grandmother. Now my aunt's grandmother, wishing to make them a pleasant... NATALYA STEPANOVNA: I can't make head or tail of all this about aunts and grandfathers and grandmothers! The Meadows are ours, and that's all. LOMOV. Mine. NATALYA STEPANOVNA: Ours! You can go on proving it for two days on end, you can go and put on fifteen dress-jackets, but I tell you they're ours, ours, ours! I don't want anything of yours and I don't want to give up anything of mine. So there! LOMOV: Natalya Ivanovna, I don't want the Meadows, but I am acting on principle. If you like, I'll make you a present of them. NATALYA STEPANOVNA: I can make you a present of them myself, because they're mine! Your behaviour, Ivan Vassilevitch, is strange, to say the least! Up to this we have always thought of you as a good neighbour, a friend: last year we lent you our threshing-machine, although on that account we had to put off our own threshing till November, but you behave to us as if we were gipsies. Giving me my own land, indeed! No, really, that's not at all neighbourly! In my opinion, it's even impudent, if you want to know.... LOMOV: Then you make out that I'm a land-grabber? Madam, never in my life have I grabbed anybody else's land, and I shan't allow anybody to accuse me of having done so.... [Quickly steps to the carafe and drinks more water] Oxen Meadows are mine! NATALYA STEPANOVNA: It's not true, they're ours! LOMOV: Mine! NATALYA STEPANOVNA: It's not true! I'll prove it! I'll send my mowers out to the Meadows this very day! LOMOV: What? NATALYA STEPANOVNA: My mowers will be there this very day! LOMOV: I'll give it to them in the neck!

NATALY A STEPANOVNA: You dare! LOMOV: [Clutches at his heart] Oxen Meadows are mine! You understand? Mine! NATALYA STEPANOVNA: Please don't shout! You can shout yourself hoarse in your own house, but here I must ask you to restrain yourself! LOMOV: If it wasn't, madam, for this awful, excruciating palpitation, if my whole inside wasn't upset, I'd talk to you in a different way! [Yells] Oxen Meadows are mine! NATALYA STEPANOVNA: Ours! LOMOV: Mine! NATALYA STEPANOVNA: Ours! LOMOV: Mine! [Enter CHUBUKOV.] CHUBUKOV: What's the matter? What are you shouting at? NATALYA STEPANOVNA: Papa, please tell to this gentleman who owns Oxen Meadows, we or he? CHUBUKOV: [To LOMOV] Darling, the Meadows are ours! LOMOV: But, please, StepanStepanitch, how can they be yours? Do be a reasonable man! My aunt's grandmother gave the Meadows for the temporary and free use of your grandfather's peasants. The peasants used the land for forty years and got as accustomed to it as if it was their own, when it happened that... CHUBUKOV: Excuse me, my precious.... You forget just this, that the peasants didn't pay your grandmother and all that, because the Meadows were in dispute, and so on. And now everybody knows that they're ours. It means that you haven't seen the plan. LOMOV: I'll prove to you that they're mine! CHUBUKOV: You won't prove it, my darling. LOMOV: I shall! CHUBUKOV: Dear one, why yell like that? You won't prove anything just by yelling. I don't want anything of yours, and don't intend to give up what I have. Why should

l? And you know, my beloved, that if you propose to go on arguing about it, I'd much sooner give up the meadows to the peasants than to you. There! LOMOV: I don't understand! How have you the right to give away somebody else's property? CHUBUKOV: You may take it that I know whether I have the right or not. Because, young man, I'm not used to being spoken to in that tone of voice, and so on: l, young man, am twice your age, and ask you to speak to me without agitating yourself, and all that. LOMOV: No, you just think I'm a fool and want to have me on! You call my land yours, and then you want me to talk to you calmly and politely! Good neighbours don't behave like that, StepanStepanitch! You're not a neighbour, you're a grabber! CHUBUKOV: What's that? What did you say? NATALYA STEPANOVNA: Papa, send the mowers out to the Meadows at once! CHUBUKOV: What did you say, sir? NATALYA STEPANOVNA: Oxen Meadows are ours, and I shan't give them up, shan't give them up, shan't give them up! LOMOV: We'll see! I'll have the matter taken to court, and then I'll show you! CHUBUKOV: To court? You can take it to court, and all that! You can! I know you; you're just on the look-out for a chance to go to court, and all that…. You pettifogger! All your people were like that! All of them! LOMOV: Never mind about my people! The LOMOV have all been honourable people, and not one has ever been tried for embezzlement, like your grandfather! CHUBUKOV: You LOMOV have had lunacy in your family, all of you! NATALYA STEPANOVNA: All, all, all! CHUBUKOV: Your grandfather was a drunkard, and your younger aunt, NastasyaMihailovna, ran away with an architect, and so on. LOMOV: And your mother was hump-backed. [Clutches at his heart] Something pulling in my side…. My head…. Help! Water! CHUBUKOV: Your father was a guzzling gambler!

NATALY A STEPANOVNA: And there haven't been many backbiters to equal your aunt! LOMOV: My left foot has gone to sleep…. You're an intriguer…. Oh, my heart!… And it's an open secret that before the last elections you bri… I can see stars…. Where's my hat? NATALYA STEPANOVNA: It's low! It's dishonest! It's mean! CHUBUKOV: And you're just a malicious, double-faced intriguer! Yes! LOMOV: Here's my hat…. My heart!… Which way? Where's the door? Oh!… I think I'm dying…. My foot's quite numb…. [Goes to the door.] CHUBUKOV: [Following him] And don't set foot in my house again! NATALYA STEPANOVNA: Take it to court! We'll see! [LOMOVstaggers out.] CHUBUKOV: Devil take him! [Walks about in excitement] NATALYA STEPANOVNA: What a rascal! What trust can one have in one's neighbours after that! CHUBUKOV: The villain! The scarecrow! NATALYA STEPANOVNA: The monster! First he takes our land and then he has the impudence to abuse us. CHUBUKOV: And that blind hen, yes, that turnip-ghost has the confounded cheek to make a proposal, and so on! What? A proposal! NATALYA STEPANOVNA: What proposal? CHUBUKOV: Why, he came here so as to propose to you. NATALYA STEPANOVNA: To propose?To me? Why didn't you tell me so before? CHUBUKOV: So he dresses up in evening clothes. The stuffed sausage! The wizen- faced frump! NATALYA STEPANOVNA: To propose to me? Ah! [Falls into an easy-chair and wails] Bring him back! Back! Ah! Bring him here. CHUBUKOV: Bring whom here?

NATALY A STEPANOVNA: Quick, quick! I'm ill! Fetch him! [Hysterics] CHUBUKOV: What's that? What's the matter with you? [Clutches at his head] Oh, unhappy man that I am! I'll shoot myself! I'll hang myself! We've done for her! NATALYA STEPANOVNA: I'm dying! Fetch him! CHUBUKOV: Tfoo! At once. Don't yell! [Runs out.A pause. NATALYA STEPANOVNA wails.] NATALYA STEPANOVNA: What have they done to me! Fetch him back! Fetch him! [A pause.] [CHUBUKOV runs in.] CHUBUKOV: He's coming, and so on, devil take him! Ouf! Talk to him yourself; I don't want to…. NATALYA STEPANOVNA: [Wails] Fetch him! CHUBUKOV: [Yells] He's coming, I tell you. Oh, what a burden, Lord, to be the father of a grown-up daughter! I'll cut my throat! I will, indeed! We cursed him, abused him, drove him out, and it's all you… you! NATALYA STEPANOVNA: No, it was you! CHUBUKOV: I tell you it's not my fault. [LOMOVappears at the door] Now you talk to him yourself [Exit.] [LOMOVenters, exhausted.] LOMOV: My heart's palpitating awfully…. My foot's gone to sleep…. There's something keeps pulling in my side. NATALYA STEPANOVNA: Forgive us, Ivan Vassilevitch, we were all a little heated…. I remember now: Oxen Meadows really are yours. LOMOV: My heart's beating awfully…. My Meadows…. My eyebrows are both twitching…. NATALYA STEPANOVNA: The Meadows are yours, yes, yours…. Do sit down…. [They sit] We were wrong…. LOMOV: I did it on principle…. My land is worth little to me, but the principle…

NATALY A STEPANOVNA. Yes, the principle, just so…. Now let's talk of something else. LOMOV: The more so as I have evidence. My aunt's grandmother gave the land to your father's grandfather's peasants… NATALYA STEPANOVNA: Yes, yes, let that pass…. [Aside] I wish I knew how to get him started…. [Aloud] Are you going to start shooting soon? LOMOV: I'm thinking of having a go at the blackcock, honoured Natalya Stepanovna, after the harvest. Oh, have you heard? Just think, what a misfortune I've had! My dog Guess, whom you know, has gone lame. NATALYA STEPANOVNA: What a pity! Why? LOMOV: I don't know…. Must have got twisted, or bitten by some other dog…. [Sighs] My very best dog, to say nothing of the expense. I gave Mironov 125 roubles for him. NATALYA STEPANOVNA: It was too much, Ivan Vassilevitch. LOMOV: I think it was very cheap. He's a first-rate dog. NATALYA STEPANOVNA: Papa gave 85 roubles for his Squeezer, and Squeezer is heaps better than Guess! LOMOV: Squeezer better than. Guess? What an idea! [Laughs] Squeezer better than Guess! NATALYA STEPANOVNA: Of course he's better! Of course, Squeezer is young, he may develop a bit, but on points and pedigree he's better than anything that even Volchanetsky has got. LOMOV: Excuse me, Natalya Stepanovna, but you forget that he is overshot, and an overshot always means the dog is a bad hunter! NATALYA STEPANOVNA: Overshot, is he? The first time I hear it! LOMOV: I assure you that his lower jaw is shorter than the upper. NATALYA STEPANOVNA: Have you measured? LOMOV: Yes. He's all right at following, of course, but if you want him to get hold of anything…

NATALY A STEPANOVNA: In the first place, our Squeezer is a thoroughbred animal, the son of Harness and Chisels, while there's no getting at the pedigree of your dog at all…. He's old and as ugly as a worn-out cab-horse. LOMOV: He is old, but I wouldn't take five Squeezers for him…. Why, how can you?… Guess is a dog; as for Squeezer, well, it's too funny to argue…. Anybody you like has a dog as good as Squeezer… you may find them under every bush almost. Twenty-five roubles would be a handsome price to pay for him. NATALYA STEPANOVNA: There's some demon of contradiction in you to-day, Ivan Vassilevitch. First you pretend that the Meadows are yours; now, that Guess is better than Squeezer. I don't like people who don't say what they mean, because you know perfectly well that Squeezer is a hundred times better than your silly Guess. Why do you want to say it isn't? LOMOV: I see, Natalya Stepanovna, that you consider me either blind or a fool. You must realize that Squeezer is overshot! NATALYA STEPANOVNA: It's not true. LOMOV: He is! NATALYA STEPANOVNA: It's not true! LOMOV: Why shout, madam? NATALYA STEPANOVNA: Why talk rot? It's awful! It's time your Guess was shot, and you compare him with Squeezer! LOMOV: Excuse me; I cannot continue this discussion: my heart is palpitating. NATALYA STEPANOVNA: I've noticed that those hunters argue most who know least. LOMOV: Madam, please be silent…. My heart is going to pieces…. [Shouts] Shut up! NATALYA STEPANOVNA: I shan't shut up until you acknowledge that Squeezer is a hundred times better than your Guess! LOMOV: A hundred times worse! Be hanged to your Squeezer! His head… eyes… shoulder… NATALYA STEPANOVNA: There's no need to hang your silly Guess; he's half-dead already! LOMOV:[Weeps] Shut up! My heart's bursting!

NATALY A STEPANOVNA: I shan't shut up. [Enter CHUBUKOV.] CHUBUKOV: What's the matter now? NATALYA STEPANOVNA.: Papa, tell us truly, which is the better dog, our Squeezer or his Guess. LOMOV: StepanStepanovitch, I implore you to tell me just one thing: is your Squeezer overshot or not? Yes or no? CHUBUKOV: And suppose he is? What does it matter? He's the best dog in the district for all that, and so on. LOMOV: But isn't my Guess better? Really, now? CHUBUKOV: Don't excite yourself, my precious one…. Allow me…. Your Guess certainly has his good points…. He's pure-bred, firm on his feet, has well-sprung ribs, and all that. But, my dear man, if you want to know the truth, that dog has two defects: he's old and he's short in the muzzle. LOMOV:Excuse me, my heart…. Let's take the facts…. You will remember that on the Marusinsky hunt my Guess ran neck-and-neck with the Count's dog, while your Squeezer was left a whole verst behind CHUBUKOV: He got left behind because the Count's whipper-in hit him with his whip. LOMOV: And with good reason. The dogs are running after a fox, when Squeezer goes and starts worrying a sheep! CHUBUKOV: It's not true!… My dear fellow, I'm very liable to lose my temper, and so, just because of that, let's stop arguing. You started because everybody is always jealous of everybody else's dogs. Yes, we're all like that! You too, sir, aren't blameless! You no sooner notice that some dog is better than your Guess than you begin with this, that… and the other… and all that…. I remember everything! LOMOV: I remember too! CHUBUKOV: [Teasing him] I remember, too…. What do you remember? LOMOV: My heart… my foot's gone to sleep…. I can't…

NATALY A STEPANOVNA: [Teasing] My heart.... What sort of a hunter are you? You ought to go and lie on the kitchen oven and catch blackbeetles, not go after foxes! My heart! CHUBUKOV: Yes really, what sort of a hunter are you, anyway? You ought to sit at home with your palpitations, and not go tracking animals. You could go hunting, but you only go to argue with people and interfere with their dogs and so on. Let's change the subject in case I lose my temper. You're not a hunter at all, anyway! LOMOV:And are you a hunter? You only go hunting to get in with the Count and to intrigue.... Oh, my heart!... You're an intriguer! CHUBUKOV: What? I, an intriguer? [Shouts] Shut up! LOMOV: Intriguer! CHUBUKOV: Boy! Pup! LOMOV: Old rat! Jesuit! CHUBUKOV: Shut up or I'll shoot you like a partridge! You fool! Lomov: Everybody knows that—oh my heart!—your late wife used to beat you.... My feet... temples... sparks.... I fall, I fall! CHUBUKOV: And you're under the slipper of your housekeeper! Lomov:There, there, there... my heart's burst! My shoulder's come off.... Where is my shoulder? I die. [Falls into an armchair] A doctor! [Faints.] CHUBUKOV: Boy! Milksop! Fool! I'm sick! [Drinks water] Sick! NATALYA STEPANOVNA. What sort of a hunter are you? You can't even sit on a horse! [To her father] Papa, what's the matter with him? Papa! Look, papa! [Screams] Ivan Vassilevitch! He's dead! CHUBUKOV: I'm sick!... I can't breathe!... Air! NATALYA STEPANOVNA:He's dead. [Pulls LOMOV'S sleeve] Ivan Vassilevitch! Ivan Vassilevitch! What have you done to me? He's dead. [Falls into an armchair] A doctor, a doctor! [Hysterics.] CHUBUKOV: Oh!... What is it? What's the matter?

NATALY A STEPANOVNA: [Wails] He's dead... dead! CHUBUKOV: Who's dead? [Looks at LOMOV] So he is! My word! Water! A doctor! [Lifts a tumbler to LOMOV'S mouth] Drink this!... No, he doesn't drink.... It means he's dead, and all that.... I'm the mostunhappy of men! Why don't I put a bullet into my brain? Why haven't I cut my throat yet? What am I waiting for? Give me a knife! Give me a pistol! [LOMOV moves] He seems to be coming round.... Drink some water! That's right.... LOMOV: I see stars... mist.... Where am I? CHUBUKOV: Hurry up and get married and—well, to the devil with you! She's willing! [He puts LOMOV'S hand into his daughter's] She's willing and all that. I give you my blessing and so on. Only leave me in peace! LOMOV: [Getting up] Eh? What? To whom? CHUBUKOV: She's willing! Well? Kiss and be damned to you! NATALYA STEPANOVNA: [Wails] He's alive... Yes, yes, I'm willing.... CHUBUKOV: Kiss each other! LOMOV:Eh? Kiss whom? [They kiss] Very nice, too. Excuse me, what's it all about? Oh, now I understand... my heart... stars... I'm happy. Natalya Stepanovna.... [Kisses her hand] My foot's gone to sleep.... NATALYA STEPANOVNA: I... I'm happy too.... CHUBUKOV: What a weight off my shoulders.... Ouf! NATALYA STEPANOVNA: But... still you will admit now that Guess is worse than Squeezer. LOMOV: Better! NATALYA STEPANOVNA: Worse! CHUBUKOV: Well, that's a way to start your family bliss! Have some champagne! LOMOV:He's better! NATALYA STEPANOVNA: Worse! worse! worse! CHUBUKOV: [Trying to shout her down] Champagne! Champagne! Curtain.

13.11 Summary Using Teaching Skits is an impressive method to make students learn from one another without recourse to listening to lectures or reading a text passively. Students can role- play different characters and situations, and those watching can respond creatively or critically. A teacher can make use of skits in the classroom to address current social issues like care for the underprivileged, outreach to the marginal communities such as the slum-dwellers, and the effects of a self-oriented society on an individual's life or the up and coming trend to push the older members of family to old age homes. Prior to assigning the skits, we could create a handout (checklist) featuring suggestions on what the students should consider as of prime importance in developing their skits and what they should watchin particular while viewing the skits. 13.12 Review Questions 1. What is the literal meaning of the term 'skit'? Attempt a comprehensive definition of skits as far as they apply to English Language Teaching. 2. How far is it justified to call 'skits' as Readers' Theatre? 3. Discuss the various advantages of skit-performances in the development or advancement of the L2 learners' knowledge about a second/foreign language. 4. 'A teacher can make use of skits in the classroom to address current social issues.' Discuss the issue of relating skits to social issues in the classroom. 5. Write a note on Interpretative Reading. 6. Frame or develop a model evaluation rubric for skit performances of the students. 7. What are the pre-skit preparations? 8. Shepard (2004) distinguishes between two main models of Learners' Theatre. Discuss. 9. Demonstrating appropriate cultural behaviour is one of the purposes of skits. How would you explain this viewpoint? 10. Develop three sets of skit(s) from Chekhov's humorous one-act play, A Marriage Proposal, as cited in this unit with skit-clues.

NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 435 13.13 References Alison B. and Anna M. S., A Comprehensive Guide to Readers Theatre: Enhancing Fluency and Comprehension in Middle School and Beyond, (The International Reading Association, 2007), p. 3-4. Toni B, Readers' Theater in the Classroom and Library: Pathway to Increased Fluency and Comprehension, 2011, p. 1. Patrick N., Readers Theatre: Improving Oral Proficiency in a Japanese University EFL Course, p. 2. Patrick N., Readers Theatre: Improving Oral Proficiency in aJapanese University EFL Course, p. 3. Readers Theatre: A Different Approach to English forStruggling Readers, Ion D., p. 3-4. Readers Theatre: A different approach to English for struggling readers, (University of Stavanger: Faculty of Arts and Education, -), p. 2-3. Patrick, N. C. L., The Impact of Readers Theatre in EFL Classroom, Patrick N., Readers Theatre: Improving Oral Proficiency in a Japanese University, (University of Niigata Prefecture, 2003), p. 1-2. A.S, Hornby, Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English, (New York: Oxford University Press, 2010), p. 1393. Herrera G. S., Teaching Reading to English Language Learners, (Boston: Pearson Education, Inc., 2010), p. 178. E-book: Ion D., Readers Theatre: A different approach to English for struggling readers, (University of Stavanger: Faculty of Arts and Education), p. 2-3.

436 NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 Unit - 14 p Teaching Novels Structure 14.1 Introduction 14.2 Objectives 14.3 Types of Novels 14.3.1 Mystery Novel 14.3.2 Gothic Novel 14.3.3 Historical Novel 14.3.4 Picaresque Novel 14.3.5 Bildungsroman or Autobiographical Novel 14.3.6. Science Fiction and Fantasy Novel 14.3.7. Romance Novel 14.3.8. Realist Novel 14.3.9. Psychological Novel or Stream of Consciousness Novel 14.4. Novel Structure and Elements 14.4.1 Dividing Up the Story 14.4.2 Timelines and Points of View 14.4.3 Three-Act Structure 14.5 Summary 14.6 Review Questions 14.7 References 14.1Introduction Unlike epic poetry or ballads or metrical romances, a novel tells, or in cases such as stream-of-consciousness novel, shows forth its story using prose rather than verse; unlike short stories, it tells a longish narrative, as long as a trilogy or the so-called river novel, rather than a brief slice of human experience of life, presented in taut focus in a

NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 437 short story. There are, however, other characteristic elements that set the novel apart as a literary genre. In everyday usage, the novel has come to be associated closely with fiction, as opposed to nonfiction. For the most part, that association stands thus: not all fiction is novels, but all novels are fiction, even historical novel. A non-fiction prose work that is of the same length as a novel could fall into several other categories, such as historiography, biography, and so on. Although a novel is typically a work of fiction, many novels do weave in real human history. This can range from full-fledged novels of historical fiction, which focus on a specific history or present quasi-fictional narrative about real historical persons, to works of fiction that simply exist as 'displaced narrative duplication the "real" world. There also are early modern works of historical nonfiction that were embellished with made- up speeches for dramatic effect. Despite this, for most purposes we can assume that, when we talk about novels, we refer to works of narrative fiction or prose fiction in epical span, with elaborate plotlines and progression of a long story through interplay of character and plot. Henry James, the celebrated American novelists puts it aptly: what is character but an illustration of plot; what is plot but an illustration of character. Narratologically, novel is a complex genre. It ranges over a whole gamut of narrative techniques that range from a bland description of brute realities to an intricate, subtle and suggestive showing forth of the character's inner drama or conscious stream that cuts across temporal and spatial sequence. Joyce's is breakthrough in telescoping the consciousness of twenty-four hours in a non-coherent syntax reflecting the multidimensionality of consciousness. From the experiential crude realities outside a critical self to the dark areas of mind the narrative techniques encompass an incurving hierarchy: 1. Third-person omniscient God narration; the God-narrator knows and permeates all his/her characters and all incidents, being himself or herself above and beneath the story, and nowhere is visible. 2. Third-person intrusive narration, in which the omniscient author-narrator frequently suspends the story to intrude with reader-guiding commentaries on all characters, on all incidents. 3. Free indirect discourse narration or erlebteRedeornarrated monologue: a method in which the third-person narrator informs the consciousness of the characters, and a presents a narrative that is close to the consciousnesses of the characters.

438 NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 4. First-person narration or fallible/unreliable narration in which the narrator is a character within the narrative frame, and mediating the story from his/her limited observation and perspective. 5. Multi-personal narration in which each character tells his or her story from a limited personal experience and as result a manyvoiced story emerges. Joseph Conrad excelled in this form of 'developing sequence' from multi-personal points of view. 6. Monologue interior or spoken soliloquy in which the characters assume their own first-person voices rendering the resonance of their conscious streams. To put it in other word, it is their-person rendering of 7. Simulated stream of narration that orchestrates with the psychic flux of the characters, with incessant metaphoric echoes, tonal jostles, suggestive ellipsis, saliences of silence and assortment of random images that overrides the coherence of syntax and grammar. James Joyce stormed into the arena of novelistic literature with his epitomic epic of simulated stream of consciousness in his Ulysses. Key Takeaways Ø A novel is a work of prose fiction that tells a narrative over an extended length of time and a gallery of characters. Ø Novels date as far back as 1010's Tale of Genji by MurasakiShikibu; European novels first appeared in the early seventeenth century. The first complete English novel is Daniel Defoe's Robinson Crusoe. Ø Novels overtook epic poetry and chivalric/metrical romances as the most popular mode of storytelling, with an emphasis on the personal reading experience. Ø Today, novels come in a wide variety of subgenres 14.2 Objectives Novel is a literary offshoot of realism in literature. So it often earns a definitive description as 'realistic prose narrative'. By going through this Module we will come to know how novel and its sub-generic mutations portray the experiential and circumambient realities that the humans come to grapple with. An effective and in-depth study of the novelistic literature equips the reader with a better understanding of human life, its complexities

NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 439 and vagaries and man's existential position not only in the spectrum and matrix of socio-economic and political conditions, but also in the whole of a cosmic situation. 14.3. Types of Novels Novels come in all styles imaginable, with every author bringing his or her own unique voice to the table. Within its broad framework, the genre of the novel has encompassed an extensive range of types and styles: picaresque, epistolary, Gothic, romantic, realist, historical, stream of consciousness novel—to name only some of the more important ones. The novel is a genre of fiction, and fiction may be defined as a craft of contriving, through the written representations of human life that instruct or divert or both. The various forms that fiction may take on, are best seen less as a number of separate categories than as a continuum or, more accurately, a cline, with the briefest form as anecdote at one end of the scale and the longest conceivable novel like a trilogy or river novel at the other. When any piece of fiction is long enough to constitute a whole book, as opposed to a mere part of a book, it may be said to have achieved novelhood. But this concept of novelhood admits of its own quantitative categories, so that a relatively brief novel may be termed a novella (or, if the insubstantiality of the content matches its brevity, a novelette), and a very long novel that overflows the banks of a single volume, and becomes a roman- fleuve or river novel. MAJOR TYPES OF NOVELS 14.3.1 Epistolary Novel Epistolary[adjective form of the noun, epistle'] novel is a type of novel told through the medium of letters written by one or more of the characters. Originating from Samuel Richardson's Pamela; or, Virtue Rewarded (1740), the story of a servant girl's victorious struggle against her master's attempts to seduce her, it considered one of the earliest forms of epistolary novel to have developed and remained one of the most popular up to the 19th century. The epistolary novel's reliance on subjective points of view makes it the forerunner of the modern psychological novel.The advantages of the novel in letter form are that it presents objectively and with dramatic immediacy an intimate view of the character's thoughts and feelings without author intrusion into the narrative. Presentation of events from several points of view, technically known as multipersonal points of

view, lends the story an element of verisimilitude. Although the method was most often a vehicle for sentimental novels, it was not limited to them. Of the outstanding examples of the form, Richardson's Clarissa (1748) has a tragic intensity, Tobias Smollett's Humphry Clinker (1771) is a picaresque comedy and social commentary, and Fanny Burney's Evelina (1778) is a novel of manners. Jean-Jacques Rousseau used the form as a vehicle for his ideas on marriage and education in La Nouvelle Héloïse (1761). The letter-novelof Pierre Choderlos de Laclos, Les Liaisons dangereuses (1782; Dangerous Acquaintances), is a work of penetrating and realistic psychology under the veneer of epistolary gorm Some disadvantages of the form are apparent in epistolary novel. Dependent on the letter writer's need to confess to virtue, vice, or powerlessness, such confessions were susceptible to suspicion or come within the ambit of unreliable or fallible narration.The servant girl Pamela's remarkable literary acumen and her propensity for writing on all occasions were burlesqued in Henry Fielding's Shamela (1741), which pictures his heroine in bed scribbling,however, epistolary novel was popular novelistic entertainment paving the path to modem psychological novel. 14.3.2 Mystery Novel Mystery novels revolve around a crime, and the suspense-ridden plotline hooks the reader on to the detection of the crime, often a murder if not always. The traditional format will have a detective—either professional or amateur—as the protagonist, surrounded by a group of characters who help solve the crime,and characters who are suspects. Over the course of the story, the detective will sift through clues, including false leads and red herrings, to solve the case. Some of the best-known novels of all time fall into the mystery genre, including the Nancy Drew and Hardy Boys series, Sir Arthur Conan Doyle's Sherlock Holmes novels, and Agatha Christie's novels. Christie's And Then There Were None is the world's best-selling mystery novel. 14.3.3. Gothic Novel Gothic Novel is spun around macabre horror and suspense elements in a supernatural setting that scares the wits out of readers. Beginning from Hugh Walpole's The Castle of Otranto(1764) the typical setting of a gothic novel is replete with dark, secret passages, faintly lit dungeons, and an eerie atmosphere frequently stirred by the shrieks of bats. Ann Radcliffe's The Mysteries of Udolpho(1794) sets the gothic novelistic tradition of

a suspense tale centring round a beautiful heroine beset with ominous shadows, strange noises and a candle that keeps blowing out now and then. Matthew Lewis stretched the tradition in his The Monk(1796) to extreme horror effects by invoking ghosts, and other supernatural stock-in-trade. Gothic Novel retained its popularity throughout Europe up to the 1830s. It resurfaced in the 20 th century in diverse forms of horror film. 14.3.4. Historical Novel Historical novel uses a historical era or backdrop for its story with a fusion of history and fiction. Sir Walter Scott fathered the fashion of historical novel on the Scottish history. His American counterpart, James Fennimore Cooper, wrote Leather Stocking Tales (1823-41) to have won worldwide fame. 19 th century masters of the Historical novel were Victor Hugo (Notre Dame de Paris, 1831) and Alexander Dumas (The Three Musketeers, 1844). In the 20 th century Historical novel continues to be popular, as exemplified by Margaret Mitchell's Gone with the Wind (1936), Toni Morrison's Beloved (1987) or William Styron's The Confession of Nat Turner (1967).Iconic works of historical fiction include Ivanhoe, A Tale of Two Cities, Gone with the Wind, and The Hunchback of Notre Dame. 14.3.5. Picaresque Novel Picaresque novel is a type of novel that recounts the adventure of a picaro(Spanish picaro means 'knave or rogue'). The picaro moves from one master to another, and finally finds himself in the centre of society. It is the autobiography of a rogue who knows by the hard raps of reality the value of money in moving from the margin to the centre of society. Thematically, it is the picaro'sstory of upward social mobility through a travelling career. Structurally, it is episodic and rambling. The picaresque is a fictive response to social and cultural clashes that affected Spain and the rest of Western Europe in the turmoil of a shift from feudal system to monarchical society in the 16 th century. The prototype is the anonymous Lazarillo de Tormes (1554) to present a first-person narrator, who relates his adventures with different situations, and his witty oeuvres to survive and carve his place in polite society at last. Dickens's Oliver Twist is the type of an anti-picaresque in that he remains incorruptibly good despite his diverse untoward experiences in a shifting narrative in first-person voice. 14.3.6. Bildungsroman or Aurobigraphical Novel Bildungsroman which is in a sense also Education novel is a German term for a fictional form that narrates, in a homo-diegetic or first-person mode, the development or evolution

442 NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 of a character moving from childhood to maturity. Often called Coming of Age Novel, this type of novel presents the archetypal theme of initiation or a character's movement from innocence to knowledge. Remarkable instances are: Goethe's The Sorrows of Young Werther (1774), Dickens' David Copperfield (1849-50), James Joyce's Portrait of the Artist as a Young Man (1916), and Gunter Grass's The Tin Drum (1959). 14.3.7. Science Fiction and Fantasy Novel One of the more popular genres of novels is science fiction and fantasy, which both deal with speculative world building. The lines between the two are often blurred, but in general, science fiction tends to imagine a world that's different because of technology, while fantasy imagines a world with magic. Early science fiction included the works of Jules Verne and continued on through George Orwell's seminal classics such as 1984; contemporary science fiction is a highly popular genre. Some of the best-known novels in Western literature are fantasy novels, including the Lord of the Rings series, The Chronicles of Narnia, and Harry Potter; they owe their debt to European epic literature. 14.3.8. Romance Novel Romance novels of the present day have some things in common with "romances" of the past: the idea of romantic love as an end goal, the occasional scandal, intense emotions at the centre of it all. Today's romances, however, are more specifically focused on telling a story of a romantic and/or sexual love between characters. They often follow highly specific structures and are all but required to have an optimistic or 'happy' resolution. Romance is currently the most popular novel genre in the United States. 14.3.9. Realist Novel Realist fiction is, quite simply, fiction that eschews heightened or spectacular genres or styles to attempt to tell a story that "could" take place in the world as we know it. The focus is on representing things truthfully, without romanticization or artistic flourishes. Some of the best-known realist authors include Mark Twain, John Steinbeck, Honoré de Balzac, Anton Chekov, and George Eliot. 14.3.10. Psychological Novel or Stream of Consciousness Novel Psychological novel or Stream of consciousness novel (too frequently interchangeably used) is more a narratological term than generic. It refers to a type of fiction that verbally simulates the multidimensional consciousness of a character in a telescopic spot of time NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 443 and space. Interior Monologue is its most dominant form. The best known example of interior monologue is Molly Bloom's soliloquy, in the closing section of Joyce's novel, Ulysses (1922). Other examples featuring this close first-person rendering of a character's conscious flux are: John Dos Passos'sManhattan Transfer (1925), and William Faulkner's The Sound and the Fury (1929) and As I Lay Dying (1930). 14.4. Novel Structure and Elements A novel can be structured in myriad ways. Most commonly, novels are structured chronologically, in a coherent linear plotline, with story segments split into chapters. However, this is not the only structural option for authors. As in Joyce's strem technique, the narrative is non-linear and incoherent, overlapping the states of consciousness, and baffles the Aristotelian concept of beginning , middle and an end. It is a free-floating flux corresponding to the random workings of the characters' mind, 14.4.1 Splitting Up the Story Chapters tend to revolve around some small portion of the novel that is unified by a character, theme, or piece of plot. In larger novels, chapters may be grouped together into even larger sections, perhaps grouped by time period or an overarching portion of the story. The division into smaller "chunks" of story is one of the defining elements of a novel; a story that is short enough to not need such divisions is likely not lengthy enough to qualify as a full-lengthy novel. 14.4.2 Timelines and Points of View Authors may choose to structure novels in a variety of different ways. Instead of telling a story chronologically, for instance, the story may toggle between different time periods in order to maintain suspense or make a thematic point. Novels may also switch between the perspectives of multiple characters, rather than focusing on a single character as the sole protagonist. A novel may be told in the first person (narrated by a character) or in the third person (narrated by an outside "voice" with varying degrees of knowledge). 14.4.3 Three-Act Structure Regardless of the time frame, a novel's plot will often follow what is known as the three-act structure. The opening chapters will be concerned with acquainting readers with the main cast of characters and the world of the story, before a specific incident, typically referred to as the "inciting incident," shakes up the status quo and launches the

444 NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 "real" story. From that point, the story (now in "Act 2") will enter a series of complications as the protagonist pursues some goal, encountering obstacles and smaller goals along the way. At the midpoint of the story, there will often be some major shift that raises the stakes, all leading up to the emotional and narrative climax towards the end of the novel. "Act 3" concerns itself with this finale and the fallout. Literary analysis looks critically at a work of fiction in order to understand how the parts contribute to the whole. When analyzing a novel or short story, we need to consider elements such as the context, setting, characters, plot, literary devices, and themes. We have to remember that a literary analysis is not merely a summary or review, but rather an interpretation of the work and an argument about it based on the text. Depending on our assignment, we may argue about the work's meaning or why it causes certain reader reactions. 14.5. Summary In this unit we have discussed the most popular of genres called 'fiction' or novels. In doing this, we have discussed the origin of this genre in the European tradition which was later adopted in the English language. The English novel has grown as a tradition through different ages and also has shown a variety. Each of the types of novels has been discussed with a brief description of its characteristic features and exemplified with some popular titles. We have laid emphasis on some of the developments in the recent days for your study. 14.6Review Questions 1. Write a critical note on the different narrative techniques that evolved through the history of novel as a literary genre. 2. Comment on the structural aspects of novel as a form of art 3.. Novel as a realistic prose narrative diversified itself into subclasses. Discuss. 4. Write notes on a] Bildungsroman and Picaresque novel; 5. Assess Stream-of-consciousnessNovel as a random recapture of the characters' thought process. 6. HOW would distinguish between history and Historical novel?

NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 445 7. Set up a study of distinction between Realist[ic] novel Romance novel. 8. Write a brief review of narratological techniques in the novel as an art form. 9. What is multipersonal points of view in a novel. What are its advantages and disadvantages? 10. Basically novel is a realistic prose narrative, distinct from romance. 14.7References l Burgess, Anthony. "Novel." Encyclopaedia Britannica, https://www.britannica.com/ art/novel. l Doody, Margaret Anne. The True Story of the Novel. New Brunswick, NJ: Rutgers University Press, 1996. l Kuiper, Kathleen, ed. Merriam-Webster's Encyclopaedia of Literature. Springfield, MA: Merriam-Webster, 1995. l Watt, Ian. The Rise of the Novel. University of California Press, 2001. l Percy Lubbock, The Craft of Fiction. Classic Library, London.. 2015.

446 NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 Unit - 15 p Teaching non-fictional Prose (Essay) Structure 15.1 Introduction 15.2 Objectives 15.3 The Eighteenth Century Periodical Essay 15.4 The Impact of Periodicals 15.4.1 The Form and Content of the Periodical Essay 15.4.2 The Coffee House Culture 15.5 The Romantic Essays/Non-Fiction Prose 15.6 Charles Lamb (1775-1834) 15.6.1. Personal and Autobiographical Element 15.6.2. Humour and Pathos 15.6.3. Lamb's Style 15.7 Victorian Non-Fiction Prose/Essay 15.8 Summary 15.9 Review Questions 15.10 References 15.1Introduction The difference between the right word and the almost-right word is the difference between lightning and a lightning bug. – Mark Twain For Mr Twain, essays were way more than academic assignments most of us love hating so much. His works inspired ideas and motivated people to change the world in terms of social culture and attitude to life. He is of the opinion that our increasing acquaintance with the brilliant essays across literary epochs and eras can make us learn the exact word for our feeling which alone can uplift our social and cultural world. Different literary forms have been designated by the common name Essay. In strictness, it is to Montaigne that we owe the name and the thing. His Essais, excellently translated

NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 447 by John Florio in 1583, were popular in England, and Bacon, fourteen years later, borrowed the title for his famous bundles of apothegm. The influence of the Essais, continuing into the next century, increased with the liking for all things French after the Restoration, and is attested by Cotton's New Translation in 1680. They evidently furnished the model for those charming discursive papers by Cowley, Halifax, and Temple, which closely resemble some of the best works of Hazlitt, de Quincey or Lamb of the 19th century. Essay as such now invades all journalistic fields, and continues to the chief stuff of communication via journal articles and media-centric communiques. The essay is perhaps one of the most flexible genres: long or short, personal or analytical, exploring the extraordinary and the mundane. The first collection of personal essays is credited to Michel de Montaigne; his Essais was first published in 1580. The word essay comes from the French verb essayer, which means, 'to try'. Dr Johnson defines the essay as 'a loose sally of the mind'. A. C. Benson, in his essay, "The Art of the Essayist" identifies two basic features of a non-fictional prose tract, known as the essay: as lyrically subjective and self-expressive, and thematically all-permeable. Before the word itself was coined in the 16th century by Montaigne and Bacon, what came to be called an essay was called a treatise, and its attempt to treat a serious theme with consistency deprived it of the seductive charm relished in the later examples of this form of literature. In this sense, the word "essay" would hardly fit the didactic tone of Aristotle's Rhetoric or his Metaphysics. There were, however, ancient masters of an early form of the essay, such as Cicero discoursing on the pleasantness of old age or on the art of 'divination'; Seneca, on anger or clemency; and Plutarch, more superficially and casually, on the passing of oracles. The relentless desire to analyse one's own contradictions, especially among Christians, who, like Saint Paul, were aware of their duality and of 'doing the evil which they would not', also contributed to the emergence of the essay. But Christian writing tended to be highly didactic, as may be seen in the work of Saint Augustine of the 5th century, or of the 12th-century theologian Abélard, or even in the Latin writings on "the solitary life" or on "the scorn of the world" by the 14th-century Italian poet Petrarch. Not until the Renaissance, with its increasing assertion of self-deification, the flexible and deliberately nonchalant and versatile form of the essay was perfected by Montaigne. Montaigne, who established the term essay, left his mark on almost every essayist who came after him in continental Europe, and perhaps even more in English-speaking countries.

448 NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 Emerson made him one of his six Representative Men along with others of the stature of Plato, Shakespeare, and Goethe. Hazlitt lauded Montaigne's qualities as precisely those that "we consider in great measure English," and another English romantic writer, Leigh Hunt, saw him as "the first man who had the courage to say as an author what he felt as a man." And the 20th-century poet T.S. Eliot declared him to be the most important writer to study for an insight into the literature of France. With Montaigne, the essay achieved for the first time what it can achieve better than any other form of writing, except perhaps the epistolary one: a means of self-discovery. It gave the writer a way of reaching the secret springs of his behaviour, of seizing the man and the author at once in his contradictions, in his profound disunity, and in his mobility. The essay was symbolic of man's new attitude toward himself, revelling in change, and hence in growth, and forsaking his age-old dream of achieving an underlying steadfastness that might make him invulnerable and similar to the gods. He would portray his foibles and unworthiness, hoping to rise above his own mediocrity, or, at the other extreme, he would exalt himself in the hope that he might become the man he depicted. Montaigne in his essays pursued an ethical purpose, but with no pompousness or rhetoric. He offered an ideal that was adopted by his successors for centuries: perfecting man as a tolerant, non-dogmatic, urbane social being. 15.2

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Objectives After going through this unit, the learners will be able to: l Understand the

salient features of the genre non-fictional prose l Appreciate the development of this genre through the ages l Understand how this genre is a precursor to journalism l Realise the need for exercising restraints in language use to achieve coherence, and precision of expression. 15.3 The Eighteenth Century Periodical Essay In the eighteenth century British periodical literature underwent significant developments in terms of form, content, and audience. Several factors contributed to these changes. Prior to 1700 the English popular press was in its infancy. The first British newspaper,

NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 449 The Oxford Gazette, was introduced in 1645. Two years later the Licensing Act of 1647 established government control of the press by granting the Gazette a strictly enforced monopoly on printed news. As a result, other late seventeenth-century periodicals, including The Observer (1681) and The Athenian Gazette (1691), either supplemented the news with varied content, such as political commentary, reviews, and literary works, or provided specialized material targeting a specific readership. During this time, printing press technology was improving. Newer presses were so simple to use that individuals could produce printed material themselves. British society was in transition as well. The burgeoning commercial class created an audience with the means, education, and leisure time to engage the public in reading. When the Licensing Act expired in 1694, publications sprang up, not just in London, but all across England and its colonies. Joseph Addison and Richard Steele are generally regarded as the most significant figures in the development of the eighteenth-century periodicals. Together they produced three publications: The Tatler (1709-11), The Spectator (1711-12), and The Guardian (1713). In addition, Addison published The Free-Holder (1715-16), and Steele, who had been the editor of The London Gazette (the former Oxford Gazette) from 1707 to 1710, produced a number of other periodicals, including The Englishman (1713-14), Town-Talk (1715-16), and The Plebeian (1719). The three periodicals Addison and Steele produced together were great successes. None ceased publication because of poor sales or other financial reasons, or by the choice of their editors. Beginning in the eighteenth century and continuing to the present day, there has been continuing debate among the critics and scholars over the contributions of Addison and Steele to the development of prose. Addison has been generally seen as the more eloquent writer, while Steele has been regarded as the better editor and organizer. Periodicals in the eighteenth century included social and moral commentary, and literary and dramatic criticism, as well as short literary works. They also saw the advent of serialized stories, which Charles Dickens, among others, would later perfect. One of the most important outgrowths of the eighteenth-century periodical, however, was the topical, or periodical, essay. Although novelist Daniel Defoe made some contributions to its evolution with his Review of the Affairs of France (1704-13), Addison and Steele are credited with bringing the periodical essay to maturity. Appealing to an educated audience, the periodical essay as developed by Addison and Steele was not scholarly, but casual in tone, concise, and adaptable to a number of subjects, including daily life, ethics, religion, science, economics, and social and political issues.

450 NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 15.4 The Impact of Periodicals The impact of periodicals was both immediate and on-going. Throughout the eighteenth century and beyond there were many imitators of Addison and Steele's publications. These successors, which arose not just in England, but in countries throughout Europe and in the United States as well, modelled their style, content, and editorial policies on those of The Tatler, The Spectator, and The Guardian. Some imitators, such as The Female Spectator (1744), were targeted specifically at women. Addison and Steele's periodicals achieved a broader influence when they were translated and reprinted in collected editions for use throughout the century. The epistolary exchanges, short fiction, and serialized stories included in the periodicals had an important influence on the development of the novel. In addition, celebrated figures from Benjamin Franklin and Jean-Jacques Rousseau to Mark Twain have acknowledged the impact of the eighteenth- century periodical, particularly The Spectator, on their development as writers and thinkers. 15.4.1. The Form and Content of the Periodical Essay The periodical essay of the eighteenth century invited men of the Age of Reason to pour into it their talent and thought. It was a form in which they could make their points briefly and effectively. It was flexible, and was eventually familiar enough to be well received. The form itself reflected the common-sense view about life, restraint and moderation that the periodical writers advocated. If a writer had a pet idea or philosophy, he was given a medium for fixing it firmly in his reader's mind by repeating his thought at irregular intervals. The moral issues, periodical writers dealt with, had a "cumulative" impact on a number of papers. The periodical essay differed from a newspaper in that the newspaper was concerned with matters of the moment brought as soon as possible before the public, and the essay could proceed on a more leisurely and contemplative course. Both the essay and the newspaper used the same format and addressed essentially the same audience - the middle and upper middle classes. The periodical essay dealt with matters that were contemporary but not immediate-with manners and morals, with tendencies of the time rather than actual events. 15.4.2. The Coffee House Culture The chief outlets for the periodicals and the soil on which the essays took root and sprouted were the coffee houses, the intellectual and social hubs of the eighteenth century. Coffee had been brought into England about the middle of the preceding century and by

the early 1700's it became an institution. Coffee houses were the chief gathering places for men of letters and were the natural centres for the dissemination of ideas and information. Each coffee house had its own clientele, and discussion was on topics of interest and import to the particular trade or social group that belonged there. In the coffee houses circles were formed to mull over the matters of the day. The opinions of the coffee houses became the criteria for pronouncing judgment on ideas and events of the times. The give and take of conversation was an important feature of London life and influenced it in many ways. Men's ideas were moulded and refined through contact with others' thoughts, and conversation became clearer and more polished. The coffee houses had a direct effect on the literary style of the periodicals.As the papers were circulated and discussed in these centres, their writing styles needed to be as clear and colloquial as conversational. The coffee houses were an admirable part of eighteenth century life.But other facets of the times were less pleasant. The unpleasant aspects of the century - the prevalence of violence and crime in the poorly lighted London streets, the cruel punishments of criminals, the quackery of "medical" men, the extreme poverty of the lower classes - bypassed the upper class morals and manners. It was in this atmosphere that the periodical essay developed and did more, perhaps, than any other institution towards improving social conditions. As the age cried out to be educated, to be instructed in a sane living, the periodicals answered with their sage and reasoned advice. The best, most readable of these advisors of the age were Richard Steele's The Tatler, Joseph Addison's The Spectator, Samuel Johnson's The Rambler, and Oliver Goldsmith's collection of essays, The Citizen of the World. 15.5 The Romantic Essays/Non-Fiction Prose Alongside the tide of romanticism in poetry, mostly lyrical poetry, during the period (1798 – 1830) of the Romantic Revival appeared in this period an array of prose-writers- Lamb, Hazlitt and De Quincey among a host of minor prose writers.Interestingly, by this time a change had taken place in the prose-style also. Many eighteenth century prose-writers depended on assumptions about the suitability of various prose styles, which they shared with their relatively small but sophisticated public.Writers in the Romantic period were rather more concerned with subject matter and emotional expression than with appropriate style. They wrote for an ever-increasing audience which was less homogeneous in its interest and education than that of their predecessors. There was also an indication of a growing distrust of the sharp distinction between matter and

manner which was made in the eighteenth century, and of a Romantic preference for spontaneity rather than formality and contrivance. There was a decline of the grandorheroic style and of contrived architectural prose written for the educated urbane public or for didactic purposes. Though some Romantic poets- Coleridge, Shelley, Keats, Byron-wrote excellent prose in their critical writings, letters and journals, and some of the novelists like Scott and Jane Austen were masters of prose-style, those who wrote prose for its own sake in the form of the essays and attained excellence in the art of prose-writing were Lamb, Hazlitt and De Quincey. 15.6 Charles Lamb (1775-1834): Charles Lamb is one of the most lovable personalities among the English essayists. He lived a very humble, honest, and self-sacrificing life. He never married, but devoted himself to the care of his sister Mary, ten years his senior, who was subject to seasonal mental disorder.In one of her frenzied fits she had fatally wounded her mother. In his Essays of Elia (1823) and Last Essays (1833)Lamb laid bare the wealth of his family affections, taking the readers into confidence about himself, his quaint whims and experiences, and the cheerful and heroic struggle that he bore quietly against misfortunes. Born in a lower class family, Lamb came in contact with Coleridge. He started his career as a poet but could not succeed. From 1820 to 1833, essay writing was his main occupation. He wrote under the pseudonym of Elia. His first essay appeared in the London Magazine in 1820. The first volume of his essays was published in 1823 as Essays OfElia and the second as the Last Essays OfElia in 1833. In the essays of Lamb we find a fine fusion of wit, fancy, anecdote and reflection. InCazamian's view, Lamb is 'above all an artist'. 15.6.1. Personal and Autobiographical Element Lamb's essays are personal and autobiographical. They reflect the tenderness of his soul, his empathetic nature, his simplicity, his geniality and his charity. Lamb talks about his relatives, friends and acquaintances in his essays. But he is silent about the murder of his mother for the sake of his sister. It was she who killed Lamb's mother. He often changes the name of his relations and mystifies the character by blending facts with fiction. Such deviations do not alter the truth. He is friendly and intimate with the reader. He takes him into his confidence on private affairs. He frankly tells us about his

NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 453 childhood, his boyhood and his manhood. Throughout his essays he remains uniquely personal and autobiographical. His humanity is visible everywhere. Lamb's essays exhibit infinite variety. Here is God's plenty. His essays satisfy the appetite of every taste. In his essays Lamb reveals himself. He is a visualiser of memories. His essays give a glimpse into his life and thought. The essay 'Dream Children' is noted for its autobiographical description. It is a reverie. The reason behind the creation of this essay is the death of his brother John. It unveils the author's soul. It is full of pathos. In "A Bachelor's Complaint" Lamb describes various oddities of the married couples. 15.6.2. Humour and Pathos As a humourist Lamb is unsurpassable in English prose. There is no humourist more original than Lamb. He often interrupted a serious discussion with a light jest. His essays are marked with all shades of humour and delicate irony. Puns, absurd details, funny situations and boisterous laughter usually occur in his essays. There are even harmless strokes of fun at pen-portraits coming up in his essays. The element of humour is balanced with a tinge of sadness and a vein of reflectiveness. Pathos is an essential aspect of his humour. It is a consciousness of the pathetic aspects of life that made him laugh away them with a twitch in his heart. He laughed to save himself from weeping. Nostalgia and wistful longing often underlie his laughter. In short, Lamb's humour is a blend of jest and tears. "The Dream Children" is remarkable for its blend of humour and pathos. 15.6.3. Lamb's Style However, Lamb does not typify the familiar prose style advocated by Hazlitt in his essay, "on Familiar Style". The typical Lambian style is long, convoluted sentences, often laden with archaism or obsolete Latinized words. Yet there other appealing aspects of Lamb's prose style. His essays have the charm of lyrical mellifluence. Conversational ease, epigrammatic depth, emotional flexibility, reminiscent allusiveness mark the essays of Elia. Lamb's style is remarkably influenced by the 17th century writers like Brown, Burton and Fuller. He often quotes from the old writers to express his feelings. Lamb makes frequent use of irony and pun. J. C. Powys writes,' Elia's style is the only thing in English prose that can be called absolutely perfect.' De Quincey was considered one of the greatest prose stylists of the English Romantic era, otherwise best known for poetic, imaginative, convoluted prose style, best exemplified in "Confessions of an English Opium Eater". In a great variety of prose works that were

454 NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 widely read in 19th-century England and America, he anticipated later literary radicals such as American mystery pioneer and experimentalist Edgar Allan Poe and the French poet Charles Baudelaire. William Hazlitt is one of the greatest English romantic essayists. He was eager to inquire into human life with all its variety. He wrote of a vast range of topics. He was keenly interested in a vast variety of things-books of all kinds, politics, sports, stage etc. Hazlitt's essays are grave in nature, serious and thought-provoking. They show his philosophic bent of mind. A large number of his essays are on abstract ideas such as Egotism, Reason, Imagination, and the fear of Death. He is more interested in the idea than in the essay as a form. He does not indulge in moralizing. In his hands essay became a means of self-expression. He often glides into the past. He weaves the texture of his essays by the threads of memory. He thus reveals his life and mind. Whateverbe the theme of his essays, each of them is a reflection on human nature. They are the reflections of a man who lived and loved life. He observes life with penetrating sympathy and feelings. He wrote with convictions that were deep and firm. He gave more attention to the idea than to the expression. He wrote with a spontaneity and involvement that verged on frenzy. He wrote with an aim at communicating with his readers. Hazlitt's "On Actors and Acting-I" is a beautiful essay, in praise of actors and acting. Here the essayist is highly allusive. His mood is philosophical and nostalgic. Hazlitt has a style of his own. It has been called the familiar style. He does not use archaic, irrelevant and superfluous words. He frequently uses figures of speech to emphasize his point of view. His essays are replete with vivid descriptions. His sentences are brief and abrupt, vigorous and direct. He often writes balanced, antithetical sentences to present the contrasting ideas. He is also praised for the use of epigrams and paradoxes. Essay or non-fiction prose with all its ramifications continues through the 20 th century to dominate the academic and literary world alongside social, economic and political journalism. 15.7. Victorian Non-Fiction Prose/Essay While the prose of Romantic Movement was highly imaginative, written for the sole purpose of describing personal experiences, that of the Victorian Age explored intellectual debates on contemporary problems of religion, philosophy, politics and arts. Coming

NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 455 down to the history of English Literature from the Romantic Age of Idealism to the Victorian era of Realism, one experiences the feeling of a shift from solitude to society, from nature to industry, from concepts to issues, from spiritualism to pragmatism, from optimism to agnosticism, from lyricism to criticism and from organic structure to compromise. A large part of the complex changes that comes about in the English Literature as it moves from the early 19th century to the later 19th century can be measured from the kind of the changes as we pass from Byron to Arnold. The movement of Realism is generally a minor movement in the later 19th century, which began in France and was later, followed by England. Whereas, the Romantics could afford to withdraw from the town in the initial stages of the Industrialisation, the Victorians, facing the flowering of the Industrial Revolution had no such soft option available to them. Therefore rather than living in solitude, writers of the Victorian Age had to cope with the process of change in which the old agrarian way of life had to yield to the new industrial civilization. Against the chain of thinkers, including Newman, Arnold, and Ruskin, who were essentially religious, was the formidable force of utilitarian thinkers like J.S. Mill and agnostic scientists like Darwin, Spencer, Huxley among others. Although utilitarianism was propounded by Jeremy Bentham, the philosophy came into wide acceptance during the Victorian era. Both the state and the industry came under the influence of a mechanical approach to life. The celebrated principle, "the greatest good for the greatest number" was the governing rule of the utilitarian thought on morals, law, politics, and administration. This pragmatic view of life shaped the moralistic prose of Victorian era, represented chiefly by Arnold, Carlyle, Ruskin and Newman. Agnosticism that was an offshoot of Victorian doubt and despair, is defined as the belief, "that nothing is known or can be known of immaterial things, especially of existence or nature of God". The term "agnostic" was coined by T.H. Huxley in 1869 A.D. The realization that God's existence is neither observable nor provable drove society into a state of uncertainty. People of the Victorian Era sought to explore and understand questions about the metaphysical world, but ultimately found no answers and were left in doubt. Agnosticism was a means of identifying the scepticism that stemmed from the inability to logically support the existence of spiritual beings. In the looming shadow of despair

456 NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 and disenchantment with industrialism, Victorian non-fiction prose took on a protesting moral tone and was laden with the language of rhetorical argument. The mellifluence of the Lillian prose was far off from the prose styles of Newman, Ruskin, Arnold or Carlyle, who were all moralists using the essay form as the vehicle of their pragmatic and humane perspectives on the debasement of human life vis-à-vis the furious progress of industrialization. Like the Victorian Novels, typically, prose compositions of the Victorian era are unusually long, argumentative and persuasive unlike those of the Augustan or the periods. The prose writings of the period are either treatises or thesis of book size or essay of unusual length. The typical prose of the period is at best a voiced-forth unorganised composition, with an overtly moral tone. Like the Victorian Novel, the compositions are not formally or even consciously organized. They are strung together only by the argument contained therein, not by any formal design or pattern. Ruskin's Unto This Last and Mill's On Liberty are, strictly speaking, not the works of Literature. However, since they advocate the humane view of life, as against the political, economic or biological, they are allied to literature. Besides, they wrote in a language and style, which if not truly literary, approximates the style of literature. 15.8. Summary In this unit we have discusseda genre of literature which is called the non-fictional prose, and this is popular as essay in the general parlour. We have looked at the importance of this genre through different ages and the types of development there was leading to journalistic writings. We have also familiarised you with well-known essayists in different periods and left you with a few questions to keep pondering on how these have a great influence on our teaching language today. There is also an attempt to provide a comparative account of different types and compare this genre with other genres of literature. 15.9. Review Questions 1. Trace the development of non-fiction prose through the 18 th century? 2. Assess the contribution of 18 th century periodicals to the development of English prose?

NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 457 3. There was a palpable distinction between the Romantic essays and the Victorian essays. Discuss. 4. Discuss the individual traits of the following essayists: Lamb; de Quincey, and William Hazlitt. 5. Dr, Johnson describes the genre, 'essay' as 'a loose sally of the mind'. How far is this description valid? 6. who do you credit with the introduction and popularization of essay as a subjective prose tract? 7. Develop an essay on Victorian Non-Fiction Prose/Essay 8. Consider the contribution of 18 th periodical to the development of essay as an artform. 9. write a short review of the Coffee House Culture in the development essay as distinctive Genre 10. How has this genre influenced the modern day journalism? 15.10. References 1. History of English Literature by Legouis and Cazamian 2. The Spectator Essays: Introduction and Notes by John Morrison 3. https://archive.org/stream/spectatoressaysi00addiuoft#page/n7/mode/2u p 3. 4.http:/ /www.ourcivilisation.com/smartboard/shop/fowlerjh/indexe.htm 4. 5.http:// en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Joseph Addison. 6. http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/The Spectator_(1711) 7. Coverley Papers from The Spectator by T. Singh. 8. Taylor,A.J.P. (1976) Essays in English History. Pelican/Penguin Books 9. Macaulay, Thomas Babington (2000) Critical and Historical Essays — Volume ii

458 NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 Unit- 16 p Revision on Literary forms and Extension Structure 16.1 Introduction 16.2 Objectives 16.3 Definition and expanse 16.4 Role of literature in language teaching 16.5 Classification of literary genres 16.6 Conclusion 16.7 Review Questions 16.8 References and Reading List 16.1 Introduction Let us begin with a question. Do you know what is literature? How is it different from language? I am sure both these words, literature and language are familiar to you, and let us quickly take a look at these two words. What is literature? A good dictionary defines it as 'a body of written work'. Literature is also something that lasts long (e.g. we still consider the works of Kalidasa and Shakespeare far beyond their age) and impacts the human life. Should literature be necessarily fiction or drama or poetry? Then what about terms like – medical literature, literature of science, literature of inventions, literature of historical facts, literature of music, etc. Literature can focus on any subject from medicine to music, engineering to ecology and science to social events. The canvass is really wide. What does this mean? In language teaching, we can use literature of various types and use them as texts for interpretation and language learning. However, for our purpose in this unit, we will look at literary texts and make references to other types of literature tangentially. 16.2 Objectives

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At the end of reading this unit, the learners will be able to:

i. Get a comprehensive view of the spread of literature ii. Understand the different genres as components of literature NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 459 iii. Understand the development of literature across the ages iv. Enjoy and experience illustrations given for each genre. 16.3. Definition and Expanse There are quite a few definitions of literature available from noted authors. One of the definitions I personally like is 'Best words in the best order' by Coleridge. He used this definition with reference to poetry, but this is equally applicable to all genres of literature. If we accept this definition for our purposes of language teaching how useful is it? Language teaching has a focus on developing a learner's proficiency to use language. This is best done by exposing the learner to samples of good use, and literature is obviously one of the best forms of language expression. Hence it is certainly a valuable input to language teaching. Literature is perceived as different genres. What do we mean by genre? Would you like to respond? Your response: Genre means type. You must be familiar with the words 'genus' (singular) and 'genera' (plural). These words are taken from the science of biology and used while classifying animals and plants. Genus denotes a group of plants or animals which can have further smaller divisions called 'species'. Let us not go into those details. Literature is expressed in many types, and each type is called a 'genre' /ˈɒnrʏ/ (this has a French origin, so check its pronunciation properly). We have novels (fiction), prose, poetry, drama, graphic novel, fantasy, science fiction, narrative, biographies, autobiographies, travelogues, diaries, and many more types. You may have read all these, or at least a few of these. You may in the space given below mention a work or two from each category. I will not give any examples. 16.4. Role of literature in language teaching Recall the English textbooks you read in your higher secondary level or college days at the undergraduate level. You must have read a few essays, short stories which were anthologized. Similarly a few poems must have been put together in the form of an anthology. Along with these two, you must have read one or two novels and one or two plays. Do you remember the names of the novels and plays you studied? Can you mention those names in the space given below?
460 NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 a. Plays b. Novels c. Titles of some short stories d. Titles of some essays e. Titles of some poems. (If possible give a brief summary of each one of them. It is not compulsory though.) This task was to see how familiar you are with literature and the various genres that you have studied as an undergraduate student. How helpful was the study of literature in developing your language. The fact that you are able to read these lessons, understand them and also respond to the questions is a sign that you have learnt language reasonably well. But these uses need to be specified properly. Let us try and do this before concluding the unit. Can you guess some of the benefits of using literature in language teaching? Note down your points here: Your response: Literature has other roles to play in teaching language. If you recall your lessons in applied linguistics, one of the features of language is transmission of culture. Culture can best be taught using stories, exposing the learners to life in different parts of the world, and life sketches. All these form integral part of literature, and it becomes an excellent source for teaching appropriate language use in our society. Literature helps develop good reading skills. A literary text can be read independently (without the teacher's help) and this makes for developing good vocabulary as well as proper use of language. Good reading habits besides developing good comprehension skills also develop vocabulary and strengthen the writing skills of the learner. Plays which form an integral part of literature, help learners develop good spoken skills – expressions appropriate to context including various forms of addressing other people. The skills so developed can be harnessed to read and understand content subjects as well. This is the primary purpose of language teaching. Language, we should remember, is taught as a service subject in our schools and colleges.

Let us quickly recall what we have said so far in this unit. We began with a revision of what was learnt in the first two modules on Grammar and Vocabulary. Subsequently, we moved to defining literature and its uses. Finally, we looked at how using a literary text is useful in teaching and learning language. 16.5. Classification of literary genres Look at the flow chart given below. Take a proper look and understand how the literary forms are classified. Try to describe this grid in your own words. Classification of Literary Forms (Genres) It is clear from this grid (classification table) that literary forms can be broadly divided into four categories. These are large categories and are confined to the variety we find in literary texts. Content writing can have other forms and these are not discussed here. The four categories mentioned are Poetry, Drama, Fiction and Nonfiction. Each of these categories has been sub-divided into the varieties of forms that they include. However, the varieties mentioned are not exhaustive, and more varieties can be added. We shall restrict ourselves to these varieties for our discussion. A. Poetry: This is a popular form of literature, and almost everyone is familiar with this form. Poetry comes naturally to language and we perceive this in the numerous folk Poetry Poems Sonnets Ballads Odes Lyrics Songs Couplets Haiku Limericks Drama Comedies Tragedies Tragicomedies Romance Farce Melodrama Absurd Poetic drama Fiction Novels Short Stories Tales Anecdotes Legends Myths Graphic novels Nonfiction Essays Biographies Autobiographies Diaries Speeches Descriptions Prospectus Instruction sheets Reports

songs that we hear in different languages. Folk songs are typical to each language and music is integrated into them. English is no exception. Ballads are in fact folk songs and are sung to the accompaniment of stringed instruments. We have listed eight varieties of poems in our grid. Let us look at some of these varieties and also provide names of one or two poems as illustrations. We will not provide the text of the poems, you can get these by browsing the net. The first of these varieties we have mentioned is called Poems. This is a generic term and does not specifically refer to one variety. The rest of the varieties are all poems. In English literature, the Romantic period (nineteenth century) is supposed to have produced the richest poetry. We had major poets like Wordsworth, Coleridge, Blake, Byron, Keats, Shelley, Browning and Burns during this period. Each one of them produced large volumes of poetry and they had variety in them. i. Sonnets: We will begin with sonnets. Sonnets are short poems of no more than fourteen lines. Very often they are said to be very personal and deal with an experience that touches the poet's life in an emotional way. These could have varied themes of love, dejection, sadness, wonder, philosophical outlook or humour. There are typically two types of sonnets – the Petrarchan (Italian) sonnets and the Shakespearean sonnets. The Petrarchan sonnets were divided into two parts – the first eight lines called the octave and the next six lines called the sestet. Sestet provided a solution to the problem raised in the octave. Both styles of sonnets are written to this day. Besides Wordsworth and Keats, Elizabeth Barrett Browning wrote some of her sonnets in the Petrarchan style. Shakespearean sonnets had three stanzas of four lines each and the sonnet ended with a couplet. Shakespeare wrote more than one hundred fifty four sonnets in this style and made this form popular. All decent libraries have copies of complete works of Shakespeare which include all the sonnets. ii. Ballads: Having looked at what sonnets are, let us move to Ballads. These are quite ancient forms of poems that are available to us. These were popular even during the pre-

Shakespearean day, and often the names of the poets are also lost to us. Ancient ballads were collected, curated and published in the form of a volume by Bishop Percy during early eighteenth century under the title Reliques of Ancient English Poetry. This is a valuable work that has been handed down to us. Some of the best known ballads Keats' 'La Belle Dame Sans Merci'; Yeats' 'Second Coming'; Tennyson's 'Lady of Shallot', Wordsworth's 'Solitary Reaper'; Coleridge's 'Rime of the Ancient Mariner' are some of the famous examples. iii. Odes: The third variety is the ode, which actually means a song to be sung. It is generally written in appreciation of a person or a thing. (Dryden's Alexander's Feast; Keats' Ode on a Grecian Urn) These originated in Greece, and are attributed to Pindar; in fact, the odes are called Pindaric Odes. Some of the best odes were written by Keats (the five famous odes), and Shelley's Ode to West wind are well known poems. iv. Lyrics and Songs: We will not discuss this here. These are stylistic variants and you will find examples of lyricism in the varieties discussed earlier. Ballads and odes are songs. v. Couplets: A few poets expressed their ideas crisply in two lines. Though the poem was longer than two lines, each couplet expressed one complete thought which was carried forward as part of the larger theme of the poem. Alexander Pope was one of the best known poets who popularised couplets – which are memorable. A story is popular about him being chastised by his father for writing poems. When it was his turn to apologise, what he said came in the form of a couplet: 'Father, father, mercy take, I shall never verses make.' When Newton died, he was commissioned to write the epitaph which reads as follows: Nature and nature's laws all lay hid in the night. God said, 'Let Newton be', then there was light.'

464 NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 Dryden was also known for his heroic couplets, and these were later picked up by several younger poets. Sanskrit literature is popular for its couplets based on providing value based lessons. vi. Haiku and Limericks: Haiku is a recent addition to the genre of poetry in English. This style of writing poems has been borrowed from Japanese poetry. Like a couplet (which is restricted to two lines), a Haiku is restricted to seventeen syllables arranged in three lines. The lines need not rhyme, but should convey a complete meaning. Autumn moonlight- a worm digs silently into the chestnut. Limericks like Haiku are also short poems of five lines each with a definite rhyming scheme. Often, limericks are bordered on humour, but not without a message. The authors of limericks are often not known. Take a look at this limerick There was a lady from Niger, Who went for a ride on a tiger. They returned from the ride, With the lady inside And a smile on the face of the tiger! I am sure you enjoyed reading this limerick, which has humour as well as caution on choosing a ride. Edward Lear has written some of the best limericks to date. This brings us to the close of our discussion on different forms of poetry. We shall now proceed to look at Drama in the next section. B. Drama: Drama is a major genre which acquired popularity during the Elizabethan period with playwrights like Shakespeare and Marlow. Drama was a popular form of literature in ancient India and Greece, and the English theatre has adopted the form from both these sources.

NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 465 Drama and Shakespeare have been synonymous. Shakespeare introduced quite a few types of plays – Tragedies, Comedies, Tragi-comedies, Historical plays, and Romances. These largely form the varieties and the characteristics of each one of them remain the same. A Drama portrays life of a person, period or a family. It could borrow themes from history, epics, popular legends, and day to day life. The technique of presenting a real life story accounts for the success of drama. Let us briefly look at some types and provide names of a couple of popular plays as illustrations. i. Tragedy: This is a play which centres on the fall of a hero. Hero is a famous person, (a king, baron, queen, a brave soldier, a well-known merchant, or a wealthy lord). The hero has several good qualities, but also has a few weaknesses (hamartia) due to which he falls from grace. That fall accounts for the tragedy. (In the Indian plays, tragedies were not accepted, and most plays ended on a happy note. But Greek plays were profound tragedies – Oedipus Rex, Agamemnon, and Hippolytus). Shakespeare was known for his tragedies such as King Lear, Hamlet, Julius Ceaser, Macbeth, and Romeo and Juliet. Marlow a contemporary of Shakespeare also wrote some tragedies and the best known play of his is Doctor Faustus is a famous tragedy. ii. Comedies: Comedies largely dealt with social issues based on the life of ordinary people. It could reflect the nuances as they existed in the society and it held a mirror to the society. There have been a large number of comedies across the ages in English literature. Shakespeare did write a few comedies such as Midsummer Night's Dream, Two Gentleman of Verona, The Merchant of Venice, and All's Well that Ends Well. Apart from this, immediately after the Elizabethan period (when Shakespeare wrote and produced his plays) the Restoration Drama became popular. Some of the comedies of this era are Rivals, School for Scandal, Way of the World and She Stoops to Conquer. Early twentieth century was marked by good comedies which were called Farce. George Bernard Shaw was a pioneer in the field and his plays like Arms and the Man, Candida, Major Barbara, and Doctor's Dilemma. Galsworthy, Oscar Wilde and other contemporaries of Shaw also wrote comedies. Around this time, theatre was popular in Europe and plays in English, French, Italian, Norwegian and German languages were popular.

466 NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 iii. Romances: Romances were plays which glorified nature and the life of peasants in the country. There was no struggle, and it generally talked about young couple who got separated, pined for each other and finally got together with divine intervention (deus-ex-machina). AWinter's Tale by Shakespeare is an example of such plays. iv. Tragi-comedies: Merchant of Venice is a good example of a tragi-comedy. This play recounts the story of a merchant who loses all his wealth due to a storm in the sea and is harassed by a Jew (money lender). His friend who assumes the role of a lawyer, saves him from the Jew and with divine intervention the wrecked ship reaches the shore. v. Absurd Plays: These are a new generation plays that were experimented at the beginning of the last century. This movement began in France and soon caught the attention of playwrights in other parts of the continent. Today, we have absurd plays in Indian languages including Bangla. (BadalSarkar's plays EvamIndrajit, PaglaGhoda are some plays in this category). The best known playwrights in this category are Samuel Beckett and Edward Albee. Waiting for Godot by Beckett has made a history in the field of theatre. vi. Poetic Drama: This is a variation in style that was ushered in during the twentieth century. Shakespeare used this technique but this has not been noticed. This form of using poetry in drama was also popular in ancient Indian literature and it was called Champu Kavya. T S Eliot was well known for his poetic play – Murder in the Cathedral. W B Yeats and J M Synge also wrote similar plays. Yeats is said to have been influenced by the Japanese theatre that staged Noh plays. This brings us to the close of our discussion on drama. In the next section we will look at Fiction briefly. Before doing so, here is a small task for you. How well can you compare the poetry in English with the development of poetry in Bangla? Give examples and show the similarities and differences. Your response: C. Fiction: In the previous unit we looked at the teaching of prose. While discussing prose, we said, it constitutes the largest part of literature and several types of writing happen in prose. One major part of prose is Fiction (which means, an imaginary story) and this

NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 467 has several sub-categories within. We shall take a look at some of these for our understanding. i. Novels: There are very few of us who are not familiar with the term novel. Novel means something new. It tells us a story with which we are familiar, but in a new way. Hence it is called a novel. Novel as a genre was first used in English literature during the seventeenth century. (English was influenced by novels in Spanish language Don Quixote). Most novels during this period described an adventure where the hero was an ardent traveller and met with new experiences in life. Some of the well-known novels are Robinson Crusoe, Gulliver's Travels, Joseph Andrews, and Pilgrims Progress. Later in the nineteenth century, the novel developed into a mature form and dealt with social problems and had a curative effect on the readers. Charles Dickens, Jane Austen, Bronte sisters were some of the famous authors. The tradition of writing novels has continued to this day and we have a variety of novels dealing with varied themes such as histories, adventure, social drama, scientific discoveries, fantasy, espionage, travel and political commentary. Indian authors have also contributed to the volume of fiction produced in the world. (The tradition of writing novels in ancient India began in sixth century with BanaBhatta'sKadambari and Dandi'sDasha Kumara Charita.) ii. Short stories, tales and anecdotes: Short stories are miniaturised novels. They have a similar structure as a novel (a plot, characters, developments, struggle, resolving the struggle etc.). There are no strict guidelines on how short or long a story could be. There are stories that are hardly a sentence or two to some stories running to more than fifty pages. However, all stories have similar structure that binds them. The stories are also recognised as tales (which are largely oral in tradition) and sometimes anecdotes also pass off for stories. (Anecdotes are narration of some incidents which are personal.) Rabindranath Tagore is one of the best short story writers from India. iii. Legends and Myths: Legend is a term used in two senses. One of the meanings is assigned to an ancient story that has been handed down to us. The origins of such a story are not traceable. In India we have quite a few legends that have been handed down to us from our parents and grandparents. This is true of all cultures. In most languages, the proverbs we use have a legend to support them. You can 468 NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 think on these lines and collect some legends. When you visit certain religious places, or ancient monuments, you will get to hear of several legends – I am told there is a village in UttaraKhand where they hate Hanuman. This is because, he plucked a part of the Sanjivini Hills from the village and deprived them of the benefits that hill could give. This is a legend. (The second meaning, is a person who is famous for the good work he has done, and is remembered forever is called a legend. e.g. Gandhiji is a legend.) Myths are also stories which we believe in. There is an element of divinity associated with myths and some people dismiss some of the myths as superstitions. Read a book called Myth or Mythya by DevaduttPattanaik you will have a clearer idea. This brings us to the last part of the literary forms – the non-fictional prose. We will discuss this as one category without going into the details of each sub-category. D. Non-fictional Prose: In the previous section while discussing prose, we have mentioned how vast this particular category is. Fiction forms a large part of prose writing and the non-fictional writing is even larger and includes sub-categories such as Essays, biographies, autobiographies, diaries, speeches, descriptions etc. i. Essays: Essay is a long continuous piece of writing based on a theme. It uses the techniques of analysis, description, explanation, argument and other strategies. The main aim of the essay is to convince the reader the viewpoint held by the authors. You must have seen a large number of articles that are published in newspapers every day. Each of these articles is an essay. The answers our students write in the examination are in the form of essays. Each unit in this book is an essay. Depending on the theme and style the essay acquires its name and importance. ii. Biographies and Autobiographies: These are life histories. Life history of a person can be written by someone else, or the person can write it himself/herself. Biographies have been an important part of literature and one of the best biographies that made history was the story of Samuel Johnson written by James Boswell. There are quite a few other biographies and in the recent days, this genre has become more popular. Several of the state leaders and politician have their biographies written. Some of the famous personalities have also written their own life stories and such works are called Autobiographies. There are quite a few well known autobiographies which you can find on the shelves of bookstalls.

NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 469 iii. Diaries: Diary writing has been a disciplined habit by many people of prominence. Not all diaries are published, and some diaries are published as a matter of tribute to the person posthumously. The most famous diary that was published to understand the holocaust days of Nazi rule is by Anne Frank. Other famous diaries are by Gibson, and also Jawaharlal Nehru. iv. Speeches: Like diaries, speeches of famous people are collected and published. Some of these make for good reading. Speeches of Vivekananda have been published by the Ramakrishna Mission. Like speeches, there has been a practice to publish the letters written by famous people. Letters of Keats, Bertrand Russell, Nehru, and others are available in print. 16.6 Conclusion: In this module you have looked at two aspects of teaching - Literature and language teaching. Here we have attempted to show how the two are integrated and do not serve cross purposes. Literature is seen as a sample of good language use which can be offered to the learner to develop language proficiency. The only difference is seen in the approach to teaching literature. In a literature class, the focus is on analysis of the text to appreciate its composition, while in a language class we analyse the same text to exploit it for language use. This point needs to be understood clearly by all teachers of English. Here is a limerick for you to read and enjoy: There was an old man on the Border, Who lived in the utmost disorder; He danced with the Cat, And made tea in his Hat, Which vexed all the folks on the Border. With this we come to the close of a discussion on literary forms. We hope you enjoyed going through this module. There are no review questions, except to ask you to read as many texts as have been mentioned in the module. Now you have some idea of why literature is used in language teaching. Here are a few books for you to read on this subject. 16.7. Review Questions 1. How helpful is literature in language teaching?

470 NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 2. What are some of the definitions of literature given in the unit? Can you add a few more as you have known? 3. How is poetry as a genre divided further into sub-categories? Can we use these for language teaching? 4. What are some of the recent innovations to the genre of drama? Has there been any contribution from India? 5. What makes novels (fiction) the most popular form of literature? Give your reasons with an example of a fiction you have read. 6. Narrowing our focus on the novel as a major literary genre, name as many sub- genres of novel as possible for you. 7. There are different narrative techniques for the novelists. Name and define these techniques. How should you explain them to the students the simplest possible manner? 8. Coming to poetry how would classify their varieties and the differences among them? 9. For understanding literature a minimalistic approach to literally hundreds of literary terms is necessary for the beginners. How should you concentrate on screening or selecting the terms that can best serve the target learners' purpose? 10. What is the conceptual difference between terms and types? In a language teaching session do you think they should be reconciled in a manner that become complementary? 16.8 References and Reading List a. Lazar, Gillian. (1996). Literature and Language Teaching. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. b. Joan, Collie and Slater. (1988). Literature in the Language Classroom: A resource book of ideas and activities. (Cambridge Handbook for Language Teachers). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
NSOU
l PGEL - 1&2 471 Notes Notes
472 NSOU l PGEL - 1&2 Notes Notes

Hit and source - focused comparison, Side by Side

| Submitted text | As student entered the text in the submitted document. |
| Matching text | As the text appears in the source. |

1/83	SUBMITTED TEXT	76 WORDS	98% MATCHING TEXT	76 WORDS

| In the curricular structure introduced by this University for students of Post-Graduate degree programme, the opportunity to pursue Post-Graduate course in Subject introduced by this University is equally available to all learners. Instead of being guided by any presumption about ability level, it would perhaps stand to reason if receptivity of a learner is judged in the course of the learning process. That would be entirely in keeping with the objectives of open education which does not believe in artificial differentiation. | In the curricular structure introduced by this University for students of Post-Graduate degree programme, the opportunity to pursue Post-Graduate course in a subject is introduced by this University is equally available to all learners. Instead of being guided by any presumption about ability level, it would perhaps stand to reason if receptivity of a learner is judged in the course of the learning process. That would be entirely in keeping with the objectives of open education which does not believe in artificial differentiation. |

SA   PGELT 9A PDF.pdf (D165254853)

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SA PGELT 9A PDF.pdf (D165254853)

Keeping this in view, study materials of the Post-Graduate level in different subjects are being prepared on the basis of a well laid-out syllabus. The course structure combines the best elements in the approved syllabi of Central and State Universities in respective subjects. It has been so designed as to be upgradable with the addition of new information as well as results of fresh thinking and analyses. The accepted methodology of distance education has been followed in the preparation of these study materials. Co-operation in every form of experienced scholars is indispensable for a work of this kind. We, therefore, owe an enormous debt of gratitude to everyone whose tireless efforts went into the writing, editing and devising of proper lay-out of the materials. Practically speaking, their role amounts to an involvement in invisible teaching. For, whoever makes use of these study materials would virtually derive the benefit of learning under their collective care without each being seen by the other. The more a learner would seriously pursue these study materials the easier it will be for him or her to reach out to larger horizons of a subject. Care has also been taken to make the language lucid and presentation attractive so that they may be rated as quality self-learning materials. If anything remains still obscure or difficult to follow, arrangements are there to come to terms with them through the counselling sessions regularly available at the network of study centres set up by the University. Needless to add, a great part of these efforts is still experimental—in fact, pioneering in certain areas. Naturally, there is every possibility of some lapse or deficiency here and there. However, these

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15/83	SUBMITTED TEXT	13 WORDS	100% MATCHING TEXT	13 WORDS

and 'Enacting skills' (those employed to respond appropriately to the message). 1. Enabling Skills:

SA   S.R.Kulkarni.docx (D42808051)

16/83	SUBMITTED TEXT	11 WORDS	100% MATCHING TEXT	11 WORDS

Discriminating strong and weak forms, phonetic change at word boundaries.

SA   S.R.Kulkarni.docx (D42808051)

17/83	SUBMITTED TEXT	20 WORDS	85% MATCHING TEXT	20 WORDS

formulating content sense of utterance, including: p Deducing the meaning of unfamiliar words. p Inferring implicit information. - Inferring links between

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18/83	SUBMITTED TEXT	34 WORDS	98% MATCHING TEXT	34 WORDS

Formulating a conceptual framework linking utterances, including: Recognising discourse markers (clarifying, contrasting), constructing a theme over a stretch of discourse, predicting content, identifying elements that help to form an overall schema, maintaining and updating the context.

SA   S.R.Kulkarni.docx (D42808051)

19/83	SUBMITTED TEXT	27 WORDS	93% MATCHING TEXT	27 WORDS

Interpreting (possible) speaker intention, including: identifying an 'interpersonal' frame speaker-to-hearer; maintaining changes in prosody and establishing consistencies; noting contradictions, inadequate information, ambiguities; differentiating between fact and opinion. 2. Enacting Skills:

SA   S.R.Kulkarni.docx (D42808051)

20/83	SUBMITTED TEXT	14 WORDS	89% MATCHING TEXT	14 WORDS

Integrating information with that from other sources. p Providing appropriate feedback to the speaker. 4.3.2.

SA   S.R.Kulkarni.docx (D42808051)

27/83	SUBMITTED TEXT	11 WORDS	88%	MATCHING TEXT	11 WORDS

Theoretical Bases of Communicative Approaches To Second Language Teaching And Testing.InApplied Linguistics,

SA R.Brammathevan PhD Thesis English.doc (D122388163)

28/83	SUBMITTED TEXT	14 WORDS	100%	MATCHING TEXT	14 WORDS

After going through this unit, the learners will be able to: a. Appreciate the

After going through this unit, the learners will be able to: a. Appreciate the

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29/83	SUBMITTED TEXT	24 WORDS	50%	MATCHING TEXT	24 WORDS

minimal distinctive unit of speech'. There are two operational words here – minimal and distinctive. Something that is minimal cannot be divided any further (

minimal distinctive unit of speech sound. There are three operational words here: minimal, distinctive and unit. Minimal is the smallest part which cannot be divided further,

SA PGELT 5 _ 6 (1-400).pdf (D165254851)

30/83	SUBMITTED TEXT	11 WORDS	100%	MATCHING TEXT	11 WORDS

Rivers, W.M. (1981) Teaching Foreign-Language Skills. Chicago. The University of Chicago Press.

Rivers , W. M. (1981) Teaching Foreign Language Skills. Chicago : The University of Chicago Press

W https://teacher.co.ke/wp-content/uploads/bsk-pdf-manager/2020/04/EDU-720-ENGLISH-METHODS.pdf

31/83	SUBMITTED TEXT	14 WORDS	100%	MATCHING TEXT	14 WORDS

Objectives: After going through this unit, the learners will be able to: a. Understand the

Objectives After going through this unit, the learners will be able to: a. Understand the

SA PGELT 9B PDF.pdf (D165254854)

32/83	SUBMITTED TEXT	17 WORDS	100%	MATCHING TEXT	17 WORDS

text. It is better to allow the text to suggest what exercises are most appropriate to it.

SA Communicative Language Teaching-44.doc (D13748560)

Learning from context not only includes learning from extensive reading, but also learning from taking part in a conversation, and learning from listening to stories, films, television or the radio (

PGELT 5 _ 6 (1-400).pdf (D165254851)

Learning from context not only includes learning from extensive reading, but also learning from taking part in a conversation, and learning from listening to stories, films, television or the radio.

b, c, d, f, g, h, j, k, l, m, n, p, q, r, s, t, v, w, x, z

bd thesis 210616 - FINAL.doc (D20931290)

In order to activate guessing in a written or spoken text, there should be

PGELT 5 _ 6 (1-400).pdf (D165254851)

In order to activate guessing in a written or spoken text, there should be

of one of these elements may affect the learner's ability to guess. Furthermore, this technique encourages learners to take risks and guess the meanings of words they do not know as much as possible. This will help them build up their self-confidence so that they can work out the meanings of words when they are on their own. There are many clues learners can use to establish meanings for themselves, such as illustrations, similarity of spelling or sound in the mother tongue, and general knowledge(Walters, 2004). The

PGELT 5 _ 6 (1-400).pdf (D165254851)

of one of these elements that may adversely affect the learner's ability to guess. Moreover, this technique encourages learners to take risks and guess the meanings of words they do not know as much as possible. This helps them build up their self-confidence so that they can work out the meanings of words when they are on their own. There are many clues learners can use to establish meanings for themselves, such as contextuality, illustrations, similarity of spelling or sound in the mother tongue, and general knowledge. :State the

Word Association is an ESL vocabulary activity that can be used to introduce a new topic, lesson, theme, etc. You have to write a single relevant word in the middle of the board or paper and have students take turns adding as many words or images related to that word as possible.

https://www.eslactivity.org/word-association-an-esl-vocabulary-activity

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| 51/83 | SUBMITTED TEXT | 39 WORDS | 98% | MATCHING TEXT | 39 WORDS |

This word association activity is an ideal way to help students activate prior knowledge that they might have about a topic. Or, you can use it at the end of a unit to show students how much they have learned!

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W https://www.eslactivity.org/word-association-an-esl-vocabulary-activity

| 52/83 | SUBMITTED TEXT | 186 WORDS | 96% | MATCHING TEXT | 186 WORDS |

Word Association ESL Vocabulary Activity Skills: Reading/writing/speaking Age: UG level Materials Required: Worksheets or butcher paper and pens Word Association is an ESL vocabulary activity that can be used to introduce a new topic, lesson, theme, etc. You have to write a single relevant word in the middle of the board or paper and have students take turns adding as many words or images related to that word as possible. For example...the centre word could be "school." Some of the other branches could be subjects (Math, English, History, Gym, etc) while another branch could be school supplies (pen, paper, ruler, etc.) Finally, you might have one about recess or break time (play games, tag, climb, jump, swing set). And keep going with more associations from there. The subject or topic can be whatever you're teaching that day. Another topic it works well for is body parts. Check out some more parts of the body activities here. For large classes, have students work in groups with separate pieces of paper taped to the wall or the top of the table/ grouped desks. After a given amount of time (3-5 minutes, or when you see no one is adding anything new), discuss their answers.

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W https://www.eslactivity.org/word-association-an-esl-vocabulary-activity

| 53/83 | SUBMITTED TEXT | 98 WORDS | 100% | MATCHING TEXT | 98 WORDS |

Teaching Tips for This ESL Vocabulary Activity For large classes, butcher paper works best, so more students can write at one time. If that isn't possible, have 5-6 board markers available. If using butcher paper, prepare in advance, including taping to the wall, unless students will be working at their desks. Finally, if students will be working at their desks, write the word on each table's page in advance, but don't hand them out until you have given your instructions. This activity is often quite a fun way to start off a holiday themed class. For even more ideas, check out: ESL Christmas Activities and Games.

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W https://www.eslactivity.org/word-association-an-esl-vocabulary-activity

The key to having a happy ESL classroom is to mix things up in your classes. After all, nobody likes doing the same thing over and over again. Try out some new activities today...here's a simple vocabulary one you can start with 7.6.1

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W https://www.eslactivity.org/word-association-an-esl-vocabulary-activity

Future Tense Surveys I'm ALL about using surveys in my English classes. They are one of the most versatile ESL activities out there and can be used for a ton of different grammar points and topics. However, they lend themselves especially well to talking about the future. The questions you include can be related to the following: After class plans Vacation plans After graduation Marriage and kids

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W https://www.eslactivity.org/future-forms-esl-activities/1.

Just a Minute This is a fun ESL activity that gets students talking for one entire minute about a certain topic without stopping. You can turn it into a fun, interactive activity by putting students

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Future Sentences Activity- Videos I'm ALL about using YouTube or English Central videos in my classes. You can find one on literally every single topic, vocabulary set or grammar point under the sun. But, there's more to it than just popping the video on and chilling out. There are so many things you can do with the, pre and post-watching. Or, you may want to mix things up and let another teacher do the heavy lifting and explain the differences between the tenses. I mean, I'm sure my students get tired of hearing me talk sometimes!

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W https://www.eslactivity.org/future-forms-esl-activities/1.

| 58/83 | **SUBMITTED TEXT** | 50 WORDS | **100%** **MATCHING TEXT** | 50 WORDS |

Find Someone Who Bingo Usually I use this Bingo game as an icebreaker activity on the first day of class. However, you can very easily adapt it to make it an ideal exercises for future tenses. Instead of asking icebreaker questions related to hobbies, family, etc., you could make questions related to the future.

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W https://www.eslactivity.org/future-forms-esl-activities/1.

| 59/83 | **SUBMITTED TEXT** | 81 WORDS | **100%** **MATCHING TEXT** | 81 WORDS |

Is that Sentence Correct? If you're working on future forms and constructing grammatically correct sentences with your students, then you'll want to check out this activity. It's very simple and makes an ideal review at the end of a class, or beginning on the next one. The way it works is that you write a few sentences on the board using the future tense. Some of them will have errors that can relate to either form or meaning. Students have to work together to correct the errors.

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W https://www.eslactivity.org/future-forms-esl-activities/1.

| 60/83 | **SUBMITTED TEXT** | 59 WORDS | **100%** **MATCHING TEXT** | 59 WORDS |

Going to Activities: Dictogloss If you want to challenge your students' listening and writing skills, then you'll want to consider using Dictogloss. The way it works is that you find a passage of some kind at a slightly higher level than your students are at. Then, you read it at a normal pace and students have to work together to recreate the story.

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W https://www.eslactivity.org/future-forms-esl-activities/1.

| 61/83 | **SUBMITTED TEXT** | 52 WORDS | **100%** **MATCHING TEXT** | 52 WORDS |

Listen for One Specific Thing (Future Forms) If you do listening with your students, one really valuable thing you do is to get your students to listen for just one specific thing. In this case, it'd be examples of people talking about the future using will/going to/simple present or other future tense constructions. 348

Listen for One Specific Thing (Future Forms) If you do listening with your students, one really valuable thing you do is to get your students to listen for just one specific thing. In this case, it'd be examples of people talking about the future using will/going to/simple present or other future tense constructions.

W https://www.eslactivity.org/future-forms-esl-activities/1.

Conversation Starters If you ask your students what they want to work on in your speaking or conversation classes, they'll often say "free-talking." This can be a little bit difficult when you just tell your students to, "Talk about the future!" It helps to give them something more concrete and specific. That's why I like to make some conversation starter questions that students can talk about. Some students will only make it to the first 1-2 questions, while others will make it through all 10 in the allotted time. The important thing is that students are talking in English!

W   https://www.eslactivity.org/future-forms-esl-activities/1.

Future Board Games I LOVE to play board games in real life, so like to introduce them into my classes too. However, if you want to target a specific language concept, you'll probably need to

W   https://www.eslactivity.org/future-forms-esl-activities/1.

make your own. It's very easy to do this with future sentences. You can write some questions on the board game like the following: What are you going to do this summer? Where are you going to eat lunch today? Or, you may want to write some answers and students have to think of the question. I'm going to take an English class this summer. I will probably have dinner with my friend tonight.

W   https://www.eslactivity.org/future-forms-esl-activities/1.

My Future Plans In this simple activity, students write down a few of their future plans using the correct grammatical construction. I generally narrow it down to a more specific topic like weekends plans. Then, students have to give me all their papers with plans using future forms. Depending on the class size, I do one of two things. For smaller classes, I'll read out the papers and the entire class can guess who it is. For larger classes, I give each student one paper and they have to walk around asking questions to find out who it is.

W   https://www.eslactivity.org/future-forms-esl-activities/1.

Plan a Holiday One task based activity that I like to do with my students for the future tenses is to tell them that my parents are coming to visit their country for a week and that they have to plan a trip for them. Think about that—it's all future tenses, right? Then, they have to do a short presentation in front of the class and I choose the trip that my parents will like best!

Plan a Holiday One task based activity that I like to do with my students for the future tenses is to tell them that my parents are coming to visit their country for a week and that they have to plan a trip for them. Think about that—it's all future tenses, right? Then, they have to do a short presentation in front of the class and I choose the trip that my parents will like best! 39

W   https://www.eslactivity.org/future-forms-esl-activities/1.

Just One Question Survey Activity Try out this ESL survey activity to round up our unit on future plans. The way it works is that students work in pairs to think of one interesting question related to a future plan. Then, they have to survey their classmates, compile and report the results. It's interactive, engaging and lends itself well to using lots of future tense sentences!

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W   https://www.eslactivity.org/future-forms-esl-activities/1.

Future Will vs Going To: What's the Difference Between these Future Forms? 350

Future Will vs Going To: What's the Difference Between these Future Forms?

W   https://www.eslactivity.org/future-forms-esl-activities/1.

| 73/83 | SUBMITTED TEXT | 162 WORDS | 100% | MATCHING TEXT | 162 WORDS |

Although when to use going to and will may seem complicated, it's actually not! Basically, here are the rules: You can use either will or going to when making predictions about the future with no difference in meaning (I think it's going to snow tonight/I think it will snow tonight). Will is used to express future actions decided at the moment of speaking (Who can turn off the lights? I will). Going to describes future plans decided before speaking (I'm going to go to the University of ABC next year). Will is used for a future fact (The sun will set tonight). Going to is useful for something that will happen right now (Hurry up! We're going to miss the bus). What about the Simple Present to Express the Future? Have you noticed some sentences that use the simple present to talk about the future? Here are some examples: The plane takes off at 7pm. The bus leaves at 2. Notice the similarity? The present simple is used to express a future time or schedule of some kind. 7.7

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W https://www.eslactivity.org/future-forms-esl-activities/1.

| 74/83 | SUBMITTED TEXT | 16 WORDS | 81% | MATCHING TEXT | 16 WORDS |

At the end of reading this unit, the learners will be able to: l Understand the

At the end of this unit, the learners will be able to: a. Understand the

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| 75/83 | SUBMITTED TEXT | 15 WORDS | 80% | MATCHING TEXT | 15 WORDS |

After going through this unit, the students will be able to: l Understand the term

After going through this unit, the learners will be able to: a. Understand the term

SA PGELT 5 _ 6 (1-400).pdf (D165254851)

| 76/83 | SUBMITTED TEXT | 15 WORDS | 90% | MATCHING TEXT | 15 WORDS |

After going through this unit, the learners will be able to: l Understand the term

After going through this unit, the learners will be able to: a. Understand the term

SA PGELT 5 _ 6 (1-400).pdf (D165254851)

into groups of four and requiring that each student who was listening ask a follow-up question or two at the end of the minute. The key to using Just a Minute with the future tense is choosing good topics. Check the previous future activity for some ideas.

W   https://www.eslactivity.org/future-forms-esl-activities/1.

Leech, G N. (1973). A Linguistic Guide to English Poetry. London: Longman.

SA   PGELT 9A PDF.pdf (D165254853)

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Leech, G. N. (1969) A Linguistic Guide to English Poetry. London: Longman.

At the end of this unit, the learners will: a.

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Grellet, Franscoise. (1981). Developing Reading Skills: A practical guide to Reading Comprehension Exercises.

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PREFACE In the curricular structure introduced by the University for the students of Post Graduate degree programme, the opportunity to pursue post Graduate course in a subject is equally available to all learners. Instead of being guided by any presumption about ability level, it would perhaps stand to reason if receptivity of a learner is judged in the course of the learning process. That would be entirely in keeping with the objectives of open education which does not believe in artificial differentiation. I am happy to note that this University has been recently accredited by National Assessment and Accreditation Council of India (NAAC) with grade 'A'. Keeping this in view, the study materials of the Post Graduate level in different subjects are prepared on the basis of a well laid-out syllabus. The course structure combines the best elements in the approved syllabi of Central and State Universities in respective subjects. It has been so designed as to be upgradable with the addition of new information as well as results of fresh thinking and analysis. The accepted methodology of distance education has been followed in the preparation of these study materials. Co-operation in every form of experienced scholarship is indispensible for a work on this kind. We, therefore, owe an enormous debt of gratitude to everyone whose tireless efforts went into the writing, editing and devising of a proper layout of the materials. Practically speaking, their role amounts to an all-out involvement in layout of the materials and an involvement in 'invisible teaching', as well. For, whoever makes use of these study materials would virtually derive the benefit of learning under their collective care without each being seen by the other. The more a learner would seriously pursue these study materials, the easier will it be for him or her to reach out to larger horizons of a subject. Care has also been taken to make the language lucid and presentation attractive so that they may be rated as quality self-learning materials. If anything remains still obscure or difficult to follow, arrangements are there to come to terms throughout the counseling sessions regularly available at the network of study centers set up by the University. Needless to add, a great deal of these efforts is still experimental-in fact, pioneering in certain areas. Naturally, there is every possibility of some lapse or deficiency here and there. However, these do admit of rectification and further improvement in due course. On the whole, therefore, these study materials are expected to evoke wider appreciation the more they receive serious attention of all concerned. Professor (Dr.) Subha Sankar Sarkar Vice-Chancellor

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PGEL-O3 Phonetics and Phonology in English

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NSOU PGEL-3 9 Module 1 : General Phonetics Unit 1 The Nature of Spoken English 1.1 Introduction 1.2 Objectives 1.3 Speech is Primary; Writing is Secondary 1.4 Nature of Spoken English (Speech) 1.5 Phonetics: An Introduction 1.6 Phonology 1.7 Classification of English Phonemes 1.8 English RP 1.9 Summary 1.10 Review Questions 1.11 References and Reading List 1.1 Introduction We use language to express our thoughts by means of spoken or written words. English is also used for the same purpose, that is, to communicate our thoughts in different contexts, and is used by a majority of people all over the world as a first, second or foreign language. Spoken English has a number of sounds that form words, and words create sentences. When we say English words and sentences, we use typical English stress and intonation patterns to create our meaning. Our spoken language consists of a succession of speech sounds that are produced voluntarily with the help of organs of speech. The organs of speech move in certain definite ways to produce the appropriate language for communication. In connected speech, the succession of sounds is produced through transitions from one segment to the other in quick succession. The transitions occur in a natural manner in speech contexts. We hope you have gone through different features of spoken English in your previous units. Here, at the beginning of Unit - 1, we have summed up the features for your reading and assimilation. We would like you to go through this unit with this 9

NSOU PGEL-3 10 awareness. Some activities and tasks have been designed for you to check your knowledge and proficiency in this regard. 1.2 Objectives After going through the unit, you will learn about: a) the origin and the development of speech and its place in communication b) the different features of English phonetics and phonology c) classification of phonemes d) the segmental and supra-segmental features e) English RP 1.3 Speech is Primary; Writing is Secondary One of the important features of modern linguistics is the priority of the spoken language over the written language. Though the traditional grammarians tended to assume that the spoken language is inferior to and in some respect dependent upon the standard written language, modern linguists maintain that the spoken language is primary as we can produce speech with our speech organs. Writing is largely a means of representing speech through another medium. The main reasons cited by linguists for considering speech as primary are related to the origin and functions of language. As speech is older and more widespread than written language, this priority has been conferred upon spoken language. Language serves the communicative needs of a speech community and the spoken language provides the basis of all systems of writing. There are different units of language in its spoken form such as; sound, syllable, words, and sentences. [Note: Alphabet system is an evolved system and uses distinct symbols. The syllabic system depends on the speech sounds the language has, and each sound is represented by a letter or symbol which in itself is a syllable.] Task 1 Look at the following words given in the box: cast, called, sale, band, woman, village, what Now, tell us which letter is common in the spelling of all the words? Is that letter pronounced the same in all these words? Go through the words again from the pronouncing dictionary to find it out. Your answer:

NSOU PGEL-3 11 Task 2 : Look at the following of words: though tough cough through rough bought thorough bough Which letters in spelling are common to all the words? Do you think, these letters represent the same sound in all the words? If not, write down the sounds for each word? Your answer: The ideographic system is based on ideas or concepts. No writing system is capable of representing all the significant variations of pitch, stress and intonation. In case of speech, the linguistic communication is verbal and sound-based in which all the supra-segmental variations can easily be incorporated. Speech is more spontaneous form of communication; it has more scope of variations than the written form. Furthermore, in case of speech, any face-to-face interaction between the speaker and listener, the verbal message is reinforced by non-verbal gestures and even with pre- verbal sounds. Writing requires writing materials whereas speech can be used without any medium or materials for effective communication. Speech and writing are two modes of communication or expression. Both the mediums are capable of carrying the same linguistic information. This paradigm shift from traditional grammar-based study of written language to a more scientific and objective study of spoken English has opened this vast field of study called English Phonetics and English Phonology. Students of ELT (English Language Teaching) and other professionals concerned with Verbal communication such as speech therapists or BPO call centre pronunciation trainers are required to have a basic knowledge of the segmental and supra-segmental features of verbal sound. Even speech therapists and trainers of English language for special purpose such as the hospitality and tourism industry and medical transcription require knowledge of English speech sounds, of their production, properties, transmission and reception. Student of ELT need to know about the organs of speech and the mental processes that are involved in speech production. As English in India is mainly taught as a second language, the students are required to learn about the English language and its production as possessed by the native speakers of English. This unit on the nature of spoken English will help you to become familiar with the nature of spoken English language.

NSOU PGEL-3 12 Task 3: Look at the following of words: Song, scent, descend, brass, assume, cement, fancy, pace, exercise Tax, psychology All the words above, contains one common consonant sound. Can you identify that sound? Which letter stands for that sound in each word? Your answer: Task 4: Look at the following sets of words: Bead, weep, seize, believe, piece, peace, theme, people, police, key, ski, Quay, aesthetic All the words above possess a common vowel sound. The vowel sound that we find in the word 'bee' is common to all the words. Which letters in each word represent that sound? Your answer: 1.4 Nature of Spoken English (Speech) English language, like any other modern language, is a highly structured speech-based form of verbal communication. English phonetics and phonology deal with the nature of spoken language along with the segmental and supra-segmental features of the spoken language. On an average the people who use English language use it mostly in its spoken form without any knowledge of the sound system, classification and sound structure. Spoken English is a highly structured, rule-governed, and creative transformation of thought into linguistic communication. According to Ulrike Gut: ...speakers use several thousand speech sounds every day to communicate their feelings, wishes and intentions and encounter equally many speech sounds when listening to the feelings, wishes and intentions of others. Yet, almost none of the speakers are aware of what they do when they produce or perceive speech. While for written communication in English, 26 letters (5 vowels and 21 consonants) along with some diacritical marks are used, for the purpose of spoken English, speech sounds (44 phonemes) are used along with the supra-segmental features

NSOU ? PGEL-3 13 features like stress and intonation for linguistic communication. Spoken English is highly structured and rule-governed. The Standard English that is used internationally for spoken English is modelled on the English RP (Received Pronunciation), that means the Standard English language spoken by the educated gentry, especially living in the south of London, which happens to be the seat of power. The segmental features of English with all the supra-segmental features like pitch, stress and intonation are all based on the British RP. In the Anglophonic world, that includes the Commonwealth countries under Great Britain, the United States of America, and the erstwhile colonies of the British Empire, English is spoken in various forms and ways. There are segmental and supra-segmental variations in the spoken English used worldwide. Nowadays the use of International English for internet and information communication technology (ICT) has emerged more popular than any particular form of spoken English like American English or Indian English. Any study of the nature of spoken English therefore involves a scientific and synchronic study of language rather than a historical or diachronic study of language. Ferdinand de Saussure, in A Course in General Linguistics, pointed out that la langue (the language) is a theoretical object of study abstracted from the structures of specific languages. La parole (speech) is called the "executive side" or the concrete "utterances" that constitute all acts of language. The linguistic sigh is made of a signifier (sound image) and a signified (concept). So, the concept or thought (la langue) is given a material shape or existence through concrete speech utterance. Linguistic "signs are combined like links in a chain to form the line of language according to two relations: the syntagmatic (all units present in their articulation) and the associative (all related units present in the mind but absent from the actual sequence)" (Leitch 959). For Saussure, the spoken form of language might include certain phrases that are practiced by the speaker like a parrot to perform concrete language or speech. Saussure defined "Language as organized thought coupled with sound" and states: Language can be compared with a sheet of paper: thought is the front and the sound the back; one cannot cut the front without cutting the back at the same time; likewise in language, one can neither divide sound from thought nor thought from sound; the division could be accomplished only abstractedly, and the result would be either pure psychology or pure phonology. (967) Structural linguistics deals with the form and structure of concrete utterance and undertakes a synchronic study of language instead of a historical or philological study of the evolution of words and language. The minimal and indivisible component of

NSOU PGEL-3 14 spoken English is phoneme that needs production, transmission, reception, and classification. In the next section, we will learn about the Structuralist analysis of English phonemes. Task 5: Look at the following sets of words: i) question, quite, quiet, square, squash ii) excuse, excite, box, exercise iii) exact, examine, exist, exert iv) until, use(n.) utilize, university In each set of words one of the letters represents a combination of two sounds. Now identify the letter and associated sounds in each case. Your answer: 1.5 Phonetics: An Introduction As a systematic study of human speech sounds, phonetics provides means of describing and classifying all sounds that can be produced by organs of speech. Henry Sweet in 1877 described the "importance of phonetics as the indispensable foundation of all study of language" - whether that study be purely theoretical, or practical as well - is now generally admitted. Phonetics is a branch of linguistics concerned with describing the physical properties of speech from its production to reception. According to Henry Rogers: "Phonetics is concerned with the sounds we make in speech: how we produce them, how these sounds are transferred from the speaker to the hearer as sound waves, and how we hear and perceive them." (2013,1) Phonetics is an objective and scientific analysis of producing human speech sounds. Phonetics, according to T. Balasubramanian, "deals with the production, transmission and reception of the sounds of human speech". Phonetics provides a scientific method for the analysis, description, classification and transcription of speech sounds or phonemes. These methods of analysis in phonetics are equally valid for all human speech sounds, regardless of the language or speaker. This branch of linguistics is often referred to as General Phonetics. Phonetics, as a branch of linguistics, divides, or segments, concrete utterances into individual speech sounds or phonemes and analyses the phonemes in the following ways:

NSOU PGEL-3 15 (1) Articulatory phonetics describes in detail how the organs of speech are used to produce, or articulate, speech sounds. (2) Acoustic phonetics studies the physical properties of speech sounds and the transmission of the phonemes from speaker to listener, the duration, frequency, intensity, and quality of the sounds. (3) Auditory phonetics analyses the reception of speech sounds by the listener, the transmission of the sounds from ear to the brain, and how the sounds are processed. Some phoneticians are interested in describing the production of different sounds that occur in English language; some are concerned with speech and in teaching communicative English. Nowadays, computers are being programmed to recognize speech of individuals and convert it into text. The application of phonetics in both verbal and written communication is extensive (Ladefoged). The following are some of the uses of phonetics: a) Pedagogic: teaching English as a first, second, third or as foreign language, b) Pronunciation error analysis, rectification and training, c) Identification of orthographic problems related to spelling and pronunciation, d) Speech pathologists can understand how the vocal apparatus works, e) Speech scientists working in the field of ICT based communication for developing speech recognition software and for conversion of speech to text and vice versa, f) Speech therapy, g) Use of English for special purposes like medical transcription, BPO call centres, hospital and tourism industry, internet and web technologies, media and advertisement, phonemic translation in dubbing, etc. Following are the two broad areas of work in phonetics: (a) general studies of the articulation, acoustics or perception of speech, (b) studies of the phonetic properties of specific languages. In this latter sense, it is evident that a further dimension will be required, in order to study how the sounds are used within the pronunciation system of a language (Crystal 364). With the foundation of International Phonetic Association (IPA) in 1886 by a group of European phoneticians such as Paul Passy, phonetics emerged as an independent area of study under linguistics. In 1889 IPA published the International

NSOU PGEL-3 16 Phonetic Alphabet also called IPA. In its modified and expanded form, IPA is today the most widely used system for transcribing the sounds of any language. Task 6: Go through the following pairs of words. Do you find same pronunciation in them? If so, write 'S' in the brackets provided against each pair; if not so write 'D' for the different. i) write, right ( ) ii) tear, tier ( ) iii) heard, hard ( ) iv) hurt, heart ( ) v) let, late, ( ) vi) get, gate ( ) Your answer: 1.6 Phonology The study of phonology can be traced to Greece in third century BC in the works of ancient Greek grammarians who analysed the sound patterns of Greek and Latin in Europe. In India, phonological description of Sanskrit language was developed by Panini in his Ashtadyayi. John Hart, Orthographie (1569) and William Bullokar in Brooke at Large (1580) were concerned with the spelling and pronunciation of English during sixteenth century. The stress pattern of English language, now known as supra- segmental phonology, was studied by Charles Butler in The English Grammar (1634). According to David Crystal, Phonology is

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a "branch of linguistics which studies the sound systems of languages" (365).

Phonemes are the basic unit of speech sound produced by the human vocal apparatus. The sounds, studied by phonetics, used in different languages, are "organized into a system of contrasts, which are analysed in terms of phonemes, distinctive features or other such phonological units, according to the theory used" (ibid) The following are the aims of English phonology, as identified by David Crystal in A Dictionary of Linguistics and Phonetics (2008): (a) to demonstrate the patterns of distinctive sounds found in English language (b) to make as general statements as possible about the nature of sound systems in English language (c) to analyse

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the range and function of sounds in English languages (d) to show the types of phonetic relationships that relate and contrast words and other linguistic units.

According to Crystal, "in linguistic theories, phonology is seen in one of two main ways:

NSOU PGEL-3 17 (a) as a level of linguistic organization, contrasted with the levels of phonetics, grammar and semantics in the first instance, (b) as a component of a generative grammar (the phonological component), contrasted with various other components (e.g. syntactic/semantic in early generative grammar; covert in the minimalist programme). Two broad categories under which the features of English language are studied are segmental and supra-segmental features. Segmental phonology analyses the phonemes, i.e., the minimal, indivisible unit of speech sounds. In English R.P. there are 44 phonemes that are classified according to the position of the vocal cords, the manner of articulation, and the place of articulation. Supra-segmental phonology that is also called non-segmental phonology analyses those features which extend over more than one segment, such as pitch, tone groups, intonation variation, accent pattern, etc. Distinction has also been made between diachronic and synchronic phonology. Diachronic study involves an analysis of sound change in the history of language, as is done in philology. Synchronic study involves an analysis of sound patterns irrespective of the historical changes that affect pronunciation. Task: 7: Based on your reading of the previous section, answer the following questions: a. Is Spelling in English is closely connected to its pronunciation? b. When did the grammarians begin to see dissimilarities between spelling and pronunciation? c. Is Sanskrit a Phonetic language? d. How do we represent the various speech sounds in English? e. Is it enough to learn how to produce individual speech sounds to acquire fluency in speaking? Phonetics in an objective manner deals with the production of phonemes, the properties and perception of such speech sounds of English language. Phonology, according to Ulrike Gut, "is concerned with how these speech sounds form patterns" in English language". Phonologists investigate, for example, which function a sound has in a language and which sounds can be combined - follow each other - and which cannot." Thus, in segmental phonology, the classification of the English speech sound according to the position of vocal cords, manner and place of articulation, has been made. Supra-segmental phonology deals with larger units such as clusters, syllables, accent and intonation. Segmental phonology deals with the classification and description of phonemes as stated in the next section.

NSOU ? PGEL-3 18 Task 8: Go through the following words find out the exact number of sounds in each word: i) thumb ii) mango iii) pleasure iv) third v) scissors vi) psychology vii) journal viii) mother ix) eye x) through Your answer: Task 9 I hope you have successfully done the Task 7. Now write down the initial sound of each word and make word with the same initial sound. One is done for you. Example - i) thumb→/ θ /→ thigh Your answer: 1.7 Classification of English Phonemes Phonology deals with the basic unit of sound or phoneme. The phoneme is the smallest unit of sound that is distinct, cannot be broken further and minimal. The sound of phoneme allows the differentiation of words or lexical distinctions. As a basic unit of sound in a language, every phoneme has a separate symbol. Although there are only 26 letters of the alphabet for writing English language, there are 44 distinctive phonemes in English language. In several words beginning with the same letter, different phonemes or sounds are used in the initial position. English phonemes are classified according to the phonetic features like articulatory process, acoustic qualities and auditory reception. English phonemes are all produced with the help of pulmonic [respiratory] egressive [releasing out] air stream mechanism. The air stream that passes through a pair of vocal cords located in the larynx [Adam's apple] or the phonatory system is regulated by the approximation of the cords. When these vocal cords are loosely held together the air stream can pass freely to produce nine (9) voiceless consonants in English R.P. When the vocal cords are tightly held together the air stream is accompanied by a buzzing sound and such phonemes are called voiced. All the vowels (20) along with fifteen (15) consonants are voiced phonemes in English R.P. English phonemes are primarily classified into vowels and consonants. There are twenty (20) vowels in English R.P. These vowels are further classified according to the position of the tongue that acts as active articulator into monophthongs

NSOU PGEL-3 19 and diphthongs. There are twelve (12) monophthongs in English R.P. that are further classified according to their length into two types: short and long. The tongue takes one particular position and seven (7) short vowels are produced and when the sound is elongated, five (5) long vowels are produced. These vowels are further classified according to the place of articulation in to Front vowels, Central vowels and Back vowels. Apart from these twelve monophthongs there are eight (8) diphthongs in English R.P. classified according to the glide of tongue from one place to another place. There are twenty-four (24) consonants in English R.P. that are classified according to the position of the vocal cords, their manner and place of articulation. Task 10 Can you cite two different words which have only one sound and that is a vowel glide. Write down those words and cite the glide : 1. _____, 2. _____ = / / 1.8 English RP Received Pronunciation or RP of English language is the name given to the regionally neutral accent in British English. RP of English is historically derived from the speech used in the Court, House of Lords, and people living in the urban locations of south England and the public schools of England. Social factors rather than linguistic factors are responsible for the prestige attached to this dominant accent in British English. The superiority of RP is not based on the fact that it is associated with the better- educated, elite users of English language. It has become a norm for the description of British English. RP was adopted by BBC and popularised as a form of pronunciation understood by the people of Great Britain. British RP was also used in the colonies and the Commonwealth countries and later became synonymous with "BBC English" or "Queen's English." Regional variations in English were not considered and the accent was mainly used in media communications, academics and official discourse. Although RP no longer has the prestigious social position it once held, it is widely used for teaching English as a Second Language (ESL) or as a foreign language. Younger net-savvy generation prefer colloquial forms of accent that are marked by regional variations. International English nowadays contain several such regional variations in accent pattern. Modern linguistics, however, stresses on accent as something "broad" that may be markedly different from RP.

NSOU PGEL-3 20 1.9 Summary Through this discussion you are made familiar with the nature of spoken English. The analysis of the origin and development of speech, English phonetics, phonemes, classification of English Phonemes and English RP has been made. We will learn more on Pronunciation in the following units. Here are a set of Review Questions to test your comprehension on the unit. 1.10 Review Questions 1. Write a note on the nature of spoken English. 2. Discuss the difference between Phonetics and Phonology. 3. Write a note on English Phonology. 4. What are the different areas of phonetics? Discuss the interdisciplinary nature of phonetics as a branch of modern linguistics. 5. Would you subscribe to the view that speech is primary and writing / typing secondary? Justify. 6. Write short notes on the following: a) Phonemes b) English RP / Queen's English / BBC English c) Aims of English Phonology d) Segmental phonology e) Classification of English phonemes 7. Fill in the blanks with words that are pronounced the same but have different spelling :- i) write .... ii) straight .... iii) mite .... iv) Sun .... v) bear .... vi) bow (verb) .... vii) tail .... viii) cast .... ix) sight .... x) roll .... 8. Look at the following words in two columns and match the words with the same vowel sound.
NSOU PGEL-3 21 Flirt Card Chirp Ship Furl Hard Heart Word Heard Skirt guard thirst 9. Produce three words with each of the initial sounds of the following English words. i) father _____ v) sound _____ ii) sugar _____ vi) very _____ iii) zoo _____ vii) thanks _____ iv) sun _____ viii) there _____ 10. Does your L1 (Mother Tongue) also have all these word final sounds? Which of them are different? 1.11 References and Reading List Balasubramaniam, T. (1981). A Textbook of English Phonetics for Indian Students. Delhi: Macmillan, 1981.

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NSOU PGEL-3 23 Unit 2 Place of Phonetics in Communication 2.1 Introduction 2.2 Objectives 2.3 Phonetics and Communication 2.4 Articulatory Phonetics 2.5 Use of Phonetics in Communication 2.6 Phonetics and Spoken English 2.7 Accent Training 2.8 Use of Phonetics in Communicative English for Special Purposes 2.9 Summary 2.10 Review Questions 2.11 References and Reading List 2.1 Introduction The basic function of a language is communication. English is no exception. People generally convey their messages among themselves in order to communicate their views with each other on particular subjects. Their mode of communication is sometimes in writing or through speaking and listening. Spoken words are the most frequent as well as the most important means of communication among the people. As far as spoken language is concerned, pronunciation, rather use of sounds really matters a lot. In this case messages are communicated or transmitted through sounds or audible means. That is why for the purpose of verbal communication what is necessary is proper pronunciation— appropriate handling of sounds. Since Phonetics, the important branch of Linguistics, deals mainly with the pronunciation skills as well as ways of speaking, it has a major role to play in the field of communication. English as a language is well spread across the world and also in India. It has the status of associate official language, and often is helpful in inter-state communication e.g. a person from Bengal speaking to another person from Kerala finds it easy to communicate through English. It is for this reason, English has acquired the sobriquet 'lingua franca' and this holds good across the world. Though language manifests itself as four distinct skills, and both speaking and writing are common modes of 23

NSOU PGEL-3 24 communication, the more frequent means is the spoken form rather than the written form. It is in this context that learning phonetics gains importance. Knowledge of phonetics makes our speech intelligible to a reasonably large section of the population in the world. 2.2 Objectives The unit introduces you to— a) Different features of English phonetics and its application in communication b) Articulatory phonetics with reference to communicative English c) Accent training in the BPOs and KPOs d) Use of phonetics in English Language Teaching for Special Purposes 2.3 Phonetics and Communication As stated in the previous unit, there are two fields in modern linguistics that are concerned with verbal sound and pronunciation: phonetics and phonology. The study of both phonetics and phonology helps in improving listening and speaking skills. For both native speakers whose mother tongue is English or non-native speakers who are learning English as a second language or as a foreign language, the importance of phonetics in verbal communication is immense. For effective English Language Teaching, proper instruction in pronunciation, accent and intonation is essential. This can be adequately addressed through an understanding of phonetics and phonology. Nowadays we hear many types of English pronunciation around us. Knowledge of the production process of speech sound along with application of these sounds in verbal communication can help us to learn and teach English better. These fields describe and analyse speech from a different perspective. Of these two fields, phonetics deals with three different areas: the production of speech, the transmission, and the reception. These three sub-disciplines belong to different branches of studies. In ELT, we are primarily concerned with articulatory phonetics that analyses the production of different phonemes or speech sounds by organs of speech, using the respiratory, phonatory and articulatory systems. For the purpose of English Language Teaching (ELT), Articulatory Phonetics is considered more useful than acoustic phonetics or auditory phonetics. English phoneticians describe the production of speech sound and analyse the use of speech sounds in English language in an objective way. Phonetics mainly focuses on the production of speech sound, classification of speech sound and the segmental or

NSOU PGEL-3 25 supra-segmental features of speech sounds. The production of speech sounds or phonemes depends on the organs of speech located in the respiratory, phonatory and articulatory systems. The stream of air is modified by the articulators and in case of English phonemes is pulmonic egressive air stream mechanism. The release of air stream is regulated by the phonatory system that contains a pair of vocal cords. The releasing air stream is then modified by the articulators present in the articulatory system. Phonetics identifies and describes the manner and place of articulation of phonemes, and then classifies the phonemes according to the position of the vocal cords, manner of articulation, place of articulation, and the articulators involved in production of speech sounds. According to Richard Ogden, phonetics is the "study of the sounds of speech" while phonology is "the study of sound systems". The use of phonetics in effective verbal communication is widespread: in the field of ELT (English Language Teaching), speech therapy, BPO/KPO call centre training, and in spoken English institutes. Basic knowledge of the segmental and supra-segmental features of English phonemes is essential for communication training. English in India is mainly taught as a second language and four basic skills - Listening, Speaking, Reading and Writing - are taught in both formal and informal educational sectors. Knowledge of English phonetics is very important in developing listening and speaking skills of the learners. English language is a highly structured speech-based form of verbal communication. On an average, people who use English language use it mostly in its spoken form. Knowledge of the sound system, classification of sounds and sound structure, helps English language teachers a lot in the teaching / learning process. Task 1 Go through the following list of countries. Against the name of each country a set of brackets attached. Write 1, 2, and F inside the brackets according to the status of English [1st, 2nd, and Foreign]. i) Ireland ( ) ii) France ( ) iii) Myanmar ( ) iv) New Zealand ( ) v) Egypt ( ) vi) Scotland ( ) vii) West Indies ( ) viii) China ( ) ix) Namibia ( ) x) Nepal ( ) Task 2 Participant, have you ever gone through any such experience that you came to visit a state in India where you can use neither your mother tongue nor Hindi. How

NSOU PGEL-3 26 did you communicate with the people there, especially in the market? Can you share that experience with us? _____
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_____ 2.4 Articulatory Phonetics Articulatory phonetics deals with the physical process of production of speech sounds. Phonemes are produced by the flow of air stream and the organs of speech and the production process involves the following: a) The air stream mechanism b) The respiratory system c) The phonatory system d) The state of velum or the soft palate e) The articulators In Articulatory phonetics, according to J. C. Catford, the following phases of speech production are covered: 1) Neuro-linguistic programming: the selection, sequencing, and timing of what follows. 2) Neuromuscular phase: transmission of outbound (motor) neural impulses and the contraction of individual muscles. 3) Organic phase: postures and movements of whole organs. 4) Aerodynamic phase: dilation, compression, and flow of air in and through the vocal tract. This is followed by the transmission of the speech as sound waves that fall under

NSOU PGEL-3 27 Acoustic phonetics: 5) Acoustic phase: propagation of sound waves from speaker's vocal tract. And, finally the reception of the phonemes by the auditory organs that falls under the phase of Auditory phonetics: 6) Neuro-receptive phase: peripheral auditory stimulation and transmission of inbound neural impulses. 7) Neuro-linguistic identification: potential or actual identification of incoming signals as specific speech-sounds. Thus, the speech sounds are produced, transmitted and received. Articulatory phonetics is a branch of phonetics which studies the way in which speech sounds are produced and 'articulated' by the organs of speech. It deals with the basic anatomy and physiology of speech; the production of different kinds of speech sounds; and characteristic features of these speech sounds. Articulatory phonetics derives much of its descriptive terminology from the fields of biological sciences like anatomy and physiology. Articulatory phonetics is also called physiological phonetics. According to David Crystal: "In recent years, there has been much progress in the development of instrumental techniques for observing and measuring such factors as tongue, lip, palate and vocal fold movement; examples include the palatograph, which displays tongue contact with the palate; the electro-aerometer, which measures the relative flow of air from mouth and nose; the articulometer, which tracks simultaneously the movements of several articulators; and electromyography, for the measurement of muscular movement while speaking. Using such techniques, a far more detailed understanding of articulation is possible than using traditional visual and kinaesthetic methods." English phonemes are classified according to the phonetic features like articulatory process, acoustic qualities and auditory reception. English phonemes are all produced with the help of pulmonic [respiratory] egressive [releasing out] air stream mechanism. The air stream that passes through a pair of vocal cords located in the larynx [Adam's apple, visible in men only] or the phonatory system is regulated by the approximation of the vocal cords. When these vocal cords are loosely held together the air stream can pass freely to produce nine (9) voiceless consonants in English such as /p/, /t/ , /k/, /f/, /tʃ/, /s/, /ʃ/, /θ/, and /h/ When the vocal cords are tightly held together the air stream is accompanied by a buzzing sound and such phonemes are called voiced sounds. All the vowels (20) along with fifteen (15) consonants are voiced phonemes in English. English phonemes are primarily classified into vowels and consonants.

NSOU PGEL-3 28 There are twenty (20) vowels in English. These vowels are further classified according to the position of the tongue that acts as active articulator into monophthongs and diphthongs. There are twelve (12) monophthongs in English that are further classified according to their length into two types: short and long. When the tongue takes one particular position seven (7) short vowels are produced and when the sound is elongated five (5) long vowels are produced. These vowels are further classified according to the place of articulation into Front vowels, Central vowels and Back vowels. Apart from these twelve monophthongs there are eight (8) diphthongs in English classified according to the glide of tongue from one place to another place. There are twenty- four (24) consonants in English. that are classified according to the position of the vocal cords, their manner and place of articulation. We will learn more on this in the next module. Task 3 Suppose you teach in a school where instructions are given in English. You teach English language. Now monitor your own speech in a day and list the situations in which you used spoken language and the situations in which you used the written language. Spoken Language: _____ _____ _____ _____ _____ _____ Written language: _____ _____ _____ _____ _____ _____

Task 4 If you find yourself using spoken English, can you list your reasons for teaching/ learning English pronunciation? Teaching : 1. _____ 2. _____ 3. _____ 4. _____ Learning: 1. _____ 2. _____ 3. _____ 4. _____

2.5 Use of Phonetics in Communication

Three functions of speech have been identified by J. D. O' Connor: creative function, forwarding function and hearing function, corresponding to the articulatory, acoustic and auditory process. In oral communication we heavily depend on the articulation of sounds, pauses, the accent pattern, pitch and intonation. The production of speech sounds by the organs of speech and articulators is a complex process. Human speech carries more linguistic information than other forms of written communication. Communication refers to the proper production, transmission and reception of linguistic information as an oral message. This message is exchanged between a speaker and a listener. Proper communication depends on the production, transmission and reception of information by the members of the same speech community. Phonetics plays a pivotal role in human communication. The scientific study of all aspects of communication is sometimes called communication science and the domain includes linguistics and phonetics. Although both verbal and non-verbal communications are important for the exchange of information, linguistic information depends mostly on the production, transmission and reception of sounds or verbal signs. The use of phonetics in this domain is primarily related to the proper production of sounds. In English alphabetic system there are only twenty-six letters. The entire spelling

system depends on these twenty-six letters. On the other hand, there are forty-four phonemes used by the speakers of English. All these sounds are used in oral communication. Without knowledge of phonetics, it is very difficult to explain the relationship between spelling and pronunciation. A single vowel letter like [a] can produce different sounds in the following words: and/æ/; ago/∂/; arms /a:/. English pronunciation system is based on RP or Received Pronunciation and 5 letters that are designated as vowels are capable of producing 20 distinctive vowel sounds in English. The creative function of speech is primarily based on a proper production of speech sounds by the organs of speech. The pulmonic egressive air-stream is regulated by a pair of vocal cords and then through the pharynx reaches the mouth. The soft palate regulates the movement of the air through the oral or nasal passage. The active articulator moves towards the passive articulator to modify the air stream and produce speech sounds or phonemes. The basis of communication is this process of production of phonemes by the articulators. Phonemes are all distinct, indivisible and minimal units of speech. Phonemes are classified according to the airstream, position of the vocal cords, the position of the velum or soft palate, the manner of articulation, articulators involved and the place of articulation. Task 5 'Bear' and 'bare' are spelt differently but they are pronounced the same, /be ∂/. Make a list of five other pairs of words which are spelt differently but pronounced the same way. The phonemes of English are joined together to produce, syllables, sound clusters and words. Sounds become meaningful when they replicate meaningful words. The pronunciation of these words depends on both the segmental and supra-segmental features. Knowledge of phonetics helps the English language teacher to identify, instruct, rectify the errors and guide the learner the proper way to use language for oral communication. English words follow a prescribed accent pattern and longer words sometimes receive both primary and secondary accent. The accentual pattern is rule governed and prescriptive in nature and only with the help of phonetics one can explain the morphophonemic changes that often take place in English pronunciation. Connected speech in English follows the accent and stress pattern. English language is Isochronous, i.e., there is an equal time gap between two stress syllables in connected speech. Furthermore, according to the punctuation, the language is spoken with pauses and intonation variations. These supra-segmental features contribute a lot in effective communication.

Task 6 Read out the following words and underline the vowel sounds in the following words:- important remember alphabet London correct English particular pronunciation language necessary letter property rumour repertoire lotus caravan father brother cattle between. Task 7 Find words to match the following words with a minimum difference only in the vowel sound. One is done for you :- i) bend/band; ii) knit _____; iii) tale _____; iv) broke _____; v) force _____; vi) dawn _____; vii) sill _____; viii) win _____; ix) ten _____; x) cat _____; xi) car _____; xii) back _____ ; 2.6 Phonetics and Spoken English From the viewpoint of phonetics, speech is seen as the primary medium of transmission for language. The spoken or phonic substance of language is the most important factor of verbal communication. Even speech and hearing science deals with the production, transmission and reception of speech, but phonetics is also related to the performance of language or communication. In any speech community sharing the same linguistic system, the speech act is the main activity meant for human communication. Every speech act depends on speech event or spoken interaction where the members of any speech community engage themselves in discourse of verbal exchanges. Phonetics, sociolinguistics and psycholinguistics provide analytical tools for the assessment of speech production, speech transmission and speech perception. While the speech production involves coding of linguistic items, speech perception involves decoding of speech by the listeners. Linguistic communication is the exchange of such codes and their decoding. According to Ferdinand de Saussure and Andrea Rocci "verbal communication is arguably the most pervasive form of communication in human societies" (3). The importance of "speech" in verbal communication "played a crucial role in the birth of

the Communication discipline in the United States", according to Craig. "In the early years of the 20th Century teachers of public speaking in American universities broke away from English departments and founded departments of Speech, later to become departments of Speech Communication (ibid 6). Although verbal forms of communication include both the written and the spoken forms, communication primarily depends on the spoken form. Even the visually decoded written communication is decoded on the basis of sound and pronunciation. Communication has its own internal structure or organisation: starting from the smallest unit phonemes to morphemes, syntax, semantics and pragmatics. Even analysis of prosody, rhetoric and discourse is based on the spoken form of the language. Phonetics plays a crucial role in such analysis of verbal communication. Task 8 Make at least four words with each of the following diphthong sounds: /eI/ _____ _____ _____ /aI/ _____ _____ _____ /∂ʊ/ _____ _____ _____ /aʊ/ _____ _____ _____ /]I/ _____ _____ _____ 2.7 Accent Training In the Foreword to the second edition of Better English Pronunciation J. D. O' Connor states: Millions of foreign students want to learn English as well as they can; for some it is only a matter of reading and writing it, and they will find no help here. But many students want to be able to speak English well, with a pronunciation which can be easily understood both by their fellow-students and by English people, and it is for them that this book is specially intended. (ix) In the institutions that teach spoken English, greater emphasis is placed on oral communication. Listening and speaking skills are developed through a systematic training that begins with accent neutralisation and proper pronunciation of the English phonemes, syllables, clusters and words. Audio-lingual method of ELT is often employed along with Direct method or Functional Communicative approach for training in spoken English. J. D. O' Connor proposes the following guidelines for better English pronunciation:

a) listen carefully and accurately b) know what the English words and sentences sound like c) compare the sounds that come out of your mouth with the sounds that you have in your sound memory d) try to match your sounds exactly with the sounds that you have listened to e) make use of a tape-recorder [audio recording] f) record on the tape-recorder a sentence or a longer passage, then listen to it, closely and carefully g) match what you say with your sound-memory of English h) your aim must be to acquire a perfect English pronunciation (4-5) In order to reduce the interference of mother tongue or first language, accent neutralisation training is given and the learners are required to listen carefully the sound of different phonemes and use these in words and connected speech. As English accentual pattern in connected speech is isochronous or stress-timed, the learners are taught proper way to accent the words. In connected speech the accent pattern is further modified by intonation. Task 10 Try to pronounce the following words and put the pure vowels or diphthongs in the space provided :- try - / / boil -- / / suite -- / / Cord -- / / put -- / / fool -- / / town -- / / stand -- / / clerk -- / / budge -- / / starch -- / / wind -- / / court -- / / pear -- / / point -- / / poor -- / / 2.8 Use of Phonetics in Communicative English for Special Purposes In several sectors where communication plays an important role, training in communicative English is based on phonetics. For example, in the field of medical

34 transcription in which the audio files of medical reports and prescriptions are sent to the BPO centres for transcription into typed format, a knowledge of the speech sounds, pronunciation, accent and intonation is necessary. Within the context of multilingual and cross-cultural communication, the job of the transcriptionist is more difficult and may lead to misunderstanding. Audio or video recordings of interaction are used for the training of transcriptionists, in order to familiarise them with variations in pronunciation, accent pattern, use of pauses, intonation and other features of oral communication. In different industrial and service sectors training in communicative English is based on phonetics so that context of speech performance such as hospital, hotel, reception counter, call centre, etc., is appropriated to the form of English. Several types of English have evolved for communicative purpose such as Business English, Technical English, English for Web technologies, English for Persons with Special Needs. Phonetics is broadly used for training purpose in industries and service sectors. Task 12 Give at least one example of each of the following consonants in initial, medial and final position :- Initial Medial Final A] /t/ _____ _____ _____ B] /θ / _____ _____ _____ C] /p/ _____ _____ _____ D] /tʃ/ _____ _____ _____ E] /k/ _____ _____ _____ F] / ®/ _____ _____ _____ 2.9 Summary Through this discussion the students are made familiar with the place of phonetics in communication. The analysis of English phonetics, articulatory phonetics, the use of

35 phonetics in communication, accent training and spoken English were in the discussion. There is usually a standard form of English used across the globe but as far as pronunciation in spoken language is concerned there are variations, even in those countries where English is used as the native language. For example, the accent used by the British people is quite different from that used by the Australians. Similarly in India, where English is spoken as a second language it has developed a variety of its own. For example, the speech of a Bengali speaker of English must differ evidently from that of a Telugu or Marathi or Oriya speaker. To solve these problems, while teaching spoken English, it is necessary to learn as well as teach Phonetics. There is a wide variation in accent. It is necessary to follow a particular standard as necessary for teaching Phonetics as well as spoken English. One native regional accent that has gained social prestige is the Received Pronunciation (RP) of England, as used in the South-East England. It is also a status symbol to use RP for the elite class of the society. It is considered as the correct and acceptable pronunciation of English. In many non-native speaking countries RP has been selected as a model. The teaching- learning of English pronunciation is concerned about the following:- 1. The sound system → segmental features— a) Vowels (Monophthongs, Diphthongs) & b) Consonants 2. Supra-segmental features → i) word accent, ii) rhythm, iii) intonation. 2.10 Review Questions 1. Write a note on the place of phonetics in English communication. 2. What are the different branches of phonetics? Which branch is related to linguistics and ELT? Discuss. 3. Write a note on the relationship between phonetics and spoken English. 4. Discuss the application of phonetics in different areas of communication studies and ESL (English as Second Language). 5. Would you subscribe to the view that phonetics is more important in communication than stylistics or semiotics? Justify. 6. Write short notes on the following: a) Use of English for Special purposes. b) Uses of phonetics c) Pulmonic air stream

36 d) Physical process of production of speech sound e) Phases of speech production f) Instrumental techniques 7. Write words with the following sounds: i) / h / _____ ii) / l / _____ iii) / m / _____ iv) / k / _____ v) / v / _____ vi) / d / _____ 8. Fill in the blanks with appropriate vowel sounds to make complete words :- 1. r _____ b (rob) r _____ b (rib) r _____ b(rub) 2. p _____tʃ(patch) p _____tʃ (pitch) p _____tʃ (porch) 3. f _____l (fill) f _____ l (feel) f _____ l (fall) 4. s _____ k (sick) s _____ k (suck) s _____ k (seek) 5. r _____ d (read) r _____ d (red) r _____ d (road) 6. w _____v (weave) w _____v (wove) w _____v (wave) 7. ® _____ (jar) ® _____ (jaw) ® _____ (jew) 8. b _____ (buy) b _____ (boy) b _____(bay) 9.θr _____ (three) θr _____ (threw) θr _____ (throw) 10. ð _____ (thy) ð _____ (they) ð _____ (though) 2.11 References and Reading List Balasubramaniam, T. (1981). A Textbook of English Phonetics for Indian Students. Delhi: Macmillan. Carr, Philips. (2013). English Phonetics and Phonology: An Introduction. Malden: Wiley-Blackwell.

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NSOU PGEL-3 38 Unit 3 Variations in Pronunciation 3.1 Introduction 3.2 Objectives 3.3 Variations in Pronunciation: An Introduction 3.4 Types of Variations in Pronunciation 3.5 Variations in British English 3.6 Variations in Indian English 3.7 American English 3.8 International English 3.9 Use of English in Multilingual Speech Communities 3.10 Summary 3.11 Review Questions 3.12 Recommended Reading 3.1 Introduction This module is prepared to familiarise the students of Linguistics and English Language Teaching with variations in pronunciation of English. Such variations are mainly at the level of pronunciation and verbal communication. Variations in British English shall be discussed along with variations in pronunciation among the Anglophonic speakers in India, America, and other commonwealth countries. A synchronic study of variations in pronunciation will be done in this unit. The unit concludes with a list of questions, provided at the end along with list of recommended books. 3.2 Objectives At the end of going through this unit, the learners will be able to: a. Understand that a language can be spoken in a variety of ways b. Understand the reasons for variation c. Develop a tolerance to other varieties of spoken language other than our own. d. Realise the need for a standardised version for intelligibility 38

NSOU ? PGEL-3 39 e. Understand that monolingual societies are fewer than the multilingual societies. 3.3 Variations in Pronunciation: An Introduction Henry Sweet in A Handbook of Phonetics (1877), while pleading for reform in the spelling system of English, states: It is clear that as soon as spelling ceases to adapt itself to existing varieties of pronunciation - whether 'colloquialisms,' 'vulgarisms,' or 'provincialisms' - ceases to be phonetic. (193) He refers to the rigid spelling system of English as opposed to a more flexible variation in pronunciation prevalent among the users of English language across the globe. Even during that time, the English language was widely used across England and its colonies and, spoken with innumerable variations in pronunciation. Linguistic variety is a term used in sociolinguistics and stylistics to refer to any system of linguistic expression whose use is governed by situational variables. In some cases, the situational distinctiveness of the language may be easily stated, as in many regional and occupational varieties (e.g. London English, religious English); in other cases, as in studies of social class, the varieties are more difficult to define, involving the intersection of several variables(e.g. sex, age, occupation). (Crystal 509) In modern linguistics, phonology and sociolinguistics, several classifications of language varieties have been identified. In order to classify such variations in pronunciation, terms like sociolect, dialect, register variations along with the field, mode and medium of discourse are being used. In sociolinguists, the term "variety" is used in a more restricted sense:"as one kind of situational distinctive language or a specialized type of language used within a dialect, e.g. for occupational purposes" (ibid). In the context of twenty-first century the variations have increased with the expansion of English as a global language and the dominant language of computer, internet and web technologies. All English-speaking people do not speak the same English and such variations in pronunciation are becoming more audible. Even today such varieties of English are rampant. Any mainstream Hollywood movie made in English is now subtitled in English for the understanding of audience across the globe. According to Henry Sweet: When divergences of pronunciation increase to such a degree as to make a faithful phonetic representation of them unintelligible, or nearly so, to those acquainted only with the standard form of speech, it is certain that the spoken pronunciation itself will prove more difficult. (194)

NSOU PGEL-3 40 Such variations are more common because of the use of English either as a second language or as a foreign language. The interference of mother tongue especially in pronunciation is so widespread that even among the users of English in India the regional variations in pronunciation are there. Such variations in pronunciation can be studied taking into account both diachronic and synchronic variations. While through a diachronic or historical analysis one can study the ever-changing nature of spoken English and the evolution of English till the present day, through a synchronic study one can record and analyse such varieties of pronunciation in the present context. Such synchronic variations can be regional, dialectal, social, individual, and may be based on the field of discourse, manner of discourse and mode or medium of discourse. Such variations in pronunciation may also depend on the age and relationship of the users of the same language. Task 1 Give two words for each of the following words which differ in only one sound segment [one is done for you]: Chew - few : mew waste : _____ cat : _____ leisure : _____ try : _____ battle: _____ bought: _____ out : _____ gate : _____ Task 2 Write the following combinations as contractions (monosyllable, if possible), using the phonetic symbols (one is done for you) :- Example - she will = /ʃ‚w/l. a. I will g. I would b. You will h. You would c. He will i. She would d. It will j. It would e. We will k. We would f. They will l. They would 3.4 Types of Variations in Pronunciation Different types of pronunciation coexist in any Anglophonic speech community at any particular period of time. Such variations are analysed by both phoneticians and sociolinguists. According to writers of Practical phonetics and Phonology: a resource

NSOU PGEL-3 41 book for students: All languages typically exist in a number of different forms. For example, there may be several ways in which the language can be pronounced; these are termed accents.(3) Two major forms of linguistic variety, called by sociolinguists as "lect" are on phonological level. These variations in pronunciation are stated below: a) Regional variation, which involves differences that exist in pronunciation based on the geographical location of the speakers. These variations in pronunciation can be dialectal and based on words, syntax, accent and intonation. For example, English pronunciation of the people of south England along the river Thames is markedly different from that of the speakers in Liverpool, Bristol, or Edinburgh. Similarly, there are marked variation in pronunciation among speakers of New Orleans and New York, or Sydney and Johannesburg. In India, every state has a separate language and mother tongue interference produces a variety of English spoken in India. In England, there are great regional variations among the urban and rural population. b) Social variation, which refers to differences in the use of language between one social group and another. Sociolect, as opposed to regional variations, is a term used by some sociolinguists to refer to a linguistic variety defined on social grounds. Sociolect is associated with a particular social class or occupational group. Such variations in pronunciation called sociolects can be based on differences in gender, ethnicity, religion, age and, social class. Both accent and dialect are related to social position and profession. Local accents are termed basilects which are associated with the working-class and provincially educated persons. Variations like acrolects are found among wealthy, educated and elite people. Mesolects are varieties that come in between the elite and the proletariat classes. The following sociolinguistic pyramid of variations in pronunciation has been provided by the authors of Practical Phonetics and Phonology: a resource book for students (3):

NSOU PGEL-3 42 Some of these phonological variations are called registers by M. A. K. Halliday. Linguistics by Halliday, used extensively in stylistics and sociolinguistics, register refers to a variety of language defined according to its use in a social situation. The registeral variations are based on field, mode and manner of discourse. Registers are different than sociolects or regional variations and are not classified according to the characteristics of the users. Such variations in pronunciation can be seen in the registers used in literary, scientific, religious, and formal English. According to Halliday, these register variations in English language are based on these three areas: a) Field of discourse refers to a classification of registers in terms of subject-matter. These fields such as literature, theatre, media communications, and scientific subjects, etc., use phonological variations. b) Mode of discourse refers to the medium of the language activity which determines the role played by the language in a situation. These variations are based on the choice of mode or medium such as speech, writing, typing, telephonic conversation, chat, email, messaging, announcement, news reading, commentary, poetry. Such variations are phonological, lexical and syntactical. c) Manner or Style or Tenor of discourse refers to the relations among the participants in a language activity, especially the level of formality they adopt. Such variations in pronunciation depend on the speech act that is either

NSOU PGEL-3 43 formal or informal (colloquial). Variations in pronunciation are due to the loudness, pitch, tone, and pace of oral communication that depends on the relationship between the users of the language. For example, in formal classroom interaction there may be variations in pronunciation according to the age group of the learners. In informal communication such variations are more common. Task 3 Describe each of the following speech sound symbols using articulatory features : i) /n/ ii) /a/ iii) / ʊ / iv) /e/ v) /s/ vi) /h/ vii) /z/ viii) /g / ix) /m/ x) / ^ / Task 4 Examine the following data and state whether there can be variation in their utterance:- 1. Health = _____ 2. Comfort = _____ 3. Keep going = _____ 4. happen = _____ 3.5 Variations in British English One variety of English pronunciation has traditionally been dominant and popular among the privileged section of the population in Great Britain. Phoneticians have called it RP or Received Pronunciation. This variety of English has been regarded with high esteem by the users as well as by those who do not speak it. This prestige accent has long been associated with the educated, elite and urban population of England.This type of English is variously referred to as "Oxford English," "BBC English" and even "the Queen's English." During the Victorian period, this historically "received" pronunciation was socially acceptable even in both formal and informal discourse. The BBC originally adopted RP for its announcers because it was thought that the RP form of pronunciation would be nationally understood. It was also supposed

NSOU PGEL-3 44 that the language of the elite class would attract less criticism from the other regions of England. However, nowadays, the educated speech at large, throughout the Anglophonic world displays considerable regional variations. The term non-regional pronunciation or NRP with a large range of variations is used to represent pronunciation which cannot be pinned down to a specific area. Phoneticians do not prefer any form of graded inequality with reference to pronunciation and instead of RP they use the term "Standard Southern British English" or SSBE. There is an enormous variety of accents of English in addition to those of RP or "British English." Such variations in pronunciation are sometimes put under the label of "colloquialisms," "vulgarisms," or "provincialisms." Such variations in pronunciation among the people of England are found among users based on their dialects that are "local," "territorial," "rural" and "urban," on the micro level and "regional," on the macro level. The first question that comes to the mind of a person who wishes to learn an acceptable pronunciation of English: which of the various forms of pronunciation should we learn? No two persons belonging to same nationality pronounce their own language exactly alike. The difference may be due to the locality in which they live; social surroundings or early influences, and there may be individual peculiarities for which it is difficult or impossible to account. It is often noticed that the pronunciation of English among people brought up in Manchester is different from those from Exeter and both differ from the pronunciation of those brought up in Edinburgh or in London. Let's take an example. Differences of English pronunciation according to locality may be found in the treatment of letter 'r' in such word as 'part'. In Scotland it is pronounced as slightly flapped /r/ while /r/ is not pronounced until it is followed by vowel sound. So the pronunciation of 'part' is /pa:t/. According to their rule /r/ is not pronounced when it is in the final position of the word or when it is followed by a consonant sound. So the pronounce as /pa:t/ or /ka:/ (for 'car) but /ver I/ or sor I/ . In many parts of North and West of England /r/ appears as Retroflex. In southern England the vowel sounds in 'boot' and 'book' are different where as in Scotland a short closed /u/ is used for both the words. Pronunciation is also influenced by the differences in education. People with limited education in different parts of England omit /h/ and pronounce / elp / for the word 'help'. In London (Cockney) words like 'name' is pronounced with the diphthong, /a I/ or / æ I / instead of /e I/ and words like 'house' or 'about' are pronounced with NSOU ? PGEL-3 45 / æ u /, or sometimes / cbæut / or / cbæct /. In uneducated Yorkshire speech the vowels of 'put' /u/ and cut / / are labelled to a vowel intermediate between these two. Because of the so many variations it is really very difficult for the foreign learners to know which type of pronunciation should be learnt and which one should be accepted as the standard variety. But certainly the most useful type is the one which is based on the speech that is used in the southern England [where city of London is situated]. It is generally used by the people, educated at Public Schools and Preparatory Boarding Schools. It is easily intelligible in all parts of English - speaking countries. It is more widely understood than any other variety. The term Received Pronunciation (RP) is often used to designate this variety of pronunciation. Among several different styles of pronunciation notable ones are the rapid familiar style, the slower colloquial style, the natural style used while addressing an audience, the acquired style of the stage while acting and the acquired styles used in singing. Of these the slower colloquial style is perhaps the most suitable for beginners. Task 5 Write the speech sound symbol for the first sound in each of the following words: i) psychology vi) though ii) use vii) pneumonia iii) thought viii) cyberneticsa iv) cow ix) physics v) knowledge x) memory Task 6 Write the speech sound symbol for the last sound in each of the following words:- a) cats f) judge b) dogs g) rough c) bushes h) tongue d) sighed i) garage e) bleached j) climb v

3.6 Variations of Indian English The Indian subcontinent witnessed linguistic imperialism by the English traders and colonists since the arrival of the East India Company in the early seventeenth century. Beginning from the coastal towns of Gujarat, the Anglophonic traders and invaders gradually set their colonies on the Coromandel Coast, the Western Ghats and Bengal. Primarily used as a language for trade and commerce, English language became the language of judiciary, administration and education in India. Wherever the English colonists settled they created communicative functional English for serving their business and imperial purposes by mixing the local languages with English phonology, lexis and syntax. New variations in pronunciation developed through a process of pidginization and in later stage, creolisation. In the eighteenth century some prominent variations in English pronunciation were found among the uses in the three presidencies of Bombay, Madras and Bengal. The effect of prolonged linguistic hybridity and assimilation of different languages promoted newer forms of spoken English in these presidencies. Even with the introduction of English as a subject and later as a medium of instruction in the formal grant-in-aid schools, the parity in pronunciation could not be achieved because of the mother tongue interference and superior phonological power of regional languages like Marathi, Gujarati, Urdu, Hindi, Tamil and Bengali. Languages with more than fifty (50) phonemes each could not be appropriated to English language with just forty-four (44) RP phonemes. The variations in pronunciation that are still audible even after three centuries have created a phenomenon called General Indian English (GIE) and various hybrid forms of spoken English like Tamilish, Hinglish, Benglish, etc. According to T. Balasubramanian, "most educated Indians who speak English did not learn it from an RP speaker... that most Indians who learn English learn their own Indian language before they are exposed to English" (123). The variations are common among the users of English in all multilingual metropolitan cities. With the expansion of internet access and development of online app-based activities, there has been a tendency towards standardisation of Indian English. Regional variations are gradually being absorbed by the dominant urban English in India. Task 7 Write the following words using the phonetic symbols:- i) Water ii) splat iii) lit iv) tin

v) eaten v) beading vi) pull vi) beating vii) craft viii) online Task 8 Write the speech sound symbol for vowel sounds in each of the words. One is done for you: For the word 'fish' it is / w / and for 'fear' it is /wc/. i) mood ii) caught, iii) cot, iv) and, v) tree, vi) five, vii) bait, viii) toy, ix) said, x) soot 3.7 American English Apart from the United Kingdom or Great Britain, English is used as a first language in North America (USA and Canada) and Australasia (Australia and New Zealand) along with several commonwealth states all over the world. The European colonisation of North America left linguistic imprints of major European languages in the United States. Over the course of over three hundred years, a different variety of pronunciation of English developed through the entire continent which in nowadays referred to as General American (GA) English. The variations in pronunciation can be seen as an amalgamation of speech patterns of the north-eastern USA. The spoken forms of English of the Midwest of America, southern states of USA and East Coast cities such as New York and Boston are not similar. There are regional variations in pronunciation among the users of American English, Furthermore, the differences are also marked according to the dialects, sociolects, and regional variations in the use of English. Similarly, Canadian English that bears a strong resemblance to General American English has some differences in pronunciation that set it firmly apart from GA. Even the accent patterns of the southern states of America are different from mainstream GA English. In media culture, however, GA English is also called "Network American" and in the academic world the same General American is used by millions of students learning English as a second language. Even in Mexico and Latin American countries, GA is taught in both formal and informal educational sectors. Task 9 Nicholas, a 6-year old child used a creative spelling 'thingck' to spell the word 'think'. What assumptions on his part produced this spelling? In American English, /r/ is often one of the most difficult features of pronunciation for speakers of other languages to learn. Sometimes it is even difficult for the native

speakers themselves, being one of the last sounds the children acquire when they learn American English. It is also one of the sources of extreme dialectical variation, for example, it was evident in the pronunciation of the word 'fire' by Ted Kennedy, the US senator from Massachusetts or in that of a country music singer George Jones and Tom Brokaw /far/. Even when beginning students of Linguistics often transcribe the word fear, they often use the tense vowel /i/: --. /fir/. Here the vowel sounds higher than the lax vowel/ w / as in 'bid'. In reality the vowel in 'fear' lies between / w / and / i:/. Even though they admit that the /w/ sound here it does not seem quite as high as the tense vowel /i/ as in 'bead' as in /bwd/. Same thing can be seen in pronunciation of word like 'sir' as /swr/. These vowels are basically called r-coloured vowel that refers to English vocalic sounds that have an r-like quality. I hope, by this time you have understood, to some extent, the variation of pronunciation with respect to American variety of English. Now it is necessary to check to what extent you have perceived this variation. Let us engage ourselves in a relevant activity— Task 10 Transcribe the following words exhibiting vowels before /r/:- i) boor ii) bore iii) poor iv) care v) car vi) dear vii) fir viii) mire ix) sewer, x) mirror 3.8 International English The students of English as a Second Language (ESL) throughout the world usually use the British or English RP (Received Pronunciation). In Latin America, Japan, China and Philippines there is a trend towards General American (GA) English. In Ireland, Scotland or Wales, the number of RP speakers is relatively less. The RP accent, however, is held in high esteem throughout the world. In the commonwealth countries like Canada, Australia, New Zealand and South Africa, the traditional RP English is used in media culture and public telecast.Although the British RP is regarded as prestigious accent even in the United States, there is a general trend towards a more inclusive International English. In the Hollywood cinema of the 1980s the characters are heard speaking in a more stylised and accented manner, developing an artificial American type of pronunciation. The same accent pattern was copied in the Anglophonic cinema across the globe, especially in Hong Kong. In the twenty-first century the pure form of British or English RP is a minority form. Most English today is spoken outside the

NSOU ? PGEL-3 49 British Isles. In the USA, more than 220 million people use English as their first language. It is also used as the first language or an official language in countries like Canada, Australia, New Zealand, South Africa and Caribbean islands. Furthermore, English is used widely as a second language for communicative, academic and official purposes by millions of speakers, in Southern Asia, e.g. India, Pakistan, Sri Lanka, and in many countries across Africa. There are large second-language English speaking populations in Hong Kong, Malaysia, Indonesia, Thailand and Singapore. Along with nearly 330 million native speakers of English and an even greater number using English as a second language, International English has emerged the lingua franca of the entire world. The English language has two types of /l/ ---- dark l (/ /) and clear or normal l (/l/). The / / occurs in words like 'lark' and 'tail' and has a lower sound than /l/which occurs in the words like 'lead' or 'light'. Even dark /l/ or clear-l occurs in a word when it is preceded by bilabial sound like /p, b/. In English dark-l is basic. Its dark quality is due to a co-articulation effect caused by an accompanying raised and retracted tongue body. Clear-l is a positional variant occurring before front vowels such as / w / and / i: /. Before front vowels /l/ is not produced with a retracted tongue body and the body is more forward and thus the light variant is produced. An English speaker, learning French, Spanish or Germanmust learn to produce all of the 'l's in these languages as clear since none of them has / /. Task 11 In some of the following words the /l/s and /r/s are voiceless. Identify these words and try to establish the conditions under which /l/ and /r/ lose their voicing:- a) Alpo f) try b) archive g) splat c) black h) spread d) play i) leap e) dream j) read. 3.9 Use of English in Multilingual Speech Communities As discussed earlier, the common variations in pronunciation can be seen in the following among others: a) American English NSOU PGEL-3 50 b) Australian English c) Indian English d) Singaporean English e) Caribbean English f) Russian English g) Chinese English With the expansive networking and globalisation, the form of electronic verbal communication has also been affected. Several varieties of English which are now of global significance are those used in different platforms of web technologies. Within this context of multi-lingual speech communities using English as lingua franca, the growth of more flexible functional communicative English is visible. Even in localities like New Zealand, English has distinct types of pronunciation such as 'South Island' English and 'Broad Australian' English, 'General Australian' English and 'Cultivated Australian English.' With so many different world varieties of English used by speakers it is now convenient to use the form of English for international communication. This common ground has to be accepted especially, in multilingual societies like India that uses English as a second or other language. 3.10 Summary Through this discussion the students are made familiar with the varieties of English. The students of Linguistics and English Language Teaching are familiarized with variations in pronunciation of English. Variations in British English have been discussed along with variations in pronunciation among the Anglophonic speakers in India, America, and other commonwealth countries. The sample questions are provided below along with a list of recommended books. 3.11 Review Questions 1. Write a note on the variations in English pronunciation. 2. What are the different varieties of English? Select any two varieties and show the variations in pronunciation. 3. Write a note on the regional and social variations in English pronunciation. 4. Which variety of English pronunciation should be taught to the students of English as Second Language and why?

NSOU PGEL-3 51 5. Write a note on American English. 6. Write a note on variations in pronunciation in English used in India. 7. Write short notes on the following: a) Dialectal variations b) Register variations c) GIE d) Use of English in multilingual speech communities e) International English f) Variations in pronunciation in British English. 3.12 Recommended reading 1. Linguistics - An Introduction to Language and Communication : Adrian Akmajian et al 2. A Course in Modern Linguistics : Hockett, C.F. 3. A Textbook of English Phonetics for Indian Students : Balasubramanian 4. An Introduction to Phonology : Katamba, Francis 5. English Phonetics and Phonology : Roach, P. 6. Modern Linguistics : An Introduction : Verma, S.K.

NSOU PGEL-3 52 Unit 4 Features of RP (Received Pronunciation) 4.1 Introduction 4.2 Objectives 4.3 RP or Received Pronunciation: An Introduction 4.4 RP and BBC English 4.5 RP and its Universality 4.6 Use of RP in English Language Teaching 4.7 RP and English Phonemic Transcription 4.8 RP and International English 4.9 Summary 4.10 Review Questions 4.1 Introduction This module is prepared to familiarise the students of Linguistics and English Language Teaching with RP or Received Pronunciation. After a short introduction there is a discussion on BBC English and how BBC promoted the use of RP. The Queen's English and some other varieties of RP used in media and mass communication are also covered in this unit. Speculations on the future of RP in Britain and other countries are also discussed. Listening and speaking skills taught both in formal and informal language school across the globe mainly uses RP. English phonemic transcription is also done on the basis

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of RP. 4.2 Objectives At the end of this unit the learners will be able to: a. Understand the importance of RP b. Identify the

distinct features of RP c. Compare their own speech with RP and adopt ways to improve d. Understand the importance of phonemic transcription for learning English e. Appreciate the role played by RP is standardising English. 52

NSOU PGEL-3 53 4.3 RP or Received Pronunciation: An Introduction English is a modern language that has evolved through a close contact with native and European languages. Through a process of evolution through assimilation, hybridity, word-formation, etc., English has assumed various forms, especially in pronunciation. Variations in English pronunciation are dialectal, morphological, syntactical, accentual and intonation. The English spoken by the people of south England along the river Thames is markedly different from that of the speakers in Liverpool, Bristol, or Edinburgh. Similarly, there are marked variations in pronunciation among speakers of New Orleans and New York, or Sydney and Johannesburg. Even English spoken in India is not homogeneous. Variations are also based on differences in gender, ethnicity, religion, age and, social class. M.A.K. Halliday refers to a variety of language based on field, mode and manner of discourse. Among these, one variety of English pronunciation has traditionally been dominant and popular among the privileged section of the population in Great Britain.Daniel Jones in the second edition of English Pronouncing Dictionary (1926) revised the previous term "Public School Pronunciation" used by him in the 1917 edition of the book with "Received Pronunciation." According to Daniel Jones: The pronunciation represented in this book is that which I believe to be most usually heard in everyday speech in the families of Southern English people who have been educated at the public schools. (ix) Daniel Jones has stated that "[i]n day schools local pronunciations do not disappear nearly as readily as in the boarding-schools, because the pupils continually hear the local pronunciation used around them" (x). Since then phoneticians have used RP or Received Pronunciation as the equivalent for Standard Southern British accent. This variety of English has been regarded with high esteem by the users as well as by those who do not speak it. This prestige accent has long been associated with the educated, elite and urban population of England. In the public schools and colleges like Eton, Harrow, Winchester, Leeds, Oxford and Cambridge, RP is used normally. This type of English is variously referred to as "Oxford English," "BBC English" and even "the Queen's English." During the Victorian period, this historically "received" pronunciation was socially acceptable even in both formal and informal discourse. Thus, Received Pronunciation (RP) has emerged as the name applied to the regionally neutral accent in British English.

NSOU PGEL-3 54 4.4 RP and BBC English RP is sometimes referred to as "BBC Pronunciation." British Broadcasting Company Ltd., established in 1922 with an aim to "inform, educate and entertain," later became British Broadcasting Corporation in 1927, emphasised public service for a national audience. The BBC originally adopted RP for its announcers because it was thought that the RP form of pronunciation would be nationally understood. It was also supposed that the language of the elite class would attract less criticism from the other regions of England. However, nowadays, the educated speech at large, throughout the Anglophonic world displays considerable regional variations. The English RP has also lost its traditional prestigious social position. The younger generations of metropolitan users of the language prefer to pronounce English according to their local accentual patterns. Such regional variations are no longer considered as down market even by the academic or elite class. Originally, RP was not a regional but a social accent. However, many modified forms of RP exist (modified RP). As an official variety of pronunciation, it was to be heard all over England, though only a minority of English speakers used this for informal conversation. In and around London, however, the accent has remained popular. RP became popular in mass media and entertainment industry and was much used in the films, theatre and television. 4.5 RP and its Universality For Daniel Jones, "RP means merely 'widely understood pronunciation'" (x). It was not meant "as a standard which everyone is recommended to adopt" (x). The source of RP is of course the prestige speech used in the Parliament, the Court and the public schools of England. Although the prestige attributed to RP is the result of social factors, not linguistic ones, it has become the prescribed set of accents. Though RP is in no sense linguistically superior or inferior to other accents, it has become associated with formal education is often cited as a norm for the description of British English. RP has emerged as the standard form for teaching of English as a second or foreign language across the globe. Among the varieties of English in use worldwide, RP is perhaps the most widely understood variety. RP is "easily understood in South Africa, Australia, and New Zealand, and by English-speaking Canadians" according to Jones. While different varieties of English are spoken in the United States, Received Pronunciation "is fairly

NSOU PGEL-3 55 universally understood without difficulty" (Jones x). Even for pedagogic purposes RP is used as a suitable standard for teaching English both as a first language and second language throughout the Anglophonic world, especially in the schools of the erstwhile British colonies. 4.6 Use of RP in English Language Teaching The common problem faced by the educators of English language is related to the selection of the variety of English to teach the students in public schools. The debate in most technical and business schools is whether to employ British variety (RP) or American English in the classroom. Using audio-lingual method of ELT, audio recordings of different dialects of English are being played in the classroom, but the problem is related to selection of any particular variety of pronunciation. Nevertheless, both these varieties are regarded monolithic though neither the British nor the American variety of pronunciation is monolithic. Nowadays, however, other global varieties of pronunciation are commonly heard in academic and business platforms across the globe. The term non-regional pronunciation or NRP with a large range of variations is used to represent pronunciation which cannot be pinned down to a specific area. Phoneticians do not prefer any form of graded inequality with reference to pronunciation and instead of RP they use the term "Standard Southern British English" or SSBE. There is an enormous variety of accents of English in addition to those of RP or "British English." Bernard Shaw in Pygmalion (1912) refers to the variations in pronunciation of English through the characters drawn from London. Variations in spoken English used by Professor Higgins and Eliza, the flower seller, are remarkable. The play analyses the importance of pronunciation and language in social and personal relationship. Such variations in pronunciation are sometimes put under the label of "colloquialisms," "vulgarisms," or "provincialisms." The differences are mostly phonological. For example, in some English dialects, such as Cockney, the English RP alveolar plosives like /t/ and /d/ are pronounced as affricate plosives /t s / and /d z /. In Irish English the alveolar plosives /t/ and /d/ are pronounced as dental plosives /t ^ / and /d ^ /. Such variations in pronunciation among the people of England are found among users based on their dialects that are "local," "territorial," "rural" and "urban," on the micro level and "regional," on the macro level.

NSOU ? PGEL-3 56 In English Language Teaching there has always been an attempt to make the standardised version of spoken English more useful. RP has proved to be of more help because of its widespread use in the English medium public schools across the globe. Furthermore, the availability of study materials, such as pronunciation dictionaries, audio clips, and phonetic handbook, etc., have allowed RP to retain an important place among young learners and teachers of English language. Teachers, in countries where English is not the first language, face the problem of selecting the variety to teach English. Usually, the debate revolves around the use of British RP or American English in the classroom. But the fact remains that much of the instruction is likely to be imparted in the accent used by the teacher. However, materials are now readily available that can help in teaching pronunciation. According to the local linguistic profile of the teachers ELT is carried on. The curricula framework is mainly shaped on RP and the teaching materials are well-suited to impart RP than other varieties of English. 4.7 RP and English Phonemic Transcription For the convenience of the learners of English language, Daniel Jones compiled English Pronouncing Dictionary in 1917 for practical linguistic teaching. The phonemic transcription provided in the dictionary is meant for general users of English, the users of RP, the users of English as Second or Foreign language, and even for non- users of RP. Jones has used 44 English phonemes to give phonemic transcription of English words. The following symbols have been used by Daniel Jones: Vowels Phoneme Type Word Phonemic Transcription /w/ Short Pure Front Vowel ink /w k/ /æ/ Short Pure FrontVowel and /ænd/ / / Short Pure Central Vowel up / p/ /c/ Short Pure Central Vowel about /cba t /]/ Short Pure Back Vowel ox /]ks/ / / Short Pure Back Vowel pull /p l/ /i:/ Long Pure Front Centralised Vowel eel /i:l/ v v Ω Ω Ω

NSOU ? PGEL-3 57 /c:/ Long Pure Central Vowel earl /c:l/ /a:/ Long Pure Back Vowel arms /'a:mz/ / :/ Long Pure Back Centralised Vowel awe / :/ /u:/ Long Pure Back Vowel ooze /u:z/ /ew/ Diphthong aim /ewm/ /aw/ Diphthong ice /aws/ /]w/ Diphthong oyster /]wstc/ /c / Diphthong oath /c θ/ /a / Diphthong ouch /a t•/ /ec/ Diphthong air /ec/ /wc/ Diphthong ear /wc/ / c/ Diphthong rural /r crcl/ Task 1: Write the RP Vowels from the following words: a) Putt b) Part c) soul d) file e) tear Your answer: Consonants Phoneme Word Phonemic Three-term label Transcription Vocal Place Manner Cords /m/ more /m]:/ Voiced Bilabial Nasal /n/ not /n]t/ Voiced Alveolar Nasal /ŋ/ ring /rw / Voiced Velar Nasal c c Ω Ω Ω Ω Ω Ω

NSOU ? PGEL-3 58 /p/ pie /paw/ voiceless Bilabial Plosive /b/ by /baw/ Voiced Bilabial Plosive /t/ tie /taw/ voiceless Alveolar Plosive /d/ dye /daw/ Voiced Alveolar Plosive /k/ coo /ku:/ voiceless Velar Plosive /g/ goo /gu:/ Voiced Velar Plosive /t/ chew / •u:/ voiceless Palato-alveolar Africate /d¦/ jaw /d¦]/ Voiced Palato-alveolar Africate /f/ few /fju:/ Voiced Labio-dental Fricative /v/ view /vju:/ Voiced Labio-dental Fricative /θ/ thigh /θaw/ voiceless Dental Fricative /ð/ thy /ðaw/ Voiced Dental Fricative /s/ sue /su:/ voiceless Alveolar Fricative /z/ zoo /zu:/ Voiced Alveolar Fricative /•/ fission /'fw•cn/ voiceless Palato-alveolar Fricative /¦/ vision /'vw¦cn/ Voiced Palato-alveolar Fricative /h/ who /hu:/ Voiced Glottal Fricative /l/ law /l]:/ Voiced Alveolar Lateral /r/ rye /raw/ Voiced Post-alveolar Approximant /w/ well /wel/ Voiced Bilabial Approximant /j/ union /'ju:njcn/ Voiced Palatal Approximant Task 2: Write the RP consonants from the following words: a) Poppy b) Kick c) Judge d) They

NSOU PGEL-3 59 e) Nine f) Loyal Your answer: Nowadays instead of RP, Standard British English and Standard American English are the most widely taught varieties of English in second language teaching across the globe. The term standard refers to the variety of English that has the highest prestige in a country. In case of the British Isles, the standard is variously called Received Pronunciation (RP), BBC English, Oxford English or Southern British Standard. Only about 5% of the population of Great Britain speak RP and the majority of RP speakers live in the south-east of England. The phonemes listed above are used by the speakers of RP and other varieties of English worldwide. 4.8 RP and International English Through a process of creolization and pidginization, English language across the globe has taken various forms. Major changes are on the phonological level due to mother tongue interference. For example, in South Asian countries like India, Nepal, Bhutan, Bangladesh, Pakistan, Sri Lanka, a large section of people uses English as a second language and speak in various ways. Even in countries like Hong Kong, Thailand, Malaysia, Indonesia and Singapore, people use English for business communication and tourism. Around 330 million speakers of English use the language as first language and even these speakers do not use English RP for informal conversation according to David Crystal. In the twenty-first century two major family trees of British and American varieties of English have developed. These are, however, gradually merging into a more universally acceptable International English that retain regional variations in pronunciation. However, along with English RP, different types of English, with their variations in pronunciation can be seen in these forms of English language: Indian, African American, American, Australian, Caribbean, Belfast, Cockney, New Zealand, Scottish, South African, among others. The students of English as a Second Language (ESL) throughout the world usually use the British or English RP (Received Pronunciation). Even in Ireland, Scotland or Wales, where the number of RP speakers is relatively less, the accent is held in high esteem. The commonwealth countries like Australia, New Zealand, Canada and South Africa use traditional RP in mass media and public announcements. In the

NSOU PGEL-3 60 USA, however, a special artificial type of English evolved out of English RP. The British RP is regarded as prestigious accent in the United States. In the Hollywood cinema of the 1980s the characters spoke in a more stylised and accented manner thereby developing an artificial American type of pronunciation. English RP is nowadays widely used in media and communication and in international conferences and seminars. Most of the public broadcast in the Anglophonic world uses the standards of pronunciation, accent and intonation set by RP. 4.9 Summary Through this discussion the students are made familiar with RP or Received Pronunciation. The contribution of Daniel Jones in the field of English pronunciation has been discussed. RP is now widely used in teaching of English as a first or second language throughout the world. English listening and speaking skills are mainly taught in language schools across the globe using RP. The symbols of English RP phonemes has been given with examples in phonemic transcription. While Indian English is historically derived from British English, recent influences from American English can be found to have created its own idiosyncrasies. For instance, it is common to both spellings "program" and "programme" being used in both formal and informal communications. >Here< is sometimes pronounced [hec(r)] (like in >hair< and >hare<) instead of [hwc(r)]. 4.10 Review Questions 1. Write a note on the place of RP in English Language Teaching (ELT). 2. What is Received Pronunciation (RP)? Discuss the evolution and usage of this term. 3. Write a note on the relationship between RP and BBC English. 4. What is the role of RP in English Language Teaching in countries where English is not used by the majority. 5. How many phonemes are there in English RP? Give a broad classification of these phonemes. 6. Write short notes on the following: a) ESL and use of RP.

NSOU PGEL-3 61 b) Phonemes in English RP c) Phonemic transcription and RP d) Use of RP in public schools 7. Write the word initial vowels for the following : a) elite b) across c) one d) other 8. What should be the objectives of pronunciation teaching? Suggest objectives from your own experiences and for your needs. 9. Suggest the ways of achieving the objectives you have mentioned in the answer to the question no. 4. 10. Give the three term label for the word initial consonants according to their utterances: a) methods b) cognitive c) teaching d) star e) psychology f) vision

NSOU PGEL-3 62 Module 2 : English Phonology Unit 5 Speech Production 5.1 Introduction 5.2 Objectives 5.3 The Sound System 5.4 Organs of Speech production 5.4.1 Description of speech organs 5.5 Some concepts related to speech production 5.6 Airstream Mechanism 5.7 Pulmonic Airstream Mechanism 5.8 Non-Pulmonic Airstream mechanism 5.9 Direction of the Air flow 5.10 Phonation 5.11 Summary 5.12 Review Questions 5.1 Introduction Generation of Speech or Speech Production is the prime means of communication which is an innate and inborn biological capability of man. This has made human as a distinct species from all other animals. Native speakers of each language community have this ability at birth and acquire the first language at a very early age in the post natal period unconsciously. But when a second language is assigned to them for learning after having acquired the competence in their mother tongue or first language, a conscious effort becomes necessary. 5.2 Objectives At the end of this unit, the learners will be able to: a. understand the mechanism of human speech production 62

NSOU PGEL-3 63 b. identify various speech organs and know their functions c. manipulate the speech organs for the production of new speech sounds 5.3 The Sound System The linguistic system of a language is composed of different structural levels or areas like sounds, generation and comprehension of sounds (phonetics), use of sounds and its functional behavior (phonology), words and its formation (morphology), use of words i.e. their order and intra-word relations (syntax), the meaning of words and sentence (semantics) etc. A speaker has to explore and practice all these knowledge areas for their linguistic competence in second language. The sound system constitutes the building block of a language. As a result the initial requirement in learning a language is the knowledge on the sound system. Each language has their own set of sounds with different patterns of articulation, combination as well as some exceptions and uniqueness. Therefore speech production invites certain areas of sound system like set sounds, method of generation of sounds, graphic representation of sounds and writing system etc. The learner should also remember that as a building block the sound units passes some extra information about the speaker, in built within the sound unit like age, sex, social status, state of mind, etc. i.e. physical, social and psychological aspect of the speaker. These are secondary properties in speech. Besides during speech, the speaker may also produce some gesture and posture by moving their head, body and eye etc. These are non-vocal behavior of speech, but are associated with it. The whole procedure becomes the part of 'speech production' in a wider sense. Of course inbuilt information and the non-vocal behavior are secondary matter in second language learning. The proper understanding of the verbal behavior of speech is the basic requirement and includes the movement of Organs of Speech. The relation between the movement of the speech organs and their corresponding generated sound units are the introductory part of second language learning. Phonetics deals with that. One point should be noted here that not all sounds produced by organs speech are the speech sounds of a language. The sounds which are used in a language are speech sounds of that language. A speaker produces a stream of sounds continuously. The hearer perceives effortlessly. It is only possible when both, the speaker and hearer, have the power of perceiving the whole string of sounds as the combination of segmented units. For example when anyone says 'come here' /k^mhi∂/, it is nothing but a stream of segmented

NSOU PGEL-3 64 sound units. This small sentence can be the part of a long 'speech'. This is an analogous stream of sounds to the hearer as it is produced continuously. But this string of sounds comprises of separate segmented units /k-^-m h-i-∂/'. Each one of this string is a unique sound unit. Each one has different articulatory pattern, complex physical properties like pitch or frequency, duration, loudness or intensity etc. Both the speaker and hearer have competence on these aspects of sound units. For learning any second language the knowledge on these areas is inevitable. Remember when we put the words in / / it indicates what a speaker produces exactly in speech. This type of transcription is known as narrow transcription. The scripts which have been used here to produce exact sounds are known as 'International Phonetic Alphabet' (IPA) which will be discussed latter. A few new symbols like '-^-, -∂- ...' will be used there. 'Phonetics' by definition is a part of language study, already introduced to you. It describes the speech sounds scientifically analyzing the method of production, classification and transcription in respect of the properties said above. It has three broad areas related to the generation of speech - Articulatory, Acoustic and Auditory Phonetics i.e. how the segmented sound units are produced by the speakers, what type of physical properties travels from speaker to hearer and how, and finally how the speaker perceives these physical properties or acoustic signals by receiving through the auditory organs. Out of these three areas, the Articulatory Phonetics is the primary need to any language learner as it gives a detail outline of speech articulation. 5.4 Organs of Speech production The organs of speech or vocal apparatus are the part of physiological structure and common to all human. The structural and functional knowledge on the Organs of Speech is the primary concern for articulatory description. The organs involved in speech are biologically gifted to the human limbic system. But in the early phase of evolution most of these organs were involved to maintain the physical activities only. Gradually during the course of evolution, according to the need for communication, the same organs started to be utilized for the generation of speech sounds. As a result these organs have two types of function - Primary and secondary functions. The primary functions maintain the functioning of physiological system of the body. But when any organ is used for other purposes beyond the primary function, it is known as secondary function. The function or speech of vocal apparatus is secondary function. These have been shaped as speech organs during the course of evolution to fulfill different external needs. For example the tongue was used to taste and move the food items within the oral cavity. That was the primary function of it. Gradually the sounds produced by the tongue was started to be used for communication at night or

NSOU PGEL-3 65 in the dark forest or from a distance etc. This is secondary function of it. The tongue creates the obstruction in the path of air flow of the respiratory system or changes the shape of oral cavity and assists to generate the sound. Similarly the vocal cords (larynx) are responsible mainly to control the respiratory system but these have been also used for generating the voicing features of speech by vibrating the vocal cords as a secondary function. 5.4.1 Description of speech organs The speech organs, also known also as 'vocal apparatus', are organized in a systematic manner as part of our limbic system. The organic existence, arrangement and coordination are the key factors for the creation of different speech sounds. The speaker manipulates these organs in different phases of speech production i.e. how these are used to initiate a speech, vibrate vocal cords, and controls the air passage to give a shape of sound unit. A small sketch of organs of speech is drawn below. 1. lungs 2. food pipe / esophagus 3. wind pipe / trachea 4. larynx 5. vocal cords 6. glottis 7. epiglottis 8. pharynx 9. nasal cavity 10. oral cavity 11. uvula 12. root of the tongue 13. back of the tongue 14. front of the tongue 15. blade 16. tip of the tongue 17. soft palate 18. hard palate 19. alveolar 20. lower teeth 21. upper teeth 22. upper lip 23. lower lip 24. lower jaw

NSOU PGEL-3 66 Lungs (1): Lung is the source of air to flow. In our respiratory system, human breathing is directly related to the lung. We breathe the air that goes directly to the lung from the atmosphere and then we breathe out. The air from the lungs passes outward. Both the dimension of airstream is manipulated by other vocal apparatus in the oral cavity to generate the sounds. Lung is physically arranged under the trachea or wind pipe (3) in two parts inside our chest. Esophagus (2): The Esophagus (2) or food pipe is placed beside the trachea which runs to the stomach for food. When we eat food it goes to the stomach through this directly. Epiglottis: And there is another organ to close the path of wind pipe and that is the epiglottis, above the larynx and below the root of the tongue. Larynx (4): Larynx is the part of respiratory system and placed above the wind pipe. It is a comprise of two cords known as vocal cords (5) and a few cartilages adjacent to these two cords. The function of these cords is to control the air flow from the lungs. Simultaneously it manipulates the speed of air flow to be vibrated to produce the audible sounds. Glottis (6): The gap between these two vocal cords is known as Glottis (6). The adjacent cartilages manipulate this gap. The air passes smoothly through this gap when both cords remain widely apart from each other. It happens during normal breathings. But for the generation of sounds these cords are abducted to reduce the space of glottis. Then the air flows with high speed and these two cords start to vibrate. The audible noise is produced then. The wave of that audible sounds or resonant moves towards the oral cavity and is shaped further there by the other apparatus before releasing to the atmosphere. The vibration of these two cords varies due to the variation in the space within the glottis. The different sounds are produced. Phonation in phonetics describes the voicing and voicelessness of speech sounds. Pharynx (8): Pharynx is a long tube just above the larynx and esophagus from which two cavities i.e. nasal cavity (9) and oral cavity (10) are formed separately. The region of pharynx is externally the throat region in human body. Nasal cavity (9): Nasal cavity is placed above the roof of the mouth and in between nostrils and the pharyngeal tube. During the production of nasal vowels or consonants, this cavity acts as resonating chamber to produce a nasal murmur along with the oral sounds. Uvula (11): Uvula or velum is uniquely placed above the pharyngeal tube dividing the path of oral and nasal cavity and remains in ganging position during normal

NSOU PGEL-3 67 breathing. It is the extreme end of soft palate. When the airflow passes towards oral cavity it touches the pharyngeal wall and blocks the airflow to the nasal cavity. The non-nasal sounds are produced. But it opens the path of nasal cavity during the speech it assists to produce the nasal sound. Tongue (12-16): Tongue is the most important articulator in the generation of speech. Structurally it is not flat though in the surface it seems like that. The inside shape is round like a ball and the flat portion is on the upper part of the ball. The major division of tongue relevant in speech production is 'root' (12), 'back (13)' and 'front (14)'. The 'blade'(15) and the 'tip' (16) of the tongue are two parts in the front. The tongue plays the major role to create an obstruction in the air path or change the shape of oral cavity. The airstream, either from the lungs or from outside to the oral cavity is functionally affected by this movement of tongue. The sounds are classified by considering this tongue movement in most of the languages. Palate (17-18): The roof of the oral cavity is known as the palate divided into two; soft palate (17) and hard palate (18). Different parts of the tongue touch different points on the palate and create obstruction in the air passage. The soft palate is at the end towards the pharyngeal tube. The back of the tongue against the soft palate produces sound like /k/, when these two closes the path of air passage. The area of the palate towards upper teeth is divided into hard palate and the alveolar (19). When the blade of tongue touches the front of hard palate, it produces palatal sounds and when the twisted tongue touches the hard plate, produces retroflex sounds. Alveolar (19): A raised sloppy reason at end of hard palate towards the upper teeth is known as alveolar. The tip of the tongue touches against the alveolar for another set of sounds known as alveolar like /t/. Teeth (20-21): Structurally teeth are arranged in two sets - lower teeth (20) and upper teeth (21). The root of the upper teeth is important when the tip of the tongue

NSOU PGEL-3 68 touches against it, produces a set of sounds known as dental, available in Bengali and other Indo Aryan Languages. Simultaneously the lower lip has a role when it touches the upper teeth, /f/ like sound is produced and known as labiodentals. A set of consonants is also produced when the tip of the tongue touches against the middle of the closed position of upper and lower teeth as it happens in the production of /ð/ in 'this'. These are known as inter-dental. Lips (22-23): The upper lip (22) is fixed in front of the upper teeth and used as the place of articulation against the lower lip (23) for bilabial sounds like /p/, and lower teeth for /f/ etc. It is the front gate of oral cavity. Lower lip is the external part of the front jaw used for the same set of sounds. Lower Jaw (24): Lower jaw is the lower part of mouth. The flexibility in the movement of this part is useful for opening and closing the oral cavity. Without this movement no vowel and most of the consonants with multiple characters cannot be produced for communication. Active and Passive articulator: According to the David Crystal 'Any specific part of the vocal apparatus involved in the production of a sound is called an articulator.' (Crystal, 2000, 27). The list of organs, mentioned above are the articulators used for the generation of speech sounds. Out of these articulators some organs move actively during the generation of speech like, tongue, lower lip, lower jaw etc. These are known as active articulators. Tongue is the most active among these articulators. The lower lip, two vocal cords, velum etc may be added in this list of active articulators as these organs also remain active during speech. In respect of the movement of the articulators like upper teeth and the roof of the mouth i.e alveolar, front and back parts of the palate remain relatively fixed. These are considered as passive articulators. 5.5 Some concepts related to speech production i) Airstream Mechanism ii) Phonation 5.6 Airstream Mechanism Initiation characterizes the types of airstream used in speech. In the respiratory system the air moves from the lungs towards the oral or nasal cavity or both and vice versa. But some exceptions are also there. According to David Crystal 'initiation' in

NSOU ? PGEL-3 69 phonetics determines the source of airstream in motion and the direction of airflow. The airstream mechanism describes the source of air in speech. In human speech there are two main types of the airstream mechanism: (i) Pulmonic Airstream Mechanism (ii)Non-Pulmonic Airstream Mechanism 5.7 Pulmonic Airstream Mechanism The initiator in this process makes clear the path of airflow from the lungs on the basis of respiratory system. The airstream available within the space between the lungs to lips is manipulated for the generation of speech sounds. Lung is the source of air and due to that it is known as pulmonic airstream mechanism. The whole region from below the larynx to the lips in the above figure indicates the source of air is lungs. 5.8 Non-Pulmonic Airstream mechanism Other than the pulmonic mechanism, two more types of mechanisms for the airstream manipulation are set by the process of initiation. In these cases, the source of air stream is not generated from the lungs. These are known as Non-Pulmonic Airstream mechanism. In both these cases the path of airflow from the lungs is blocked by the initiating process. New spaces are created to hold the air to flow. These two are Velaric and Glottal Airstream Mechanism. English has no speech sounds using these two mechanisms. However, some British (who speak Cockney) use glottal stops which are a result of Glottal air stream mechanism.

NSOU PGEL-3 70 5.9 Direction of the Air flow The direction of air flow characterizes the sound units. Two types of airflow - ingressive and egressive are noted in human speech. When the air pressure is high within the oral cavity than the atmosphere the air moves towards the outside. This is known as egressive airstream. The egressive pulmonic air stream mechanism is used by English speakers and most speech communities of the world. The ingressive airstream is the reverse process of egressive mechanism. When the air pressure is reduced by the movement of speech organs within the cavity, the atmospheric air flows into the empty space in the cavity, and with any available constriction point, the air gets released. This is known as the ingressive airstream. During this time the speech sounds are produced. Implosive and click sounds are produced by this process and are commonly found in many African languages. 5.10 Phonation Phonation has also the same common role for the generation of all vowels and some consonants which refer to the function of larynx in speech. It is the secondary function of larynx. In speech the function of larynx is relatively independent in respect of other vocal organs. When two vocal cords are put together the space of glottis is narrowed down in such a manner, both the cords start to vibrate when the air passes through it. This vibration produces audible noise and passes out through the pharyngeal and oral cavity. This activity of the larynx for the speech is known as phonation. The voiced, voiceless or unvoiced sound and whispering are also produced by this process. For the generation of vowels phonation is the main source of acoustic energy, but it has a role to characterize the consonants also known as voiced consonants. Phonation has two main types - Voicing and Voicelessness with some subtypes will be discussed as manner of articulation feature (see Unit 7).

NSOU PGEL-3 71 5.11 Summary We have discussed how speech is a distinctive feature of the human beings separating them from the rest of animal world. Speech which is a natural phenomenon is acquired at a younger age and is restricted to the mother tongue or the language of frequent exposure. However, learning to speak a second or a foreign language involves conscious effort. Such speech production demands producing certain unfamiliar sounds to do which knowledge of speech organs and their functions is essential. The speech production also depends on factors such as the type of airstream mechanism and voicing or devoicing the speech sounds. This knowledge helps you further to analyse the errors made during speaking (by your learners) and help them with possible remedies. 5.12 Review Questions 1. How is speech unique to human beings? 2. What is the primary function of speech organs? 3. How many types of air stream mechanisms do we have, and how are they useful? 4. How is a speech sound voiced? Describe in detail. 5. Which part of the tongue is used for the utterance of the following in speech sounds: /t/, /k/, /f/, /r/, /l/ 6. Which of the speech organs do not move? Name them and describe their function. 7. What does the term phonation mean? What is its significance? 8. What function do the lungs play in the production of speech? 9. What are ingressive sounds? Does English have any of them? 10. What role does the nasal cavity play in speech production? How many consonants are produced nasally? Name them and describe them.

NSOU ? PGEL-3 72 Unit 6 ? English Vowels 6.1 Introduction 6.2 Objectives 6.3 Common features of vowels and consonants 6.4 Vowels 6.4.1 Cardinal Vowels 6.4.2 English Vowels 6.4.3 Description of Vowels qualitatively 6.5 Close and open vowels 6.6 Lip movement: Rounded and unrounded vowels 6.7 English Diphthongs 6.7.1 Classification of English diphthongs 6.7.2 Triphthongs in English 6.7.3 What is to be remembered? 6.8 Summary 6.9 Review Questions 6.10 References and Reading List 6.1 Introduction All languages are made of speech sounds, and English has 44 basic sound units which are known as phonemes. These are distributed in two broad categories vowels and consonants. a) Vowel series: i: /I, ɛ, æ, a,]:, Z, , c, f:, ʊ, u:, ei, aw,]i, a , c , wc, c, ec./ (20) b) Consonant Series: /

| 50% | MATCHING BLOCK 10/23 | SA | Ali Mirzavand_A PHONOLOGICAL STUDY OF ENGLISH ... (D15063759) |

p, b, t, d, k, g, t•, d¦, m, n, , f v, θ, ð, s,• z,¦, h, l, r, j, w/. (24)

Phonetically each of these sound units has not only an articulatory pattern, each one has specific phonological behavior in the language. English sounds are not exception to such rules. The scientific classification of these units needs the detail phonetic 72 v Ω Ω Ω

NSOU PGEL-3 73 pattern based on the source of air, direction of air flow, role of articulators, shape of the cavity, nature of constriction on the air path etc. In this unit we will specifically focus on the vowel sounds, their production and description. 6.2 Objectives After going through this unit, the learners will be able to: a. Distinguish a vowel sound from a consonant sound b. Identify various vowel sounds which are absolute in nature c. Identify and describe vowel sounds in English language d. Classify the vowel sounds based on their quality and production e. Help learners who need remedy in the production of vowels 6.3 Common features of vowels and consonants In respect of articulation both these series have some common features in spite of unique aspect which have made these two series with separate identity. The generation of any speech sound has the source of airstream whether it is consonant or vowel does not differ much. Direction of the airflow or the state of glottis that is phonation etc are also common and present. Generally English sounds are produced by the pulmonic airstream mechanism which flows from Larynx to atmosphere, the egressive one. 6.4 Vowels By definition vowels are a set of speech units, which are produced by passing the pulmonic airstream freely and continuously without any constriction after shaping the oral cavity using the movement of tongue and lips. During this flow of air, the glottis is narrowed down. Both the vocal cords vibrate by generating audible noise. That audible noise is known as vowel. The different shape of the oral cavity makes the sound wave to resonate differently that produces vowels with different quality. From the above definition it is clear that the production of vowels have the following features of articulation. (i) Use of airstream mechanism, here pulmonic airstream mechanism based on the respiratory system. (ii) Direction of airflow from the lungs to the atmosphere, i.e. egressive. NSOU PGEL-3 74 (iii) No Constriction in the oral cavity or in the air path way from the larynx to lip. (iv) Shape of the glottis for vibrating the vocal cords producing systematic audible noise of voicing. (Vowels are voiced in general). (v) Changing the shape of oral cavity by placing the tongue and lip in different positions. (vi) Option to pass the airstream through both the cavities i.e. oral and nasal to produce the nasal vowels. (vii) Duration of the articulation. Task 1: State whether the following statements are true or false: 1. English vowels are produced with pulmonic eggressive air stream mechanism. 2. The shape of oral cavity during vowel articulation is controlled by the tongue only. 3. Vowels can be voiced or voiceless. 4. Vowels can be oral or nasal in English. 5. Vowels are usually uttered after consonants. 6.4.1 Cardinal Vowels The description of a vowel is difficult in respect of consonant. Place of articulation of consonant is observable. But the vowel has no such particular concrete reference point to place the articulators. For the production of a vowel a speaker has to imitate the sound only. It has a pattern of articulation. The problem is more complex during the second language teaching and learning. The articulators are placed in a particular pattern within the space of oral cavity. That has to be imitated. The concept of cardinal vowels was introduced for that. The idea of cardinal vowel is to define a model pattern of movement articulators as the standard reference irrespective of any particular language. "A set of standard reference points devised by the British Phonetician Daniel Jones to provide a precise means of identifying the vowel sounds of a language." (Crystal, 1980). Before the description of English vowels a preliminary idea of cardinal vowels was relevant here. When English vowels were taught to the foreign students, the need of such attempt was felt badly. The tongue position in the generation of vowels varies from language to language. The learners try to acquire the technique by hearing the sound

NSOU ? PGEL-3 75 only. Besides, another matter was also taken into consideration that how this vowel difference can be placed in writing. Jones noted that for the generation of vowels involves two types tongue movement which plays the major roles. He defines that different section of the tongue moves up to that extreme point in the cavity for the vowel after which it would produce the noise of friction. Similarly the lowest position of the tongue is another extreme point after which no vowel can be produced. If the front and back part of the tongue is placed in the cavity the following vowel quadrilateral may be shaped. The following diagram is nothing but the space within the oral cavity. Between two extreme points of the tongue movement he further devised two more reference points in the mid-level. When the tongue attains the highest position towards the roof of the mouth the shape of the cavity is supposed to be closed. The vowel produced in that shape will be known as close or high vowel. On the other hand a low or open vowel may be produced when the tongue is in the lowest position. Relatively two other positions in the mid-level have been suggested which are half-close or mid- high, little below the close or high position and a half-open vowel or open-mid above the lowest position. These four reference points are made considering the movement of the front of the tongue. He marked corresponding another four 'reference points' observing of the upward movement of back of the tongue. The vowels, produced in these eight points are treated as primary cardinal vowels or primary reference points for the description of vowels of any language. Jones had represented these eight primary vowels using the International Phonetic Alphabet like /i, e , ɛ, a, Y,], o, u/.

NSOU PGEL-3 76 He also added the rounded and unrounded features on these vowels. When the vowels in the back are produced, the shape of lips converts generally into the round shape. The vowels in the front are round in character which is unrounded or spread during the production of front vowels. These reference points, made by Jones here are irrespective of any language and will be treated as a scale for describing the vowels of any other language. See the distribution of cardinal vowels in the following diagram. The tentative lip positions in the four extreme point of the tongue movement is mentioned here, which gives an idea that the roundedness and the closing-opening related with the primary cardinal vowels, as listed in the description. Jones later has given ten more secondary reference points for the cardinal vowels which are known as secondary cardinal vowels Task 2: Complete the sentences. a) The various parts of the tongue are: b) The rounded vowels of English are: c) The high vowels of English are:

d) The back unrounded vowel is: e) The front vowels are: 6.4.2 English Vowels Phonologically the English phonemes have been identified two broad sound categories - vowels and consonants. Each category has a set of fixed number of phonemes, mentioned in previous sections. From the traditional grammar conventionally it is known that English has five vowel scripts like 'a, e, i, o, u'. According to the English sound system the vowel sounds are more in number. There is no one-to-one mapping between the sound unit and the corresponding alphabet. Same alphabet is articulated differently. The letter 'a' in English is produced as /æ/ in bat /bæt/, /a:/ in far /fa:/, /]/ in away /]wew/, /] / in watch /w]tʃ/ or/]:/in talk /t]:k/. /ɛ/in many /mɛnw/, /w/in village /vwlwdz/etc. Besides some consonant letters are also are pronounced as vowel in certain contexts. For example 'y' in syndicate /swndwkct/ is articulated as /w/. Orthography has such inconsistency in respect of sound. It is noted in most of living natural language which has writing system. Therefore the classification as well as characterization of vowel sounds is relevant to the language learners. After an exhaustive study, a phonetician described the English language with twenty vowel like sounds. Out of these, 12 are marked as pure vowels or monophthongs. These are i:, /w, e, æ, Y,]:, Z, , Bb, e:, ʊ/ and /u/:. Besides these, /ew, aw,]w, aʊ, cʊ, w], cʊ/ and /ec/ are eight more vowel like units which are compounded in structure and are known as diphthongs. 6.4.3 Description of Vowels qualitatively The vowels can be characterized qualitatively and quantitatively. The qualitative difference of vowel depends on the shape of the oral cavity, which varies by the movement of active articulator tongue with the coordination of the shape of lips. The change of the cavity shape modifies the flow of sound frequencies from the larynx and produces different vowels of unique quality. The vowel /w/ is different one from the /ʊ/ due to the variation in the position of articulators i.e. tongue and lip. Therefore vowels can be classified or grouped qualitatively according to the role of these articulators. The roles of the articulators have been attributed by providing names like front-back, high-low, open-closed, rounded-unrounded etc. As a result the vowels can be classified or studied on the basis of following parameter in general. 1) Movement of the part of the tongue like front, back and central. 2) Upward and downward Movement of the tongue like high or mid-high or Y

mid-low or low which are related to the closing and opening character as another quality. 3) Movement of the lips like spread or unrounded and rounded features. Other than three important features a vowel sound is related to two more aspects of articulation. These are: 4) Opening of the jaw which influences the most of the active articulators during the articulation of vowels. 5) Opening the path of nasal cavity for the nasal vowels. This is an optional part as nasal vowels are not available in all language. a) Tongue Movement : Front, Back and Central : Broadly the tongue is divided as front, back and central which moves from its neutral position towards the roof of the mouth, the passive articulator. The cavity space is changed by this movement of three different sections of tongue. Each of this broad division has sub sections. The 'front' has three sub sections like tip, center of the front and back or hinder part of the front. Like this central and back have also different sub sections within the broad area as mentioned. The impact of these subparts adds unique vowel quality. i) Sound produced by the movement of the front part of the tongue ii) Sound produced by the movement of the back of the tongue iii) Sound produced by the central part of the tongue (i) Sounds produced by the movement of the front part of the tongue: 1) Tongue moves in different directions within the oral cavity. From the neutral or rest position when the center of the front part of the tongue starts to move towards the front of the hard palate or alveo-palatal region a passage is created to pass the airstream with audible noise. A sound like /i:/ (1) is produced. The words like see /si:/, tree /tri:/, seen /si:n/, east /i:st/, meat /mi:t/, people /pi:pl/, complete /k]mpli:t, need /ni:d/ etc have such sound.

2) When the back of the front part of the tongue is raised against the front part of palate creating a space to flow the air with the audible noise but producing English /w/ (2) as in sit /swt/. Form the qualitative point of view these two i.e. /i:/ and /w/ are very close according the role of the articulators. But the duration of this sound is less than the word seat /si:t/. The duration is the cause of the difference in meaning. Such words are available in English like bill /bwl/, give /gwv/, milk /mwlk/, city /swtw/, exhibit /wgzwbwt/ etc. 3) The whole of the front part moves upwards and little back towards the hard palate by creating a space to produce the /e/ (3) sound, it is little back from the above two. The words get /get/, pen /pen/, seven /sevn/, text /tekst/ etc have this vowel sound. 4) By the use of the extended part of the whole front against the hard palate, the /æ/ (4) is produced when the airflow moves towards outside. The words like back /bæk/, mad /mæd/, cap /khæp/ damp /dæmp/, lamp /læmp/, glad /glæd/ etc are the carrier words of this sound. Front and Back of the tongue which was mentioned in the figure*. ii) Sounds produced by the movement of the front part of the tongue: The position of the back part is noted in the above picture. It is towards the velum at the end part of the oral cavity. The vowels produced by the back region are known as back vowels. 5) When the center of the back of the tongue moves towards the front part of the soft palate, a space between these two articulators helps to produce the sound /Y:/ (4) as in far /Y:/. The similar words are part /pY:t/, class /klY:s/, task /tY:sk/ etc.

6) The back of the tongue moves towards soft-palate and the airflow passes through that. The tip of the tongue during this articulation moves down from the level of lower teeth. The /Z/ (6) is produced. The words like dog/dZg/, cotton /kZtn/, hot /hZt/ etc preserve this sound. The duration of this sound is short. For the same sound Jones has used /]/ script. 7) The sound /]:/ (7) is produced by the back part of the tongue when it moves towards the soft palate which has long duration. The soft palate is also raised little high. The words caught /k]:t/, talk /t]:k/, door /d]:/ etc carry this sound. 8) The / / (8) is produced by placing the fore part of the back of the tongue in very high position and make free to move the airstream by producing the audible noise. The word full /f l/, good /g d/, could /k d/ etc carry this vowel during articulation. The duration of this vowel is short. 9) The vowel /u:/ (9) is produced by placing the back of the vowels in the highest position against the soft palate. The words cool /ku:l/, blue /blu:/ route /ru:t/, soup /su:p/ etc have this vowel, which takes little long duration than the / /. i) Central part of the tongue: In neutral position of the tongue the central part of the tongue is raised a little and brings a change in the shape of cavity. 10) The audible noise of the larynx passes freely through this unit and vowel /c/ (10) is produced. There is no particular corresponding alphabet for this sound. When an English speaker produces the words like attempt /ctempt/, melody / melcdw/, protect /prctekt/, collar /k]lc/, over /cʋvc/, centre /sentc/, manner / mæn∂/ etc /c/ is generated. The duration of this vowel is very short. As this vowel is produced by the central part of the tongue it is known as the central vowel. Certain type of this sound is also known as schwa or neutral vowel. 11) The vowel /f:/ is another sound produced by the same shape of the cavity formed for /c/ with the variation in the duration. The words like bird /bf:d, her /hf:/, turn /tf:n/ etc have this vowel . Jones has used /c:/ to represent this sound. 12) In the central region another vowel / / (12) is produced when the front part of the back of the tongue by keeping in the highest position creates a space against the roof in between hard and soft palate to flow the airstream. Such sounds are audible when the words like cut /k t/, love /l v/, done /d n/,

come /k m/, none /n n/, Monday /m ndw/, among /cm /, butter /b tc/ etc. b) Upward and downward Movement or High/close and Low/open vowels: The above description shows that the front, back or central parts of the tongue movement include the upward and downward movement. Such movement has also impact on the vowel quality. Both, the front and back part, have upward and downward movement. During the production of front vowels, the front part raises towards the roof of the mouth approximately by closing the cavity space. When the word see /si:/ is uttered, the vowel /i:/ is in the highest position in English. The cavity position is about to close. Then /w/ as in pit /pwt/ is in high range but little below the highest /i:/. Gradually the tongue moves downwards by producing /e/ /æ/ etc in a particular state. According to that the /e/ is in middle position where /æ/ is in close to the lowest position of the tongue. The back part of tongue has similar role. From the above figure it is noted that /Y:/ in the word cart /kY:t/ bears the lowest vowel using the back part. Then gradually the backpart moves upwards by producing /]/ as in got, /]:/ in saw in the mid level and then / / in pull and /u:/ in pool are produced one after another towards the high position. In the mid low or mid high region /c/ /f: (c:)/, /c/, and / :/ are produced where the height of the central part of the tongue is important. These are produced either mid-high or mid-low position. Task 3: Match the words with the vowels: a) City /c/ b) Went / / c

c) Put /w/ d) Above /e/ e) Fur /f/ 6.5 Close and open vowels By comparing the tongue height and the opening of the cavity it is noted that these two are inversely related with the closing and opening of the cavity space. When the height increases, either the front of back the cavity space is reduced and shaped as closed. The vowels produced in this phase are known as high or close vowels and near to the roof of the mouth. Vowels /i:/& /w/ in the front, / / & /u:/ come under this group. But in particular /i:/ /u:/ is nearly close and /i/ and /u/ are near to the half close. The /æ/ and /Y:/ are low or open vowels in general and these are at a long distance from the roof of the cavity. But /æ/ is in between half open and open i.e. in the lower level. Out of 12 pure vowels in English six vowels are produced either in mid high region and known as half close vowels. Similarly those are close to the lowest zone, known as mid low or half open vowels. The /e/ of the front is half close and half open. /Z (])/ is above the open. / /]:/ are two speech units are produced in the half open shaped by the back part of the tongue. Rest of the two that is /c/ and c: are in between half-close and half-open position. 6.6 Lip movement: Rounded and unrounded vowels Lip movement: The movements of vocal apparatus for vowels, described above, includes the lip movement also. It has impact on the vowel quality. Relatively physical

organs are independent. But it is noted that when the back of the tongue starts to rise from its neutral position, the shape of lips starts to be rounded. That process gradually changes more according to the height of the tongue. When the back of the tongue reaches in the highest position to generate the vowel /u:/, the high closed vowel the shape of the lips is changed in round shape. Due to this, during the generation of back vowels the lips are round in shape. On the other hand when the front part starts to increase the height from the neutral position, the lips starts to spread. In the generation of English high vowel /i:/ the lips are in spreaded position. As a result the front vowels are unrounded in general in respect to the back. Look at the following diagram to have an approximate idea for the roundness of the English Vowels. The relationship between back and roundness is not deterministic. In some languages the reverse system of lip shape is noted i.e. the speaker can produce the back vowels with unrounded shape of the lips. For example Germanic /ü/ is produced by the back of the tongue but the lips are unrounded. English has no such basic sounds units, Vowels in the frame of the vowel quadrilateral

84 Vowel quadrilateral within the cavity English Vowels in the vowel quadrilateral is framed according to the shape of the cavity. In the quadrilateral the scripts are not put in the line in some cases. The reason is that the frame of the quadrilateral refers the points for the cardinal vowels as described above. The standard shape of the tongue movement was considered as reference point. The vowels of each language can be measured based on these standard points of the quadrilateral in paper. For example the English /i:/ is little below of the standard point of high vowels. The position of English vowels as mentioned by the Daniel Jones in respect of the cardinal vowels.

85 The black dots are eight cardinal points to measure the tongue position of the vowels of the languages of the world. An approximate position of articulators for English vowels is mentioned here. 4) Jaw movement is related with the opening and closing of the cavity. It controls the movement of active articulators, lowering down the organs. For the high, the jaw is close to the normal position but gradually lowers down towards the open vowels. (5) Duration of articulation i.e. quantitative feature of a vowel: The Duration of a vowel is the quantitative property which characterizes some vowels as separate phonemic units. When the production of a vowel takes long time in respect of the production of other vowels it is known as long. Some are short in respect of that having approximately similar quality as in /i:/ and /w/, or /u:/ and / /. The heed and hid are two different words which are quantitatively different.. Qualitatively these are produced in same manner i.e. the articulatory properties and pattern are same but /i:/ of head /hi:d/ takes more time than in hid /hwd/. The first one is long and the second one is short. By hearing these two words one can identify these two as separate from each other and have different meaning. The use of /:/ after a vowel script is added to indicate that vowel as long. Like this one may get /u/ in look /l k/ and lose /lu:z/ as short and long respectively. The word garden is uttered as /gY:dn/ where /Y/ is a long one in duration. Similarly the difference between /]/ in not /n]t/ and talk /t]:k/ are different in duration. The word protect /pr]tekt/ and girl /gc:l/ shows the availability /c/ carries one more variation of time. English has five long vowels i.e. /i:,Y:,]:, u:,]:/ due to their long duration in articulation. Task 4: Label the following vowels: 1. /c:/ 2. /u/ 3. /Y/ 4. /c/ 5. /æ/ 6.7 English Diphthongs In English the words like gun /g^n/, push /p ʃ/, not /n]t/ etc shows the presence of pure vowels /]/, / /, /c/ etc, but /aw/, /a /, /uc/, /wc/ etc are available in high /aw/

86 now /na /, fear /fic/, time /t^im/ etc. The first set of vowels are simple and form a peak with single quality in articulation and also form a syllable but the second groups are complex in structure. In spite of similar functional quality by forming a single peak and a syllable, the manner of articulation differs from the pure vowels. From the articulatory point of view the first set has single noticeable vowel quality, whereas the other set is formed having more than one quality. The first set of vowels is known as monophthnong or pure vowels, which have already been discussed above. But the vowels which are composed of more than one vowel qualities are known as diphthongs. To generate the diphthongs the speech organs, especially the tongue, moves swiftly from its first position for first vowel to another continuously forming a single prominent structure. Such movement of the tongue is also known as gliding. Diphthong is nothing but a 'gliding vowel'. For the word loud, the tongue moves swiftly from the position of lowest level /a/ towards / / in the highest level. That movement produces /a / in /la d/. The /a/ and / / having two different qualities form a single unit and functions as a center or nucleus of a syllable. By character these vowels are also known as complex vowels, or vowel glides. 6.7.1 Classification of English diphthongs English has eight (8) diphthongs. These are ew, aw,]w, a , c , w], c, and ec which can be described in terms of the vowel quadrilateral in the following manner. These are made in terms of final element of the complex unit. i) Diphthongs /ew/, /aw/, /]w/ have the terminating high vowel /w/. The words game /gewm/, face /fews/, late /lewt/, neighbor /newb]/, table /tewbl/ etc have this sound. /e/ is the variety of /e/ and not mentioned in the pure vowel list. It has no role as an independent vowel to form a syllable in English. For the generation of /aw/, the tongue height for the initial vowel remains in low level but front part of the tongue is raised little. Then it moves towards the short high front unrounded vowel /w/. The shape of the lip is normal position. Words like guide

87 /gawd/ child /t•awld/, write /rawt/ etc have this vowel. Sometimes the second language learner use /a/ which is near to the back low vowel instead of /a/. The /]w/ is produced by placing the tongue near to the low position and raising the hinder part of the back and then placing the hinder or back part of the front swiftly. The words like point /p]wnt/ choice, /t•]ws/ loyal /l]wl/ etc have this diphthong. ii) Another set of diphthongs is available in English which has two units /c /, /au/. The final elements of which are short back high vowel / /. For /c / the tongue is nearer to half-close than half-open. The front part of the back is raised. The final element shows the presence of roundness. The words cold /kc ld/, know /nc /, hope /h∂up/ etc have this sound. The /au/ is formed initiating the height of the tongue in low position and rising the hinder part of the front ending with short back round vowel. The words town /ta n/, doubt /da t/, noun /na n/ etc have this sound unit. iii) The third group of diphthongs is formed in respect of the movement of the tongue from high to the central vowels as mentioned below. These are /w]/, / c/, and /ec/ The /ic/ is produced when the front of the tongue is moved from the front high to the mid-level and central part of the tongue remains close to the neutral position with half-close position. The final vowel is in falling position in respect of the tongue movement. The words like dear /dwc/ hear /hwc/, cheer /t•ic/ etc have such sound.

The / c/ is also a falling diphthong as the front part of the back of the tongue moves down and the center part is placed close to the neutral position this was produced. The words poor /p c/, tour /t c/, doer /d c/ etc have such sound. When the front part of the tongue is raised and tongue height is half-open the initial /e/ is produced and then the central part of the tongue like other falling diphthongs described above move towards the neutral position. The /ec, (ec)/ is formed. The words like care /kec/ tear /tec/ dare /dec/ etc carry this speech sound. Diphthongs are also named according to the final or ending vowels. The diphthongs ended with noted in central vowel /c/ are known as central diphthongs which are three in number. wc, ec and c are central diphthongs The number of closing diphthongs is five as these are ended with high closing vowels like /w/ and / /. These are ew, aw,]w, c and a . Task 5 : Write the diphthongs in the following words: a) Came, make, pay b) Noble, blow, road c) Noise, voice, point d) Fair, air, share e) Tour, during, sure Answers: a) /ew/, b) / c / c) /]w/ d) /ec/ e) / c/ 6.7.2 Triphthongs in English English has also some words which bear the three vowels in the place of a diphthongs as it is noted in the word like hour which should be produced as /a c/ or lower / lc c/ etc. These have particular pattern adding /c/ i.e. the central vowel after all closing diphthongs. English has five closing diphthongs ew, aw,]w, c and a . Now after adding the final /c/to all these diphthongs English has ewc, awc,]wc, c c and a c. Eg.ewc: mare /mewc/, awc: fire /faic/;]wc: royal /r]wcl/; c c: grower /grac c/ ; a c: power /pa c/ etc. In articulation especially in running speech the situation of tongue movements makes these units are produced as the glide as the active articulator changes the cavity frequently. 6.7.3 What is to be remembered? The foreign speaker faces difficulties to identify the difference between the vowel qualities of some English vowels during pronunciation. Sometimes mother tongue of

the speaker also functions as constraint. In Bengali the short /w/ and long /i/ difference is not available, the difference between two high front vowel is also absent. Similarly the difference between /Y:/ and / / is also another area of cause of ambiguity in articulation. One has to take care of these differences carefully. Besides the phonetic scripts, are used differently by different authors. Scripts used by Daniel Jones have been modified by later phoneticians. The learner should not be confused due to this. The consistency should be maintained. Use the later version, or a mixed presentation made here may be used. The technical term used for describing the vowels according to the articulatory pattern are defined below. i) Front: Front Part of the tongue. ii) Back: Back part of the tongue. iii) Central: Central part of the tongue. iv) High: Height of the tongue from its normal position. v) Mid-High: This attribute is imposed in respect of the High and mid-low. vi) Low: Lowest position of the tongue in respect of the neutral position. vii) Mid-Low: This attribute is imposed low and mid-high. viii) Rounded: Round Position of lips. ix) Unrounded: Lips are spread in respect of the neutral position. x) Close: Position of the tongue near to the roof of the mouth. xi) Half-close: Position of the tongue between close and half-open. xii) Open: Opening is the highest distant position of the tongue from the roof of the mouth. xiii) Half-Open: Opening position between half-close and opening position. xiv) Narrow, medium, narrow to medium, medium to wide and wide: These are based on the opening of the Jaw. xv) Short: Short duration of time. xvi) Long: Long duration of time.

Description of Vowel Sounds Phonetic alphabet used by Daniel Jones Phonetic alphabet used by Gimpson Script used in this article English Word word in phonetic Alphabet in this article 1. Front, unrounded (spread), high, close , narrow-to-medium long vowel i: i i: beat /bi:t/ 2. Front , unrounded, high, close, narrow-to-medium short vowel l w w bit /bwt/ 3. Front, half-close, unrounded, medium vowel e e e get /get/ 4. Front, half-open, unrounded , medium-to- wide vowel æ æ æ gas /gæs/ 5. Back, open, neutral, medium-to-wide, long vowel Y: a Y: hard /hY:d/ 6. Back, open, rounded, medium-to- wide vowel] Z] dog /d]g/ 7. Back , half-open, rounded, medium-to- fairly-wide vowel]:]: talk /t]:k/ 8. Back (fore part of Back), half open, spread, wide vowel *? ? ? gun /g? n/ 9. Central, half-open and half close, spread, narrow vowel ?: c: ?: turn [t?:n/ 10. Central, neutral, narrow, short vowel u ? ? doctor /d]kt?/ 11. Back (fore part of the back), just above half- close, close lip rounded, medium short vowels u ? ? look /l?k/ 12. Back, nearly close, close rounded, narrow-to- medium long vowels u: u u: noon /nu:n/ * Note : During the ' ' articulation the student should know that it is the short sounds of 'u' and 'o'. Foreign students replace this sound by /a / or /Y/. In the diagram it is between /c: / and /Y:/. c c

6.8 Summary In this unit, you have learnt in detail all about vowel sounds in English. To help you understand this concept, we have defined a vowel sound and contrasted it with a consonant sound. Subsequently, we have provided a diagram which clearly demarcates the extreme positions the tongue can take to produce what we call the ideal or Cardinal vowels. This helps you move your tongue appropriately to produce the required vowel sound. We have provided a classification of the vowels into two categories - the pure vowels and the diphthongs. We have given examples for each vowel sound as it occurs in different words to help you become aware of the pronunciation easily. Where possible, we have represented all these factors with pictorial illustrations. 6.9 Review Questions 1. How are vowel sounds different from consonant sounds? 2. How many vowel sounds are there in English? Name them and give an example for each one. 3. How are vowels classified? Does Bangla have a similar distinction? Give some examples. 4. What does a Triphthong mean? Are these commonly found in English? Give one or two examples? 5. What are some of the difficult vowel sounds for Bangla speakers of English? How can you rectify these errors? 6. How is a pure vowel different from a diphthong? 7. How many diphthongs are there in English? Give examples for each. 8. How are vowels classified based on the position of the tongue? 9. What are some of the characteristics of all vowels? Mention all the characteristics. 10. Can we have voiceless vowels? Why or why not? 6.10 References and Reading List 1. Abercombie, David. (1966). Elements of General Phonetics. Edinburgh: Edinburgh University Press.

NSOU PGEL-3 92 2. Balasubramanian, T. (1981). A Text book of English Phonetics for Indian Students. Chennai: Macmillan h t t p s : / / b o o k s . g o o g l e . c o . i n / b o o k s / a b o u t / A_Textbook_of_English_Phonetics_for_Indi.html? id=8OvnA_E_ukEC 3. Crystal, David. (1980). A First Dictionary of Linguistics and Phonetics. Colorado: West view Press. 4. Jones, Daniel. (1993). An Outline of English Phonetics. New Delhi: Kalyani Publishers. 5. Ladefoged, P., and K. Johnson.(2014). A Course in Phonetics, 7th edn. U.K. Cengage Learning. https://www.google.co.in/books/edition/A_Course_in_Phonetics *The diagrams are from earlier materials prepared by NSOU.

NSOU PGEL-3 93 Unit 7 English Consonants 7.1 Introduction 7.2 Objectives 7.3 Consonants Phonemes 7.4 Initiation 7.5 Phonation 7.5.1 Voiced consonants 7.5.2 Voicelessness or Absence of Vibration 7.5.3 Voicelessness due to Breath phonation 7.5.4 Whispering 7.6 Articulation 7.7 Place of articulation 7.8 Points or place on the passive articulators 7.9 Description of English consonants based on the place of articulation 7.10 Manner of articulation 7.11 Distribution of consonant phoneme 7.12 Phonetic description of English consonants 7.13 Summary 7.14 Review Questions 7.15 Reading List 7.1 Introduction We have learnt about the speech mechanism and production of Vowels in previous units of this module. In this unit we will look at the production of consonant in English. Consonants are another set of speech sounds produced by the organs of speech. The respiratory system is also part of it. By definition consonants sounds are "made by a closure or narrowing in the vocal tract so that the airflow is either completely blocked or so restricted that an audible friction is produced" (Crystal, 2000). Traditionally it is known that consonants cannot be produced without the assistance of a vowel. Each language has its own set of consonants. But the number 93

NSOU PGEL-3 94 of consonants varies from language to language. Native speakers learn to use this set of sounds unconsciously by listening to them from the fellow members of the family or other neighbouring members of their speech community within a particular age of childhood. It happens due to their inherent power of learning a language endowed in every child. A second language learner has to learn the language consciously. 7.2 Objectives In this unit, you will get familiar with a) Articulation of consonants b) Different Places of Articulation c) Manner of articulation for consonant phonemes d) English Consonant Phonemes 7.3 Consonant Phonemes Phonetic distinctiveness of each consonant unit depends on the movement of vocal apparatus / speech organs, respiratory resistance, air stream mechanism etc. English has 24 consonants. These are/p/,/ b/, /t/, /d/, /k/, /g/, /t•/, /d¦/, /θ/, /ð/, /m/, /n/,/ /, /f/, /v/, /s/, /z/, /•/, /¦/ /h/, /l/, /r/, /j/, /w/ (24). Learners know that English has 26 letters of the alphabet including vowels, out of which 21 are consonant, but they represent more speech sounds. This is because, in an alphabetic system as English, there is no one-to-one coordination between the letter of the alphabet and the speech sound it represents. A set of special symbols are used to represent the speech sounds and are formulated by the International Phonetic Association or IPA. For this unit all sounds are represented using this script only. The distinctiveness of each consonantal segment depends on the pattern of articulation and this is discussed in three sub-sections -Initiation, Phonation and Articulation. 7.4 Initiation The process of initiation consists of two important components. These are: i. Type of airstream mechanism: Pulmonic airstream or Non-Pulmonic airstream and ii. Direction of air flow: Ingressive or Egressive.

NSOU PGEL-3 95 We have leant about them in the Unit 5. Let's try out some tasks on them. Task 1: Match the columns a) Pulmonic Air Stream i) Air flow is blocked by initiating process b) Velaric Air Stream ii) Lung is the source of air c) Glottal Air Stream iii) English has no sounds with the mechanism Initiation is initial mode of speech production and was introduced in the previous module. It deals with the selection of airstream mechanism and direction of airflow within the cavity. Native speakers of English use the Pulmonic airstream mechanism in general and the direction of airflow is Egressive, i.e. from the lungs toward the outside through oral or nasal cavity (Unit-5 also). All consonants have this feature. Both Pulmonic and Velaric airstream have the direction of air flow as ingressive. That is from outside towards the lungs. Glottal airstream is usually egressive. Task 2: Complete the following flow diagram: 7.5 Phonation Phonation tells about the state of glottis and vocal cords during the generation of a speech unit. Phonation deals with the voicing character of a unit. The presence and absence of voicing in English enrich the set of segmented units and the following types of consonants are available due to the role of phonation. 7.5.1 Voiced consonants All vowels are voiced by receiving the impact of phonation, but this is not true of all consonants. A group of consonants have this feature. Before the consonantal

NSOU PGEL-3 96 constriction or closing or when two vocal folds are held tight forming a particular narrowing state of glottis, the airflow causes both the cords to vibrate. The vibration is added in the onset position before the medial phase of constriction. Let us have a look. In general every consonant has three stages when it is articulated: onset phase, medial phase and offset phase. The voiced consonant has the audible vibration in the onset phase. Rest Position Onset phase Medial phase Offset phase Onset phase Medial phase Offset phase Silence Movement of active articulator for constriction Phase of constriction Phase of releasing Movement for next unit vowel Opening state Phase of closing Voicing feature b c Probable sketch for the production of consonant /b/ is given above. On the onset phase i.e. at the beginning of constriction or mute, phase of mute in middle position and then releasing phase are common to all consonants if it is produced in isolation. Vowel has also these three phases. The voicing vibration with an audible frequency is added at the onset position of a consonant. The consonants become voiced. This is the character of modal voicing. The articulation of /b/ is distinct one from /p/ due to presence of this voicing only in English. /b, d, g, d¦, ð, z, ¦, j, r, l, m, n, , v, w/ etc. receive this distinctness of modal voicing in English. Besides this modal voicing Creaky and Falsetto Phonation are two more types of voicing available in speech as paralinguistic or extra linguistic features. English speaker produces the creaky voice being bored and Falsetto voicing is used as a style of pop singing. But these are not relevant for describing basic units or like consonants and vowel phonemes in English. 7.5.2 Voiceless or unvoiced consonants Phonation becomes also the reason for voicelessness or unvoiced. It is the reverse process of voicing. During the production of unvoiced consonants a constriction will

NSOU ? PGEL-3 97 be generated, the airflow will be released after increasing the air pressure, but this flow of air comes from the lungs through the normal gap of glottis. In some description it is a type of nil phonation. No audible vibration is produced. Sounds like /p/ /t•/ /t/ /k/ /f/ /θ/ /s/ /•/ etc. are the resulted segmented units in English and these are voiceless or unvoiced. 7.5.3 Voicelessness or Absence of Vibration Besides the above voicelessness, another type of voicelessness is the absence of vibration is available if the glottis is closed completely. On the release of a short term glottal closure in a low input of glottal vibration is available. This is known as the 'glottal stop', represented by IPA /?/. Jones mentioned that "In forming the sound /?/ the glottis is closed completely by bringing the vocal cords into contact, the air is compressed by pressure from the lungs, and then the glottis is opened so that the air escapes suddenly. It is neither breathed nor voiced." An audible input is there to vocal tract. For example English bottle/bc?tl/ or fortnight /f]:?tnawt/ has such a unit which was produced by the sudden closer of glottis, though it is not an essential one. 7.5.4 Voicelessness due to Breath phonation The audible noise is created even when the vocal folds are widely kept apart. This phonation is breath phonation. A very gentle rustling sound is produced in this type of phonation in a particular state of glottis. According to Daniel Jones 'when the mouth is held in a vowel-position and air is emitted through the wide open glottis' the sound is produced. English /h/ in hat /hæt/or behind /bwhawnd/ has this type of noise. It is produced keeping mouth opening like a vowel by the higher speed of airflow. This is the situation of breath phonation and this consonant is known as breathed glottal fricative, generated by breath phonation. Laver says that the voicelessness is present in nil phonation and breath phonation. 7.5.5 Whispering Whispering is another type of voicelessness. It is not involved with the production of particular speech unit only, but an imposed paralinguistic feature on the running speech to express certain mode of speaker like, secrecy. During such imposition two cords are put together in such a state of glottis that those two will vibrate in a specific range of frequency creating an audible hissing noise. Whispering is generated. This is not the primary feature of English phoneme. To express the hissing in writing a dot is put under the voiced sounds as in bill [b . l . i .] for/bil/.

NSOU PGEL-3 98 7.6 Articulation Articulation or the role of other speech organs for English consonants: Articulation describes the role of active articulators along with corresponding passive counterpart. Beside the larynx, the functions of these vocal organs characterize consonants which can be classified into two sections. A) Place of articulation, and B) Manner of articulation. Place of articulation is identification of the point or place on passive articulators where the active articulator creates a constriction on the path of airflow. Ten places of articulation are discussed in section 7.9. Manner of articulation includes the following: Manner of articulation: a) Degrees and pattern of stricture or constriction and configuration of air path for the generation of different sounds like plosive, fricative, affricates, continuants etc. b) The state of air passage, which can be Central or lateral channel of oral cavity as well as Oral and nasal cavity shaped by the use of soft palate. The Velaric Air Stream Sounds emerge from the constriction of lowered velum. c) The state of the surface of movement of the tongue related for trilling flapping and tapping. This is not much important for English other than trilling. 7.7 Place of articulation The sounds used in speech are produced in two ways - by opening and closing the oral cavity. Vowel is produced without any closure in the air passage. A few vocal organs like tongue, lip or velum are used to shape oral and nasal cavities for different vowel qualities. But consonants are produced by closer or about to closing. When any of the active articulators come in contact with a stationary point or a passive articulator, the air passage is either completely shut or obstructed. The air pressure is created within the cavity in case of complete closure and this stricture is for the production of plosives. As soon as the constriction or closing is released the air passes with high speed through narrow space; an audible noise is produced which is useful in producing fricative sounds. The distinctiveness of the sound unit, due to this is defined by the name of stationary points on the passive articulator. It is noted that the quality of sounds varies when the point/place of articulation is changed. One of the major differences between /k/ and /t/ is due to the variation in the place of articulation. According to Crystal "the place of articulation means 'one of the main parameters,

NSOU PGEL-3 99 used in the phonetic classification of speech sounds, referring to where in the vocal apparatus a sound is produced." 7.8 Points or place on the passive articulators From lips to larynx is the articulatory zone of the passive articulators. Upper lip, upper teeth, alveolar, palate or hard palate, soft palate, uvula, pharynx and epiglottis are the various points of articulators. Besides the space between teeth and alveolar, alveolar and palate, known as denti-alveolar, post-alveolar or pre-palate respectively, are used according to the availability of language data. The movement of active articulator creates the constriction at these points. These are language specific and vary from language to language. Following diagram below will give a brief idea on the meeting point of active articulator on the roof of mouth. 7.9 Description of English consonants based on the place of articulation Like other languages consonants of English are characterized according to these places of articulation. Bilabial, Dental, inter-dental, alveolar, post-alveolar, palato- alveolar, velar, labiovelar, glottal are the main labels in use. i) Bilabial: Bilabial means sounds produced by two lips. The lower lip as active articulator touches the upper lip, a constriction is created. The sounds, produced after the release of constriction are bilabial. These are two types - voiceless and voiced. When the glottis is narrowed down, a voice murmur is added to the sound for a voiced bilabial. English Bilabials:/p,b,m/ NSOU PGEL-3 100 ii) Labio-Dental: For this sound lip and dental part have key role. When the lower lip touches the upper teeth producing a constriction, a labio-dental sound is produced after the release of it. If voicing is added a voiced labio-dental will be generated. English Labio-Dentals: /f,v/. Sounds using Tongue: Tongue is the most active organ in the speech production. Different parts of the tongue produce constriction at different points of passive articulator especially on the roof of the mouth. According to the practice of articulation, tongue is marked as 'tip', 'blade or lamina', 'root', 'front or dorsum', and 'back or radix' etc. Fig: Different parts of the tongue in speech articulation iii) Dental or Inter-Dental: Tongue and tooth play the key role. The tip of the tongue touches against the space between the upper and lower teeth and blocks the air passage and thereby produces speech units by releasing the air pressure after a short constriction. It is noted in English thin [θin]. Filipino and Nigerian languages have such sound units. These are also referred to as Dentals in some books. Voicing is also added in some cases. English Inter-dentals are /θ/ in//thin and / ð/ in /ðis/ this. In most of the modern Indo-Aryan languages have dental sounds like / tl, tl h , dl, .../ etc which are different from English inter-dental.

NSOU ? PGEL-3 101 iv) Alveolar: The sound produced in alveolar region is known as alveolar. It is just behind the upper teeth, the sloppy raising region in the front part of palate. Tip of the tongue touches this point and both the blades block the sides by attaching two sets of teeth in both sides. As soon as the air pressure is released /t/ in English is produced. In English /t/, /d/, /s/, /z/, and /n/ are Alveolar sounds. Other than English, Italian, Spanish and Vietnamese have this type of sounds. In Bengali /n/ is an alveolar sound. v) Post-Alveolar: The post-alveolar point is just behind the teeth-ridge i.e. the downward sloppy part towards palate. When the tip of tongue taps more than one time against the said region this sound is produced. In English the /r/ is a voiced post alveolar fricative consonant. But according to Daniel Jones this sound has also a frictionless form. He wrote that 'Many English speakers pronounce 'r' as frictionless continuant instead of as a fricative'. vi) Palato-Alveolar: The space between alveolar and hard palate is palate alveolar region in passive articulator. For a palato-alveolar sound, the blade of the tongue makes a constriction on the sloppy region of teeth-ridge and the air pressure is formed. In English, the /•/ of shine /• wn/ is produced by releasing the constriction slowly. /•¦/, /t•/, and /d¦/ are palato- alveolar fricative consonant in English. Modern Indian languages also have such sounds. Task 3 What are the upper articulators for the following phonemes? /m/_____ /f/_____ /t/_____ / ¦/_____ vii) Palatal: The blade or lamina or front of the tongue creates different types of constriction against the hard palate and then audible sounds are produced. All these

NSOU PGEL-3 102 sounds are known as palatal sound. For the generation of English palatal, the front of tongue is raised towards the hard palate and lips are in spread position. The air passage is narrowed down but not fully closed. When the air moves outside through this, an audible noise is produced. During the generation of this sound vocal cords vibrates and the path of nasal cavity remains closed. English /j/,is articulated in this way and known as unrounded palatal semivowel or frictionless continuant or approximant. Eg. yes /jes/. viii) Velar: Velar sound is produced in the back of the tongue. The root of the tongue creates a constriction against soft palate, the passive articulator. The velar sounds are produced after the release of airflow. /k/ /g/ and / / belong to the English velar series. Indian languages also have this series. Task 4: Mention the speech sounds produced by: i) Tip of the tongue _____ ii) Blade of the tongue _____ iii) Back of the tongue _____ ix) Labio-Velar or labial velar: Sometimes in the generation of sounds two constriction act as generation mechanism. Labio-Velar comes under this group. During the articulation labial and velar region are points of constriction. Back of the tongue and lower lip play the active role against soft palate and upper lip respectively. The sound, produced by this process is known as Labio-Velar. English /w/ as in wet is a

NSOU PGEL-3 103 labio-velar sound. Laver mentioned this sound is an example of double articulation, as constriction in two places. x) Glottal: This sound is produced in the larynx by the sudden closer of the two cords suddenly. /h/ of hen is a glottal sound discussed above. The glottal stop /?/ is a variation of /h/. Task 5 : State the place of articulation for the following consonant phonemes /s/ _____ /k/ _____

/g/_____ /ch/_____ /v/_____

/y/_____ Task 6 What is the lower articulator for the following: /w/_____

/j/_____ /g/_____ /n/ _____ 7.10 Manner of articulation Manner means a way the thing is done. Therefore Manner of articulation tells about the way sounds are produced in a particular place. The type of movement of speech organs adds some more features to shape the sounds with some other distinct character. The native speakers manipulate the degrees of constriction on the path of airflow, type of its release, shape of the space in the oral cavity, selection of air channel, pattern of the movement of the tongue etc. Each of these inputs produces new phonetic properties. These features come under three broader categories: Degrees of stricture, selection of air passage and the use of surface of the tongue. 1. Degrees of Stricture: In general consonants are produced by generating the stricture on the air path. The process of stricture like complete stricture or closing, process of closing and the opening process etc. are the major reasons to characterize the sound unit. The following features are available in English consonants. i) Plosive or stop: Both the articulators close completely the air path and then release by producing audible noise. This is known as Plosive/Mute sounds like /p/ NSOU PGEL-3 104 which is produced by the release of air after a complete closure using two lips. Similarly the other sounds /k/ /t/ are also treated as mute due to the complete closure. The role of model voicing is available with /b//d/ and /g/ producing voiced consonants. English stop: /p b t d k g/ etc. ii) Affricate: Affricate sound is produced by the complete closure followed by opening the stricture slowly which produces an audible friction by releasing air as it happens to 'ch' /t•/ in English choose. Initial closure is released by a friction /•/. The path of nasal passage remains closed. The tip of the tongue with the assistance of both sides of tongue blade closed the air passage first and then releases the air slowly. The similar phenomenon is available in other Indian languages also. The corresponding unit by adding the voicing the /d¦/ is produced as in judge /®•®/. English has two affricates. English Affricate: /t•/ /®/ iii) Fricatives: In respect of affricates, fricatives are different as the initial complete stricture or muteness remains absent here. The stricture is organized in such a manner that both articulators i.e. active and passive come very close approximation to each other but not touched. The nasal cavity is blocked. A friction is generated and that characterizes the unit. /θ/ in thin and /f/ in fan are such sounds and known as fricatives. For the generation of /θ/, the tip of the tongue comes close to dental or inter-dental region and the blades touch the teeth. The passing air produces friction. Same process is followed when the lower teeth comes closure to the upper lip for a constriction but not closed. The air passes by producing audible noises. In the same articulatory process /ð/ and /v/ are produced by adding voicing as separate phonemes. The /ð/ in this /ðws/ and /v/ in van /væn/ have the same feature of voicing. Sibilants: This is another type of fricative. The friction is produced here with higher amplitudes. In some descriptions these are known as sibilants due to more audible hissing sound. This sound is produced by

front is raised towards hard palate. The active and passive articulators come close together in such a way, through which the airstream passes with high speed producing a type of audible hissing frictions and continues some more time. The vocal cords remain open. English /s/ is produced in close to the alveolar region and known as voiceless alveolar fricatives. The /•/ is produced in little back towards palate or palate-alveolar region of the passive articulator. These two are voiceless segments available in sea /sw:/ and she /•w:/respectively. /•/ is known as voiceless palate-alveolar fricative.

The above articulatory movement for /s/ and /•/ produced two more sounds /z/ and /¦/ respectively by adding voicing. These are voiced alveolar and palate-alveolar fricatives. /z/ is available in zeal/zw:l/, against its voiceless counter part of /s/ in seal /sw:l/where as /¦/ in boys /b]w¦/ or vision /vi¦cn/. English fricatives: /f/, /v/ ,/θ/ and /ð/; /s/, /•/, /z/ and /¦/ iv) Frictionless continuant: This is also known as approximants. The distinctiveness of these sounds remains in between fricatives and vowels. These are non-syllabic. The other technical terms semivowels and glides also come under this for those sounds which are like vowel in articulation but cannot form a syllable. In English /r/ /j/ and /w/ come under this group. In British English /r/ has several allophones out of which one has this feature of approximants. During the production of this sound the nasal passage is closed and the tip of the tongue reaches near the teeth-ridge through which air passes without generating any friction. The presence of this sound is noted in the word red/red/. Its allophonic representation is [ed]. This /r/ is voiced post alveolar approximant. All the frictionless continuants are voiced. For the articulation of /j/ in yes /jes/ the position of the front part of the tongue is placed narrowing down the air passage like the generation of a vowel. The air passes freely without any obstacle. As the pattern of articulation is like vowel this sound is called as voiced palatal approximant or voiced palatal semi-vowel. The other frictionless continuant is /w/. The back of the tongue moves towards the soft palate like the back close vowel generation and the lips remain in round shape as in what /wZt]. During the generation of this sound the vocal cords vibrate. Phonetically this is voiced labio-velar approximant or semivowels. 2. Other aspect of manner of articulation: The aspects of articulation indicate the involvement of the airflow channels during the production of sounds. These are two types — Central and Lateral, Oral and Nasal. v) Lateral: The sounds discussed above are mostly central as the air passes through the central part of the oral channel within the cavity. But a few are there which are produced by releasing the airflow blocking the central part of air channel. The airflow is released through both the sides or a single side of the blade when the tip of the tongue blocked below the teeth-ridge. The sound /l/ in leaf /li:f/, label / lewb(c)l/ is the example of lateral. English has this sound. In use, this /l/ produces two types of allophone, known as clear [l] an dark [l]. It happens due to the phonetic environment of the word. When /l/ occurs before vowel and /j/ the clear [l] is produced but in all other cases the /l/ is a dark one. Eg. r

Clear [l] in along [cl]] and dark [l] in field [fw:ld]. vi) Nasal Oral and Nasal: The air-flow from the larynx has an option to move towards the outside of cavities in three ways - through oral cavity, nasal cavity or both the cavities. It is already discussed that the air passes for non-nasal vowels through oral cavity only and in case of nasal vowels through both the cavities. But for nasal consonants the air passes through nasal cavity only. To produce such sounds the soft palate is lowered the passage for the nasal cavity opens the path for airflow by which an audible nasal murmur is produced as part of the consonant when the oral cavity is blocked. English has three such nasal sounds: /m/ /n/ and / /. For the production of / m/ mother, the oral cavity is blocked by the two lips. The air pressure comes from the lungs through glottis moves towards the nasal cavity and is released through nose, producing nasal sound. The sound includes vocal cord vibration. This is voiced bilabial nasal consonant. For the generation of /n/ the tip of the tongue touches the alveolar and blades block both sides of teeth. The air passes through the nasal cavity the vocal cord vibration is added to this air flow. The /n/ in nine /nain/, not /n]t/ etc is the example of such voiced alveolar nasal consonants. The voiced velar nasal / / is produced by raising the back of tongue against the soft palate. The oral cavity is completely blocked. The airflow by adding the vocal cord vibration passes through nasal cavity and moves out through nostril. This is available in several words like sing /sw / hanger /hæ gc/ etc. 3. Other aspects of manner of articulation: Manner of articulation includes a few more aspectual phonetic features like tapping, flapping, trilling etc. These are formed by the role of active articulator tongue and its particular type of movement. English has trill sound only.

vii) Trill or rolled: Trill is not the phonemic feature of English, but a type of 'r' is available which is produced as trill. When tip of the tongue taps one time against the roof of the mouth rapidly, this sound is produced. This is like an allophone [r] of phoneme /r/ mentioned in the discussion of frictionless continuant. The word crowd [kra d/ has this trill sound. viii) Flap: Flap sounds are different from trill. In the production of such sound the active articulator tongue hits the alveolar region and moves to the front rapidly. English has no such sound but in Bengali has this sound / /as in /ba i/ 'house'. ix) Aspiration: Aspiration is an audible breath sometimes accompanies with the articulation of sound. In the list of basic units English has no aspirated sound. But the presence of aspiration can be noted in the production of some units. The mark of aspiration is [h]. For example the word pin is written with '/p/'. But the native speaker produces as [phwn] where /p/ has received the aspiration mark. This is important in consonant articulation. The cat is not /kæt/ but [khæt] in articulation. In some other languages like modern Indo Aryan languages the aspiration is phonemic. Task 7 Give the manner of articulation for the following consonants: /p/_____ /l/_____ /s/_____ /k/_____ /j/_____ /r/_____ 7.11 Distribution of consonant phoneme English Phonemes according to place and manner of articulation and voicing properties.

Distribution of consonants Place

85%	MATCHING BLOCK 17/23	SA	Ali Mirzavand_A PHONOLOGICAL STUDY OF ENGLISH … (D15063759)

of Articulation Bilabial Labio - Dental Dental Alveolar Post Alveolar Palato Alveolar Palatal Velar Glottal

Manner of articulation -v+v -v +v -v +v -v +v -v +v -v +v -v +v -v +v -v +v -v +v Plosive pb td k g Affricate ±® Fricative fv θð sz ¦ h Nasal m n y Lateral /(approximant) l Trill / (approximants) r Semivowel (approximant) w j [-v for voiceless or unvoiced and +v voiced consonant] Task 8 Give the symbols for the unvoiced consonants: Pen ____, cat ____ , chain_____, thin_____ see _____ Shoe ___, hat ____, reach_____, fan_____, park ____ 7.12 Phonetic description of English consonants Based on the above discussion and phonetic table the phonetic characters of English consonants can be placed in brief. Each one has initial feature 'Pulmonic egressive'. List of Articulatory Description Example consonants of sounds /p/ Voiceless bilabial stop or plosive pocket /p]kwt, /b/ Voiced bilabial stop or plosive. bark /bY:k/ /t/ Voiceless alveolar stop or plosive taken /tewkn/ NSOU ? PGEL-3 109 /d/ Voiced alveolar plosive or stop dark /dY:k/ /k/ Voiceless velar stop or plosive come /kh m/ /g/ Voiced velar stop or plosive geese /gw:s/ /±/ Voiceless palate-alveolar affricate child /±awld/ /®/ Voiced palate-alveolar affricate jealous /®elcs/ /f/ Voiceless labio-dental fricative fold /fo ld/ /v/ Voiced labio-dental fricative volume /v]ljum/ /θ/ Voiceless breathed inter-dental / dental fricative thought /θ]:t/ /ð/ Voiced inter-dental / dental fricative thus /ð s/ /m/ Voiced bi-labial nasal meter /mi:tc/ / / Voiced velar nasal longing /1] w / /n/ Voiced alveolar nasal nine /n wn/ /s/ Breathed dental voiceless sibilant (fricative). certain /'sc:tn/ /z/ Egressive voiced alveolar fricative. zeal /zi:l/ /•/ Voiceless breathed palato-alveolar sibilant (fricative) shine /ʃ wn/ /¦/ Voiced palate-alveolar fricative. leisure /'li¦c/ /h/ Breathed / voiceless glottal fricative. Purely breathed sound. holy /'h] lw/ /r/ Voiced post-alveolar approximant / fricative / trill . write /rawt/ /l/ Voiced alveolar lateral (approximant) laundry /l]:ndrw/ /j/ Voiced unrounded palatal semivowel (approximant, frictionless continuant) yes /jes/ /w/ Voiced labio-velar semivowels (approximant, frictionless continuant) warn /w]:n/

NSOU PGEL-3 110 7.13 Summary In this unit you have looked in great detail how the consonant sounds are produced in English. The speech organs responsible for production of consonant sounds have been clearly identified and labeled. Besides, a method of classifying the consonant sounds based on the place and manner of articulation is clearly described. The system used for labeling consonants takes into account the two factors mentioned above along with phonation which lends voice to some consonants and a few are breath sounds. The most important aspect of this unit is to help you not only produce consonants, but also describe them using three term labels. 7.14 Review Questions 1. How are consonants different from vowels? 2. How many consonants are there in English and how do you classify them? 3. Name the active and passive articulators. 4. What is the difference between passive and active articulators? 5. How many types of air-stream mechanism do we have? What are they? 6. Does English have any ingressive sounds? How are ingressive sounds articulated? 7. Discuss the air-stream mechanism for English sounds. 8. What do you understand by the terms Initiation, Phonation, and Articulation? How do these affect speech production? 9. State the place of articulation for: /f, d, n, z, ®, w/. 10. Discuss English semi-vowels. 7.15 Reading List Laver, John. (1994). Principles of Phonetics. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

NSOU PGEL-3 111 Unit 8 International Phonetic Alphabet and Transcription 8.1 Introduction 8.2 Objectives 8.3 Development of IPA 8.4 Some Principles for the development of IPA 8.5 The Phonetic Alphabet used in the table 8.6 Broad Transcription and Narrow Transcription and the Use of // and [ ] in IPA 8.7 Use of IPA in English 8.8 Examples of broad and narrow transcriptions 8.9 Summary 8.10 Review Questions 8.11 Reading List 8.1 Introduction The International Phonetic Alphabet or IPA is a planned alphabetic system, developed by the European Phonetician to provide the scripts for representing different segmental non-segmental or supra-segmental sounds available in natural language. The same IPA also represents the International Phonetic Association, which has developed and at present maintains this phonetic table. 8.2 Objectives At the end of this unit, the learners will be able to: a. Understand what is IPA b. Use IPA chart for transcription c. Differentiate between phonetic and phonemic transcription d. Use transcription for representing the correct pronunciation of a word e. Refer to dictionaries and other sources where IPA is used. 111

NSOU PGEL-3 112 8.3 Development of IPA Initially IPA was prepared to reform the English spelling; that was different from French using Romanic Alphabet. For instance, the letter 'c' of English was corresponding to the French 'ch', the sound of which was /•/ as in 'shame' /•ewm/. The scripts •, w etc. are not available in the English alphabet. These were coined by the phoneticians. This initial attempt for Western Europe was gradually shifted for one to one grapheme- phoneme mapping for any language. One symbol will represent only one sound. There will be no ambiguity between script and sound. The method is now used as a general principle for script-sound mapping for all natural languages throughout the globe. Even for the languages without any writing system the use of IPA method will assure to represent their sounds in writing systematically. This captures all possible speech sounds that can be produced by a human being. In 1877 Henry Sweet pointed out the variation of sound change in his Handbook of Phonetics. The pronunciation of a sound unit and its variation in different contexts were analytically defined by him. In most of the languages of the world which have orthography, i.e. the writing system the discrimination in articulation is a common factor. In most of the Indian Languages such discrimination is available. Later in 1886 an association was formed in France by the name of 'The Phonetic Teachers' Association. Paul Passy took initiative first, to publish such scripts. Then Otto Jespersen proposed the system for all world languages. In 1888 an alphabetic system for the languages of the world was published. In 1889 the organization was named as 'The phonetic Association of the Professors of Living Languages'. The importance of such system is increased and becoming more useful especially to the second language teaching and learning also. In 1897 the organization was renamed as International Phonetic Association and the association adopted certain principles for developing the new alphabetic system to produce one script against one sound applicable for all the languages of the world. This alphabetic system is modified from time to time by adding the phonetic inventories of the languages of the globe. The Association makes it acceptable for the International users. It is an ongoing process. Since the inception of this program the modification was done several times. In the year 1900, 1932, 1989, and 2005 the system was updated. The work of lexicographer, second language learners, philologists, speech scientists, dialectologists have become easy for these phonetic scripts. Recently the use IPA in the speech technology for automatic speech recognition (ASR) or text-to-speech (TTS) system has extended the inevitability of it.

NSOU ? PGEL-3 113 8.4 Some Principles for the development of IPA The developer has followed some principles during the preparation of this alphabetical system. According to them: a) One unique script for each distinctive sound unit, which can change the meaning of a word, i.e. the script should be phonemic. b) When a particular sound is used in several languages, the same sign should be assigned. The unit also can be used with similar shades of sound. c) The ordinary letters of the Roman alphabet should be used. A few new letters from other sources can be used if necessary. d) The assigning of values to the Roman letters should be recognized by their usage internationally. e) When new letters are suggested for the modification of the sounds they will bear a resemblance to the old one. (From The Principles of the International Phonetic Alphabet by Abramson Arthur S) 8.5 The Phonetic Alphabet used in the table At present the total number of symbol in IPA used in the table (which is given at the end of this section) 157. Out of this number 107 letters are for segmental sounds i.e. for consonants and vowels, 31 are diacritics and 19 signs are for supra-segmental qualities. No language of the world requires all these symbols and diacritics, but all the spoken units used in languages can be represented using these symbols successfully. How do we get all these characters? In IPA generally the lower case characters of Roman Alphabet are used, but English has only 26 lower cases. For the completion of the chart some other processes were adopted. The use of Latin scripts is one of them. The reverse use of Roman lower cases 'c, e, v, r' are used like /]/ /c/ / / and / / respectively. A few Greek letters are also used θ, β, e, χ etc. Besides by changing the shape of conventional letters some new symbols were formed. The scripts like , w, , „, †, Ω, , •, t, are the result of such work . For the non-pulmonic and ingressive sounds a set of symbols also have been devised and used. Diacritics are different from the said scripts. These are used as the secondary symbol along with the main symbols to express specific phonetic feature of sound unit. The use of diacritics like [>],[:],[V], or [j] are for marking devoicing, nasalization,

aspiration, palatalization respectively. If the vowel '/a/' is nasalized, the mark for nasalization to be added like [a:]. Similarly to mark the supra-segmental like stress, accent, intonation, or duration another set of diacritics are used. The use of such diacritics is not only relevant for the sound, it has grammatical role also.The word 'present' can be produced with stress mark in two different syllabic positions like / 'prezent/ and /pre'zent/. If the stress falls on in the initial syllable /'pre-zent/, it will be noun but when the word is used as verb the stress is on the second syllable like /pre-'zent/. 8.6 Broad Transcription and Narrow Transcription and the Use of // and [ ] in IPA In the discussion on consonant and vowels, it is noted that a phoneme may have more than one allophone. All these various forms are the members a particular phoneme.The phonemes are the basic sound units and bring a change in meaning producing a new word. For example the meaning variation of 'king'/kw / and 'sing'/sw / depends only on the initial sound for /k/ and /s/. These two are different basic sound units of English or phonemes. But when the words like keep /ki:p/, cool /ku:l/, call/k]:l/ are produced, the initial /k/ is presented not only by different letters, by different sounds also. If phonetically each of the /k/ is analyzed critically, the /k/ followed by '-ee- ' /i:/, -oo- /u:/ and -a- /]:/ changes its phonetic character. A minute change is there but phonetically each one is different from other. If anyone produces the first /k/ position of the tongue constriction will be in the hard palate, when call is produced the back of the tongue will touch the front part of the soft palate. This variation in the place of articulation shapes the /k/ differently in three ways, which are the member of /k/ family. One cannot be produced in the place of other. These variations are known as allophones of /k/ sounds. Even when the word back is produced the final -/k/ is different from the initial /k/- of a word as in the final /k/ the constriction is not released. Phonetically this one is also different. The IPA was basically developed for representing phonemes or basic units and due to that IPA is phonemic. For the phonemic representation the sound unit is placed within two parallel slant lines'//' as the /k/, /i:/ are written in the examples given. When a word, phrase or sentence is transcribed considering this approach it is known as Phonemic Transcription or the Broad Transcription. Initially it was like this, but in course of time, the allophonic presentation was also considered as another method of transcription, which is known as Narrow Transcription or phonetic transcriptions. For allophonic transcription the strings of sounds are placed within

'[]' using IPA as done above. For specific phonetic characters different diacritics are also used for palatalization, nasalization, devoicing, whispering etc. According to Daniel Jones, "A Transcription based on the principle 'one symbol per phoneme' is called a 'phonemic' or 'linguistically broad' transcription. A transcription which provides special sign for allophones is called 'allophonic' or 'linguistically narrow' transcription." The IPA users should be careful to present these two conventions for presenting the sound units, to avoid the overlapping. A word of any language, which has the script can be presented in different ways following the above principles: i) According to spelling using English alphabet : keel ii) Presentation using phonemes : /ki:l/ iii) Presentation using allophones [j] for palatalization: /kji:l/ iv) Besides when /p/, /t/, /k/ occur initially, the sound receives more aspiration [h]. The narrow transcription considers it as in cat [khæt]. But the word sky has no such feature of aspiration for its conjunct presentation. v) Likewise the final /k/, where the releasing feature is absent a specific diacritic [¬] is used in narrow transcription as in lake [lewk]. Several other diacritics are also used to represent the allophonic transcription from other languages. 8.7 Use of IPA in English The examples in different sections are given from English. Still for a clear understanding of the use of English alphabet in respect of IPA, some elaborations are relevant. It is already said like other languages the orthography and articulatory description of English vowels, diphthongs, consonants are not arranged in 'one to one grapheme-phoneme' principle, i.e. the scripts and sounds are not mapped one to one here. English has 44 basic sound units, out of which 12 are pure vowels, 8 diphthongs and 24 consonants whereas the language has 26 letters. The probability of mismatch is obvious here from this numeric mismatch. Several historical reasons are behind this discrimination. One of the reasons is the static nature of writing system in respect of the spoken form, which changes gradually in course of time. The impact of phonetic environment within a word, the process of borrowing and the nativisation of borrowed sounds might have played the crucial role. These are the common phenomena among natural language users, especially who

have a defined alphabetical system. English alphabetical system is not out of it. The sound-script diversities of English alphabets, described below will make it clear that how an alphabet is produced in different phonotactic contexts by producing different sound units. a) The 'a/Y' used in conventional spelling, produces number of different phonemic situations or allophones. Look at the presentation of 'a' in spelling and their corresponding sound units put in the // : /æ/ in bat /bæt/ /Y:/ in far /fY:/, part /pY:t//c/ in away /cwew/ /Z/ in watch /wZ+/ /]:/ in talk /t]:k/ /e/ in many /menw/ /w/ in village /vwlwdz/ /ei/ in baby /bewbw/ . b) When 'a/Y' used within an environment of more than one vowel scripts: ai< /ew/ bailey /bewlw/, au< /]:/ bauxite /b]:ksawt/, eau</c / beau /bc /, e-au< /u: /beauty /bju:tw/, ea< /wc/ bear /bec/, c) Similarly 'e' is produced as: /e/ in extra /ekstrc/ / w/ in explicit /wksplwswt/ /i:/ in seas /si:z/ /f:/ in expert /ekspf:t/ /wc/ in era /erc/ /Z/ in entrée /Zntrew/ d) Like this the consonants have also such variations. In the following use of /p/, the speaker produces different allophonic forms like [p], [ph] or silent etc. /p/ in speak /spi:k/ uttered as [spi:k], /pV/ in pin /pwn/ uttered as [pVwn] /p/ in top /t]:p/ uttered as [th]p?] /p/<0 in psychic /sawkwk/ uttered as [sawkwk] Finally at the end of a word /p/ takes [?] as in top/t]:p/ [tV]p?]. Even if this is available in coda position of a syllable, the same mark is used. The word optical [Zp? twkl] has this type of mark, but /p/ is different from word capacity [kc'pæsctw] etc.

NSOU r PGEL-3 117 8.8 Examples of broad and narrow transcriptions of English words using IPA The table below will give a brief idea about the script-sound mapping of English following the IPA alphabets. A few example of phoneme and their corresponding alphabet(s) have been listed in the second column. Both the transcriptions are used here. For the allophonic representation or Narrow Transcription, a few features have been added for example. i) The initial voiced plosive with the mark of devoicing [́]. ii) The initial unvoiced unaspirated plosives take the diacritic of aspiration [V]. iii) The final plosives does not have releasing quality which has been marked by the [q]. iv) The stress[́] is added when the word is not mono-syllabic. IPA Phoneme Alphabets Words Broad/phonemic Transcription Narrow/allophonic transcription /i:/ -e- -ea- -ie- -eo- -ee- -i- these sea field people geese machine /ði:z/ /si:/ /fi:ld/ /pi:pl/ /gi:z/ /m? ?i:n/ [ð ́i:z] [si:] [fi:ld¬] ['p?i:pl] [g ́i:z] [m? ?i:n] /i/ -i- -y- -a- -ei- give city village foreign /gwv/ /swtw/ /vwlw®/ /f]rwn/ [g ́wv] [swtw] ['vwlw®] ['f]rwn] /e/ -e- -a- -ea- pen seven many head /pen/ /sevn/ /menw/ /hed/ [p?en] ['menw] ['sevn] [hed¬] /æ/ -a- glad exact /glæd/ /wgzækt/ [glæd¬] [wg'zækt¬] /?:/ -a- -uar- bath far guard /bY:θ/ /fY:/ /gY:d/ [b ́Y:θ] [fY:] [g ́Y:d?] V c• c• V

NSOU PGEL-3 118 / / -o- -a- -au- not methodical quality what fault /n t/ /m θ d kl/ /kw l t / /w t/ /f lt/ [n t] [m 'θ d kl] ['kw l t] [w t¬] [f lt] / :/ -aw- -a- -ar- -ou- lawn watch warn thought source /l :n/ /w : / /w :n/ /θ :t/ /s :s/, /s s/ [l :n] [w :] [w :n] [θ :t] [s :s, s s] / / -u- -ou- -oo- -o- Put could room woman /p t/ /k d/ /r m/ /w m n/ [p? t] [k? d] [r m] ['w m n] /u:/ -ou- -oo- -u- -ew- -eau- -o- wound cool music new beauty move /wu:nd/ /ku:l/ /mju:z k/ /nju:/ /bju:t / /mu:v/ [wu:nd] [k?u:l] ['mju:z k] [nju:] [bju:t] [mu:v] / / -o- -u- -ou- -w- -o- come butter trouble one money /k m/ /b t / /tr bl/ /w n/ /m n / [k? m] ['b ́ t] ['tr bl] [w n] ['m n] / :/ -or- -ir- -ur- -our- work bird sir turn journey /w :k/ /b :d/ /s :/ /t :n/ / :n / [w :k] [b ́ :d] [s :] [t? :n] [' :n] / / a- -a- -e- -o- -our- -re- -er- along salad concert protect honour centre father / l / /sæl d/ /k ns t/ /pr tekt/ / n / /sent / /f :ð / ['l] ['sæl d] ['k? ns t] [pr 'tekt] [' n] ['sent] ['f :ð] V V V V V V

NSOU PGEL-3 119 /p/ p- -p -pp- pencil top happi capable public /pensl/ /t p/ /hæp / /keip bl/ /p blik/ ['p h ensl] [t h p] [hæp h] ['k h eip bl] ['p h blik] /b/ b- -b- -b bed October bulb /bed/ / kt b / /b lb/ [b ́ed] [k't b] [b ́ lb] /t/ t-, -t-, -tt-,- -bt, -d tell potato attain doubt packed stand /t l/ /p teitou/ / te n/ /daut/ /pækt/ /stand/ [t h l] [p h 'teitou] ['t h e n] [d ́aut] [p h ækt] [stand] /d/ d- -dd- -rd- dust sudden garden wood /d st/ /s dn/ /g dn/ /w d/ [d ́ st] ['s dn] ['g ́ dn] [w d] /k/ c- -k- -k cut cooking cake /k t/ /k ki?/ /keik/ [k h t] ['k h ki?] [k h eik] /g/ g- -x- -g- get game examination eager organ /get/ /ge m/ / gzæm nei?n/ /i:g / / :g n/ [g ́et] [g ́e m] [gzæm 'nei?n] ['i:g] [' :g n] /?/ fortnight bottle /f :?na t/ /b :?tl/ ['f :?na t] [b ́ :?tl] / / -ch- -ch -t- cheap ditch picture / i:p/ /d / /p k / [i:p] [d ́] [p' h k] / / j-, -j- -ge- jump injure large / mp/ / n / /l : / [mp] [' n] [l :] • •

NSOU PGEL-3 120 /m/ -m- m- comfort mnemonic mine /k mf t/ /ni:m nik/ /m n/ ['k? mf t] [ni:'m nik] [m n] /n/ N nine soon /nain/ /su:n/ [nain] [su:n] /?/ -ng-, -nk, -n-(k) -n-(g) -nd-(k) long longest trunk anger handkerchief /l ?/ /l ?gist/ /tr ?k/ /æ?g / /hæ?k f/ [l ?] ['l ?gist] [tr ?k] [æ?g] ['hæ?k f] /l/ l- -l- little partial health /l tl/ /p :sl/ /helθ/ ['l tl] ['p :sl] [helθ] /f/ f- -f fail loaf fear /feil/ /louf/ /f / [feil] [louf] [f] /v/ v-, -v vain voice prove /yein/ /v is/ /pru:v/ [yein] [v is] [pru:v] /θ/ th- -th- thank mouth sympathy /θæ?k/ /ma θ/ /s mp θ / [θæ?k] [ma θ] ['s mp θ] /ð/ th- -th- thy gather /ðai/ /gæð / [ð ́ai] ['g ́ æð] /s/ s- -s- set base release precious /set/ /beis/ /r li:s/ /pre? s/ [set] [b ́eis] [r 'li:s] ['pre? s] /z/ z-, -s- zeal scissors /zi:l/ /s z z/ [zi:l] [s z z] V v v • •

NSOU PGEL-3 121 / / sh- -sh shy shake ash / ai/ / eik/ /æ / [ai] [eik] [æ] / / -asu-, -ge pleasure massage /ple / /mæs : / ['ple] ['mæs :] /r/ r- -r- -r(k)- red rope literary mark world /red/ /ro p/ /l t rær / /m :k/ w :ld [red] [ro p] ['l t rær] [m :k] [w :ld] /h/ H home behave /h m/ /bi'heiv/ [h m] [b ́i'heiv] /w/ W want wise /w nt/ /w z/ [w nt] [w z] /j/ y, i year beyond india /j / /bij nd/ / nd j / [j] [b ́i'j nd] [nd j] /ei/ -a- -aye- -ea- game player great railway /ge m/ /ple / /gre t/ /re lwe?/ [g ́e m] ['ple] [gre t] ['re lwe] /a / -ui-, -i- guide resign kind /ga d/ /r zain/ /ka nd/ [g ́a d] [r 'zain] [k?aind] / / -oi- point choice /p nt/ / s/ [p? nt] [s] / / -o- -ow- cold know /k ld/ /n / [k? ld] [n] /a / -ow- -ou- town how shout /ta n/ /ha / / a t/ [t?a n] [ha] [a t] w V V V V

NSOU PGEL-3 122 [The information is gathered from An Outline of English Phonetics, Oxford dictionary and some are from the internet]. 8.9 Summary In this unit you have been introduced to a very important aspect of phonetics. We have given you adequate information on the formation of IPA (International Phonetic Association) as well as the forming of the script for transcription. Besides providing you with a table of 157 symbols we have also discussed how these are distributed across all the languages of the world. We have also attempted to familiarize you with the use of diacritics to represent narrow transcription. This captures the speech of a person as uttered by him or her. We have concluded the unit with a chart of different speech sounds in English and how they vary in their pronunciation depending on the environment in which they appear. / / -ea- -e- dear theatre here /d / /θ t / /h / [d ́] ['θ t] [h] / / -ai- -a- -ea(r)- pair care vary tear /p / /k / /v r / /t / [p?] [k?] ['v r] [t?] / / -ou- -oo- -u- -wer- tour poor pure fewer /t / /p / /pj / /fj / [t?] [p?] [p?j] [fj] / / -ou- -oa- course your roar /k s/ /j / /r / [k? s] [j] [r] /a / -io- -iro- violent iron /vai l nt/ /ai n/ [vai l nt] ['ai n] / / -oya- royal /r l/ [r l] /a / -ower- -ow- flower dowry /fla / /da r / [fla] [d ́a r] V V V V V V V

NSOU PGEL-3 123 8.10 Review Questions 1. What made the linguists to form the International Phonetic Association? 2. What is the major difference between narrow and broad transcription? 3. How many symbols are there in the IPA chart? Are all these symbols useful to us? 4. What are diacritics? What difference do they make to the transcription? 5. When you look up a dictionary, what type of transcription do you find? Give reasons. 6. Give the IPA symbols for the vowel sounds in the following words: /neighbour, champion, task, Sunday, heater, market/ 7. State the IPA symbols for the diphthongs in the following words: / leisure, maintain, rainy, day, tour/ 8. Mention the IPA symbols for the consonant sounds in the following words: /royal, mayor, chief, treasure, flower, handy/ 9. Transcribe the following words: / may, city, relation, park, verb, ark/ 10. Transcribe phonetically the sentences: a. The language of trade and commerce. b. The difference between narrow and broad transcriptions. c. Are you home? d. He would come in the mid-day. e. Take the receipt. 8.11 Reading List Gimson, A.C. (2014). Pronunciation of English. 8th edn. New York: Routledge. https://www.google.co.in/books/edition/Gimson_s_Pronunciation_of_English/ Jesperson, Otto. (1933). Essentials of English Grammar. Chapter II 'Sounds'. London: Routledge. https://www.google.co.in/books/edition/Essentials_of_English_Grammar/

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NSOU PGEL-3 125 Unit 9 Syllable structure and Word Stress 9.1 Introduction 9.2 Objectives 9.3 Revision of Module 2 9.4 Phonetics 9.5 Phonology 9.6 Syllable Structure 9.7 Word Stress 9.8 Structure of a Word 9.8.1 Monosyllabic words 9.8.2 Disyllabic words 9.8.3 Polysyllabic words 9.9 Summary 9.10 Review Questions 9.1 Introduction In Module 2 of this course you have learnt about speech production and the different speech sounds of English language. You have learnt in detail the classification of speech sounds, their production and description. It is important to remember these for a good understanding of this unit. 9.2 Objectives At the end of reading this unit, the learners will be able to: a. Understand the scope of studying phonetics b. Distinguish between the terms phonetics and phonology c. Understand the structure of a syllable and describe it d. Understand the system of placing stress on words Module 3 : Supra-segmental Features-1 125

NSOU PGEL-3 126 e. Describe the structure of a word based on the number of syllables it has. 9.3 Revision of Module 2 Let us quickly recap the module before proceeding to the new one. Answer these questions: Task 1 1. What is the type of air stream mechanism used for speech production in English? (clue: there are two types of air streams - eggressive - air issuing out of lungs and escaping through mouth: and ingressive- air from outside being drawn into the system through mouth for producing speech.) Your answer: 2. How many speech sounds are there in English? (clue: it is not the same as the number of letters in English. It is much more) Your answer: 3. What are the two divisions into which these sounds are divided? (clue: this is a simple answer, and is not different from the division you find in the letters of the alphabet. It is also common to all languages) Your answer: 4. If there are more sounds than letters, how are they represented? (clue: read Unit 8 of the previous module carefully) Your answer: (Correct answers: 1. Eggressive air stream mechanism;

NSOU PGEL-3 127 2. 44 - forty four speech sounds 3. Vowels and consonants (20 vowels and 24 consonant) 4. International Phonetic Alphabet has special symbols to represent all speech sounds produced by human beings.) This module discusses four topics which are related to the previous module. They deal with syllable and its structure, types of syllables, and word stress along with some nuances associated with syllable structure. We shall go about it in an interactive way. Please make sure to answer the questions asked before checking the answers provided elsewhere in the unit. Be honest about this. 9.4 Phonetics Let us begin with the title of the Course 'Phonetics and Phonology in English'. There are two operational words here - 'Phonetics' and 'Phonology'. Are these synonyms or do they differ in their meaning. Look up a dictionary and find out the differences and write them down here in the space below. Your answer: The dictionary is a good source of reference, and we will keep revisiting this topic often in this module. The meanings as given in the book, how helpful were these? You must appreciate the space constraints a dictionary has, so all the details could not be spelt out. Let us take a look at the meanings of these two words and see what they stand for with a few illustrations. Let us first understand that we are not talking about two words, but about two systems. Phonetics is a system that discusses the production and description of speech sounds. These sounds may belong to any language. Phonetics should be able to describe a speech sound and also help someone produce that sound. A system that is not specific to one language, but can describe any or all languages is called a 'Language Universal Phenomenon'. Phonetics should be able to describe the speech sounds in Bangla as well as Swahili spoken in East Africa, or Tagalog spoken in Philippines, or Bahasa spoken in Indonesia and Malaysia or any other language you can think of. To capture all these sounds and represent them graphically, a system has been created by phoneticians and this is called IPA - the International Phonetic Alphabet. How does a language choose its speech sounds? The best answer to this can be,

NSOU PGEL-3 128 the choice is arbitrary. An answer like this is not very helpful. To help us understand this, let us look at an anecdote from present day life. All of you have visited a supermarket which stocks all the items of grocery and essentials you need at home. You and your neighbour visit this store with your specific shopping lists, and go round the shop and buy things you need. Let us hypothetically say, the store has about 250 items on its shelves. On your list you have about 35 items that you require, and your friend has a list of 38 items that he/she requires. The two lists are not the same though they may have a few items (e.g. rice, oil, sugar, dal, wheat flour etc) which are common to both of you. Both of you buy things according to your needs and the needs of your family. From this supermarket let us get to the store that stocks speech sounds. All the speech sounds human beings can produce (read Unit 5) are stocked here in this store. There are about 150 sounds that a human being can produce with the given apparatus of speech organs. Into this store, the customers are languages. They pick and choose the sounds they need for their purpose and the environment they live in. (like the needs of your family). Similarly, no two languages may have the same set of speech sounds though all of them may have some common speech sounds (e.g. vowels, some bilabials etc.). A study of speech sounds that a language has is called phonetics. Phonetics also helps in describing these sounds and helping someone produce them as well. In English we have 44 speech sounds that are divided into 20 vowel sounds and 24 consonant sounds. You have studied this in Module 2. 9.5 Phonology Now, let us move on to Phonology. Phonetics talks about the sounds. This is a discrete study. This means, I know how to pronounce the sound /p/ and describe it as a voiceless, bilabial plosive. This description is true for any language that has / p/ sound in it. Phonology goes a little further than talking about individual speech sounds. Speech sounds cannot exist in isolation. They need to combine to form syllables and words. The speech sounds cannot combine randomly. They need to follow a set of rules. For example when you form a syllable in English, if the first sound is /p/ voiceless, bilabial plosive, the second sound cannot be /b/ or /d/ or /t/ or / s/ or /k/ or /g/ etc. In fact, /p/ as the initial sound will not have any plosive or fricative or an affricate as the second sound. Such combinations may be possible in other languages. Let us take a concrete example. In English the initial two sounds in a word can be /sp/ or /st/ or /sl/ in words like spirit, special, spoon, or street; straight,

NSOU PGEL-3 129 stand, or slant, sling, slang etc. Speakers of some languages in India do not have these combinations. Therefore they tend to add a vowel either between the two sounds or a vowel at the beginning. Accordingly, 'special' may be pronounced either as [ispecial] or [sapecial]. A study of how the sounds combine in a language to form consonant clusters and syllables is called phonology. We hope the difference between the two terms is clear now. We will repeat this once again later when you are familiar with a few more technical terms. 9.6 Syllable Structure The focus of the present unit is Syllable structure and a little bit of word stress: There are two aspects discussed here. The first one is syllable structure and the second one is word stress. Both these concepts are related to each other. We will take a look at each one separately. All of you know what a syllable is? You have come across this word many times earlier. Perhaps, your teacher in the school asked you to divide the word into its syllables, so that you could spell the word easily. Do you remember that? Task 2 Take a look at some of the words given below. You may not know some of these words, do not worry. Try and guess how many syllables there are in each word. a. Circumlocution b. Flannelette c. Inadvertently d. Personality e. Reprehensible You can answer these very easily. We will suggest a way out. Go to a dictionary and see how these words are entered in it. For example, you will find the word 'domineering' entered like this: dom-i-neer-ing. Do you notice that the spelling is split and small lines are inserted in between. These lines separate one syllable from the other. Similarly, you have to work out syllabification for the five words given. Think for a while, and reason out why we need to divide the word into syllables. What is so unique about a syllable? Would you like to share your views on this. Enter your comments in the space below before you read the next part.

NSOU PGEL-3 130 Definition of a syllable: In phonetics we define terms in their minimal unit form. For example 'a phoneme is a minimal distinct unit of a speech sound'. Similarly, a syllable which is a higher unit than a phoneme must also be a minimal unit. It is a minimal unit of utterance. What does this mean? When we pronounce a phoneme which is a consonant, without our being aware of it, we add a vowel to facilitate its pronunciation, so that we can utter it with ease. (In fact, it is not possible to utter some consonants in isolation.) Phonemes do not come together randomly to form a syllable, often they follow a rule. We shall look at some features of a syllable first and later look at the rules. You have identified the syllables in the list of words given above. Take a look at those syllables carefully and see if you find anything common in them? To do this, you may need to look at the dictionary once again, take a closer look at the transcription as well. Note your observation in the space below. Task 3: Now look at the transcription of the words given above: Cir-cum-lo-cu-tion /sf:k ml kju: n/ Flan-nel-ette/ flæn let/ In-ad-ver-tent-ly /in dvf:tentli/ Note: These transcriptions are Per-so-nal-ity /pf:snælti/ incomplete and need to be Rep-re-hen-si-ble /reprwhensbl/ completed. You may check your answers for the earlier task on the number of syllables you had identified. It is 5, 3, 5, 4 and 5 respectively. In this task we had asked you to find out what makes a syllable. You will have noticed that every syllable has just one vowel sound. There cannot be more than one vowel sound in a syllable. In other words, the presence of each vowel, marks the existence of a syllable. Please remember, the reference to vowel here is not in terms of spelling but a vowel sound. With this extended understanding of the word syllable, we may also redefine it. A syllable is a minimal unit of utterance with a single vowel. Two aspects of a syllable are clear - it is convenient unit of utterance, and there is only one vowel in the syllable. What about consonants? Consonants are essential in a syllable but they are also optional. We may have a syllable with just one vowel e.g. the first person pronoun 'I' is a syllable and a vowel. Similarly the indefinite article 'a' is a syllable and a vowel. These two syllables do not have any consonants. There are a few other syllables like this, but do not worry about them now. This is only to reinforce the fact, that a vowel is an important and obligatory part of a syllable.

9.7 Word Stress Having understood what a syllable is, let us look at some words which have just one syllable. Read these words to yourself and see whether they can be divided into further syllables: Ant, book, cat, dog, jay, key, lake, me, no, seal, tea, up, van, eat, feet, goat, high, I, put, queue, road, way, yacht, zoo. We are sure you can read them all very easily. Out of the twenty-six words given here, all but one have both a vowel and a consonant or two consonants. Look at the place of consonants. They can occur either before the vowel as in 'key' or after the vowel as in 'eat'. Some words may have a consonant before as well as after a vowel sound as in 'lake'. What does this mean to us? There is no definite position prescribed for placing a consonant or a vowel in a syllable. They can occur in any order. Does this make it difficult for you to identify a syllable? Don't worry, a syllable is such a small entity, that it can be easily recognized and its structure understood with some practice. We will do it. Here is a way to do it easily. Look up a dictionary (preferably Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary or Longman's Dictionary of Contemporary English) that provide transcription using the International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA). This will help you recognize the consonants and vowels in each of the words given above. You should transcribe more words and that will be helpful. Look at some of the words with a single syllable in their transcribed form and also look at their structure: Tea /tw/ consonant - vowel CV Way /wei/ consonant - vowel CV Eat /i:t/ vowel - consonant VC Book /b k/ consonant - vowel - consonant CVC Feet /fi:t/ consonant - vowel - consonant CVC Lake /leik/ consonant - vowel - consonant CVC Dog /dZg/ consonant - vowel - consonant CVC Best /best/ consonant-vowel-cons-cons CVCC

Plays /pleiz/ consonant - consonant - vowel - cons CCVC Text /tekst/ consonant - vowel - cons-cons-cons CVCCC Ant /ænt/ vowel - consonant - consonant VCC Spring /sprw / Con-con-con-vowel-con-con CCCVC This is just for the purpose of demonstrating the structure of a syllable. This is also to help you see the variety you can have within a syllable. You can have one or more consonants at the beginning of the syllable, similarly you can have one or more consonants at the end of the syllable or you may have no consonants either at the beginning or end. This makes the structure of a syllable easy and not complex. You only need to have a clear understanding of the presence of a vowel sound and the consonants occurring with it and their position. To represent the structure of a syllable we use two letters of the alphabet 'C' and 'V' to denote consonant and vowel sounds respectively. Using these two letters we can have a syllable as CV or VC or CVC or CVCC or CCVC or VCC or CCCVC etc. We have tried to provide examples for each one in the list above. If this is the structure of a single syllable, what can be maximum length of a syllable. How many consonants can it have at the beginning and how many at the end? Consonants can occur either singly or in groups before a vowel or after a vowel sound in a syllable. When there is more than one consonant, such groups of consonants are called 'consonant clusters'. Think of the longest single syllable words you have and try and make a guess. How many consonants can we have at the beginning of a syllable, and how many at the end? (Remember we cannot have medial consonants.) Your answer: Look at the following syllables to understand the longest syllable we can possibly have in English. Look at the word 'Spring'. This is a single syllable. We can transcribe it as/ spri /. The structure of this syllable is CCCVC. There are three consonants at the beginning of the syllable followed by a vowel and a consonant. Let us take a look at another word 'Texts'. This is also a single syllable word. We can transcribe it as /teksts/. The structure of this syllable is CVCCCC. There is a consonant before a vowel followed by four consonants at the end of the syllable.

Suppose we combine these two words to form a new (non-existent) word it may look like this: sprixts which can be transcribed as /spriksts/. The structure of this syllable will be CCCVCCCC. This is hypothetically the longest syllable we can have in English. You may think of more imaginary syllables like this, The sounds /s/, /p/ and /r/ or /l/ can come together at the beginning of many words in English. Task 4: Make a list of ten words in the space given below. Your answer: Task 5 Similarly, think of words that end with three or more consonants and list at least five of them in the space given below: Your answer: If you like to become familiar with the syllable and its structure, you may make a list of simple words you know, transcribe them with the help of a dictionary and write the structure of each syllable. Do this at a regular pace. This means, each day choose some twenty five words and transcribe them. This will help you become familiar both with symbols as well as syllables. Task 6 Let us check our understanding so far. Say whether the following sentences are true or false. i. We may not be able to pronounce all the syllables ii. Syllables are parts of a word iii. Syllables can have many consonants and vowels. iv. Syllables are only meant for helping us with spellings. v. Syllables have just one vowel. vi. There is no restriction on where the consonant should occur. vii. Consonants can occur either singly or in clusters.

NSOU PGEL-3 134 viii.There can be syllables without consonants. ix. There can be syllables without vowels. x. Syllables are not useful part of learning a language. (Look for answers at the end of this unit) 9.8 Structure of a Word Having discussed syllables in some detail, let us now move on to discuss the structure of a word. You have come across several words in your life both in your language as well as in English. What is your understanding of a word? Can you write a brief definition in your own words? Words are basic units of meaning and minimal units of grammatical analysis. They are made of one or more syllables. Depending on the number of syllables they have, they are divided into three groups as follows: 9.8.1 Monosyllabic words Words that have just one syllable are called monosyllabic words ('mono' single or one; 'syllabic' with syllables). Most of the simple words you know are monosyllabic. e.g. pen, pin, cat, mat, hat, hen, tin, pray, sky, speak, say, tell, hear etc. 9.8.2 Disyllabic words Words with two syllables are called disyllabic words ('di' two; and 'syllabic' with syllables). There are many common words that you are familiar with that belong to this group. e.g. pencil, cricket, party, mobile, content, import, hotel, cottage, village, student, teacher, classroom etc. 9.8.3 Polysyllabic words Words with three or more than three syllables are called polysyllabic words ('poly' many; 'syllabic' with syllables). These are a large group and here are some examples: primary, examination, institution, university, conqueror, electricity, democracy, brilliant, futuristic, graduate etc. Go to a dictionary and look for twenty five words from each category. Divide the disyllabic and polysyllabic words into syllables (as shown in the dictionary) and also transcribe them. In the transcription, underline each of the vowel sound that occurs in the words chosen. What is the importance of syllables in a word? Do they affect the meaning or

NSOU ? PGEL-3 135 pronunciation of the word? They do. In fact, the pronunciation of a word depends on the syllable in the word that receives the stress. If a word has more than one syllable, only one of them is stressed. What does this mean. One of the syllables is uttered at a higher pitch (more loudly) than other syllable. For example take a word like 'pencil'. This word has two syllables. 'pen' and 'cil'. In this word the first syllable takes the stress and hence pronounced more loudly than the second. We may write the word like this PEN-cil. Consider both these syllables to be pronounced as La. So the word Pencil can be rewritten as La- La and pronounced as LA-la and not as la-LA (pen-CIL). 9.9 Summary Let us summarise what we have said in the previous paragraph a little differently. Words take stress on a particular syllable. The stress on the right syllable determines how the word is pronounced. Obviously, there is only one correct or accepted way in which a word can be pronounced and this is determined by the number of syllables and the stress on a specific syllable. How do we know which syllable is stressed? Once again, a dictionary is a helpful resource in knowing which syllable in a word is stressed. The dictionary provides the word (headword), its syllabification, grammar and pronunciation using IPA symbols along with meaning, use and illustration. The transcription also captures the syllables as they are divided and the stressed syllable is marked with a vertical stroke on the top of it as shown in the example alongside /'pen-sil/. (Please note: stress on a word may differ in American English in comparison with standard British English. Therefore, we suggest, you refer to one of the two dictionaries we have suggested. These dictionaries provide both British and American variants of pronunciation. They also have a compact disc -CD which has the audio recording of the word in both variants.) Is dictionary the only source? Are there any rules that govern how a word needs to be pronounced? These are very good questions. Dictionary is not the only source. You may listen to people who speak with proper accent, e.g. English newscasters on many of the national channels are fairly good. You could listen to discussions on the radio and television and perhaps listen to English on your You Tube. There are rules that govern how a word is stressed. We shall look at some rules that help you understand the principle of stress. Let us now concentrate on the concept of stress. We will do this in the next Unit (Unit 10).

NSOU PGEL-3 136 Answers to true false statements: i. F; ii. T; iii. F; iv. F; v. T; vi. T; vii. T viii. T; ix. F x. F 9.10 Review Questions 1. What is the role of phonetics in language teaching? 2. How are these two terms different - Phonetics and Phonology? 3. What is the most characteristic feature of a syllable? 4. How does a dictionary enter a word to show the number of syllables? 5. How does one understand stress and how is it marked in a word? 6. What is a syllable? 7. What are the components of a syllable? 8. Can we have a syllable without a vowel sound? 9. How many syllables are there in a word? 10. When a word has more than one syllable, are both the syllables pronounced alike? 11. How do we teach stress in a word? 12. Based on the number of syllables, how are words classified? 13. What are some of the good sources for learning how a word is stressed? 14. Does the meaning of a word depend on the stress? 15. Does Bangla take stress on different syllables in a word?

NSOU PGEL-3 137 Unit 10 Disyllabic and Polysyllabic words 10.1 Introduction 10.2 Objectives 10.3 What is Stress? 10.4 Revision of Unit 9 10.5 Structure Words and Content Words 10.6 Stressed Syllables of Words 10.7 Stress and Suffixes 10.8 Summary 10.9 Review Questions 10.1 Introduction In the previous unit we have largely discussed three aspects. We have looked at the difference in the meaning of the terms Phonology and Phonetics. Phonology, which is language specific tells us how to speak a specific language. In understanding this, we looked at the definition and structure of a syllable. We helped you understand the concept of syllable and its structure with a large number of examples. Subsequently, we introduced you to the concept of stress as it occurs in English words. We illustrated this concept with a single example of how we pronounce the word /'pen-sil/. Now let us go ahead with a discussion of the concept of stress before moving on to words. 10.2 Objectives At the end of this unit, the learners will be able to: a. Understand the concept of stress in words. b. Classify words as mono-syllabic, di-syllabic and poly-syllabic words c. Understand the difference between structure and content words d. Divide words into head words and their affixes e. See the role of suffixes in understanding word stress. 10.3 What is stress? Take a look at some short words in your language. Write them down on a piece 137

of paper. Count the number of letters in the word. Each letter is a syllable. Read the word aloud. Did you pronounce some letters in the word more loudly? All the letters are pronounced with the same amount of loudness or breath. It is not like /'pen-sil/. This is the basic difference between English and Bangla and many other Indian languages. To understand stress, pick up a few words beginning with sounds /p/, /t/ and /k/. Is there anything common to these three sounds? Yes, they are all voiceless, plosives. They differ only in terms of their place of articulation - bilabial, alveolar and velar respectively. What words begin with these three sounds: pin, tin and kin. In all these three words, the initial sounds i.e. /p/ /t/ and /k/ are pronounced with aspiration. To help you understand this, recall the letters of alphabet in Hindi. These three sounds have two versions which are labelled alpa-prana and maha-prana. Maha-prana has a an additional breath force. This constitutes stress. In the three words given i.e. pin, tin, kin, pronounce the initial sound as maha-prana [p h in], [t h in], and [k h in]. Practice doing this with every word that begins with the sounds mentioned above if they are short single syllable words. Make a list of such words and practice them with a friend or your brother, sister, neighbour or anyone who cooperates with you. This will help such pronunciation become a natural part of your speech. There is something you should remember here, and this is very important. /p/, /t/ and /k/ are aspirated only when they occur at the beginning (initially) of a stressed syllable. For example look at the word 'paper'. This is transcribed as /'pei-p/. This word has two syllables. Both the syllables begin with /p/ sound. But the first syllable is stressed and hence only this /p/ is aspirated and not the second one. The pronunciation of this word will be [p h ei-p] with the first /p/ being aspirated. There are many words like this where the these sounds occur more than once in a word and pronounced differently. Look at some of these words and practice their pronunciation; /p/ /t/ /k/ Paper Tatter Cricket Puppet Tattoo Crocodile Pulpit Territorial Cockroach Precipitate Tentative Concordance Principal Tutorial Conclave Table 1: List of words where /p/, /t/ /k occur more than once.

Practice each of these words. If you have a problem, look up a dictionary and listen to how these words are pronounced using the CD-ROM and repeat to see if you can do it as well as recognise the stressed syllable. It is easy to understand stress when the word has just one syllable. In case of two syllables, the problem is a little more complex in deciding whether the stress is on the first or the second syllable. This needs to be discovered using a dictionary and the rules that we have are not very helpful in deciding which of the two syllables need to be stressed. We will just give two rules which are to some extent accepted universally. But these also have exceptions. 10.4 Revision of Unit 9 Let us now have a quick revision of the previous module which talked about the production of different speech sounds and the air stream mechanism that facilitates the production of speech. Later we looked at the following points: a. Syllable and its structure b. Place or importance of vowel in a syllable c. Words and their classification based on the number of syllables d. Place of consonants in a syllable e. A brief discussion on stress f. One syllable alone takes stress in a word. We will now continue our discussion on disyllabic and polysyllabic words, their structure and stress. 10.5 Structure Words and Content Words Word is an important part of language structure. Without words, we cannot have communication. And each language has millions of words. I am sure you know that there are more words in your mother tongue than you know. You have been using these words in your language and other languages you know for a long time. Can you define a word? Task 1 Try and write your understanding of a word in the space given below. Don't worry, there is no single correct answer, and there are no wrong answers to this question. So please try:

Here is how Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary defines 'word': 'a single unit of language which means something and can be either spoken or written.' Though this definition appears comprehensive, it is not really complete. Do we recognize words when we listen to someone speaking? Are we conscious of word boundaries when we speak? For both these questions, the answer is perhaps 'No'. Word is realised only in reading and writing because of the space that exists between each word. While speaking and listening these boundaries are lost. This is a little complex, and we will not discuss it now. (We will do it in your course on morphology.) We know for sure, a word is a unit of language. It has meaning. It has grammar. It can be recognized by native speakers/listeners of a language. It can be written using the accepted spelling, it can be used in a sentence etc. Words form a major bulk of language. If we have millions of words, we will be quite confused to study them. So we need to find ways of classifying them. We have two broad categories into which words can be divided - structure words and content words. Structure words represent grammar and their meaning is not very important. Words like conjunctions, prepositions, articles etc belong to this category. They are finite in number and hence are called a closed set. This simply means, we cannot add a new conjunction or a preposition to the language. The second category called the content words is a large group and is an open set. Words can be added to this category every day. Science, travel and tourism, entertainment, media and journalism have been adding words to this huge category. Think of words like television, multiplex, pizza, etc which did not exit a few decades ago. Now almost all of us know what these words mean. Words like nouns, adjectives, verbs and adverbs belong to this category. Are there other ways of classifying the words (other than dividing them into parts of speech.) Perhaps yes. Can you think of something and let us know. Write your suggestions in the space given below. (Do not worry about being wrong. In fact, this question cannot have wrong answers.) Now take a look at the words in the table and answer the questions below: Management Treatment Procurement Enhancement Compartment Nation Examination Prescription Comprehension Excursion Biology Heterology Archaeology Herpetology Topology Photograph Photography Geography Spectrograph Histography Photographic Photographical Photographically Geographic Geographical

Helpless Truthfulness Helplessness Goodness Kindness Cassette Brunette Omelette Flannelette Etiquette Engineer Career Cricketeer Mountaineer Pioneer Manager Teacher Fruiterer Planter Traveller Artist Dentist Manicurist Typist Flutist Gainful Painful Merciful Handful Insightful Musician Technician Electrician Academician Utilitarian Pious Conscious Porous Decorous Humongous Activity Productivity Creativity Temerity Tenacity Friendship Fellowship Comradeship Horsemanship Scholarship Collate Cognate Irritate Precipitate Decimate Active Productive Creative Invasive Extensive Inward Outward Sideward Downward backward Table 2: List of polysyllabic words. Task 2 Question 1: How many categories of words do you find in this table? Question 2: How did you arrive at the answer to question 1? Question 3: Mention the criteria adopted for categorising these words. Question 4: Add at least two more words to each category. (you may use a dictionary to answer question 4) This information is important for us to help us understand the concept of word stress and how polysyllabic words are stressed. We will come back to it after a while. 10.6 Stressed Syllables of Words Stress on words is an important aspect of English speech. A wrong stress may confuse the listeners and lead to misunderstanding. When a word has just one syllable, there is no problem about the choice of syllable to stress. But when a word has two syllables, things become a little complex in choosing which of the two syllables to stress. (We know we can stress only one syllable in a word.) Let us look at some more details. Are there rules for this? Yes, but rules also have exceptions, and you need to be aware of them as well. To begin with let us look at two syllable words that are stressed on the second

syllable. Generally, structure words are stressed on the second syllable. Please remember that this is not a rule but a broad generalisation. There are many content words with two syllables that are stressed on the second syllable. (e.g. Ho-TEL) (Structure words are those that have a grammatical function and meaning of these words is not important. Content words are words with meaning.) Look at the following list of words: A-bout, a-cross, a-long, a-round, al-though, Be-tween, be-yond, be-cause, be-hind, be-low, Des-pite, How-ever, In fact, etc. We have listed just a few words which can be classified as prepositions or conjunctions. Both these are finite sets (closed sets) and you may find a few more words. All the words in the given list are disyllabic and in none of the above examples, the first syllable is stressed. There are some disyllabic words which are stressed on either the first syllable or the second syllable. Depending on which syllable is stressed, the meaning of the word and the grammatical category to which it belongs change. Look at some of the examples given. CON-tent (noun) stress on the first syllable con-TENT (verb) stress on the second syllable IM-port (noun) EX-port im-PORT (verb) ex-PORT PRO-ject (noun) pro-JECT (verb) IN-ject (noun) in-JECT (verb) OB-ject (noun) SUB-ject ob-JECT (verb) sub-JECT

You can add to such list of words, but once again they are limited in number. Often, we do make an error while pronouncing these words and use one for the other. There are a host of disyllabic words other than what we have listed here. You know quite a few of them (as they are fairly frequently used words) and you can find out where to stress each word. You are already aware of this, and perhaps you are doing it right. Just verify and reconfirm you are part of those who speak good English. Task 3 In the space given below make a list of twenty five (25) disyllabic content words and transcribe them. Using a dictionary find out which syllable is stressed. This exercise will help you with three things - transcription, syllabification and pronunciation. Here are a few words to get you starting. You may transcribe these first and then make your list. Angle, able, baker, butter, cattle, current, decade, decide, eagle, earthy, father, feather, gather, goatee, hotel, halter, inter, include, jackal, juggle, kettle, kingdom, longer, leather, mother, matter, neither, neighbour, opera, opener, police, predict, quickly, quiver, rather, rougher, stronger, stammer, tatter, token, under, utter, vendor, Venice, water, weather, x-ray, xylem, yellow, younger, zero, zenith. With this we come to polysyllabic words or words with three or more than three syllables. These form the largest group of words and most of them are content words - that is words that carry meaning and can be categorised as Nouns, Verbs, Adjectives or Adverbs. In order to know how these words are pronounced, or understand which of the syllables is stressed, we need to frame some rules and follow them. Recall the words that you saw in Table 2 given earlier and the four questions you answered. We will make use of that knowledge now. Take a close look at the number of words you know in your language. Very often you use them properly. You are not very conscious of these words in terms of their grammar, pronunciation and spelling. But you are sure of their meaning and use. However, in English, you are more aware of their spelling, part of speech they belong to and their pronunciation. But often you are not aware of their meaning and use. Because you have this knowledge of English words, it is easy to classify them. (you may not able to do this in your mother tongue) Earlier we have talked about the content words as an open set. By this we mean new words can be added to this group. (this has been mentioned with examples) In

NSOU PGEL-3 144 the space given below, write five words from each of the four classes - Nouns, Adjectives, Verbs and Adverbs. Try and choose the lengthiest words that you know. You may use a dictionary for this. 10.7 Stress and Suffixes Do the words you have written belong to one of the categories that you saw in the table given earlier? They should. Now we will provide an explanation for the classification. Each row in the table represents a category and these are based on how the words are spelt. In each row, you find that the words take a specific suffix or word ending. This is an important factor to decide the syllable that takes the stress. Here is a figure that helps you see all the suffixes used for the words listed in Table 2. -ate; -age; -eer; -ette; -ful; -graph -ian; -ical/ically; -ious/ous; -ity; -ist; -ive; -less/ness; -logy; -ment; - ship; -sion/tion; -ward Figure 1 A list of suffixes. We will now look at one word from Table 2, find out the stressed syllable and also discuss a few terms to describe this in specific terms. The first word in the table is 'Management'. This word is entered in a dictionary as: man-age-ment. From this it is clear that the word has three syllables. 'ment' is a suffix and the last syllable. 'age' is the one before the suffix or the penultimate syllable. This is represented as -1. 'man' is the second syllable before the suffix or the ante-penultimate syllable. This is represented as -2. In this word the stress is on the first syllable. But while fixing stress, we always count the syllables from the end or the suffix. In that case 'man' becomes the ante- penultimate syllable or -2 or the second syllable from the suffix. Now look at other words that end with -ment. e.g. Predicament. This word has four syllables pre-di-ca-ment. As per the rules we have formed just now the stress should be on 'di'. Similarly, in the word bet-er-ment, the first syllable or the -2 gets stressed. You can look for more words and confirm the rule for yourself. There could be some exceptions and you will have to remember them. Now let us go about systematically framing the rules for each suffix as given in Figure 1 and also provide you with some examples.

NSOU r PGEL-3 145 No. Suffix Examples Rule i. -ate Curate, mandate, pirate, desiccate, predate All these words take

iii -eer Engineer, mountaineer pioneer, cricketeer, career This is also similar to the two suffixes illustrated before -ate and -age. The stress is on -1. iv -ette Gazette, brunette, omelette, cassette, silhouette The stress is on the suffix itself or the last syllable. v -ful Helpful, grateful, thankful, merciful The stress is on the ante-penultimate syllable or the second last from the suffix. (- 2) vi -graph Photograph, telegraph, spectrograph, sonograph

viii -ical -ically Electric/electrically Physical/physically Cyclic/cyclically Intrinsic/Intrinsically In the case of both these suffixes the stress is on -2. i.e. the second syllable from the suffix. e.g. /i-'lek-trI-kl/ ix -ious -ous Pious, generous, fictitious, dangerous The stress in these words is on the last but second syllabus (-2. x -ity Electricity, municipality, publicity, curiosity The stress on these words is on the last but second syllable (-2). xi -ist Activist, pessimist, pianist, terrorist, atheist The stress on these words is on the last but second syllable (-2) xii -ive Active, decisive, positive, creative

xiv -logy Biology, phonology, topology, morphology, The stress is on the syllable immediately preceding the suffix (-1) xv -man Postman, watchman, policeman, In these words, suffix -man is not stressed. The main word is stressed. xvi -ment Betterment, agreement, improvement, tenement

xviii -sion -tion Tension, examination, nation, persuasion

Table 3. A list of suffixes and the syllable that takes the stress in such words. [Please note: This table is not really comprehensive in two senses. Some suffixes may not have been included here for reasons of their frequency. Secondly, the rule quoted here is the most accepted general rule. There could be exceptions. Besides these, the American English follows a different set of rules to stress words and you need to find this out from a dictionary.] You now have a fairly good idea of the concept of stress and why it is important in speaking English. You have understood how words can be divided into several categories based on their spelling or the suffixes they take. Depending on this, it is possible to fix the stress on the word. In the next unit, we shall look at some more aspects of stress and see how the concept of stress contributes to the development of fluency in speech. We shall also look at some different types of syllables without vowels. 10.8 Summary Let us now recall the points discussed in this unit. NSOU PGEL-3 147 a. We began the unit with a very quick revision of Unit 9. b. We reiterated the concept of stress. c. We looked at the role of stress in disyllabic words. d. We discussed the concept of structure and content words. e. We looked at different ways of classifying polysyllabic words. f. We made an inventory of suffixes and had examples of words for each one of them. g. We looked at the stress rules for each of such words. We will take the discussion further in the next unit. 10.9 Review Questions 1. What techniques can be used to help the students understand the concept of stress in words? 2. How is stress determined in di-syllabic and poly-syllabic words? 3. Do we have different stress rules for content and structure words? 4. What is the meaning of shifting stress? Can you give some examples 5. What is the most important source of confirming stress on a word? 6. What do you understand by the term 'stress' in phonetics? 7. Do all words take stress? Are there exceptions? 8. How do you help learners become familiar with the concept of stress? 9. How are disyllabic words stressed? Give some examples. 10. How do we divide words according to their functions and meaning? 11. Which group of words are larger in number? 12. How many syllables can a word have? How are words classified according to the number of syllables? 13. Does meaning have a role to play in terms of stress? 14. How are polysyllabic words categorised? 15. How many syllables in a polysyllabic word can be stressed? 16. How do we determine stressed syllable in polysyllabic words?

NSOU PGEL-3 148 Unit 11 Vocoids and Contoids 11.1 Introduction 11.2 Objectives 11.3 Revision of Units 9 and 10 11.4 Phonetics and Phonology 11.5 Classification of the letters of the alphabet in English 11.6 Syllables without vowel sounds 11.7 Syllables without Consonant sounds 11.8 Summary 11.9 Review Questions 11.1 Introduction In the previous two units, you have learnt how words which are the most important components of language need to be pronounced in a specific manner. This depends on an aspect called stress, and we have provided adequate information on the concept of stress, syllable structure and the ways of determining stress in words. While discussing syllable structure we have emphasised the role played by the vowel sound. In this unit we will discuss the role of vowels and consonants and how these can vary to change the structure of a syllable. 11.2 Objectives After going through this unit, the learners will be able to: a. Understand further differences between the terms phonetics and phonology. b. Describe the structure of a syllable and also emphasise the role of a vowel in it. c. Identify the characteristic features of consonants and vowels and their relationship to orthography. d. Perceive the possibility of having a syllable without a vowel sound. e. Perceive the possibility of consonants taking up the role of vowels in a syllable. 148 NSOU PGEL-3 149 11.3 Revision of Units 9 and 10 Units 9 and 10 had a focus on syllable structure word stress and classification of words into monosyllabic, disyllabic and polysyllabic words. Here is a quick summary of the units to help you connect with the present module. a. Syllable is a basic unit of utterance. b. Each syllable has only one vowel sound. c. A syllable can have any number of consonants. d. Consonants can occur either at the beginning or the end of a syllable. e. We can have syllables without consonants, but not without a vowel. f. We cannot have a syllable without a vowel sound. g. /p/, /t/, and /k/ at the beginning of stressed syllables become aspirated. h. Words with more than one syllable take stress only on one syllable. i. Words with two syllables can take stress either on the first or the second syllable. j. There are certain disyllabic words that change in their meaning and grammar when the stress shifts. k. Polysyllabic words can be categorised on the suffix they carry with them. l. Depending on the suffix, the syllable to be stressed is determined. m. Good dictionaries are helpful in locating the stressed syllable and also practising pronunciation. Check if any point that was discussed has been left out. 11.4 Phonetics and Phonology At the beginning of Unit 9 we made an attempt to understand the difference between the two terms 'Phonetics' and 'Phonology'. Phonetics is universal and provides information on production and description of any speech sound in any language. It is highly discrete. This simply means that while describing one speech sound, it does not refer to any other speech sound. Phonetics uses a set of minimal pairs (pairs of words that differ in just one aspect) to establish phonemes in a language. Phonology, on the other hand discusses the functions of the speech sounds of a single language.

It tells us more about their behaviour. In other words, Phonetics is language universal whereas, phonology is language specific. Phonetics and phonology are two distinct systems or separate fields of study. The study of phonetics has been made easy by introducing a new script called the International Phonetic Alphabet. This gives us a list of symbols for each sound, the human speech organs can produce. There are nearly 150 symbols and one may access them from the Internet. We also know that no two languages are likely to have exactly the same set of speech sounds and the ways in which they combine. (we have looked at some examples earlier). In English we have 44 speech sounds that are divided into 20 vowel sounds and 24 consonant sounds. You have studied this in detail in Module 2. Phonology is not distinct, but integrated. It shows us how sounds can change their quality depending on the environment they exist. This is because, speech sounds cannot exist in isolation. They need to combine to form syllables and words. The speech sounds cannot combine randomly. They need to follow a set of rules. For example when you form a syllable in English, if the first sound is /p/ voiceless, bilabial plosive, the second sound cannot be another plosive or a fricative. This combination may be possible in other languages. In unit 9 we have given you some rules as well as examples to show why some of the Indian speakers of English have problems while pronouncing words like spirit, school, etc. Lastly, when syllables are formed, and they combine to form words, certain language like English take stress on specific syllables. A study to determine which syllable is stressed and provide a rationale is confined to the study of Phonology. Task 1 Answer a few questions to see whether what is said is clear: a. My language has thirty two sounds. I want to know how each one of them is produced. Which of these two studies help me? Phonetics/Phonology b. I have problems pronouncing certain speech sounds in English? How can I overcome these? c. I cannot pronounce certain words in English? What should I study to help myself? d. My friend has problem with stress on words. He is not able to decide which syllable to stress. Often, he pronounces every syllable with equal force. How can I help him?

Let us now begin the discussion on the present module. Here is a simple task for all of you to do. Task 2 In the space given below write about twenty five words that you are familiar with. Try and write down disyllabic or polysyllabic words. You may use a dictionary if you wish. Here are a few questions to answer: a. How many words were you able to write? b. Can you identify the number of syllables in each word? c. How did you do this? Take a close look at the words once again. Now try and answer these simple questions. The answers will help you understand the focus of this unit. Task 3 a. How many letters are there in the English alphabet? (very simple) b. Of these, how many letters are recognised as vowels? c. How many consonant letters do we have? d. Why are letters divided as vowels and consonants? e. Which of these letters is more important and why? f. Can you spell some words which do not have vowel letters in them? g. Do you have vowels and consonants in your language? h. How many vowels and consonants are there in Bangla? i. Do vowels and consonants behave the same way in your language? Answer as many questions as possible (the first three are compulsory). Check with someone in your neighbourhood and find out whether your answers are correct. (you may send your answers to us and we will give you the feedback). 11.5 Classification of the letters of the alphabet in English In English, we have twenty six letter of the alphabet. (Please don't say 'English has twenty six alphabets'. This is not acceptable. Alphabet is a system and it has letters

specific to each language it represents and used for writing. e.g. Letters of the English alphabet, letters of the Bangla alphabet, letters of the Hindi alphabet etc. Also note, 'alphabet' is always singular, you cannot add 's' to it and make it a plural.) These letters are divided into twenty one consonants and five vowels. A, E, I, O, and U are the vowel letters and the rest are consonants. Vowels are an integral part of the English spelling system and they help in forming the words. Generally we cannot have a word spelt without the help of a vowel letter. How far is this true? Take a look at the words in Table 1 below and see if there is something wrong with them. By Cry Crypt Cyst Dry Fly Fry Gym Gypsy Hymn Lynch Lynx My Myth Nymph Pygmy Rhythm Shy Sky Stymy Try Tryst Why Wry Wryly Table 1. Words spelt without the letters of alphabet Did you notice that none of these words uses the vowel a, e, i, o, or u in its spelling? How is this possible? Just now we mentioned that vowel letters form an integral part in spelling the words. So these are exceptions. So we have made a point. We can have some words in English which do not have vowel letters in their spelling. If this is the case, can we have a syllable without a vowel sound? The answer to this question is 'yes'. But we can have just a few words like this, and not many. We repeat, every syllable has a vowel. But there are a few syllables which are exceptional. Take a look at these words: Kettle, Cattle: Button, Cotton: Bottom, Rhythm We have taken just six words. Each one of these words has two syllables. Let us divide them into syllables: /ke - tl/ /b tn/ /b tm/ /k -tl/ /k tn/ /ri m/

Take a look at the second syllable in each of these words. These syllables do not have a vowel in them. Still it is possible for us to pronounce them. You must have observed that these syllables end with the sounds /l/, /n/, or /m/. These three sounds take up the role of vowels in these syllables. To indicate their special status, we place a dot below them while transcribing these words. These three sounds are pronounced as consonants, but acquire the function of a vowel only in specific environment as shown above. In such cases, we call these consonants 'syllabic consonants' or 'vocoids'. Now let us go back to the table and look at one more aspect of the English letters of alphabet and their use in spelling. Take a second look at the words in Table 1. Most of the words have either the letter 'w' or 'y' in them. In the letters of the English alphabet, we recognize these two letters as semi-vowels. This simply means, that they have the potential to work as vowels when necessary. Or they can substitute for a vowel when it is absent. This should also happen when these sounds become part of a syllable. 'w' is transcribed as /w/ and 'y' is transcribed as /j/. They are both voiced sounds like all vowels. Further, they are produced without any obstruction to the air stream issuing out of the mouth. They are called open approximants. They have all the qualities of a vowel. Therefore, in the normal course they should work as vowels. Let us look at just two words where these sounds occur and see whether they behave as vowels. The words are: 'Why' and 'yes' transcribed as /waw/ and /jes/ Let us analyse these two words. We know both these words are monosyllabic or have just one syllable. A syllable cannot have more than one vowel. This is a well- known fact. In the first word we have a diphthong /aw/. This is a vowel by classification. Hence the other sound has to be a consonant. In other words, /w/ in 'why' does not behave like a vowel, but remains a consonant. Similarly in the word 'yes' we have a pure vowel /e/ in the syllable. Again, going by its definition and structure, a syllable cannot have more than one vowel. Therefore, /j/ has to be a consonant though it is pronounced like a vowel. Now we need to think of new words to describe these sounds /l/, /m/, /n/, /w/ and /j/. 11.6 Syllables without vowel sounds /l/, /m/ and /n/ are normally consonants. But when they occur in certain syllables, they

assume the role of a vowel. They acquire the power of a vowel by giving the syllable the possibility of utterance. Hence these are called 'vocoids' or 'syllabic consonants'. If we retain the term vocoid, we will still be able to trace the structure of the syllable using letters C and V. /-tl/ in kettle or bottle can be described as CV. 11.7 Syllables without Consonant sounds /w/ and /j/ are open approximants or sounds that are produced with the stricture of a vowel sound. However, when they occur in a syllable, they behave like consonants. Therefore, we use a term called 'contoids' to describe them. The structure of the syllable /waw/ or /jes/ still remains CVC. Let us take a quick look at the points we have discussed in this unit. As usual, we began with a revision of what was learnt in Units 9 and 10. We began the unit by discussing the two terms phonetics and phonology a little further. Phonetics is a language universal phenomenon whereas phonology is language specific. Phonology discusses the behaviour of phonemes while their description and production is taken care of by Phonetics. Discussion on syllable structure, therefore, rightly belongs to the domain of phonology. We looked at the classification of the letters of the alphabet in English. We discovered that normally, it is not possible to have words spelt without taking help of vowel letters. However, there are exceptions to the rule, and we were able to look at a few words that do not have any vowels in them. Then we looked at syllables without vowel sounds. In such syllables, /l/,/ m/ and / n/ behave like vowels and acquire the name vocoids or syllabic consonants. Similarly, /w/ and /j/ which are articulated like vowels behave like consonants in syllables. Therefore these are called contoids. Using terms like vocoids and contoids does not disturb our description of syllable structure using the letters C and V. Answer the following questions to check your own understanding of the unit. Task 4 Answer the following questions to check your own understanding of the unit. Say whether the following statements are true or false based on your understanding of the unit. a. Letters of the alphabet are divided into consonants and vowels. b. Vowel letters are very important and we cannot have a word without a vowel in its spelling.

c. The vowel letters and vowel sounds correspond with each other in English d. Syllables always have a vowel in them. e. /l/, /n/ and /m/ always behave like syllables. f. /w/ and /j/ are actually vowels in English. g. Contoid is another name for vowels in English. h. Vocoids are actually consonants. i. There are a few syllables in English without obvious vowel sounds. j. We discuss the function of contoids and vocoids in phonetics. 11.8 Summary In the next and concluding unit in this module we will take a closer look at stress and its function in conveying the meaning. We shall also broach on the topic of stress and its impact on continuous speech. (answers: T, F, F, T, F, F, F, T, T, F) 11.9 Review Questions 1. How are the letters of the alphabet divided? 2. Do these categories play a role in the spelling system? 3. Do the vowel letters and the vowel sounds correspond with each other? 4. Is it possible to have words without vowel letters and syllables without vowel sounds? 5. Do the sounds /l/, /n/ and /m/ always behave like vowels? 6. Can we consider /w/ and /j/ as vowels in English? 7. Is Contoid another name for vowels in English? 8. What are Vocoids? How do they function in syllables? 9. Write at least ten words in English that do not use vowel letters, and transcribe them. 10. How is phonetics different from Phonology? 11. How do we distinguish between consonant and vowel sounds in a language?

12. Is there a one-to-one relation between the phonetic symbol and the letters of the alphabet in English? 13. What is the most important element in a syllable? Give some examples and mark the important element. 14. Can there be syllables without this important element mentioned in 'c'? If yes, how? Give some examples. 15. Can consonant sounds in some words act as vowels? What is the special name given to such consonants?

Unit 12 Stress and Meaning 12.1 Introduction 12.2 Objectives 12.3 Revision of Previous Units 12.4 Diphthongs of English 12.5 Stress and Compound words 12.6 Lexical Stress and Prosodic Stress 12.7 Summary 12.8 Answers to the Tasks 12.9 Review Questions 12.1 Introduction In the present unit on Stress and meaning, we will look at word stress in some more detail and show how meaning is closely associated with stress especially when it is in the context of a sentence. While discussing this, we shall look at some of the difficulties Indian speakers of English have in their spoken English. 12.2 Objectives At the end of this unit the learners will be able to: a. Understand further functions of stress in connected speech b. Produce diphthongs in English appropriately and also describe them c. Understand the placement of stress in compound words d. Understand the terms lexical stress and prosodic stress e. Appreciate the role of stress in teaching poetry lending to the rhythm 12.3 Revision of Previous Units In the previous units we have looked at different aspects of words with respect to their pronunciation. We began the module with a quick revision of the contents of 157

NSOU PGEL-3 158 the previous module which discussed speech production in detail. We had a recap of the forty four speech sounds that the English Language has and how these can get organized into syllables. Syllable being a technical term we spent a while discussing its definition and also its structure. The most important feature of the syllable is the presence of a single vowel in each syllable. There are no such restrictions on consonant sounds either in terms of their position or number. When more than one consonant occurs in a syllable without an intervening vowel, such group of consonants are known as consonant clusters. There is a restriction on the order in which consonants can come together. We moved on to the concept of stress and looked at monosyllabic words beginning with /p/, /t/ and /k/ which get aspirated in the initial position. These sounds get aspirated only when they are in the initial position of a stressed syllable. Stress is a unique concept to the English language. Words are formed either with one syllable, two syllables and three and more syllables. When a word has two or more syllables, only one syllable gets the stress, or is pronounced more loudly than the rest of the syllables. This can be acquired with practice. We looked at a large number of disyllabic and polysyllabic words to determine the syllable that is stressed in each word. We provided some easy ways of determining this by helping you with the spelling system of English. Subsequently, we made a distinction between the two terms 'phonetics' and 'phonology'. We mentioned that while phonetics is language universal, phonology is specific to one language. Each language can have its own phonology, but not phonetics. We discovered that while writing words using conventional spelling, we may have a few words without vowels. Similarly, it is possible to have syllables without vowel sounds. In such words there are certain consonants that take up the role of vowels. Such consonants are called 'vocoids'. Similarly, there are certain speech sounds that are open approximates like vowels. But they never behave like vowels when they occur in syllables. Such speech sounds are called 'contoids'. 12.4 Diphthongs of English We shall begin with a quick revision of the vowel sounds in English. English language operates with 20 vowels which are divided into two groups. Can you mention how these are divided? Your answer:

NSOU PGEL-3 159 We have two groups of vowel sounds. The first group has a set of twelve vowels which are pure vowels and the second group has eight diphthongs or two vowels in combination functioning as a single vowel. These are also called glides for the tongue moves from one position towards the position of another vowel during their production. Go back to unit 6 (Module 2) and revise your knowledge of vowels. For the present we shall concentrate only on the diphthong sounds. Often these cause problems for our learners. We tend to lengthen the vowel instead of using a diphthong. Let us take some common examples. Look at this word 'table'. This word has two syllables. The first syllable is often mispronounced by our learners. They lengthen the vowel /e/ instead of making it a diphthong /ew/. The word is pronounced as /tew-bl/ and not as [te:bl]. This is just one common example. Here is a list of twenty five words. Each one of these uses a diphthong and in many parts of India, these diphthongs are replaced with lengthened vowel sound. Look up a dictionary and find out how each of these words is pronounced. Transcribe these words and practice their pronunciation. Aid Asia Atheist Bake Boat Bolt Bowl Cage Coal Coast Caste Day Daily Deity Dough Fade Fold Fuel Gate Glaze Globe Go Grow Haste Home Table 1: Words with diphthongs These are just a few illustrations to point out the problems of pronunciation. You can find several other similar words. You may check on the pronunciation of your friends or ask one of them to check yours as the two of you interact with each other. We should learn to pronounce diphthongs properly in words. This helps in clarity of speech, and occasionally, it can also avoid miscommunication. We would like you to pay special attention to words like 'bowl' and 'caste' which when mispronounced can cause some embarrassment. We are sure you will do this task. 12.5 Stress and Compound words In the previous unit we also looked at some suffixes that determine the syllable to be

NSOU PGEL-3 160 stressed in polysyllabic words. We did not look at compound words. Let us take a look at some compound words here before moving on to another aspect of stress. Look at the words given in the table below: One word Without hyphen Hyphenated Cannot Ice cream Mass-produced Fireworks Real estate Mother-in-law Basketball Post office Merry-go-round Grandmother Attorney general Well-known Waterman Head master Three-day seminar Grasshopper Full moon Twenty-six Textbook Paper bag Self-restraint Sometimes Black bird Single-minded Moonlight Middle class Long-standing Table 2. List of compound words We have provided a list of thirty words. Each one is a compound word. These words are categorised into three columns. In the first column you have words that are formed by the coming together of two words. But both the words are written together without any space in between. In the second column you have words where the two words are always used together to suggest a noun - a thing, place, profession etc. In the last column you have two words that are brought together using a hyphen. When we have words like this, how do we pronounce them? Do we look for the syllable that takes the stress in each word, or do we stress one of the words? Let us see if we can have some principle based on which we can decide this. Words in the first column are all pronounced on the first word or the very first syllable. So we have CANnot, FIREworks, BASketball, GRANdmother etc. These words should not cause any problem as far as their pronunciation is concerned. In the second column, we have words where one of the words governs the meaning. Look at the word 'Ice cream'. Which of the two words do you think is more important. In this word, 'ice' is an adjective and 'cream' is the noun. You are interested in eating the cream (food) that has been cooled or chilled. The ruling word is 'cream' and hence it takes the stress. We pronounce it as 'ice CREAM'. Take one

NSOU PGEL-3 161 more example 'post office'. Here the word 'post' refers to a specific function the office performs. There are many offices. Office is a common place. 'Post' (the service) is the specific function and hence it takes the stress. We pronounce this word as POST office. When you have words like this, try and analyse their meaning. Find out which of the words is more important or carries the meaning with it. Stress that word and you will not be wrong. When you are in doubt, you have your friend, the dictionary. In the last column, we have words that are hyphenated. In these words, we once again go by the word that gives meaning to the word. Here is an example. 'mother- in-law'. Which of these three words is important. Obviously, 'mother'. A woman who is like a mother by marriage, for she is your spouse's mother. In this word we stress 'mother' and pronounce the word as 'MOTHER-in-law'. Let us look at one more example 'self-restraint' In this word, 'restraint' governs the meaning. The essential factor is to restrain (control) something. The control may be external or from within oneself. 'restraint' which is a verb carries the meaning of the word and is stressed on the appropriate syllable in the word. We pronounce this word as 'self-reSTRaint' It is difficult to provide all the examples in a course like this. Language learning happens best when one learns on one's own. We have provided you with a source - the dictionary. Use it extensively, and you will stand to gain. Task 2 Let us check our understanding of what is discussed so far. a. How is a diphthong described? (one word answer if possible) b. What problem do Indian speakers of English have with diphthongs? c. Can you mention some words which are commonly mispronounced? d. Transcribe the following words: serious, furious, curious, series. Underline the diphthongs used in each of these words (some words have more than one diphthong). Check how these are pronounced properly. e. How are compound words stressed? Give some examples. (don't repeat the examples already given in the book). f. How is the word 'dictionary' pronounced? Please check. (Check the answers at the end of the unit.) 12.6 Lexical Stress and Prosodic Stress Now we shall move into a new area. A syllable has one vowel, in a word only one

NSOU PGEL-3 162 syllable is stressed, and in a sentence, it is one word that takes the stress or carries the meaning. Now we are talking of two types of stress. Let us make a distinction between these two and also see if we can identify them using different labels. In a polysyllabic word, we stress only one syllable. This is confined to the word in isolation. Such stress is identified as 'Lexical Stress' in linguistics. Whatever we have discussed so far, refers only to lexical stress. (Note: in a word more than one syllable can take stress. There are varying degrees of stress called primary stress, secondary stress, tertiary stress etc. But we will not discuss these here at present.) When we utter a sentence in English, we do not utter all the words with same loudness. Some words are in fact, not heard. The words that are stressed are generally content words. Stressing the words in a sentence is called 'Prosodic Stress'. This is because, the stressed words occur at regular intervals and lend to the rhythm of English Speech. (you will learn more about rhythm of English speech later in Unit15). We will look at some examples and analyse them to understand words that take stress in a sentence, and how the meaning of the sentence is affected because of this. Here is a very popular illustration given by a linguist. TAKE my DOG for a WALK in the PARK This sentence has nine words. But only four words are stressed. Read this sentence aloud in such a manner that the time you take to move from Take to Dog and from Dog to Walk and from Walk to Park is the same. To make this simple, keep a beat (tal) and each time there is a beat you say either 'take' or 'dog' or 'walk' or 'park'. Analyse the sentence further. Take is a verb, My is a pronoun Dog is a noun For is a preposition A is an article Walk is a noun In is a preposition The is an article Park is a noun

NSOU PGEL-3 163 Out of nine words, we have three nouns, and a verb. The rest are all structure words and do not take stress. This sentence can be read in four different ways with emphasis on just one of the four words. Let us take a look at it quickly. a. TAKE my dog for a walk in the park. (This is an order. Somebody is asked to take the dog for a walk, but not feed it or wash it.) b. Take my DOG for a walk in the park. (Here the person speaking has more than one animal as a pet - perhaps a cat and a cow. It is only the dog that needs to be taken and not the cat or the cow.) c. Take my dog for WALK in the park. (Here is speaker emphasises the fact that the dog needs to be walked. It should not be made to run or just sit idly in the park.) d. Take my dog for a walk in the PARK. (Here the speaker wants the dog to be taken only to the park and not any other place, not to the sea shore or the river bank, but only to the park.) This should make it clear to you, how stress is important in conveying the meaning the speaker intends. You will learn more about all this in the next module. 12.7 Summary Let us stop here, with a quick revision of what is discussed here in this unit. We began the unit with a thorough revision of all the points made in the first three units of this module. Subsequently, we looked at the concept of diphthongs and their importance in pronouncing the words properly. We looked at some examples where Indian speakers often mispronounce the words. Having discussed this, we moved further and took a look at the stress in compound words with the help of several examples. We also saw the rationale for stressing a particular word in a compound word. Finally, we concluded the unit with a discussion on how word stress affects the meaning of a sentence and also lends to the rhythm of spoken English. With one illustration we saw why certain words are stressed in a sentence, and how the meaning of sentence varies with change in the stressed word. The next module will take you to sentences and their behaviour. Stress is not confined to syllables and words, but extends to sentences as well. How is sentence stress realised in speech is what the next module focuses on.

NSOU PGEL-3 164 12.8 Answers to the task on page a. Glide b. Use lengthened vowels instead of diphthongs. c. (no specific answer) d. /siri s/ /fjuri s/ /kjuri s/ /siri:s/ e. Based on the word that governs the meaning. f. /ˈdiknrw/ 12.9 Review Questions 1. What are diphthongs? How are they important in English? 2. How are compound words stressed? Give examples. 3. How are hyphenated words different from unhyphenated words? 4. How does a stressed word add to the rhythm of a spoken sentence? 5. Does stress have a role to play in conveying the meaning? 6. How complex is the role of stress in words? 7. Does stress affect the meaning always? 8. What are some of the problems we have by using wrong stress? 9. How are words stressed in Bangla? 10. Does meaning play a role in deciding the stress on compound words? 11. How is a pure vowel different from a diphthong? 12. What role does word stress have on the meaning of a sentence? 13. What are some of the best sources of learning word stress? 14. Does stress have any role other than conveying meaning? 15. How is the tone of a sentence determined by word stress?

NSOU PGEL-3 165 Module 4 : Supra-Segmental Features-2 Unit 13 Sentence Stress 13.1 Introduction 13.2 Objectives 13.3 Syllable, Accent and Stress 13.4 Stress and Connected Speech 13.5 Sentence Stress 13.6 Isochronism and Stress-timed rhythm 13.7 Accent and Intonation 13.8 Stress and Intonation 13.9 Summary 13.10 Review Questions 13.11 References and Reading List 13.1 Introduction This unit is prepared to familiarise you with supra-segmental features of English language, with special emphasis on accent and stress. While structural phonology deals with the phonemic and phonetic structure of English language, supra-segmental features include accentual or stress pattern of words. In connected speech, sentence stress, accent, rhythm and intonation play an important role. In modern linguistics, speech is regarded as primary and writing secondary. Sentence stress is an important feature of spoken English. The unit concludes with a summary followed by review questions provided at the end. 13.2 Objectives This unit introduces you to: a) Analysis of syllables b) Distinction between stressed and unstressed syllables 165

NSOU PGEL-3 166 c) Stress rules governing connected speech d) Intonation and its basic features 13.3 Syllable, Accent and Stress We have learnt about syllables and their structure in Module 3. Let us quickly revise some of the important points. The phonological system comprises the segmental and supra-segmental systems. Supra-segmental features in phonetics and phonology refer to a vocal effect which extends over more than one sound segment in an utterance. Such features include stress, rhythm and intonation. The basic unit of pronunciation in a connected speech is the syllable. A syllable is a unit of pronunciation typically larger than a single sound or phoneme and smaller than a di-syllabic word. A monosyllabic word may be pronounced as a single independent unit of utterance, while in case of polysyllabic words, syllable divisions are audible. Syllabification is the term which refers to the division of a word into syllables and through this division the stress-pattern is marked in speech. From a phonetic viewpoint, syllable is defined on the basis of the articulatory effort required in order to produce them. In English utterances, as R.H. Stetson (1892-1950) argued, each syllable corresponds to an increase in air pressure. The pulmonic egressive air-stream from the lungs is released as a series of chest pulses which can be felt and measured. In case of emphatic syllables, this increase in air-pressure is easy to detect. Every syllable has one vowel sound, but when two vowels occur simultaneously, as in showing, both the syllables are uttered with a single muscular effort. If we try to define syllable in auditory terms, we can realise that in a string of sounds, some syllables are intrinsically more audible than others and the sonority is located in the centre of a syllable, i.e., the vowel sound. Phonological analysis can reveal the ways sounds combine in English to produce connected speech. The syllabic structure of the words is represented by [V] and [C]. The basic structure of a syllable is [V] as in words like "I" or "a" and the structure may be one of the following: [CV] (to), [VC] (or), [CVC] (not), [CCVC] (spat), [CCCVCC] (string), [CCVCC] (thank), [CVCCC] (tenth), [CVCCCC] (tenths), [CCVCCCC] (twelfths). Syllable-division is marked with a hyphen. A consonant- vowel(CV) sequence is a common pattern and if a syllable ends with a vowel, it is called 'open syllable'. When a syllable ends with a consonant, it is called 'closed syllable'. A CVC pattern is very common in English. The following terminology is used in

phonology: the opening segment of a syllable is called the onset; the closing segment of the syllable is called the coda; and the central segment of the syllable is called the centre or nucleus. Some exceptional syllables can also be identified, such as those where certain consonants occur alone to form the syllable. The last consonant sound in such syllables is called a syllabic consonant. In words such as "button" [b tn] and "bottle" [b]tl], the last syllable formed without a vowel sound where/n/ or /l/ is a syllabic consonant. These rules of syllabification are essential for proper articulation and sentence stress. In prosodic morphology, the word is broken into syllables and stress rule is applied for pronunciation. Several languages, like Sanskrit, Hindi or Bengali, are syllable timed and the syllables are said to occur at regular intervals of time. In such languages the vowel sound in the syllable receives the accent. English, on the other hand, is an accentual- syllabic language and the pronunciation depends on the accent or occurrence of the stressed syllable. In Britain, for example, the neutral accent associated with a public- school education, is called "Queen's English," or "BBC English," or "Received Pronunciation" (RP). In the spoken form, all the syllables in English language are not accented. In any metrical composition there is a conscious patterning of accented and unaccented syllables. Accent is not solely a matter of loudness; it is also related to pitch and duration. Theory of stress covers the domain of syllable structure and phonological boundaries. Stress patterns in connected speech are related to both the word and the sentence stress. Metrical strength depends also on the weak and strong forms of the syllable or the word. Stress pattern also changes according to the grammatical use of the word. For example, in a word like "water" there are two syllables /w]:-tc/. This di-syllabic word can be used in a sentence as both noun and verb. When the word is used as noun the accent is placed on the first syllable. Similarly, the word "record" used as noun and verb receives stress on different syllables: "I have made a Record" (noun); "I am going to record my lecture" (verb). An exception is the word "water". It is always stressed on the first syllable, noun or verb, since the second syllable contains the schwa that can never carry stress. In scansion, an accent is a mark placed above the prominent syllable or the core phoneme. 13.4 Stress and Connected Speech As discussed above, stress is a term used in phonetics to refer to the degree of force used in producing a syllable. In the spoken form of the language, there is a notable

distinction between stressed and unstressed syllables. In case of stressed syllables there is more audible prominence, while in the unstressed syllables, there is a decreased loudness, pitch and length. Stress in connected speech may be equated with a notion of emphasis or strength attributed to the prominent syllables. In phonology, the main function of stress is to provide a means of distinguishing degrees of emphasis or contrast in sentences. Sentence stress is clearly audible. For example, in this sentence, stress is placed on the important words: "My HEART leaps UP when I beHOLD a RAINbow in the SKY" The degrees of stress, however, vary. In American English, the stressed syllables are easily identified because of the degree of stress given on the phonemes. Let us learn about the classification of these degrees of stress from strongest to weakest. The strongest stress is called primary stress; the next lower level of degree of stress is called secondary stress, followed by tertiary stress and weak stress. In British standard English / RP, the degrees of stress may be basically classified as stressed and unstressed, related to intonation and vowel quality. In phonology, the various degrees of stress are assigned to the syllables of words. Sentence stress is governed by stress rules. These stress rules may be categorised as lexical stress, stress based on compounding of words, and nuclear stress rules. In poetry or lyrical composition, the stress pattern may be governed by metrical rules. Distinction is made between linguistic contrasts involving loudness. Syllables that are more audible and longer than other syllables in a sentence are called stressed syllables. Some of these stressed syllables additionally involve pitch or accent, determined by the frequency with which the vocal cords vibrate during the production of syllables. The higher is the degree of vibration of the vocal cords, higher would be the pitch associated with the syllable. Some argue that variations in pitch and loudness are matters of accent, not stress. 13.5 Sentence Stress Stress pattern in a sentence is called sentence stress. English is a language that uses tone groups for connected speech. In English the stress-pattern is partly fixed and such fixed stress is referred to as accent. In English, we also find a free or movable stress or accent-pattern. (This is called shifting stress). In metrical compositions, stress-timed rhythm is based on fixed stress-rules as well as free stress shift. Usually in lyrical compositions, the stresses fall at roughly regular intervals in a line. Any line of a sonnet has ten syllables usually composed in a proper metrical pattern of five pairs of unstressed and stressed syllables. This pattern in prosody is called Iambic.

NSOU PGEL-3 169 Similarly, the Trochaic pattern in poetry refers to the pairing of stressed and unstressed syllables. In metrical phonology, a stress-foot refers to a string containing a stressed syllable as its first element, followed by unstressed syllables. The most prominent element in the stress foot is called the head. Therefore, foot-division is made to mark the underlying metrical division. In colloquial speech, language is spoken in such a way that a stressed syllable is more audible and the unstressed syllables are hardly audible. In connected speech, a sequence of syllables constituting a rhythmical unit, containing one primary stress, is known as a stress group. There are certain stress rules governing connected speech. 1. Words are classified into two broad groups: lexical category (typically nouns, verbs, adjectives and adverbs) and words of a functional, or grammatical, category (such as articles, conjunctions, prepositions and pronouns). Important words that contain independent meaning and function as nouns, verbs, adjectives and adverbs, usually receive stress, while the parts of speech that are functional and grammatically obligatory, such as pronouns, conjunctions, prepositions and interjections, used in sentences, receive no stress in connected speech. 2. The placement of primary stresses in English words is calculated by counting the syllables from the end of the word. The primary stress in a word falls on either the final syllable of the word, or on the penultimate syllable or on the antepenultimate syllable. Di-syllabic English words receive stress usually on the first syllable. However, some words that are used as both nouns and adjectives usually receive stress on the first syllable, while the same words used as verbs receive stress on the second syllable. 3. It is possible for English words to end with as many as four unstressed syllables, as in the word "GEN-tle-man-li-ness."However, English words do not begin with more than one unstressed syllable. We do not find any sequence of two or more unstressed syllables. 4. Stress shift is common in English language. For example, when we derive Japanese from Japan, the primary stress shifts from the final syllable of "Ja- PAN" onto the final syllable of "Ja-pa-NESE." We find a tendency to place the secondary stress on the syllable which had primary stress in the deriving word: "cha-RAC-ter" is changed to "cha-rac-TER-ize" and the primary stress shift in " 'cha-rac-te-ri-'ZA-tion." Similarly, primary accent shifts in the following words: "a-CA-de-my" - "a-ca-DE-mic" - "a-ca-de-MI-cian."

NSOU PGEL-3 170 5. Two adjacent stressed syllables are to be avoided in connected speech. Thus, the word Japanese is not articulated as "Ja/PA0 NESE."There are, of course, exceptions in words that receive two accents, one secondary and one primary as in the following verbs: "/RE0RUN" and "/SPON0DEE."Even words functioning as nouns and adjectives may sometimes receive two stresses as in "Burmese"[/BUR0MESE] and "Chinese" [/CHI0NESE]. 6. In most of the compound word in English RP, the primary accent falls on one of the two elements, usually on the first syllable, such as "0BOOK-shelf," " 0CROSS-word." However, there are compound words formed by "-ever" or "-self" in which the second element receives the primary accent, as in "how- 0E-ver" or "her-0SELF." 7. T. Balasubramanian (1981: 137-141), has listed the following useful rules for word-accentual patterns in English: a) Words with weak prefixes take the accent on the root. b) Inflexional suffixes like -ed, -es, and -ing do not affect the accent. c) Derivational suffixes like -age, -ance, -er, -ess, -ful, -hood, -ice, -ish, -ive, -ly, -ness, -or, -ship, -ter, -ure, and -zen do not normally affect the accent. d) Words ending in -ion/ -ian take the primary accent on the penultimate syllable. e)

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Words ending in -ic, -ical, -ically, -ious, -ial, -ially take the primary accent on the syllable preceding the suffix.

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f) Words ending in -ity take the accent on the ante-penultimate syllable. 13.6 Isochronism and Stress-timed rhythm Isochronism or stress-timed rhythm in phonetics is used to characterize the pronunciation in which the stressed syllables recur at regular intervals of time. Irrespective of the number of intervening unstressed syllables, there is, more or less, an equal-time-gap between two stressed syllables in connected speech. This characteristic is referred to as isochronism or isochrony. In connected speech some words receive more force and loudness and stand out from the rest. For example, in the following sentences the words that stand out from the rest are marked with a vertical bar [0]: i) 0Ro-sy and 0Rock-y are 0friends. NSOU PGEL-3 171 ii) I 0lost my 0pair of 0shoes. iii) I 0want to 0buy a 0pair of 0scissors. iv) 'Ma-ry, 0sing a song'. In case of polysyllabic words used in connected speech, only that syllable of a polysyllabic word is made prominent which is prominent when the word is spoken in isolation, as in the following sentence: 0Ma-ry and 0Ro-sy have de-0ci-ded to 0vi-sit 0Lon-don. Stress-timed rhythm is maintained in connected speech irrespective of the number of intervening unstressed syllables. In some cases, the choice of the syllable receiving the primary accent depends on the meaning the speaker wants to convey. In such cases the stress-timed rhythm is carefully calibrated with intonation, a feature of connected speech and sentence stress that we will learn in the next section. 13.7 Accent and Intonation Intonation is a term used in the study of supra-segmental phonology. Intonation refers to the distinctive use of patterns of pitch, or melody. This study of intonation is called intonology and is applied to the study of sentence stress. There are several ways of analysing intonation. The basic components of intonology are the following: a) Stressed and unstressed syllables b) Primary and secondary accent c) Pitch patterns of phonemes and morphemes d) Tone units or tone groups and tonicity e) Three variables of pitch range, height and direction. In conversation, intonational phrasing is a structured hierarchy of the intonational constituents. In connected speech, an utterance-span is marked by tone-groups. Intonation performs the following functions in connected speech: a) as a signal of grammatical structure, where it performs a role similar to punctuation in writing, the marking of sentence, clause and other boundaries, b) as the contrast between some grammatical structures, such as, questions and statements, c) as the marker of emotive communication.

NSOU PGEL-3 172 The speakers of English inflect their speech, creating intonational contours. Intonation refers to the use of pitch variation in discourse. Pitch refers to the auditory impression created by variations in the rate of vibration of the vocal folds. Intonation refers to the use of pitch contours in connected speech which usually consist of more than one word. For example, in the sentence,"0Gita 0went to the 0doctor" there are three syllables with primary word stress. An additional pitch movement is placed on one of the primary-stressed syllables, 0DOC-tor. We can notice that this stressed syllable is more prominent than the other stressed syllables in the line. This syllable is longer in duration and louder than the other stressed syllables in the sentence. That syllable is said to be the tonic syllable. Tone can be initiated on any primary -stressed syllable. For example, in the sentences, It's 'green', What did you say?, there is primary stress on green and what. 13.8 Stress and Intonation Intonation and stress are interrelated. Tonic syllable denotes the stressed syllable where the tone falls. There is an extra pitch movement placed on the tonic syllable. There are various types of tones: a) Falling tone: the rate of vibration of the vocal folds decreases as the syllable is uttered, resulting in a transition from a higher to a lower pitch represented by the symbol . This kind of tone is typical of declarative utterances, in which the speaker is making a statement. b) Rising tone: the rate of vibration of the vocal folds increases as the syllable is uttered, resulting in a transition from a lower to a higher pitch represented by the symbol . This kind of tone is used in yes/no questions. c) Rise-fall tone: the rate of vibration of the vocal folds increases and then decreases as the syllable is uttered, resulting in a transition from a higher to a lower pitch represented by the symbol , as in the following dialogue: Wife: Have you been 0seeing Gita? Husband: No! The use of rise-fall tones conveys certainty, exclamation, conviction or feeling. The husband confidently saying that he has not been seeing Gita, and the intonation conveys a complete denial of the charges brought upon him by his wife. d) Fall-rise tone: the rate of vibration of the vocal folds decreases and then

NSOU PGEL-3 173 increases as the syllable is uttered, resulting in a transition from a lower to a higher pitch represented by the symbol , as in the following dialogue: Wife: Have you been 'seeing Gita? Husband: No! Here the pitch falls then rises to convey a sense of hesitation, lack of certainty or reservation on the part of the husband. He is less than clear and straight forward in his response. He is denying that he's been seeing Gita at least in the romantic sense. Intonation phrase may be defined as a stretch of discourse which contains a tonic syllable. This is also called intonation group. These are also called breath groups as the utterance requires a single unit of pulmonic egressive air-stream. When we give a pause, separating the tone group, we draw breath. We do this at the end of a tone group. Further, it is common for English speakers to pause at the end of every such unit. There are three main features of intonation: creating boundaries of tone groups; the placing of the tonic on one of the stressed syllables of that tone group; and the assignment of a specific tone on the tonic syllable. Usually, the tonic falls on the last lexical unit serving important function. In this sentence - "Rakesh gave it to her." - the pronouns "her" and "it" do not take the tonic and the penultimate preposition also fails to take the tonic. The tonic falls on "gave" that functions as verb. Intonation pattern refers to a sequence of pitch levels. 13.9 Summary Through this discussion, the students are made familiar with sentence stress in spoken English RP. Stress, accent, rhythm and intonation constitute the supra-segmental features of English language. Accentual or stress pattern of words in connected speech along with rhythm and intonation play an important role. 13.10 Review Questions Long Questions (270 words) 1. Write a note on the use of stress in English language. 2. What is intonation? Identify and explain different types of intonation in connected speech. 3. Write a note on the relationship between stress and intonation. 4. What are stress rules? Discuss with suitable examples.

NSOU PGEL-3 174 Medium Length Questions (180 words) 5. What are the basic components of intonology? 6. Define rise-fall tone with suitable examples. 7. How does the addition of suffix change the stress in syllables of a word? 8. Define a syllable. 9. What are the components of a syllable? 10. Show various types of syllabic structure of English words. 13.10 References and Reading List Balasubramaniam, T. A Textbook of English Phonetics for Indian Students. Delhi: Macmillan, 1981. Carr, Philip. English Phonetics and Phonology: an introduction. Cichester: Wiley- Blackwell, 2013. Print.

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NSOU PGEL-3 175 Unit 14 Supra-segmental Features 14.1 Introduction 14.2 Objectives 14.3 Supra-segmental Features 14.4 Syllable 14.5 Stress 14.6 Stress Rules 14.7 Pitch, Assimilation and Elision 14.8 Summary 14.9 Review Questions 14.10 References and Recommended Books for Study 14.1 Introduction In continuation to the previous unit, this unit will familiarise with supra-segmental features of English language, with special emphasis on accent and stress. While structural phonology deals with the phonemic and phonetic structure of English language, supra- segmental features include accentual or stress pattern of words. In connected speech, sentence stress, accent, rhythm and intonation play an important role. In modern linguistics, speech is regarded as primary and writing secondary. Sentence stress is an important feature of spoken English. The unit concludes with a summary followed by sample questions provided at the end along with list of recommended books. 14.2 Objectives At the end of this unit, you will be able to: a. Understand the role of supra-segmental features in pronunciation b. Decipher the supra-segmental features as marked on an utterance c. Understand different stress rules at the level of word and an utterance d. Understand the role of stress in deciding the intonation patterns in utterances e. Relate stress, pitch and rhythm as evidenced in intonation of an utterance 175

NSOU PGEL-3 176 14.3 Supra-segmental features The phonological system comprises the segmental and supra-segmental systems. In the spoken form of language, speech sounds or phonemes are part of larger construction. In speech these individual segments are not pronounced as individual units. These phonemes or segments that are studied under segmental phonology now become a part of larger constructions. Supra-segmental features refer to these distinctive elements that are added to the basic segmental features of phonemes. One such larger construction that phonemes can be combined together is the syllable, or the basic unit of supra-segmental features of language. Apart from the syllabic structure and the consonant clusters that contribute to the making of the syllable, some other supra-segmental features are also involved, such as stress, pitch, tone groups, intonation, rhythm, etc. Supra-segmental features in phonetics and phonology refer to a vocal effect which extends over more than one sound segment in an utterance. The basic unit of pronunciation in connected speech is the syllable. A syllable is the smallest unit of pronunciation typically larger than a single sound or phoneme and smaller than a di-syllabic word. A monosyllabic word may be pronounced at a time, while in case of polysyllabic word syllable divisions are audible. Supra-segmental analysis involves syllabification, the process of division of a word into syllables as through this division the stress-pattern is marked in speech. From a phonetic viewpoint, syllable is defined on the basis of the articulatory effort needed in order to produce them. When we pronounce any word, we do not articulate the segmental phonemes independently. Rather, we break the word into syllables and produce these syllables independently, as in a word like "examination" the articulation is done by identifying the separate components, broken into five syllables, "ex-am-i-NA-tion." Furthermore, all the syllables of the word do not receive same emphasis or stress. In connected speech, more supra-segmental features are visible like intonation and rhythm. 14.4 Syllable As stated above, when we use speech, we do not produce the segments of phonemes as individual items. One such combination of segments or phonemes is called a syllable. With our intuition, we can feel what a syllable is: we can say that "photo" has two syllables, "photograph" has three syllables, and "photography" has four syllables and so on. These syllables, one can easily observe are made up of different phonemes. Even the syllabic structure is different: "photo" has CV-CV structure, "photograph"

NSOU PGEL-3 177 has CV-CV-CCVC structure. While the numbers of consonants in a syllable vary, there is only one vowel in a syllable. When we have a sequence of syllables in a word, some syllables are stronger and more audible than others, i.e., some syllables carry more breath force than the others. These are stressed syllables and require more muscular effort, are louder and longer than unstressed syllables. In English the syllables differ in loudness and duration depending on the degree of stress they bear. If we try to define syllable in auditory terms, we can realise that in a string of sounds, some syllables are intrinsically more audible than others and the sonority is located in the centre of a syllable, i.e., the vowel sound. According to R.H. Stetson (1892-1950), each syllable corresponds to an increase in air pressure. In order to produce each syllable, a burst of muscular energy is involved. The pulmonic egressive air-stream from the lungs is released as a series of chest pulses which can be felt and measured. In case of emphatic syllables this increase in air-pressure is easily detectable. A syllable has one vowel sound, but when two vowels occur simultaneously, as in "water" two syllables are uttered with a single muscular effort. So the distinction on the basis of breath-release cannot be easily made. Phonological analysis can reveal how the phonemes combine in English to produce connected speech. The syllabic structure of the words is represented by the following symbols: [V] for vowels [C] for consonants. Every syllable has [V] at the core and this vowel is called the nucleus. These probable structures of syllables can be seen in the following words given in the table: Words Phonemic-structure Syllabic-structure Classification I Eye Oh! Ah! /ai/ /ai/ /cu/ /a:/ [V] Open syllable Be She So Go /bi:/ / w:/ /scu/ /gcu/ [CV] Open syllable Draw Grew Brow Sleigh /dr-]:/ /gru:/ /brau/ /slei/ [CCV] Open syllable

A vowel in a syllable is its central element. It is called the nucleus of a syllable. A syllable which ends in a vowel is called an open syllable. A syllable that ends in a consonant is called a closed syllable - a feature sometimes referred to as a 'free' syllable. The consonant that begins a syllable is called the releasing consonant. The consonant that comes at the end of a syllable is called the arresting consonant. The sequence of consonants at the beginning or end of a syllable is called a consonant cluster. In case of certain words where we get a sequence of consonants in the middle belonging to two distinct syllables, the consonants are called abutting consonants. For example, in a word like "stranger" the syllable division /streind-]/ shows a syllabic structure [CCCVCC-CV]. In the word "stranger," the /d/ is the arresting consonant of the first syllable and the / / is the releasing consonant of the second syllable. Stray Spree Screw Scree /strei/ /spri:/ /skru:/ /skri:/ [CCCV] Open syllable Come Some Gone Boat /k?m/ /s?m/ /g]n/ /b?ut/ [CVC] Closed syllable Am All Up And /æm/ /]:l/ /?p/ /ænd/ [VC] Closed syllable Spin State Plate School /spin/ /steit/ /pleit/ /sku:l/ [CCVC] Closed syllable Scream Stream Screen Spleen /skri:m/ /stri:m/ /skri:n/ /spli:n/ [CCCVC] Closed syllable Box Fox Band Bold /b]ks/ /f]ks/ /bænd/ /bculd/ [CVCC] Closed syllable Tempt Tents Bands Tenths /tempt/ /tents/ /bændz/ /tenθs/ [CVCCC] Closed syllable Tempts Texts /tempts/ /teksts/ [CVCCCC] Closed syllable c

Syllable-division is marked with a hyphen. A consonant-vowel (CV) sequence is a common pattern and if a syllable ends with a vowel, it is called open syllable. When a syllable ends with a consonant, it is called closed syllable. A CVC pattern is very common in English. The following terminology is used in phonology: the opening segment of a syllable is called the onset; the closing segment of the syllable is called the coda; and the central segment of the syllable is called the centre or nucleus. In most of the syllables, the central element is normally a vowel sound while the marginal elements are usually consonants. However, in some syllables the nucleus is a consonant, as in the following words: Words Phonemic- structure Phonemic- structure Syllabic-structure Classification Kettle Rattle Little Cattle Mutton Cotton Sudden Ridden /ke-tl/ /ræ-tl/ /li-tl/ /kæ-tl/ /m--tn/ /k--tn/ /s--dn/ /ri-dn/ [CV-CC] [CV-CC] [CV-CC] [CV-CC] [CV-CC] [CV-CC] [CV-CC] [CV-CC] [CV-CV] [CV-CV] [CV-CV] [CV-CV] [CV-CV] [CV-CV] [CV-CV] [CV-CV] Open syllable-Syllabic consonant As you can observe, the second syllables of these words have two phonemes: the first is either a voiceless or a voiced alveolar plosive, while the second phoneme is an /n/ or an /l/. Furthermore, there is no sound in the second syllables that can be classified as vowel. Both the consonants are produced with a stricture of close approximation whereas vowels are produced with a stricture of open approximation. Here the consonants occupy the central positions of syllables. These are called syllabic consonants. While marking syllable structure, the last phoneme has to be marked [V]. English consonants /l/, /m/, /n/, /r/ can occupy the V positions in some syllables. Among the supra-segmental features, syllabification is an essential component for proper articulation and sentence stress. 14.5 Stress Several Indian languages, like Sanskrit, Hindi or Bengali, are syllabic-timed and the syllables are said to occur at regular intervals of time. Almost equal emphasis is placed on the nucleus [V] of all the syllables. In these languages the nucleus [V]of the syllables receives stress. The pronunciation is timed according to the length of the syllables. English, on the other hand, is an accentual-syllabic language and the pronunciation depends on the stress-pattern of Received Pronunciation [RP]. However, m æ kc

in their spoken form, all the syllables in English language are not stressed. Stress is a term used in phonetics to refer to the degree of force used in producing a syllable. The stressed and unstressed syllables can easily be distinguished: the former being more prominent than the latter. In phonetic transcription the stressed syllable is marked with a raised vertical line [0]. In case of stressed syllables, the prominence is loud and more audible than in the unstressed syllables. The pitch and length of the syllable also contribute to the quality of stress. Stress in connected speech may be equated with a notion of emphasis or strength attributed to the prominent syllables. In phonology, the main function of stress is to provide a means of distinguishing degrees of emphasis or contrast in sentences, also referred to as sentence stress. As all the syllables in a sentence do not receive equal amount of stress, a term, contrastive stress is often used in supra-segmental phonology to describe this process of identification of stresses syllables. In Scansion, an accent is a mark placed above the prominent syllable or the core phoneme. Sentence stress is clearly audible. For example, in the following sentences, stress is placed on the emphatic syllables: "A SLUMB-er did my SPI-rit SEAL" "PUFFS, POW-der, PATCH-es, BI-ble, BI-llet DOUX" In prosodic morphology the word is broken into syllables and stress rule is applied for pronunciation. In metrical composition too there is a conscious patterning of stressed and unstressed syllables. Stress is not solely a matter of loudness; it is also related to pitch and duration. Strength of the syllable also depends also on the weak and strong form of the syllable or word. Stress variation, both lexical stress or word stress, as in the contrast between the following sentences: 1. An increase of GDP is expected this year. 2. The boss is going to increase his pay. In the first sentence, the word "increase" is used as a noun and the lexical stress is placed on the first syllable: /0i†-kri:s/. in the second sentence, the word "increase" is used as a verb and the lexical stress is placed on the second syllable /i†-0kri:s/. In the American Structuralist tradition, there are four such degrees of stress, analysed as stress phonemes, from strongest to weakest, namely, "primary," "secondary," "tertiary" and "weak." In English RP, the stress is classified as: (a) primary stress denoted by the symbol [0]

NSOU PGEL-3 181 (b) secondary stress denoted by the symbol [1] Word Phonetic Transcription Examination /wl-1zæ-mw-0new-•(c)t/ Comprehensible /1kcm-prw-0hen-sw-b(c)l/ Temperamental /1tcm-p(c)-rc-0men-t(c)l/ Sophistication /sc-1fws-tw-1kew-•(c)n/ Some analysts maintain that the distinction should be made on the basis of loudness which they refer to as "stress"; some maintain that the contrast should be made on the basis of pitch which they refer to as accent. Some languages have affixed stress or accent, e.g. Welsh; others, such as English, have a free or movable stress (accent). 14.6 Stress Rules Distinction is made between linguistic contrasts involving loudness. As noted above, syllables that are more audible and longer than other syllables in a sentence are called stressed syllables. Some of these stressed syllables additionally involve pitch or accent. Although some argue that variations in pitch and loudness are matters of accent, not stress, because contrasts in pitch variation are normally involved. The various degrees of stress are assigned to the syllables of words by means of the repeated application of rules. These stress rules may be categorised as lexical stress, stress based on compounding of words, and nuclear stress rules. In poetry or lyrical composition, the stress pattern may be governed by metrical rules. Stress is governed by the following stress rules: (a) "lexical" - stress rule based on the item and its grammatical function. However, some words that are used as both noun and adjectives usually receive stress on the first syllable, while the same words used as verbs receive stress on the second syllable. (b) "compound" - stress rule based on the process of compound word-formation. In most of the compound word in English RP, the primary accent falls on one of the two elements, usually on the first syllable, such as "0BOOK-shelf," "/ 0CROSS-word." However, there are compound words formed by "-ever" or "-self" in which the second element receives the primary accent, as in "how- 0E-ver" or "her-0SELF." (c) "nuclear" - stress rule based on the nuclear word. Words are classified into n

NSOU PGEL-3 182 two broad groupings: lexical category (typically nouns, verbs, adjectives and adverbs) and words of a functional, or grammatical, category (such as articles, conjunctions, prepositions and pronouns). Important words that contain independent meaning and function as noun, verb, adjective and adverb, usually receive stress, while the parts of speech that are functional and grammatically obligatory, such as pronoun, conjunction, preposition and interjection, used in sentences, receive no stress in connected speech. The placement of primary stresses in English words is calculated by counting from the end of the word. The primary stress in a word falls on either the final syllable of the word, the penultimate syllable or the antepenultimate syllable. Di-syllabic English words receive stress usually on the first syllable. (d) "metrical" - stress rule based on metre and rhythm in poetry or lyric. In metrical composition stress-timed rhythm is based on fixed stress-rules as well as free stress shift. Usually in lyrical compositions, the stresses fall at roughly regular intervals in a line. Any line of a sonnet has ten syllables usually composed in a proper metrical pattern of five pairs of unstressed and stressed syllables. This pattern in prosody is called Iambic. Similarly, the Trochaic pattern in poetry refers to the pairing of stressed and unstressed syllables. In metrical phonology a stress-foot refers to a string containing a stressed syllable as its first element, followed unstressed syllables. The most prominent element in the stress foot is called the head. Therefore, foot- division is made to mark the underlying metrical division. 14.7 Pitch, Assimilation and Elision Pitch refers to the auditory impression created by variations in the rate of vibration of the vocal folds. According to T. Balasubramanian: During normal speech, in case of an adult male, the vocal cords vibrate between 80 and 120 times a second and between 150 and 200 times a second in case of an adult female. The rate at which the vocal cords vibrate is called the frequency of vibration and this determines the pitch of the voice. The more rapidly the vocal cords vibrate, the higher will be the pitch. (151) [4] High fall - the pitch falls from very high to very low [6] Low fall - the pitch falls from mid to very low [3] High rise - the pitch rises from very low to very high [7] Low rise - the pitch rises from low to mid

NSOU ? PGEL-3 183 [7] Low rise - the pitch rises from low to mid [8] Rise-fall - the pitch rises from low to about mid and then falls again to low [9] Fall-rise - the pitch falls from about mid to low and then rises to mid It takes a considerable length of time to gain mastery over this supra-segmental aspect of spoken English. Another supra-segmental feature of connected speech is that of assimilation. Speech is a connected utterance and not just a stringing together of discrete units or phonemes. A sound may be 'affected' by the preceding or succeeding sound of the connected utterance. The way by which such sounds in connected speech influence each other is called assimilation. Such assimilatory changes may be allophonic or phonemic. It is defined as a process of replacing sound A by sound B under the influence of sound C. For example, "horse shoe" is pronounced as /]•-•u/ by replacing /s/ of "horse" with /•/ under the influence of /•/ of "shoe." In a sentence too such changes can be seen: "Who is there?" is pronounced as /huzðec/. In order to maintain the characteristic rhythm of English, an unaccented syllable is pronounced very fast. This omission of sounds in connected speech is called elision in phonetics and phonology. Through elision, both consonants and vowels may be affected. Sometimes, whole syllables may be elided. Unstressed grammatical words used in weak forms are particularly prone to be elided, such as and and of. Even in connected speech elision is marked, such as the dropping of /f/ in "cup of tea"/k p-c-ti:/. Similarly, complex consonant clusters are also often reduced through the process of elision:"twelfths" is pronounced as /twel›s/ or /twelfs/.In rhetorical terminology, an elision in word-initial position was known as aphaeresis or prosiopesis, ("he is" is pronounced as /hiz/); the elision in word-medial position is known as syncope ("cannot" as /kY:nt/); and the shortening of word-final position is called apocope ("cup of tea" as /k p-c-ti:/. 14.8 Summary Through this discussion you are made familiar with various supra-segmental features of English language such as syllable, stress, stress-rules, intonation, pitch, assimilation and elision. The unit also discusses their use and patterns of occurrence in connected speech. There are a set of review questions to test your comprehension of the unit.

NSOU PGEL-3 184 14.9 Review Questions Long Questions (270 words) 1. What do you understand by supra-segmental features of English language? Identify and explain any one such feature. 2. What intonation? Identify and explain different types of intonation in English connected speech. 3. What is pitch? How are pitch and rhythm inter-related? 4. What is stress? What are the types of stress rules? Discuss with suitable examples. 5. How would you define a syllable? Show various types of syllabic structure with suitable examples. Medium Length Questions (180 words) 1. What is assimilation? 2. Define elision with suitable examples. 3. What is stress-shift? 4. How does the affixation change the stress pattern in syllables of a word? 5. Give strong and weak forms of the following words: am, the, to, the, and, does. 6. Define open and closed syllable. 7. Show the syllabic structure of the following words: termination, kettle, nuisance, little, button. 14.10 References and Recommended Text for Study Balasubramaniam, T. A Textbook of English Phonetics for Indian Students. Delhi: Macmillan, 1981. Carr, Philip. English Phonetics and Phonology: an introduction. Cichester: Wiley- Blackwell, 2013.

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NSOU PGEL-3 186 Unit 15 Rhythm in English 15.1 Introduction 15.2 Objectives 15.3 The Rhythm of English 15.4 Rhythm in English Poetry 15.5 Accent and Rhythm 15.6 Meter 15.7 Rhythm and Metrical Structure 15.8 Rhythm, Rhyme and Length 15.9 Summary 15.10 Sample Questions 15.11 References and Recommended Books for Study 15.1 Introduction This module is prepared to familiarise the students of Linguistics and English Language Teaching with rhythm, a supra-segmental feature of language based on accent, stress, phonetic structure, syllable-length, pitch and tonal pattern. As speech is regarded as primary and writing secondary in modern linguistics, analysis of conversational rhythm is an integral part of stylistics. These components that are related to rhythm are discussed in detail in this unit. The unit concludes with a summary and is followed by review questions provided at the end, along with a list of recommended books. 15.2 Objectives At the end of this unit, the learners will be able to: a. See the pattern of rhythm as it exists in English speech b. Contrast the rhythm of English speech with the rhythm of mother tongue c. Understand the role of rhythm in speech and poetry in English d. Relate rhythm with metrical composition of poems and read a poem properly e. Appreciate the terms Rhyme, Rhythm and Length as relational terms. 186 NSOU PGEL-3 187 15.3 The Rhythm of English The phonological system comprises the segmental and supra-segmental features. In the spoken form of language, speech sounds or phonemes are part of a larger construction. In speech these individual segments are not pronounced as individual units. These phonemes or segments that are studied under segmental phonology now become a part of larger constructions. Supra-segmental features are new distinctive elements that are added to the basic segmental features of phonemes. The supra- segmental features of English language include the following: stress, pitch, tone groups, intonation, and rhythm. In phonology, rhythm refers "to the perceived regularity of prominent units in speech" (Crystal 417). According to Geoffrey Leech, "versification is a question of the interplay between two planes of structure: the ideally regular, quasi-mathematical pattern called METRE, and the actual rhythm the language insists on, sometimes called the PROSE RHYTHM" (103).The prominent stressed syllables recur in a regular pattern, and the rhythm depends on the pattern of stressed and unstressed syllables, long and short syllables and high pitch and low pitch. These variables are also combined in a rhythmic pattern for greater rhythmicality, as seen in lyrical poetry. These supra-segmental features like stress, syllable-length and pitch are arranged in a schematised pattern in spoken language and contribute to the rhythmic effect. Rhythm is produced by the regularity of time-lapse between two stressed syllables and the emphatic sound of the stressed syllables. If we compare poetic composition to a musical composition, we can say that the utterances are divided into 'bars' or 'measures'. According to Geoffrey Leech: Stripped of all subtleties, conventional English metre is nothing more than rhythmic parallelism: a patterning of the succession of stressed and unstressed syllables with greater regularity than is necessary for spoken English in general. (111) These patterns of rhythm achieved through rhythmic parallelism organize themselves into speech utterances, especially verse lines. While in case of independent long polysyllabic words, there is an internal patterning of primary stress and secondary stress, in case of connected speech, the patterning of stressed syllables is more perceptible. According to Daniel Jones, "[t]here is a strong tendency in connected speech to make stressed syllables follow each other as far as possible at equal distances" (Jones 1922: 106). In one of the ways, rhythm is created when a syllable containing long vowel or diphthong is followed by unstressed syllables. There is more or less an equal time-gap between two stressed syllables in English

NSOU PGEL-3 188 language as the language is isochronous. The length of a vowel also depends on the rhythm of the sentence in connected speech. Most of the stressed syllables of a sentence follow each other as far as possible at equal distance of time and thus, English becomes an isochronous language. Daniel Jones cites the example of the series of numbers:" eighteen, nineteen, twenty /ei-ti:n-nain-ti:n-twen-ti/ eight, nine, ten /eit-nain-ten/ The musical note of these two lines will appear thus: (Jones 1922: 106) The stress falls on the vowels and if we pronounce the line at a proper speed, we can see that there is an equal time-gap between the vowels. In these lines, however, the length of the same vowel varies. The diphthong /ai/ in nineteen is shorter than the /ai/ in the word nine in the second line. In order to represent the rhythmic structure some symbols used in writing musical notes are also used in linguistics, such as: Symbol English American semibreve Whole note minim Half note crotchet Quarter note Quaver Eight note semiquaver Sixteenth note These symbols are used to denote the length of time between two consecutive stresses in musical notation.The rhythm of a line can be presented through the following note: (Leech 106) The length of the syllable and the length of time between the stressed syllables are determined by rhythm. Take for example the following sentence:

NSOU PGEL-3 189 "I could not start immediately as I was not ready." In this line, the long vowel /a:/ in the "start" takes more time than the long vowel /i:/ in "immediately." This elongation or shortening of the long vowels or diphthongs is due to the rhythm of the connected speech. The stress in an independent word is modified by rhythm in connected speech. Even in words with a single stress, rhythm may modify the stress in connected speech. 15.4 Rhythm in English Poetry Usually in any verse composition, rhythm is an essential component. In poems, the words are articulated as connected speech. The articulated lines of poetry can be heard as a sequence of syllables. In words of two or more syllables, one syllable is almost always given more emphasis than the other. Metrical pattern in poetry works on the schematised patterning or alternation between accentuated syllables and weak syllables. Rhythm refers to that repetition into a regular phrasing across a line of verse. Rhythm in poetry is a patterned movement of pulses in time which is defined both by periodicity as it occurs at regular time intervals and repetition as the same pulses occur again and again. Sri Aurobindo in his Letters on Poetry, Literature and Art has stated that "poetic effect" depends on "the magic of rhythm" (168). Phonological foregrounding becomes more effective and draws the attention of the audience to the rhymical pattern. Accent pattern can be effectively used to produce the desired rhythm.Through rhythmic parallelism, patterning of successive stressed and unstressed syllables, the poet can produce a desired rhythm. As stated above, English is a stress-timed language and there is almost an equal time-gap (isochronous) between two accented syllables in English language. According to Geffrey Leech, a line in poetic "language can be split into segments which are in some sense of equal duration.... although the rhythm of language is not isochronic in terms of crude physical measurement" (105). 15.5 Accent and Rhythm Rhythm refers to the perceived regularity of accented units in speech. This rhythmic regularity is seen in the patterns of stressed and unstressed syllables, long and short syllables, and high or low pitch. In poetry such regular rhythmic patten is found specially in metrical compositions. In the context of rhythm studies, the notion of a stress-timed language is another important supra-segmental component. In case of English, the stresses fall at roughly regular intervals within an utterance. This phenomenon is called isochronism or stress-timed rhythm in phonetics. NSOU PGEL-3 190 Isochronism is used to characterize the pronunciation in which the stressed syllables recur at regular intervals of time. Irrespective of the number of intervening unstressed syllables, there is equal-time-gap between two stressed syllables in connected speech. This characteristic is referred to as isochronism or isochrony. In connected speech some words receive more force and loudness and stand out from the rest. For example, in the following sentences the words that stand out from the rest are marked with a vertical bar [0]: i) 0Ro-nny and 0Joh-ny are 0friends. ii) I 0got my 0pair of 0spec-ta-cles. iii) I 0want to 0go to the 0mar-ket. iv) 0Ra-him, 0join me at the 0par-ty. In case of polysyllabic words used in connected speech, only that syllable of a polysyllabic word is made prominent which is prominent when the word is spoken in isolation, as in the following sentence: 0Ma-ry and 0Ro-sy have de-0ci-ded to 0vi-sit 0Lon-don. Stress-timed rhythm is maintained in connected speech irrespective of the number of intervening unstressed syllables. In some cases, the choice of the syllable receiving the primary accent depends on the meaning the speaker wants to convey. In such cases the stress-timed rhythm is carefully calibrated with intonation, a feature of connected speech and sentence stress that we will learn in the next section. English rhythm is also characterized by another supra-segmental feature, i.e., the use of weak forms and strong forms in case of several words. These changes, in both qualitative and quantitative patterns, depend upon whether the words are accented or not. Whenever these words are pronounced in isolation and accented, the strong forms of these words are used. When these words are used in connected speech and remain unaccented, the weak forms of these words are used. Given below are the most common words used in weak and strong forms: Words Strong Form Weak Form A /ei/ /ə/ An /æn/ /ən/ The /ði:/ /ði/ before a vowel /ðə/ before a consonant Am /æm/ /əm/, /m/ Are /Y:/ /ə/ Can /kæn/ /kən/

15.6 Metre

In phonology, the main function of stress is to provide a means of distinguishing degrees of emphasis or contrast in sentences, also referred to as sentence stress. As all the syllables in a sentence do not receive equal amount of stress, a term, contrastive stress is often used in supra-segmental phonology to describe this process of identification of stresses syllables. In Scansion, an accent is a mark placed above the prominent syllable or the core phoneme. Sentence stress is clearly audible. For example, in the following sentences, stress is placed on the emphatic syllables (shown in BLOCK letters): "A SLUMB-er did my SPI-rit SEAL" "PUFFS, POW-der, PATCH-es, BI-ble, BI-llet DOUX" In prosodic morphology, the word is broken into syllables and stress rules are applied for pronunciation. In metrical composition too there is a conscious patterning of stressed and unstressed syllables. Stress is not solely a matter of loudness; it is also related to pitch and duration. Strength of the syllable also depends also on the weak and strong form of the syllable or word. Stress pattern also changes according to the grammatical use of the word. For example, in a word like "water" there are two Could /kud/ /kəd/ Does /dʒz/ /dəz/, /z/, /s/ Do /du:/ /du/, /də/ Had /hæd/ /həd/, /əd/, /d/ Has /hæz/ /həz/, /əz/, /z/, /s/ Have /hæv/ /həv/, /əv/, /v/ Is /iz/ /z/, /s/ Must /mʌst/ /məst/, /məs/ Shall /ʃæl/ /ʃel/, /ʃl/ Was /wʌz/ /wʃz/ Were /wə:/ /wə/ Will /wil/ /l/ Would /wud/ /əd/, /d/ At /æt/ /ət/ To /tu:/ /tu/ before a vowel /tə/ before a consonant And /ænd/ /ənd/, /nd/, /ən/ But /bʌt/ /bət/

syllables /wʌ]:-tc/. This di-syllabic word can be used in a sentence as both noun and verb. When the word is used as noun the accent is placed on the first syllable; when the same word is used as verb, -ed or -ing has to be added to the root.

15.7 Rhythm and Metrical Structure

Various degrees of stress are assigned to the syllables of words by means of the repeated application of rules. These stress rules may be categorised as lexical stress, stress based on compounding of words, and nuclear stress rules. In poetry or lyrical composition, the stress pattern may be governed by metrical rules. Stress is governed by the following rules:(a) "lexical" - stress rule based on the item and its grammatical function; (b)"compound" - stress rule based on the process of compound word- formation; (c) "nuclear" - stress rule based on the nuclear word; (d) "metrical" - stress rule based on metre and rhythm in poetry or lyric. Words are classified into two broad groupings: lexical category (typically nouns, verbs, adjectives and adverbs) and words of a functional, or grammatical, category (such as articles, conjunctions, prepositions and pronouns). Important words that contain independent meaning and function as noun, verb, adjective and adverb, usually receive stress, while the parts of speech that are functional and grammatically obligatory, such as pronoun, conjunction, preposition and interjection, used in sentences, may receive contrastive stress and emphatic stress, as required in a context. The placement of primary stresses in English words is calculated by counting from the end of the word. The primary stress in a word falls on either the final syllable of the word, the penultimate syllable or the antepenultimate syllable. Di-syllabic English words receive stress usually on the first syllable. Rhythm in poetry is based on metrical stress. In metrical composition, stress- timed rhythm is based on fixed stress-rules as well as free stress shift based on the metrical requirement. Usually in lyrical compositions, the stresses fall at roughly regular intervals in a line. Any line of a sonnet has ten syllables usually composed in a proper metrical pattern of five pairs of unstressed and stressed syllables. This pattern in prosody is called lambic. Similarly, the Trochaic pattern in poetry refers to the pairing of stressed and unstressed syllables. In metrical phonology, a stress-foot refers to a string containing a stressed syllable as its first element, followed unstressed syllables. The most prominent element in the stress foot is called the head. Therefore, foot-division[|] is made to mark the underlying metrical division.

15.8 Rhythm, Rhyme and Length

In English verse we can often see an extensive sequence of unstressed syllables, while an optimal rhythmic structure has one strong syllable alternating with one weak syllable. Such optimal rhythmic structures are often referred to as eurhythmic structures. Foot structures with more than one weak syllable are less eurhythmic and less optimal. Metre and stress are inter-related. The length of the syllables in a line, however, depends on the rhythmic pattern. The rhythm and rhyme are interrelated and constitute an important stylistic technique in poems. For example, take the following lines: In the room the women come and go Talking of Michelangelo. In these lines of Eliot's poem, "The Love Song of J. Alfred Prufrock", the length of the vowels that form the nucleus of the syllables, vary according to the rhythm. ||in ðcru:m| ðcwi | -mink m| cngcu|| ||t]:ki | cvmai | -kcl-æn | - i-lcu|| The rhymed vowels at the end, forming the couplet, are longer than the phonemes at the end of unrhymed lines in the poem. In some cases, the metrical pattern influences the rhythm. Let us see the metrical pattern of a few lines of Eliot's poem "Gerontion": Hère I |àm, an |òldmàn | in a | drýmònth, Bèing | read tò |by abòy,| wàiting| for raìn. Ì was| nèither |àt the | hòtgàtes Nor fòught | in the | warm ràin Nor knèe |dèep in | the salt |màrsh, heàv| ing a |cùtlass. Bìtten| by flìes, |foùght. Although the dominant metre of "Gerontion" approximates a trochaic pentameter, the lines contain several instances of spondees and occasional pyrrhics, thereby manipulating the tone and rhythm.While the metrical pattern approximates a trochaic meter, the lines are interspersed with spondees. There is also a variation of foot-type and number of feet per line. This gives the lines a rhythm reflective of conversational tone or "conversational rhythm." The length of lines also contributes to the rhythm. Rhythm refers to the time-

NSOU PGEL-3 194 based distribution of elements or units of language. In several poems we find lines composed in dimeter, trimeter, tetrameter, pentameter and hexameter. While reading the poems, the readers develop a rhythm of speech according to the line length. In case of irregular line-length in any stanza, the rhythm is disrupted or modified, as in the last lines of each stanza of Keats's ballad "La Belle Dame Sans Merci": O what can ail thee, knight-at-arms, /z/=a [Iambic tetrameter] Alone and palely loitering? / /=b [Iambic tetrameter] The sedge has withered from the lake, /k/=c [Iambic tetrameter] And no birds sing. / /=b[Iambic dimeter] The first three lines of this passage approximate a tetrameter that allow the reader to fall into a fairly steady, conversational rhythm. When the reader reaches the fourth dimeter line, the short line breaks the rhythm, and there is a sense of abrupt ending. The emotional sterility and frozen desire are foregrounded through this rhythmic shift. 15.9 Summary Through this discussion you are made familiar with the rhythm of English - an important supra-segmental feature of English language and in English poetry. Accent, stress and rhythm are closely related as are metrical structure and rhythm. The relationship between the length of line in poetry, rhyme scheme and prosodic feet has also been analysed. 15.10 Review Questions Long Questions (270 words) 1. Write a note on the rhythm of English. 2. What are weak and strong forms of words? Give suitable examples. 3. What is metre? What is the relationship between rhyme and metre? 4. What is stress? How is stress related to rhythm? Discuss with suitable examples. 5. How would you define isochronism? Would you consider English rhythm influenced by isochronism? Medium Length Questions (180 words) 1. How is the length of the nucleus of a syllable related to the rhythm?

NSOU PGEL-3 195 2. Define rhyme. 8. What is Iambic foot? 9. How does the length of a syllable related to rhythm? 10. Give strong and weak forms of the following words: should, would, but, am, the, to, the, and, does. 15.11 References and Recommended Text for Study

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NSOU PGEL-3 196 Unit 16 Strategies for Overcoming Speech Problems 16.1 Introduction 16.2 Objectives 16.3 Speech, Language and Listening 16.4 Identification of Speech and Listening Problems 16.5 Common Pronunciation Problems 16.6 Common Voice Problems 16.7 Speech and Language Disorder 16.8 Summary 16.9 Sample Questions 16.10 References and Recommended Books for Study 16.1 Introduction This unit covers an important aspect of Applied Linguistics and English Language Teaching that is related to strategies of overcoming speech problems. In modern linguistics, listening and speech are given more importance than reading and writing skills. Several problems of verbal communication have been identified in this unit. Speech problems include common pronunciation and voice problems.By understanding the origin and nature of these problems, some strategies for overcoming speech problems may be adopted. Such strategies for overcoming speech problems are discussed in detail in this unit. 16.2 Objectives At the end of going through this unit, the learners will be able to: a. Become aware of different types of speech problems learners may have b. Diagnose the problems and find their causes c. Help learners with speech problems to overcome the same d. Device learning strategies for normal learners to learn without encountering problems. 196

NSOU PGEL-3 197 16.3 Speech, Language and Listening According to Dorit Sasson, "acquiring speaking proficiency is one of the hardest things for ELL [English language learner] students to achieve" (24). Production of speech and reception of speech make effective verbal communication a possibility. Student of ESL are more challenged than the learners of English as first language as they are taught to achieve higher competencies in reading and writing skills, often neglecting listening and speaking skills. Spoken language should be the main area of competence in the language curriculum. The ESL learners gain proficiency in interpersonal communication but they need to learn the academic and disciplinary language too and gain linguistic proficiency. Auditory phonetics deals with listening skills, such as listening to speech sounds and speech perception. It is thus concerned with both segmental and supra-segmental aspects of speech. Proper recognition of the speech sound by the auditory organs is essential for effective listening. In English language learning sessions, dictation method is often used. Our ears are capable of registering audible sounds and proper reception of verbal sound is essential to follow classroom interaction. Usually, practical phonetic training is used as an essential foundation for proper reception of verbal sounds from the primary stage of language learning. Along with segmental features, emphasis is also placed on the supra-segmental features such as pitch, stress, intonation and rhythm. Students are made familiar with syllable division in order to learn the phonological structure of polysyllabic words. Morphophonemic changes are also there in English language, and in the spoken form English language does not always match with the alphabetic form of words. Listening skill is carefully orchestrated with speaking skills. Articulatory phonetics deals with the production and use of speech sound for verbal communication and involves both segmental and supra-segmental phonology. In the production of speech sounds, the organs of speech located in the respiratory, phonatory and articulatory systems are involved. Along with such physiological factors that transform the aerodynamic energy of the pulmonic egressive air-stream into acoustic energy in the form of articulation, some neurological aspects are also involved. As sounds are produced by expelling air from the lungs, the distinctive phonemes are produced by the movement of the active articulators toward the passive articulators. Any physiological challenge in the production of speech sounds is overcome by effective phonetic training.

NSOU PGEL-3 198 16.4 Identification of Speech and Listening Problems The problems of teaching the pronunciation of any second language, such as English, involve both phonetic and phonological approaches. In order to identify problems in listening and speaking, it is important to consider the following factors: biological, socio-cultural, pedagogical, personality trait, and the role of the native language. Once the problems are identified keeping these factors in mind, it is easier to adopt strategies to overcome these problems. Teaching pronunciation to ESL learners is done primarily through pronunciation drills. Yet it becomes difficult for the learners, especially of higher age-groups, to eradicate all traces of the learner's native tongue. Thus, by considering the above-mentioned linguistic factors, the acquisition of the sound system of any second language can be made easier. Let us first identify the problems in speech arising out of different factors. Language learning depends on biological factors such as the age of the learner. Languages are learnt differently by children and adult learners and linguistic competence depends on the maturation of the brain. While adult learners of English as a second language face difficulty in acquiring native-like pronunciation in English, the child learner has a better acquisition power and adaptability. However, the degree of pronunciation accuracy varies from individual to individual due to other factors as well. Certain socio-cultural factors determine the success-rate in achieving native-like pronunciation. It has been found that the more strongly the second language learners identify themselves with the culture of members of the second language, the more likely they are to learn proper pronunciation. In most cases, however, the learners seek to preserve their own linguistic and cultural identities. Any foreign accent is seen as a marker of foreign identity. Adult speakers of ESL rarely lose their native accent in order to preserve their socio-cultural identity. When native English accent is accepted positively by members of society in which the learners live, it becomes easier to acquire linguistic proficiency. ESL teachers must be aware of the way in which these socio-cultural factors influence their students in order to identify the root cause of speech problems. In order to make their English more comprehensible, the students may be influenced by these socio-cultural factors. The learners of ESL may not be necessarily be interested in sounding like native-speakers of English. It is therefore important to set realistic goals in ESL class and adopt appropriate strategies for overcoming speech problems. The personality of the learner may also affect the acquisition of the sound system of a second language. Learners who are more extroverts, out-spoken, confident, and willing to learn the language with greater motivation acquire linguistic speaking skills

NSOU PGEL-3 199 better than those for whom ESL is just a course of study. Some learners have more opportunities to practise their pronunciation of the second language while others may not have the opportunity to use English in daily life and interaction. The interference of the native language or mother tongue is another factor that determines proper acquisition of second language. Indian speakers of English are more familiar with the syllable-timed language that allows a stress pattern entirely different from a stress- timed language like English. All the syllables in English are not stressed and there is an equal time gap between stressed syllables in connected speech. Even Indian languages contain a larger inventory of sounds than English. The supra-segmental features, such as syllabic-structure, stress-pattern, intonation, pitch, etc., are also different. Identification of pronunciation errors of learners of English as a second language must take into account such linguistic features of the first language. 16.5 Common Pronunciation Problems Among the common problems of speech and pronunciation, some are related to the sound system of the native language. This interference, impact or influence of the mother tongue or first language may give rise to the following problems: a) Some difficulties an ESL learner encounters are speech sounds that are not part of the sound inventory of his/her native language (mother tongue). As the organs of speech and articulators are more attuned to produce the sounds of first language, the speaker may find it difficult to produce new sounds. b) Some difficulties may arise because in connected speech there are certain rules to combine the phonemes into words and the words into speech. The rule of combination may vary from language to language. This rarely happens when the rules of combination are same in both the languages. c) Some difficulties may arise due to differences in the supra-segmental features of two languages, such as stress-pattern, pitch, intonation, etc. these supra- segmental features contribute to the overall rhythm and melody of any language.The supra-segmental features of the native language may get transferred to English. This might affect the receptive and productive quality of speech sounds. d) Some difficulties may arise due to the differences in the spelling system and pronunciation in English, a feature that may not be present in the local or first language. Students repeat a mispronounced word and any forced rectification may prove futile.

NSOU PGEL-3 200 e) Some difficulties may arise when the words are heard through the sound system of the native language rather than through the actual sounds of English. A learner is able to hear the second language through a 'filter' of the sound system of the native language. There are other types of problems in developing the language skill of speaking, particularly in the areas of fluency. Second-language acquisition does not usually depend on natural language use. The ELLs are more inclined to learn the language through formal instruction and try to imitate a native speaker of English. In most cases classroom instructional strategies help the learners to develop fluency and accuracy. Teachers may introduce accuracy-aimed activities to enhance fluency and accuracy in speech. Other strategies may be adopted by the teacher to address speech problems. In CLT or Communicative Language Teaching most of these problems are addressed. One of the major obstacles and challenges that is related to Speaking skill is the identification of errors, error-analysis and error correction. Interactive sessions and activity-based learning may be encouraged for practice in conversation, elocution, group discussion or dialogues. Pair work may be encouraged and the students may be asked converse through role-playing. For, example, Student A may play the role of an interviewer and Student B may be asked to play the role of an interviewee. Interrogation sessions may be conducted and questions may be used to promote both fluency and accuracy in speech. Just a Minute (JAM), a language game, in which the participant is asked to speak in English on a given topic, without any pause, repetition of words, or using native language, for a minute, may be played for increasing fluency and accuracy. Students must be made aware of aspects of their pronunciation and given the opportunity to practice speaking in proper English. The learners should be encouraged to use English in everyday speech. 16.6 Common Voice Problems Some speech problems are also related to other supra-segmental features of phonology like stress, pitch, loudness, intonation and rhythm. Common voice problems faced by ESL learners are related to pitch, intonation and voice modulation. The tempo and speed of speech is different than the native speaker of English. Professional voice users, such as news broadcasters, RJs, radio announcers and public speakers train themselves by overcoming these speech problems. In some cases, even the perfectly normal pronunciations in everyday speech undergo certain changes in media communication. In some cases when the speaker gets irritated or angry, some sounds

NSOU PGEL-3 201 are left out. If proper voice modulation is not done, there may be lack of clarity of what is said. 16.7 Speech and Language Disorder The following chart identifies and describes major speech and language disorder and offers some remedial strategies to overcome these problems: Disorder Description How to Overcome the problem Apraxia Apraxia is a neurological speech disorder that affects a child's ability to plan, execute, and sequence the precise series of movements of the tongue, jaw, lips, and palate that are necessary for intelligible speech. This requires frequent and intensive one-on-one therapy in order to make speech automatic under the guidance of speech-language pathologist (SLP). Language drills include a lot of repetition of sounds, starting with syllables and then progressing to words and sentences, to improve the muscle coordination and sequencing necessary for speech. Articulation Disorders Articulation disorder is related to trouble with the physical production of individual speech sounds that depends on movement of the tongue, lips, and teeth. A speaker attempts to make the correct sound but pronounces it incorrectly. Speech therapy for articulation problems involves proper guidance to produce sounds correctly. Speech therapists help the speaker to approximate pronunciation of a word to the rectify pronunciation. Auditory Processing Disorder Auditory Processing Disorder (APD) refers to difficulty in listening and processing although the hearing faculty functions well. The problem includes receiving, analysing, organizing, storing, retrieving, and using information they hear. The brain is unable to process auditory information properly and APD impedes understanding speech and developing language. A Speech Therapist works on modification of the listening environment to reduce noise and enhance sound, tries to develop listening abilities such as decoding speech and improving auditory memory. In order to overcome APD problem, these strategies help the learner to address language processing problem.

NSOU PGEL-3 202 Dysarthria Dysarthria, a neurological speech disorder, limits a learner's ability to use the muscles required for speech, such as lips, tongue, soft palate, larynx, and face. Due to oral-motor weakness, the speech is slurred or mumbled. A speech-language pathologist works to strengthen the oral muscles. In severe case of speech intelligibly, an augmentative communication device may be required. Dysfluency or Stuttering Dysfluency or stuttering refers to a condition when the natural flow of speech is interrupted. Most of the speakers experience some degree of dysfluency as part of the normal developmental process of learning language, usually between two and five years of age. As children mature, they improve their communication skills. In some cases, muscles of lips, jaw, or neck become tense. There may be tremors of the lips, jaw, or tongue. Dysfluency increases in stressful situations. For overcoming this problem, a speech therapist may adopt indirect and direct strategies. In indirect therapy, the focus is on teaching the parents appropriate ways of interacting with their child so as to minimize any stuttering. Parents and teachers are advised to speak at a slow pace, to wait a few seconds for the learner to speak and allow their child to finish speaking without interruption. In direct therapy, treatment focuses on teaching language through easier speaking styles. Expressive Language Disorder or Receptive Language Disorder This disorder manifests itself in either expressive or receptive language difficulties. A speech pathologist adopts hands- on activities and practical word drills to create opportunities for the learner to listen and respond. An English teacher should design specific program to improve the skill of the learner. Phonological Disorders This phonological disorder is due to a child applying an incorrect rule of language. Students with this disorder are capable of pronouncing appropriate phonemes but they fail to fit the sounds together and unable to apply morphophonemic rules of proper articulation. They have a tendency to simplify words. An ELT expert or speech therapist tries to make the learner aware of the correct phonological rules and uses oral drill to address the problem. him with these patterns. For example, the learner is offered minimal pairs of rhyming or chiming words, like "stock/block"

NSOU PGEL-3 203 Semantic Pragmatic Language Disorder (SPD) This is a language disorder usually related to communication diffi- culties of learners with Asperger syndrome and autism. It is also sometimes related to nonverbal learning disability, a neuro- psychological disorder associated with difficulty in reading nonverbal communication. Semantics is related to understanding the meaning of words, phrases, and sentences and Pragmatics is related to the practical use of words in speech in a social setting for effective communication. Some supra-segmental features like the use of stress, appropriate tone of voice, intonation, etc., are also included in this type of speech problem. The learner struggles with the meaning of language in a social context, face difficulty in understanding the literal meaning of words and sentences, abstract concepts, words about emotions, idioms, and humour. The language teacher or speech therapist focuses on conversational skills by creating a realistic social situation for speech act. Sessions are moderated by the therapist to develop proficiency of using common vocabulary for ordinary conversation. Team work, pair- work, drama is used for helping the learners to read body language, interpret words and use words to express thought. among other crucial social skills. Attention Deficit or Hyperactivity Disorder Attention Deficit/Hyperactivity Disorder (ADHD) is a neurobiological disorder characterized by inattention, impulsivity, and hyperactivity. Speech problems are sometimes due to ADHD, such as poor auditory memory, lack of attention, logical sequencing of information, etc. The learners with ADHD fail to attend to the appropriate information, interrupt others, speak out of turn, struggle with the rules of social language, and face difficulty telling a story. Proper attention may be given and task- based language learning may be devised for the students. Group task, group discussion and drama may be included in the practical sessions.

NSOU PGEL-3 204 Autistic Spectrum Disorders Autism, a developmental disability, a neurological disorder that affects the normal functioning of the brain. Learners face difficulties in social interaction, verbal and nonverbal communication, and role playing. The problems in speech include delay in language processing, difficulty in understanding the meaning of words and using the words in speech with proper intonation. Other problems that are to be addressed include repetition of words, use of stock phrases, poor attention span, unresponsiveness, trouble with the rules of social language. In some cases, the learners are specially gifted with impressive vocabulary, fluency, articulation, but only in areas of their interest. Such problems are to be addressed on case-to-case basis by a trained speech therapist. Cognitive and Intellectual Disabilities Cognitive and intellectual disabilities include significant limitations in intellectual functioning and adaptive linguistic behaviour - the basic skill necessary for reception and expression of language. As the learners take longer to learn to speak and have trouble speaking, face difficulty in remembering things or understanding of social rules, special care should be taken by the speech therapist and language teacher. Down Syndrome Down syndrome, a genetic disorder, involves a combination of physical, intellectual, and developmental delays and difficulties. There may be a moderate hearing loss, delay in speech, receptive skills more developed than expressive skills, inhibition, language deficits and may face difficulty being understood by others. The learner might speak in a distinct, often hoarse-sounding, voice, or even speak with a stutter. A language teacher with proper training in special education or a qualified speech therapist is usually involved to address speech problems arising out of Down syndrome.

NSOU PGEL-3 205 Bilingualism Bilingualism refers to the use of two or more languages in speech through code-switching and code- mixing. Usually, learners in any multilingual society use bilingualism for verbal communication. There is no evidence that hearing more than one language impedes speech and language development. In ELT classroom bilingualism should be avoided in order to reduce interference of other languages in learning process. 16.8 Summary Through this discussion the students are made familiar with the definitions of speech, language and listening. The unit dealt with identification of speech and listening Problems faced by English Language Learners (ELL). The most common problem faced by the speakers is related to pronunciation. Other common voice problems have also been identified and discussed. English language Teaching for students with special need has also been covered. Major types of speech and language disorder have been identified, and some remedial strategies that are adopted by speech therapist have been discussed. 16.9 Sample Questions Long Questions 1. Write a note on problems of listening and speaking face by learners of English as Second Language (ESL). 2. What is speech? Identify different features of connected speech. 3. Write a note the common problems in language processing and speech. Suggest some remedial strategies to overcome these problems. 4. What is voice problem? Suggest some strategies to overcome voice problems. 5. Identify five major types of speech and language disorder and suggest some remedial measures for students with special needs. Medium Length Questions: 1. What are the basic components of speech? 2. Write a short note speech disorder. 3. What is stuttering? 4. Define voice disorders with suitable examples.

NSOU PGEL-3 206 10. Can bilingualism affect the process of language learning and cause speech problems? 11. What is articulatory disorder? Suggest some remedial measures. 16.10 References and Recommended Text for Study

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a "branch of linguistics which studies the sound systems of languages" (365).

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the range and function of sounds in English languages (d) to show the types of phonetic relationships that relate and contrast words and other linguistic units.

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PREFACE In the curricular structure introduced by the University for the students of Post Graduate degree programme, the opportunity to pursue post Graduate course in a subject is equally available to all learners. Instead of being guided by any presumption about ability level, it would perhaps stand to reason if receptivity of a learner is judged in the course of the learning process. That would be entirely in keeping with the objectives of open education which does not believe in artificial differentiation. I am happy to note that this University has been recently accredited by National Assessment and Accreditation Council of India (NAAC) with grade 'A'. Keeping this in view, the study materials of the Post Graduate level in different subjects are prepared on the basis of a well laid-out syllabus. The course structure combines the best elements in the approved syllabi of Central and State Universities in respective subjects. It has been so designed as to be upgradable with the addition of new information as well as results of fresh thinking and analysis. The accepted methodology of distance education has been followed in the preparation of these study materials. Co-operation in every form of experienced scholarship is indispensible for a work on this kind. We, therefore, owe an enormous debt of gratitude to everyone whose tireless efforts went into the writing, editing and devising of a proper layout of the materials. Practically speaking, their role amounts to an all-out involvement in layout of the materials and an involvement in 'invisible teaching', as well. For, whoever makes use of these study materials would virtually derive the benefit of learning under their collective care without each being seen by the other. The more a learner would seriously pursue these study materials, the easier will it be for him or her to reach out to larger horizons of a subject. Care has also been taken to make the language lucid and presentation attractive so that they may be rated as quality self-learning materials. If anything remains still obscure or difficult to follow, arrangements are there to come to terms throughout the counseling sessions regularly available at the network of study centers set up by the University. Needless to add, a great deal of these efforts is still experimental-in fact, pioneering in certain areas. Naturally, there is every possibility of some lapse or deficiency here and there. However, these do admit of rectification and further improvement in due course. On the whole, therefore, these study materials are expected to evoke wider appreciation the more they receive serious attention of all concerned. Professor (Dr.) Subha Sankar Sarkar Vice-Chancellor Printed in accordance with the regulations of the Distance Education Bureau of the University Grants Commission First Print : August, 2022 Netaji Subhas Open University Post Graduate English Language Teaching Programme (PGELT) PGEL-4 (Core Course) Course Title: Introduction to Linguistics Netaji Subhas Open University CBCS Postgraduate Degr ee Program (PGEL Course Code: PGEL-4 (Core Course) Course Title: Introduction to Linguistics Module No 1 2 3 4 Unit No 1-4 5-8 9-12 13-16 Course Content

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PGEL-O4 Introduction to Linguistics
NSOU PGEL-4 208

NSOU PGEL-4 209 Module 1 : Principles of Language and Linguistics as Science-1 Unit 1 What is Language? 1.1 Introduction 1.2 Objectives 1.3 Language- How did it came into existence 1.4 Language and Speech 1.5 Language as a system 1.6 Functions of Language 1.7 Definitions of Language 1.8 Language Use 1.9 Summary 1.10 Review Questions 1.11 References and Reading List 1.1 Introduction Language is a finished product of organized combination of sounds in relation to the kind of object they refer to in a given situation. These sound systems and their combination, to produce a word or set of words into a phrase or a sentence, vary from one language to another. Humans possess certain physical features that have enabled them develop the capacity for speech, unlike, apes and/or other primates, who have social calls and grunts but, cannot produce speech. Human speech is unique to the species Homo sapiens. 1.2
Objectives

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At the end of this unit the learners would be able to Understand the nature of language

Compare and contrast the various forms of language Analyse a context and identify the purpose of language use Apply acquired knowledge in their own situations 209
NSOU PGEL-4 210 1.3 Language : How did it came into existence? Looking at the following images what idea/s strikes you? https://images.app.goo.gl/jpPWGnHTJpjkdP1k6 Fig 1.0 http://images.app.goo.gl/TxN9PepsiQ6CCTxJ9 Fig: 1.1 You have guessed it right. But, how did you get the things right or even how do others get a feel of your answers as acceptable one? Nothing is mentioned thereof yet, while communication took place. Figure 1.0 indicates that some exchange of information and/or ideas is going between two persons and that, they take place face-to-face. Nothing has been specified but some meanings are created. Figure 1.1 is indicative of a civilization that existed at a particular age and time. Even without the knowledge of the particularity of the civilization one can assume that the figure talks of some civilization that existed in some remote past. Thus, these figures are symbols and a sign which creates meaning to a reader and becomes a language of communication.
NSOU PGEL-4 211 Nothing is specified. But, then how is it understood? Ordering of speech sounds in an acceptable order gives rise to form phrases which further create a synergy to construct a final sentence. Language at this is the creation of an abstract system at the surface structure until it becomes a text and reaches to a reader when some interaction with the system takes place and meaning and/or interpretations are created; interpretations may vary from reader to reader which may not be or perhaps, will not be, alike to that of the original work (or ideas) of the writer. We then understand that there is a play of certain factors and their interrelation enables one to understand that an amount of information has been shared between people, or that conveyed by images. This conveying of information is what we generally term as the role of language in the creation of meaning from the exchanges of information between two or more people or the respective meaning created and/ or interpreted from any image by individuals in a given context. Task 1: How would it have been if there was no communication and hence, no language at all? Pause and think : 1. Do you think language has a role in the progress of human civilization? Support your view. Your views:
_____
_____ Ask any professional speaker or a writer, and they will confirm that language matters. Even in our day-to-day life we understand the relevance of language through various effects that it leaves on us at many crossroads of life. Vast stores of memorable lines from great speakers, orators and writers have left an indelible mark in our lives and/or guide us in many cases. Look at the following quotes: "Education is the manifestation of perfection already in man." Swami Vivekananda

NSOU PGEL-4 212 "The only thing we have to fear is fear itself." Franklin Delano Roosevelt How was the meaning created from the words which were mere signs and how did their philosophies influence us? Think of the famous speech by Swami Vivekananda that moulded the people of all religions gathered in Chicago or think of any speeches that may have influenced your action. Such is the effect of language on us. According to most religious beliefs, there appears to be a divine source that provides human with the gift of language to express themselves. On the other hand, studies reveal that spoken language developed between 100,000 and 50,000 years ago, much before the written language came into existence (5000 years ago). They remain, however, speculations. No direct evidence or artefacts can be found in relation to the origins of human speech of our distant ancestors. A quite interesting view of the beginnings of language could be traced back to the use of natural sounds by our ancestors to communicate with each other. Originally, they moved in smaller groups and supposedly, required limited number of signals (through sounds) for communication. These sounds may have represented various kinds of emotion and presumably, interjections like Ah!, Ooh!, Yuck! etc. or making a caw-caw sound looking at a flying creature, may have been the root cause of speech production in courses of time. 1.4 Language and Speech Before we proceed further, we need to make our understanding clear in relation to the use of the terms "language" and "speech". "Language" is the method to use the words in a structured way to create meaning from the interactions that take place between two or more people or between a person and the environment (or object) at a given place, and certain point of time. It is a human phenomenon that includes the entire human potential for speech and writing, both at mental and physical levels. Dictionary defines "Speech" as the ability to express thoughts and feelings by articulating sounds by using certain body mechanisms. It is the ability to speak and express one's thoughts. With the increase of groups their needs and activities also increased and thus, gradually the system of sounds (signals) became more complex. The need for vocal signals and man's instinctive response to external stimuli was realized. There are several speculations about the origin of language though, much could not be known about the origin of human language because of the absence of direct physical evidence.

NSOU PGEL-4 213 1.5 Language as a system Scientists have pointed out that language is connected with human brain. All the physical parts that enable sound production are in control of the human brain. The brain is divided into two parts - right and left hemispheres. Each of the two hemispheres have specialized functions. Functions that control motor movements in activities like speaking or using tools are largely left-hemisphere function. Language is a product of the process of evolution of a child's linguistic ability irrespective of whether the child is acquiring Bengali, Hindi or English language system. 'Bengali', 'Hindi' or 'English' are the various labels used to refer to abstractions. The actual manifestation of language that we see or hear in terms of individual utterances (or speaking) is called parole. And, the abstract system behind the manifestation shared by people in a society is called the langue. The abstract system does not exist all by itself but, is rather constructed from its manifestations. These manifestations take place through signs that could be spoken or written. Language as a system is exhibited by two types of relationships - linear arrangement or syntagmatic and vertical or paradigmatic arrangement. Syntagmatic arrangement is the single horizontal arrangement of sounds, letters, words, phrases, sentences. Paradigmatic arrangement is the vertical arrangement of sounds, letters, words etc. Word-classes like nouns, verbs, adjectives and adverbs form paradigms. However, it is not just a logical system but is also a psychological and social phenomenon. And, the meanings of an utterance (sentence, clause, phrase, word) do not depend entirely on its form but also on its function in a setting or context. The nature of this functioning in a setting is crucial in our understanding of language and its use. Various factors influence the use of language and its creation of meaning applicable in the concept of 'setting' for language use. 'Setting' in this sense could imply: Relationship of participants -between the speaker/s and the hearer/s, occupation, gender and the societal hierarchy associated with relationships, Participation mode - face-to-face, telephone, interview, group or individual, group type and group size, Role of participants, Location or setting - office, classroom, home, social event or gathering, Medium - spoken or written,

NSOU PGEL-4 214 Kind of discourse - political speech, reporting, conversation, Socio-cultural background, Individual differences - beliefs, world knowledge, Linguistic abilities - for comprehension and understanding of heard sentences or reading the written ones, Psychological factors. The concept of language embeds in itself: A purpose, Takes place in a given situation, Two or more people participate, Could be sign languages (Verbal/Non-verbal), Could be images, 'What' of language (language content), 'How' of language (way of articulation). 1.6 Functions of Language We will now quickly take a look through the basic functions of language. According to Geoffrey Leech (1974), there are five main functions of Language. These functions are: Informal functions, i.e., deliver messages, provide new information to the listeners, describe things, Expressive functions, i.e., expresses desires and feelings but do not give any new information, Directive functions, i.e., induce actions and reactions, Affective functions, i.e., power to influence others, and Phatic functions, i.e., maintain social relationships, begin or continue a conversation (desire to talk). The question that now arises is how meanings are assigned to words that are used in a language. To answer this, let us derive it deductively. Words consist of sounds (used orally in activities like speaking) and shapes (or signs and symbols) used in writing and the agreed-upon interdependence create meanings based in concepts,

NSOU PGEL-4 215 ideas. Again, this creation of meaning could be at two levels - denotative and connotative. Here, on a brief note, denotative means specific meaning associated with a word. E.g. the word 'evidence' has a meaning of its own. It means available facts or information which may be true or false. It does not signify any array of meanings. And, the term connotative means an idea suggested by or associated with a word. For example; the word 'class' can evoke many other ideas. It can reflect an array of signifiers, viz. a classroom, or social stratum, set or category and so on. In the context of post-structuralism, creation of meaning is not the sole jurisdiction of the speaker or the writer. The speaker or the writer arranges the signs and shapes and composes from their perspective and understanding of a situation while those who listen or read are significantly important in the creation of meaning of the piece of written text or verbal positioning of words. Language finds its expression in different ways: oral, written, audio-visual, non- verbal or Para language expressions and so on. Based on public or private setting meaning is created and/or derived. It thus talks of socio-cultural backdrop against which the language comes into play and exists. Sociolinguistics and Sociology of language are two different concepts in this regard. The focus of the two is different. The former is defined as the study of language in relation to society and the latter is defined as the study of society in relation to language. 1.7 Definitions of Language To define language in concrete terms would, perhaps, be a folly. The concept of language is a composite of many inbuilt sub-domains like signs, symbols, syntactic structures, semantic notions, words or gestures or the psychological, cultural perspectives and so on. It cannot be confined to a single definition nor could all the inherent domains be distinctly capsulated in a single definition. Language could be implying vocal or auditory or para-lingual or written means of expression of human behaviour. Language has life and is in a state of flux. It is in a state of continuous growth because the form of language or the response to a language that existed so long preceded the establishment of a new direction of thought and action. Expectantly, the future of the language form that exists today will likewise have newer dimensions. Consider the following epoch-making definitions of language in the context of their era: Aristotle's (384 BC) definition of language in the words of Richard McKeon (1946, 193-206), NSOU PGEL-4 216 "...on the background of these considerations of language as natural phenomenon and language as rational instrument, Aristotle analyses the arts of language in terms of symbolic properties and linguistic structures. Logic, rhetoric and poetic are none of them purely "verbal arts" in Aristotle's philosophy; are based on the natural properties of words, which are determined by physiological organs and physical medium, as well as on the conventional meanings which are determined by human reason and desire. They take into account the purposes for which men use language as reflected in the intentions of the speaker, the susceptibilities of the audience addressed, and the nature of the communications for which it is serves as medium, and they treat. Finally, of discourse in its various forms and relative to its proper parts. Language, as a natural phenomenon, is part of the subject matter of the sciences - theoretic, practical and productive." Noam Chomsky's definition of language (20th C) Language as conceived of by Chomsky is "a finite set with infinite possibilities" (Chomsky 1957:13). As he further claims, this holds true for all-natural languages since they have "a finite number of phonemes (or letters in its alphabet) and each sentence is representable as a finite sequence of these phonemes (or letters)" (ibid, 13). Thus, a grammar of a language should be thought of

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as "a device of some sort for producing the sentences of the language under analysis" (

ibid, 13). Saussure's definition of language (19th C) Saussure defines language as a structured system of signs and examines the relationship between speech and evolution of language because language, as he says,

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is the social manifestation of speech and it evolves from the activity of speech. Language is

considered to be a connecting link between human thought and sound and is expressed (spoken language) by means of sound. In order to be expressed in an organized pattern sounds have to be articulated for the language to occur and this requires the patterning of sounds in terms of some structure. This structure could be constituted as an abstract system of rules called langue and the expressions of thought or speech acts (the activity of speaking) or articulation of signs by writing called parole. Saussure further contended that language must be considered as a social phenomenon, a structured system that can be viewed synchronically (as it exists at any particular time) and diachronically (as it changes in the course of time). Further, language is not only a logical system: it is as much psychological as social because it operates in a situation at a given point of time to effectuate a purpose. It is thus context bound. In our next section we will take a quick look through the concept that language is context bound.

NSOU PGEL-4 217 Task 2 In this unit, we briefly discussed the notions of language and some definitions by linguists and scholars followed by a conceptual framework on language and context. 1. Look at the definitions of language in section 1.7. What differences do you notice in the definitions of language provided by the linguists and scholars? 2. Based on your understanding of the definitions covered in this unit, can you write the definition of language of your own and language functioning in a context? Your response: 1.8 Language Use Language is context bound Can you think of some situations or contexts where you use the language as in the: I.Scope of formal or semi-formal approach 1. 2. 3. 4. 5. II. Scope of informal approach 1. 2. 3. 4. 5. Now, having identified the situations above can you analyse the reasons that made you use the same language in different ways (formal or informal) and what is the need for doing so? State at least three reasons for your choices made above (for both I and II) in the space given below:

NSOU PGEL-4 218 Reasons for formal or semi-formal approach 1. 2. 3. Reasons for informal approach 1. 2. 3. We, now, fairly understand that language does not exist on its own. It needs a context or a situation to function as a form or as a response to the situation under which it operates. In this, it needs to be mentioned that the concept of language and its process of creation of meaning have also been changing with the changing time and civilization and its needs. What do we understand by 'context' of a language then? Let us therefore examine in some more detail how the notion of context of a language has been used. Language is the medium to express one's thoughts and feelings in a situation within a society and its agreed norms where the language would function. The very notion of 'context' suggests its relation to text, discourse and language use. Again, the 'context' could also refer to the 'linguistic context' also known as 'co-text', the 'physical context' or the 'social context' of the word, the sentences or the symbols used in a text or a discourse. The communicative and symbolic functions of language variation and use are fundamental to the understanding of human linguistic production and comprehension. Think of the word 'bank'. It is a homonym with more than one meaning: a) the land alongside or sloping down to a river or lake (as noun). b) heap (a substance) into a mass or mound (as verb). c) tilt or cause to tilt sideways in making a turn (as verb) It is, thus, the linguistic context (co-text) of the word. What then is the physical context and how do we interpret or make meaning out of the sign or word? If the same word 'bank' is written on the wall of a building, the physical location will influence our interpretation. The relevant context is our mental representation of those aspects of a thing which exists physically and that which we use in deriving a meaning or interpreting it. This becomes the physical context of a word. And, social

NSOU PGEL-4 219 context is the situation, at a particular time and place and with reference to the cultural belief, traditions and acceptable code of a specific community where we encounter linguistic expressions. Compare the concepts of Karnataka Bank to that of Bank of Maharashtra. They abide by RBI rules no doubt but, 'Maharashtra' and 'Karnataka' have some of their associated images which get involved in our interpretations. While trying to understand the notion of 'context' a brief focus on the much prided theory of context; Systematic Functional Linguistics (SFL) founded by M. A. K. Halliday is also essential. SFL studies language through its meaning or its function. For Halliday, language is not to be studied in terms of deep structure but, according to the actual sentences used for functional purposes. He was more interested in understanding the (writer's) purpose in writing the sentence. Contrarily, Chomsky was way ahead and was more interested into why the structure of a language exists the way it is. In short, Chomsky considered form (structure) as independent of function and meaning, whereas, Halliday believed that function and meaning helps shape the form (structure) of a language. In the other case, i.e. in oral communication, there are aspects of meaning that depend more on context and the communicative intentions used by speakers which shapes the form of the content. It is not solely based on the words or context but, also on the body language used (or produced) during (oral) communication. Our understanding of what we read or hear could also have a bearing of some pre-existing knowledge of the sign that the writer/speaker intends to communicate or be communicated from their reading or listening of the sign/s or word/s. Thus, we can understand the influence of 'context' and functioning of language in a context. 1.9 Summary Humankind is blessed with the gift of expressing through language and all other species also have their ways of communication. This leads us to the ideation of how are these two terms related to each other or, are they inclusive or exclusive of each other? Does language/communication function only through spoken medium? There are myriads of such age-old questions and curiosities to understand if the expression of language is a biological process or psychological or social. Associated with it are investigations on how and when were language and/or communication initiated on earth. All of these are cooperation networks and how do they function in a given society and how are meanings and responses created or have sustained through the ages or will they continue doing so? The unit attempts to look into some of these

NSOU PGEL-4 220 aspects with an analytical perspective and understand their functioning vis-à-vis-à-vis related determinants. As a reader you can pause and think on your own while reading, understand in your respective situation/s in accordance to your experiences gathered and actively participate in further development of ideas and raise questions that research aims at. 1.10 Review Questions Look at the following images and think critically on the questions that follow: 1 2 (A) (B) Discussion Topics: 1. What does the sign (A) mean? i. You may park your heated attendant here. ii. Parking will be carried out by an attendant who has been heated. iii. The garage is heated and parking is available. iv. Heated area with attendant. v. You may park here, an attendant is available and the parking garage is heated. 2. The meaning (sense) of a word is: i. What it refers to? ii. What it sounds like?

NSOU PGEL-4 221 iii. What it connotes? iv. What it co-occurs with? v. None of the above. 3. What are your views on how language originated? 4. Why do languages have different words in different languages for the same object? 5. What are the problems one faces in defining a language? 6. What are different aspects of language? 7. How do we understand Parole and Langue as opposed to Competence and Performance? 8. What are language functions? 9. What are other possible means of communication without using language? 10. Do you believe language is a divine gift to the human beings? 1.10 References and Reading List 1. Varshney, R

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NSOU PGEL-4 223 Unit 2 Origin and Development of Language 2.1 Introduction 2.2 Objectives 2.3 Origin of Language 2.3.1 Nature and Natural Sounds 2.3.2 Neanderthal 2.3.3 Adaptations 2.4 Human Speech Mechanism 2.4.1 Air-stream Mechanisms 2.5 Speech Sounds in English Language 2.6 Segmentals and Supra-segmentals 2.7 Summary 2.8 Review Questions 2.9 References and Reading List 2.1 Introduction In the previous unit, we saw how the concepts of language have evolved over the years. In this unit, we will know about the origin of language and how it has shaped human civilization based on our knowledge of the surroundings. In this unit, we will also learn some concepts used in language learning and language use. 2.2

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Objectives At the end of this unit learners would be able to Understand the

probable sources of origin of human speech production, Develop an understanding of human speech mechanism to identify the process, Be familiar with the basic terms associated in the study of actual speech utterance, Enable the learners to estimate the need for the teaching of correct pronunciation. 223

NSOU PGEL-4 224 2.3 Origin of Language Human beings, unlike the other species, have the ability to use language for the purpose of communication in the society. In this it would be interesting to know how the human capacity for speech originated. Speech is a set of sound signals used via a language (the whole system) of a speech community. Peter F MacNeilage of the Department of Psychology in the University of Texas (1988), in one of his research works, has mentioned the mammalian activities like chewing, licking and sucking. In this unit, we will consider some of those speculations about the sources of human speech. 2.3.1Nature and the natural sounds As we all know, human civilization goes back to two million years when the primitive humans lived only on hunting and gathering. They could not speak or write at that time. But, how did they communicate then, specially, when these nomadic tribes shared spaces with other predators and larger animals. The suggestion is that the primitive men could have created alerts or tried to communicate with each other by means of imitating the sounds that they possibly heard in and around their surroundings. For example, the sounds created by the birds that flew or the snakes or the animals that existed at that point of time to refer to that kind of object. These were the naturally occurring sounds which the primitive men tried to echo and used it to refer to the thing (creature/animal) associated with the sound. This fact that 'all modern languages are production of combination of sounds' seems to support the above theory. This type of view has been called the 'Bow-Wow' theory (of origin of speech). Or, maybe so, it is true that the onomatopoeic words (word that phonetically imitates, resembles, or suggests the sound that it describes) simply echoed natural sounds. On a similar note, from the 'Yo-he-ho' theory we find human noises as another probable source of the origin of human speech. The idea is that in situations that involved several people and it required coordination, say, in lifting and carrying large logs of trees and so on, human sounds that were produced might have had some principled use as they were used within their social life (context) may have developed the capacity for speech. 2.3.2 Neanderthal A speculative theory that states human language emerged from instinctive noises made by humans during physical exertion or while involved in collective rhythmic NSOU PGEL-4 225 labour. They are archaic humans or 'archetypal caveman' with physical features distinct from other creatures that lived in Asia and Africa and were replaced, perhaps, around 24,000 years ago by early modern human population. The name Neanderthal is derived from the German Neander thal or tal or Neander Valley where the fossils of archaic humans were first found. They were characterised by a transition to an upright posture, reconstructed vocal tract, bi-pedal locomotion which are best thought of as partial adaptations and could be thought of as clues that a creature with the features mentioned above has the capacity for speech or may appear to be relevant for speech. However, these do not justify with cent percent accuracy that, they have led to speech production. Again, the positioning of human teeth, unlike those of apes, are better adapted for grinding and chewing and are helpful in making fricative sounds. Likewise, the closeness of the upper and lower lips and the resulting sounds so produced from their stricture are the bilabial sounds. Smaller, thicker or more muscular tongue or lips and upright positioning of teeth are used to shape a variety of sounds inside the oral cavity in the course of human speech production. Similarly, the larynx or human 'voice box' differ significantly from other primates like monkeys. It is considered advantageous in getting extra vocal power. The upright posture of humans moved the head above the spinal cord which led to the lowering of the larynx and creation of a greater cavity called pharynx, above the vocal cords, which enables increased range and clarity of sounds that are produced via the larynx. The human brain is lateralized and is specialized into two hemispheres - left and right - of which the motor movements that are involved in speaking or writing are largely activated by the left hemisphere in most cases. Human brain which is larger than human body is potentially involved in sound production. Language in any of its forms, including the sign language, requires combining and organizing of sounds or signs in specific order or arrangement which is done by the human brain, unlike other primates. A part of our brain could be developed and/or utilized in making these combinations and arrangements. Thus, in our understanding of the evolution of speech production, we find that these physical features might have proved potentially advantageous. 2.3.3. Adaptations The stages of physical development of a baby and the changes that take place both physically and in accordance, mentally have led the scholars over time to look beyond the physical adaptations of speech production. The first year of a child shows physical developments at a much faster rate. Physical development leads to the development of motor skills and the brain that helps babies learn to take control of

NSOU PGEL-4 226 their body movements like grasping object, holding hands, standing or sitting or roll over or see and recognize faces of its mother and/or people around it. The baby gradually starts babbling. The changes - biological, psychological, and social, occurring at this time (as well as throughout the rest of the life span) are interrelated. All these seem to point that the origin of speech production or the language capacity could be hard-wired in the new born, in human genetics because it is only the human offspring that are born with a special capacity for learning language. Task 1 Match the two columns 1. All modern languages are production of combination of sounds. a) Adaptations 2. Human offsprings are born with a special capacity for learning language. b) Bow-Wow Theory 3. Human language emerged from instinctive noises made by humans during physical exertion. c) Yo-he-ho Theory 4. Human sounds used within their social life (context) developed the capacity for speech. d) Speculative Theory Your answer: We will now take a look through the speech process and its different stages or mechanisms that will enable you to become familiarize with human speech mechanism. Let us revise on a few topics from Paper 3. 2.4 Human speech mechanism For the purpose of speech production, head to abdomen work in coordination. Three groups of bodily organs are used for the purpose and are categorised under three systems: 1. Respiratory system - organs used in this system lies in the trunk viz. lungs, trachea (wind pipe), and the bronchial tubes. 2. Phonatory system - organ group used in this system lies in the throat viz.

and the

vocal cords
by dint of their action can cause to
NSOU PGEL-4 227 happen a number of different states of glottis viz. Open state (voiceless sounds like /p/, /t/, /k/ are created at this state), Vibration state (produces voiced sounds like / b/, /d/, /g/ /z/, /m/, /n/, /r/ etc.), Closed state (produces sounds called 'glottal stop' for example, that occur for hiccups, coughs) and Narrowed state (produces soft hissing noise or whispering sounds). 3. Articulatory system - organ group used in this system lies in the head and controlled by the central nervous system viz. nose, lips, mouth (teeth, tongue) and ears as receptors. These three systems work together as a unified whole to produce speech. It includes a complicated series of events that take place. First, the speaker formulates a concept or idea in the brain (Psychological stage), the idea is then transmitted to the nervous system that transmits the concept (message) to the "the organs of speech" (see the figure below) of the speaker. This initiates some movements to produce sound patterns (Articulatory or physiological stage). This movement of organs of speech creates a commotion or disturbances in the air (Physical or acoustic stage) and leads to the end processes. The listener at this stage perceives vibrations in the air in their ear drum (Auditing) and final cognition of the message or concept formulated by the speaker (Decoding of the sounds). Task 2 Complete the following sentences. a) A concept or an idea is formulated in the .... stage. b) The movements initiating sound patterns are in .... stage. c) Commotion or disturbances in the air occur in .... stage. Thus, we find that air plays an important role in the production of speech because it either pushes out or pulls in air to produce sound. And, speech is the phonetic combination of vowel and consonant sounds and sounds are produced by vibrations caused in the air. We will now learn about air-stream mechanisms that are used in human speech production.
NSOU PGEL-4 228 Figure 1 Organs of speech [Source: English Phonetics; ilovephonetics.blogspot.com] 2.4.1 Air-stream mechanisms Three main types of air-streams are in use in human speech production. All three are used to push air out (egressive mechanism) or pull in air (ingressive mechanism). The three air stream mechanisms are: 1. Pulmonic air-stream mechanism -

To utter

in contact with the soft palate (velum). The Zulu language of Africa uses this velaric air-stream mechanism to produce sounds referred as 'clicks'. This air-stream mechanism is also used in smoking. 2.5 Speech Sounds in English Language There are a variety of differences in the way we use English both in terms of rules of grammar and its usage. Again, English is spoken as a native language, or as a

NSOU PGEL-4 229 foreign language or as a second language across the world. Here, we would confine our understandings in the context of use of English as a second language within India. Well, for your knowledge, English is used as a first (native) language in the U K, the USA, Canada, Australia, New Zealand whereas, in India, Sri Lanka, Pakistan or Nigeria English is used as a second language. Here, again it is to be understood that English has a variety of spoken versions. Not that it is possible to know and speak in all the versions. Hence, one such version has been accepted as the standard parameter in non-native English-speaking countries and the phonetic codes could be easily available in dictionaries, books and internet. This accepted standard of English is the one spoken by the British speakers in the South of England. The pronunciation standard and phonetic code used in this part is called the Received Pronunciation (RP). By "pronunciation", it refers to the sound system, word accent, rhythm and intonation. In our further discussions and descriptions, we would consider RP as the model for the purpose of our understanding of phonetics or learning and teaching of English. Let me propose to describe this variety in some detail. To transcribe English (RP), there is no one-to-one correspondence between the sounds and the letters of the English alphabet. For the purpose mentioned, we will follow the symbols explained in The Principles of International Phonetic Association. These symbols are known to us as the International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA) where one symbol represents only one sound and it can be used to transcribe the sounds of any language. Contrarily, the Hindi language is written in the same way it is pronounced. According to the IPA, 26 letters of English alphabet represent 44 sounds or phonemes in the Received Pronunciation (South of England). However, it is to be noted that, in the present situation, the use of English is not confined to RP and its standards; instead, 'world Englishes' has found its way in the regular mode and usage of communication. Note: Transcriptions could be phonemic or broad and phonetic or narrow. E.g.: Phonemic transcription of the word 'lot' is /l]t/- i.e. the interpretation of sounds; and a phonetic transcription is [1awt] - i.e. how sounds are pronounced. Of the 44 sounds, 24 are consonant sounds, 12 are vowel sounds and 8 are diphthongs (combination of two vowel sounds where one vowel sound glide into another). Take a look at the following phonemic chart:

NSOU PGEL-4 230 [Source: https://www.esl-lounge.com/student/extra/phonetic-chart.php] The branch of linguistics that deals with the study of speech sounds is called Phonetics, which could be sub-divided into articulatory phonetics (speech production), acoustics phonetics (sound waves and transmission) and auditory phonetics (reception and perception of sounds). Now, the next thought that, desirably, should guide us is which are the speech organs that help in articulation? Well, we need to understand that certain parts of speech organs play their respective roles to enable the process of articulation. These parts are distinctly classified as under: Resonating cavities or chambers - oral, nasal and pharyngeal chambers, Articulators - the lower lip, the tongue, the uvula and the lower jaw, Points of articulation - the upper lip, the upper teeth, the alveolar ridge, the palate and the velum. Furthermore, we can classify the articulators as active articulators and passive articulators. The lips, the various parts of the tongue and the vocal cords are the active articulators whereas, the upper front teeth, parts of mouth (like hard palate, soft palate) are considered as the passive articulators. However, in some cases, the soft palate could also function as an active articulator. Task 3: Write the IPA symbol for the word initial consonant or vowel sound. a. illuminate b. tender c. cat d. city

NSOU PGEL-4 231 e. auto f. other g. eight h. thanks Your answer: 2.6 Segmentals and Supra-segmentals In phonetics, we come across these two terms called Segmentals and Supra- segmentals. These are speech features imposed on utterance of speech. Vowels, Consonants and Diphthongs are considered as the segments of speech that together enable the utterance. The features like word stress, intonation, juncture, rhythm that occur in a continuous speech occurrence are termed as the supra-segmental features or the prosodic features. 2.7 Summary Humankind is gifted with a system called language through which they express themselves. Non-humans also have their ways of communication. It arouses our natural curiosity to dig into the sources from historical records and other evidences as to how and when this system called 'language' originated or, the process of communication begun. It is to be remembered here that language and communication, though embedded, are not same and similar concepts. It is equally interesting to understand how the system ('language') works through the biological functioning wings to enable the process a proper and desired outcome. The present unit has attempted to have a basic understanding on these parameters so mentioned. It also undertakes to provide an insight into the various features associated in the process and how language and sound connect (or, disconnect) in effectuating speech mechanism, which is different in different (Bengali/ Hindi/English/Tamil etc.) language systems. The unit also urges its readers to study them in details from other sources for better and more refined understanding. 2.8 Review Questions 1. From your reading of the text, what kind of evidence do you think is used to support the idea that language originated from certain natural sounds? 2. What is your understanding of the need for air stream mechanism in human speech production? 3. What is meant by a standard or an accepted code in using a language? 4. What are the differences be between the concepts 'native language' and a 'non-

NSOU PGEL-4 232 native language'? Would that make any influence/s in the learning and teaching of a language? 5. Do you agree if it is said that various shades of meaning are created and/or conveyed by intonation? Suffice with examples from your experiences. 6. Can you think of a few sentences in two different systems (or, languages) of your choice and identify the different features and their positions in the sentence? Find out how the communication would vary if the positions are changed in the two different systems? 7. Identify the sound differences while uttering a word in English language and check the vernacular influence in your respective case. Verify the native sound uttered for the word. 8. Let us look at our names. Identify the sounds involved in the name - vowel sound, consonant sound or a diphthong as the case may be. 9. By now you have identified the sounds in your name. Can you transcribe them by using the respective symbol of the sound/s involved? 10. How do you think society and language relate to each other? Pen them from your experiences in a classroom situation or any professional set-up. 2.9 References and Reading List 1. Hosali, Priya Parasher, S V. 2007. Phonetics and Spoken English - General Introduction. 2007. India. The English and Foreign Languages University Press. 2.

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NSOU PGEL-4 233 Unit 3 Language Design Features 3.1 Introduction 3.2 Objectives 3.3 Language - the system of communication 3.4 Features of Language 3.4.1 Arbitrariness 3.4.2 Turn-taking or Inter-changeability 3.4.3 Rapid Fading or Transitoriness 3.4.4 Displacement 3.4.5 Dual Structure (Duality of patterning) 3.4.6 Discreteness 3.4.7 Semanticity 3.7.8 Productivity 3.4.9 Vocal-Auditory Channel 3.4.10 Specialization 3.4.11 Broadcast transmission and Directional reception 3.4.12 Cultural Transmission 3.4.13 Total Feedback 3.5 Human Language 3.6 Uniqueness of Human Language 3.7 Summary 3.8 Review Questions 3.9 References and Reading List 3.1 Introduction In the previous unit we have discussed nature of language, its origin and speech mechanisms. There are many perceived notions on the nature of language. In this unit, we will discuss some more features of the language. To be more specific, this 233
NSOU PGEL-4 234 unit will deal with the feature analysis of language as conducted by Charles Francis Hockett, the linguist and anthropologist, in 1960. 3.2 Objectives To enable you to Understand the unique features of human language Compare and relate the acquired knowledge in practical situations Encourage further thoughtful insights from their understanding of the newly gained knowledge 3.3 Language- The system of communication We understand that language is a distinguished capacity of communication uniquely associated with human beings to express complexity of ideas. Numerous studies have been conducted and is a continuum to understand the system of communication and its coding, encoding or decoding concepts expressed either through sound (speech), gestures or signs and symbols (written). The understanding of human communication is as complex as the process itself that led to the dissection of the system into its various components in order to understand the cosmic power of language and/or its expressions. Study the following chart. This is on the properties of language. Source: https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Hockett%27s_design_features#/media/File:Dfl.jpg

NSOU PGEL-4 235 At the outset, we need to know a little background of the development of the design features as provided by Hockett. Until the first half of twentieth century, the socio-behavioural context of understanding language study was predominant. In the second half of the twentieth century (Bechtel et al., 1998 1) the development of cognitive science along with the growing interest in evolutionary sciences led to an upsurge of studying the origin of language. (Christiansen and Kirby, 2003 2). It was Noam Chomsky's concept of 'universal grammar' that led Hockett to oppose the concept and develop the model of design features of language as suggestive of the nature of human language which, according to Hockett's beliefs, can be compared and contrasted with animal language. However, it needs mention here, that, the model has also been under scanner particularly, in the context of modern language evolution researches. Hockett described his model as "method modelled on that of the zoologist" 3 which means that all human languages 'look alike' if viewed from the perspective of a zoologist. In his model of design features, Hockett has listed 13 features that he felt share commonalities across the human languages that exist. Moreover, he adds, that these features are distinct from animal communication. While elaborating the idea of design features Hockett suggested that some of the features may appear 'trivial' but, "become worthy of mention only when it is realized that certain animal systems-and certain human systems other than language-lack them" (1960) 4 . It is to be mentioned here, that Hockett originally did not use the term 'design features' in his book A Course in Modern Linguistics that was meant for college students. Instead, he termed them "the key properties of language". The discussions on these features could be categorized under three distinct phases: I. The initial statement that occurred between 1958-1959 deals with a comparative approach to define language. II. The second phase as in "The Origin of Speech" and "Logical considerations in the study of animal communication" which deals with the thirteen 'properties' of human language. III. The later publications where he added three more features to the list of thirteen and in which his attention is more focused on the systematic 'properties' of language. Let us now look at the features of human language that are distinct from animal communication with a briefing on them.

NSOU PGEL-4 236 3.4 Features of Language 3.4.1 Arbitrariness The relationship that exists between a linguistic form and the meaning assigned to it is arbitrary. There is no natural connection or any obviousness between them unlike, animal communication. It may not be a real object or bear any 'iconic' resemblance to the object or the linguistic form (word) that it denotes. Or, for that matter, take any word or a sign in any language which may or may not be the same meaning in other languages. Even, the games that a child plays are shown to fit in the activity they indicate but, in actuality, it is only the arbitrariness of the meaning which is emphasized in human language use. The exceptions in this arbitrary use are the onomatopoeic sounds that replicate its meaning, or mimics the thing described. E.g., the booming sound, high speed bumps echo the sounds of their respective objects. However, in animal communication this does not hold good possibly, because of the finite communication structure unlike, human communication which is infinite and unlimited. In addition, animal communication takes place only at certain situations and not always. In human language the communication occurs at various levels - verbal, non-verbal and at random and at every situation. In human language, the meanings are assigned and conveyed by conventions. Think: Can you bring in here the concept of semiotics as propounded by Saussure? 3.4.2 Turn-taking or Inter-changeability Have you noticed the undercurrent during a conversation between one speaker and another? We have noticed that formal lectures and/or speeches are characterized by uninterrupted monologues or elaborate social discussions. Whatever the case be, these are clearly marked by turn takings maybe frequent or change in turns or single-turn NSOU PGEL-4 237 in intervals. There are clear indications of beginnings, middle or end. In cases of single-turn there may be indications of an active listener. These do not demand preparations to be involved in language use. Hockett, thus, calls this as another unique feature in human language. You must have noticed that these turn takings could also be visible in the babies who may have just begun to use single or double words or even in infants who take their turns by making noises. A mother and her baby interact by the use of sounds or simple words yet, exchange of information and/or meanings take place. 3.4.3 Rapid Fading or Transitoriness It is surprising that language signals are temporary and fade out the moment they are communicated. There is no trail of the communication made. It is when the speech sounds are required to be made the signals are sent and received (both by the speaker and the listener) at the time of the utterance but, there could be no recovery of the signals once transmitted. In this sense, it is transitory. It disappears instantly or fades our immediately once the utterance is over. 3.4.4 Displacement It suggests that human language use is not limited or bound by time and place (or space). https://www.ellenfinkelstein.com/pptblog/present-theres-time-prepare/ It can go beyond present and talk about an incident that happened in the past or is likely to take place in the future which is not possible in animal communication. This is because human language can refer to past and present tense or can calculate a time in future. There are time markers in any language not restricted to English alone, every language has time markers be it Bengali, Hindi and so on. For example: They went to the zoo (yesterday). Even without the use of yesterday

NSOU PGEL-4 238 the word 'went' is suggestive of past (tense marker). Or, They will go to the zoo (tomorrow). 'Will go' is the future time marker which by itself is sufficient to convey the sense of future and 'tomorrow' is not required. Let us take another example: They have come from Japan or they will go to Japan. Here, the word (or the preposition) 'from' or 'to' suggests beyond here and now. It is understood that, they do not belong to that place but, another place. Again, for instance: They will meet us at 6.00 pm on 31 January 2022. It embeds one concept of time into another (at 6p.m. (on 31 January 2022)). It also allows the users of human language to talk about things and places which are not real but, imaginary; e.g. Heaven, hell, fairies, angels, superman, batman, Santa Claus and so on. Thus, displacement in any utterances refers to language use that does not correspond with reality or may not be temporarily or physically present at the time of communication. Any human language has this displacement unlike animal communication because they cannot refer to things or events beyond the present moment. 3.4.5 Dual Structure (Duality of patterning) We have studied what is meant by language? Language receives its name as and when we assign some sound, signs and symbols, syntactic structure and so on that pertain to some language community say, English, Hindi, Bengali etc. Even, if you look at the word 'language' itself you will see that the sounds /l/, /g/ etc arranged in some order. Only then the word 'language' gets its shape. All these indicate that, all the discrete units are arranged in some pattern and they combine to create some meaning through their interrelation. Now, the question is how do they combine? This combination takes place at two levels - sound level and word level. At the sound level, the smallest unit of sound in a particular language is called a phoneme. Each phoneme (or sound) does not carry meaning in themselves (except 'I' which is the shortest possible word consisting of a single phoneme). For example, /p/, /i/, /n/are individual phonemes at the sound level. https://etestinc.com/acoustic.htm

NSOU PGEL-4 239 The word level, individual phonemes combine to form words which again combine to form phrases and larger grammatical units as in sentence structure. Example given, /p/, /i/, /n/ combines to form [pin]. This combination enables to create infinite set of words and phrases and the words/phrases combine to create infinite number of sentence structures with meanings of their own. These combinations can take place in a number of ways depending upon the purpose of sentence creation. 3.4.6 Discreteness Every language has its own set of sounds and signs. We know sounds (phonemes) combine to form words. Thus, words composed of several sounds combine in a particular order and create a different meaning. Each of these sounds is different from the rest and combines in different ways to form altogether different meaning. For example, the sounds /g/, / d / combine to form God which bears a particular meaning but, the same sounds when combine in dog has a completely different meaning. In this case, you can also make an observation that the same sounds were repeated but, combined differently to form a new meaning. Similarly, the sounds in 'but' and 'tub' are juxtaposed to form two different meanings. Thus, exchanging the discrete (separate) units in a language can form different meanings in that language use. This explains why infinite sentences (infinite thoughts) can be formed with limited linguistic symbols or signs. Moreover, language is context bound and as a result, the same sentence can differ widely in different contexts. Discreteness in human language use, thus works at various levels. Discreteness suggests boundary or segmentation between each linguistic symbol in a language. The linguistic symbols are discrete or separate from one another. Take an example: she has come. It states a fact. The discrete units can be segmented part by part into 'she' (subject), 'has' (auxiliary verb) and 'come' (main verb). But the same discrete units when placed interchangeably 'Has she come' become a question instead of a statement. The meaning in the latter case is totally different than the former. Again, the sounds in human language can be syncopated and used repeatedly unlike the animal communication which are continuous sounds and cannot be syncopated. 3.4.7 Semanticity Semantics, as the word suggests, signifies meanings ascribed to linguistic forms - words and/or sentences. The words are the signs and the meanings associated to them are 'relatively fixed'. It is to be understood here, that a single object can significantly vary in its meanings in the target language as much as it may vary in target language

NSOU PGEL-4 240 (say, English) to that of any other human language (say, French). For example, 'bank' could signify bank of a river or a financial institution; 'mole' could mean a mark on skin or a small animal. In the same (target) language, here, English, a word meaning varies considerably. Contrarily, the word 'mutton' in English has a different connotation than it has in its French origin; or, for that matter, in Indian context too, it signifies the meat of a sheep whereas, in some other language (outside US) it signifies living animal. Thus, we find that Semanticity is again arbitrarily or conventionally assigned. The use of the word 'school' is immediately associated with some ideas and related thoughts. Semanticity is the relationship between the real object (the school building) or the element and the arbitrary symbol expressed through words (morphemes or phonemes) or ideas (here, school suggests a place where education takes place, teacher, student, and so on). The associated ideas with a school assign a meaning to the linguistic form 'school'. https://www.iaspaper.net/school-life-short-essay-children/my-school-essay/ Food for thought: Can you jot down the ideas that you get associated looking at this image? 3.4.8 Productivity Creativity or openness are other terms associated with productivity. It is the capacity to produce the utterances or the ability to use the language and produce infinite number of newer utterances. It is this capacity that enables the development of utterances from simple to complex forms, or, using single vowels, double vowels, or, monosyllabic word to disyllabic word and so on through the various stages of child's growth and development. And every linguistic sign carries in themselves an array of associated or disjointed concepts. For example: the word 'book'. It could refer to a law book or Cantos of a poem or could also mean book a ticket. As meanings are arbitrarily assigned, infinite references can be made.

NSOU PGEL-4 241 Would you mind taking a quick look through: Speech development stages - babbling, cooing. It might be an aid to your understanding of the process of speech mechanism. You will learn on these in detail in the next semester. https://fr.dreamstime.com/illustration/id%C3%A9e.html 3.4.9 Vocal-Auditory Channel Human communication involves a speaker and a receiver. And, communication could be verbal or non-verbal or visual or written. Verbal communication involves speaker - one who speaks and a receiver - one who receives. The speaker uses vocal cords and other speech organs to produce patterns of sound or speech waves and the receiver (listener) receives the speech waves through the auditory channel (ear), and processes the speech waves to interpret the sound produced. The production of speech depends upon or is the result of a combined series of function

which is not applicable in case of animal communication. e.g., Traffic signal does not come to us to tell what to do; it only signals a particular sign that we interpret it in accordance to the context. Likewise, a mother signals by calling the name of her child (say, Sita) and Sita receives the sound waves of the phonemes /s/, /i:/, /t/, /a/ through the auditory channel (ears) to understand that she has been called by her mother and acts accordingly. 3.4.10 Specialization It is the wonder of human language use that it is solely used for the purpose of utterance and/or communication and not for any other biological functions like eating, sleeping and so on. We may express other activities through the language use but, language use is solely for communication. Eating, sleeping are other aspects or reciprocation of human behaviour. The specialization of human behaviour lies in the fact that, though there is no direct link of sound waves with human behaviour yet, NSOU PGEL-4 242 human behaviour is the result of transfer of sound waves or signals between the sender and receiver. 3.4.11 Broadcast transmission and Directional reception Have you ever witnessed a child or yourself trying to throw laser light in the sky but, it is scattered all around in the space and lost into oblivion? Likewise, have you ever thought the sound waves during a verbal communication come from a speaker as waveforms which too might be scattered in all directions yet, the listener responds? It is because of the fact that, human communication system broadcast sound waves and signals are transmitted in all directions of 'auditory space' through the transmission point or the mouth. The listener receives the waves and tries to locate the point of origin of the sound waves as emanating from a specific direction. The linguistic signals so transmitted could be picked up by anyone in the range of the wave signals. 3.4.12 Cultural transmission Apart from the innate ability to learn language and produce infinite sentences, humans can also transfer the linguistic system as specific to one's community to the succeeding generations as part of their culture. Language is not learnt in isolation (example, the famous case of Genie) but in a context and thus naturally inherited by the users of that language because the child lives and grows in a particular speech community. It may be in one's native community or could be non-native but lives in a society where it acquires the linguistic symbols in which it grows and listen the sounds constantly specific to the language in use. Language, here, the mother tongue, is transmitted from one generation to the succeeding. As offspring we acquire our first language in such transmissions. 3.4.13 Total feedback Have you ever noticed that whatever we say we hear it ourselves along with the listener? But, do we see the signals that come from our body movements? The answer is no. We do not see the signals that the various parts of our body sends time to time, that is to say, we receive the signals that we send (sender and receiver). We can thus monitor the output communication as and when we communicate. Thus, the cycle of communication becomes complete (total) with the feedback.

NSOU PGEL-4 243 3.5 Human Language To these features, Hockett in his later works adds three more features as unique to human language and different from animal communication. These are: Prevarication, Reflexiveness and Learnability. Prevarication: it is the capacity of human language to falsify the linguistic message or prove it untrue (simply meaning 'lie). Reflexiveness: it is the capacity to reflect on a language by using one's language. In the process, newer adoptions in meaning may/may not take place in the use of same or new words. Hence, the communication that occurs is reflexive or spontaneous. Learnability: it is the capacity of humans to learn a language be it their native language and/or other non-native languages. The sooner the language learning takes place better is the acquisition rate. 3.6 Uniqueness of Human Language In this context, the following features have also been discussed by the linguists that talk of uniqueness of human language in comparison to those of animal communication. Redundancy Dictionary defines it as that which is no longer in use or is needed. In language use too this could be implied. We understand that language use also has certain shortfalls. For example, in some cases, human tends to use more words and information than that is actually required. This involves more time and space to remember or make effective communication happen. In such cases it is worthwhile to cut short or trim the extra words or information that is not required. This is what we term redundancy in language use. In some other cases, we tend to repeat words that are not necessary; for e.g. repeat again, repeat in itself is suggestive of to be said more than once; or, take for instance, 'ask question', ask itself suggests to pose a question. Hence, using 'question' is superfluous. We often say, ATM machine where machine is inbuilt in the acronym ATM (automated teller machine). Here, machine becomes redundant. It only creates confusion to a reader in the creation of meaning and the superfluous words so used is an unnecessary attempt to pump in more sense but, it ultimately does not help. "If it is possible to cut a word out, always cut it out."- George Orwell

NSOU PGEL-4 244 Again, consider for example 'I am'. Although 'I' and 'am' have synonymous meaning yet, abiding by the grammar rules in English, we cannot say 'am Suman' because it doesn't allow dropping pronoun. But, the same could be said in Italian (Sono Suman). This again becomes a case of redundancy. It is to be understood here, that it is not only in the use of English language but, all languages have instances of redundancy. Spontaneous use Just as it is, sometimes, tough to stop humans from using language because that is spontaneous likewise, in some other cases, humans learn the use of language spontaneously from their environment. Not that always they are forced to use language or taught forcibly. It could be noticed in the teachers or the parents trying desperately to make their students/children stop talking continuously (here, the children are talking naturally and in spontaneous flow and not forced to use language) or vice versa, where children are pissed off with their adults speaking on and on. Have you come across a situation in some social gatherings where it is extremely noisy and/or chaotic because people are deeply engrossed in spontaneous conversations maybe needless? These are the cases of spontaneous language use. Also think of situations where the language is acquired and learnt spontaneously. They are not forced to acquire but, it happens spontaneously from their interaction with the environment they are exposed to. Hockett terms these as 'Spontaneous use' and 'Spontaneous acquisition' respectively.

http://me.hse.ru/knowledgebase/2018/04/19/how-to-have-more-fun-learning/ However, it is also to be understood that in spite of the fact, that, Hockett's concept of properties of human language have spearheaded and notably contributed to research in this field, yet, it is not beyond criticism. Hockett's concept has been criticized on grounds that it revolves around similarities/dissimilarities at the surface level; and, secondly, it deals with the uniqueness of human language based on assumed perspectives of the understandings of language and its aspects.

NSOU PGEL-4 245 3.7 Summary This unit has focussed on the features of human language as propounded by Charles Hockett and the nitty-gritty of their contexts under which a language function. The module has also highlighted the development and/or the ideational process of designing the features of human language. It is imperative on the part of the learners to understand the background for conceptual development. It is also strongly recommended that while understanding the concepts the learners too attempt a critical observation on them and reflect their own perspectives and nurture an inquisitive mind. The questions that are distributed through the unit intend to enable develop the critical thinking skills and a reasoning mind. 3.8 Review Questions 1. Can you think of situations where language is culturally transmitted? 2. Can you name the property of the language that enables us to think of future contexts? 3. Take a short

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quiz 5 i. What is language? a. A species specific system of calls b. Something that stands for something else c. A system of arbitrary symbols used to communicate d. Transfer of information from one person to another e. A system of speech patterns ii. Which of Charles Hockett's sixteen design features of language refers to the ability to talk about absent or nonexistent objects? a. Arbitrariness b. Displacement c. Openness d. Semanticity e. Prevarication iii. What is meant by the duality of pattering (i.e., what are the two levels at which language is patterned?) a. Sound and grammar b. Sound and meaning NSOU PGEL-4 246 c. Grammar and meaning d. Phonetics and syntax e. Phonemes and morphemes

iv.

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The study of language in the context of its use is called a. Phonology b. Morphology c. Syntax d. Semantics e. Pragmatics 4.

From your reading of Unit III, think of your language use and/or utterances in a given situation and see if any new feature could be traced from your understanding. Jot it in your notebook. 3.9 References and Reading List a. Yule, George. 2006. The Study of Language. 3rd edn. / 9780521543200/ 2006. India. Cambridge University Press. b. Wacewicz, Slawomir et al. 2015. "Language Evolution: Why Hockett's Design Features are a Non-Starter". Springer : 29-46, https://link.springer.com/article/ 10.1007/s12304-014-9203-2. c. Cook, G. 2003. "The "design features" of language, Applied Linguistics". n. pag.https://www.open.edu/openlearn/ocw/pluginfile.php/619579/mod_resource/ content/1/e854_1_design_features_of_language.pdf. d. Hu, Yajing. 2018. "Media Theory and Meaning Systems". Word Press. n. pag. https://blogs.commons.georgetown.edu/cctp-748-spring2018/2018/02/07/ discrete-infinity-of-language/. e. Higher Education Group. "Anthropology: What does it mean to be human?". 2nd edn. Oxford University Press. n. d. https://global.oup.com/us/ companion.websites/9780195392876/student/chapter9/quiz/. Notes 1 & 2 https://link.springer.com/article/10.1007/s12304-014-9203-2 3 https://link.springer.com/article/10.1007/s12304-014-9203-2 4 https://link.springer.com/article/10.1007/s12304-014-9203-2 5 https://global.oup.com/us/companion.websites/9780195392876/student/chapter9/quiz/

Unit 4 Language Variety—Dialects, Sociolects, Idiolects 4.1 Introduction 4.2 Objectives 4.3 Language Variety 4.4 Dialects 4.5 Sociolects 4.6 Registers 4.7 Summary 4.8 Review Questions 4.9 References and Reading List 4.1 Introduction In the previous units we have learnt about language, its various perspectives and the different sounds that are produced in English. We also learnt about how language is related to a given context. We know language functions in a given situation and does not exist outside a society which is based on human interaction. From your reading of this unit, you will know the various connotations of language. 4.2

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Objectives At the end of this unit the learners will be able to Understand the

concepts in language use Apply the acquired knowledge Know about the concepts in language variety 4.3 Language Variety Language is socio-cultural phenomenon and it cannot exist outside a social context in isolation. Language use is very much a human predominance and privilege. We talk about Bengali, Hindi, English, Tamil, Urdu and other languages. But, these are just the labels used to refer to a system of systems, abstraction of abstractions. In other 247

NSOU PGEL-4 248 words, each of them has a chain of varieties, that is to say, varieties of English, Tamil, Bengali or Hindi, etc. Language variety differs in accordance to the geographical region in which it is used, the context and the situation where it is to be used. Task 1: Take a little time to find out the total number of districts in West Bengal at present. Your answer: Almost, each district has a distinct variety of Bengali, perhaps, that is spoken. Think in your contexts; we talk of Bihari Hindi, Khariboli Hindi, and Bhojpuri Hindi. Likewise, we talk of British English, American English, Australian English, Canadian English, Indian English, and Singaporean English and so on. Human language, according to Ferdinand-de-Saussure, is composed of two aspects viz. Langue and parole. Langue is the abstract system of words, phrases, pronunciation, and a system specific to any language community in all its forms and manifestations but, not the speech performance. Parole is the actual speech performance or the actual act of speaking/performance. It is the set of all the systems put together to make the utterance happen in actuality. Parole is thus, the spoken part and langue is the composite of all the linguistic components. Langue is more a social phenomenon as it represents social manifestations appropriate to a particular social community. For example, the manifestations of language in Chinese would differ widely from that of the Japanese and so on. Langue (System) Parole (Actual utterance) Code Encoding of the message Social Individual adoptions Fixed Free Psychological Psycho-physical Source: R L Varshney and S K Verma As we have just mentioned, language (say English) is a sum of varieties of (English) languages available. Thus, it varies in terms of its patterns of formation in accordance to its geographical location. Variety of language in the words of Ferguson, Anybody of speech patterns which is sufficiently homogeneous to be analysed by available large repertory of elements and their arrangements or processes with broad enough semantic scope to function in all formal contexts of communication

NSOU ? PGEL-4 249 Thus, from this we can understand, that, a language indicates a speaker's origin and social identifiers like class, caste in some cases, religion, ethnicity and sense of decorum through the choice of words. Let us now take a look through the various concepts associated with language. 4.4 Dialects It refers to language variation and a single language is a combination of many dialects. When people in a particular community share same ways (what and how) of speaking it is called a dialect of that community. There are sentences spoken in American or British English that share the same meaning and may also look same in structure. Such may be an instance of using a standard form of English although may have different accent in speaking. For example, in both American and British English the sentence structure and meaning of 'How are you?' may be alike though, would differ in respective pronunciations. But, there could also be cases when sentences share the same meaning but, differ in structure as the case may be among different dialects of English or Bengali language. There could be differences in terms of pronunciation, or vocabulary or an altogether different grammatical structure. This is a case of one dialect of English (or, Bengali) language specific to a particular region. Let us take some examples of dialects of Bengali language:

NSOU PGEL-4 250 From your understanding of the table above, you may now, perhaps, relate to similar variations of dialects in English language. Dialects in English language too, may vary in structure, vocabulary or pronunciation because of regional variations although meaning may remain the same. This happens because of the specificity of a particular region or a geographical area. Let us also take a look through the variations in English language. American English -case of geographical variation British English - case of geographical Variation Regional dialects of English in England Regional dialects of English in the Great lakes region of America 1 You missed the show. It just ended. You've missed the show. It has just ended. 1. Yorkshire (dialectical variants could also be found in Yorkshire region in itself) 2. Received Pronunciation (RP) 3. Lancashire 4. Kentish 5. Sussex The Great lakes region of America includes: Eight U.S. states of Illinois, Indiana, Michigan, Minnesota, NewYork, Ohio, Pennsylvania and Wisconsin as well as the Canadian province of Ontario. Each of these states have their specific variations of dialects of English being spoken in North America. 2 I already visited that place. I have already visited that place. ------- ------- 3 Joy feels tired, he ate too much. Joy feels tired, he has eaten too much. ------- ------- Dialects could be regional or social. Let us understand these from our existing conceptions that we already have in our respective situations. For example, Khariboli is spoken in central India (Delhi, UP, Southern Uttara Khand) and Braj Bhasha of North-Central (Bihar, Gujarat, MP, WB) India are regional dialects of Hindi. Dialects are also classified or segmented based on rural and urban users. Or, to say, Hindi spoken in Benares and in Bihar are regional varieties. Again, dialects are also stratified on the basis of caste and class divisions of a society. In many cases, social stratification is identified or recognised by the use of vocabulary, accent and sentence structure. A dialect so based on social influences and stratification of a society is called Sociolect. Bengali too has its dialects. Suniti Kumar Chatterjee and Sukumar Sen have contributed substantially to the field of Bengali phonological study. According to their classification, Bengali dialects have been categorised into six main types: Rarhi, Bangali, Varendri, Manbhumi, Rajbanshi, Sundarbani dialects based on geographical regions where they are spoken -West Central dialects, Eastern dialects, South Bengal dialects, North Bengal dialects or Western border dialects.

NSOU PGEL-4 251 Likewise, the variety of English spoken in Yorkshire to that of English spoken in Scotland are the regional dialects of English. Scottish English, Irish English, English spoken in England, Wales are the regional dialects of English in Europe, or, say, English spoken in Canada, USA are the regional variations in North America. The English spoken in India, Singapore, and Bangladesh are the varieties of English spoken in Asia. Dialects are also classified on the basis of social standards like, in many communities the upper-class dialect of the Brahmins differ from those in the bottom-line or margins. Similarly, we talk about English being spoken by the educated speakers of England, Queen's English, and BBC English as the prestige dialects based on socio-political factors. These prestige dialects acquire the status of 'standard language'. The social stratification matters that some varieties become more prestigious. The political or the cultural milieu leads to the frequency of its use. It needs to be understood that none of the dialects could be compared to designate 'better' than the other. They are different from one another in linguistic terms. From the social point of view, dialects flourish also on the basis of its frequency of its use - spoken or literary. For example, we talk of 'cholit bhasha' (that which is in current use or colloquial) and 'sadhu bhasha' (prestigious use in written texts) but, not much in use now as we find language has taken many inclusions from day-to-day usages. A dialect differs from an idiolect in the sense that, each speaker of a dialect differs from other speakers of the same dialect in their individual way of pronouncing. The characteristic features of speaking vary from one person to another using the same dialect. This is called the idiolect of an individual. The study of dialects is known as dialectology. A dialect is identified accordingly. Task 2: Reflect on what you have understood: Answer the following questions: 1. How would you differentiate dialect from an idiolect? 2. From your understanding of social dialect and regional dialect can you justify the following statement? "If children move to an area before the age of nine, they are able to 'pick up' the local dialect which their parents cannot." Your answer:

NSOU PGEL-4 252 4.5 Sociolects The dialect spoken by the members of a particular class or a particular group is called Sociolect. It is otherwise known as social dialect. The formation of these dialects is governed by social factors like, socio-economic divisions, or divisions on the basis of religion. It clearly demarcates the members belonging to the strata of society. For example, English spoken by 'upper', 'middle' and 'lower' class in London are clearly stratified, just as, in our context we see such dialectal division by the Tamil speakers based on social stratification. The use of the verb "ain't" is more common with the working-class speech than in middle-class speech. It thus functions as a social marker. Another such marker could be dropping 'h' sound in certain class utterances. This is particularly noticed when the sound /h/ occurs in the initial position. It is an indication of educational level, profession and ethnicity of the respective class. The social dialects differ in terms of phonology, phonetics, morphology and syntax. A sociolect is directly linked with the speaker's social background. In this context, 'class' becomes a social variable and the pronunciation or the word becomes a 'linguistic variable'. The individuals who study sociolects are known as sociolinguists. Such studies enable a close analysis of social psychology, identifies attitudes and perceptions. 4.6 Registers We have learnt that dialects are based on language users. Likewise, registers are based on language use or the stylistic yet, functional varieties. On a narrow note, registers could be referred to as jargons used in respective domains that is appropriate in a specific context e.g., sports, fishing, linguistic, religious, legal, medical, advertising and other professions. There are registers that are associated with specific work or interest related to technical field e.g. engineering. Let us look at some of the registers associated with different types of profession and education:

Word/lexical item	Register
1 Slogan, commercials, buzz	Advertising
2 Blood pressure, stethoscope, heartbeat, pulse rate, prescription	Medical
3 Orthodox, pious, theist, atheist, prayer, worship	Religion

NSOU PGEL-4 253 4 Athletics, coach, club, dodge ball, referee, practice, victory, loser Sports 5 Books, teacher, student, attendance, class Education 6 Justice, adjournment, affidavit, appeal, court Legal Task 3: Can you now prepare a list of registers from fields of your choice and present understanding? Lexical items Register 1 2. 3. 4. 5. Again, the special use of words in a language as registers of that profession is different from the way the same word is used in general understanding. Like, the word mouse as a technical term is the register of Computer whereas the same word in general means a rodent, which is a pest. Halliday has pointed out that, three variables together make up a register. These are field, tenor and mode. Field is the subject matter of the text; tenor is defined as the relationship between the communicators and the mode is the medium of communication. If, English Language Teaching is the field then, student-teacher relationship is the tenor and the pedagogical styles or the way/ s of interaction in constructing the communication is the mode. A register may also be determined on the basis of speech and written use that is to say, the medium of expression. In this, we again find distinct differences in the usage of terms in respective cases of the medium of speech to that of writing. For example, in cases of formal and informal speech, conversation, talk, debate, and discussion they have particular registers associated to each of them. Likewise, in writing, we have different types of official letters, business letters, biography or an autobiography, a poem or an interview or a report. The text markers would differ from each other in accordance to their medium of expression as applicable. Consider the salutation in an official letter Dear Sir or the closing Yours sincerely to that of Hi Swati or Lovingly in a friendly letter. Or, in a speech occasion Hi Guys to that of Hello everyone. Thus, in the words of J Ellis: "By register, itself a linguistic, not situational category, is meant a division of

NSOU PGEL-4 254 idiolect, or what is common to dialects, distinguished by formal (and possibly substantial) features and correlated with types of situations of utterance (these distinguished by such components as those here enumerated)."[On Contextual Meaning, p. 83] Task 4: Identify texts of different domains and this may include real life conversations and/or reading of texts, advertisements. Take a copy of them or a cut out. Then locate the registers in each domain. You may think to repeat the same activity with your students in their respective context. 4.7 Summary The present unit of Paper 4 focussed on the proper usage of terminologies as applicable and needed to be understood as a language learner and facilitator. The subtle demarcations between the language registers would enable to grasp the concepts in a better way in relation to language learning. Linguistically, it enables to communicate in one's speech communities using same registers and thereby, the sociological perspective and basis also gains further importance. It functions as social identity markers and also, as unique features of a language spoken and/used in a particular region. Alongside, the cultural elements too connect globally. 4.8 Review Questions 1. Can you identify some dialects (or, language variations) in the language that you use? 2. Discuss how dialects differ from one another. 3. Give five reasons from your understanding of the concept/s in the present module on the importance of knowing about dialects. 4. Explain your considerations on any three social factors of your choice in the creation of social significance of a language. 5. Rethink on your considerations for answer to question number (4) and justify the basis of prioritising them (the three factors that you have chosen). 6. Attempt a critical appreciation of your own understanding of the concepts as read in this module as in how do they influence language learning. Do add your own perspectives. 7. What is an idiolect? Cite five examples from a language that you speak.

NSOU PGEL-4 255 8. Discuss field, tenor and mode. Illustrate with examples. 9. Cite two examples of registers from advertising. 10 Cite examples of the dialects of British English. 4.9 References and Reading List 1. Ellis, J. 1966."On Contextual Meaning". In Memory of J.R. Firth. C.E. Bazell and J.R. Firth (Eds). London : Longman. 2. Verma, S.K. 2008-09.

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NSOU PGEL-4 256 Module 2 : Principles of Language and Linguistics as Science-2 Unit 5 Linguistics : An Introduction 2.1 Introduction 2.2 Objectives 2.3 Origin of Language 2.3.1 Nature and Natural Sounds 2.3.2 Neanderthal 2.3.3 Adaptations 5.1 Introduction 5.2 Objectives 5.3 What is Linguistics? 5.4 What is Language? 5.5 The Origins of Language 5.5.1 Characteristics of Language 5.5.2 How does language work? 5.6 The Design Features of Language 5.7 Linguistic Knowledge 5.7.1 Arbitrary Relation of Form and Meaning 5.7.2 Knowledge of the Sound System 5.8 The goal of Linguistics 5.9 Structural Notions in Linguistics 5.9.1 Characteristics of open vs closed classes 5.9.2 Talking about language and linguistic data 5.9.3 The grammatical core 5.10 Areas of Linguistics 5.11 Summary 5.12 Review Questions 5.13 References and Reading List 256

NSOU PGEL-4 257 5.1 Introduction In this unit, we will introduce you to the notions of linguistics i.e. language and linguistic sign, the approach is to look at human languages with salient examples. We have used examples from Bangla, English, Hindi and other languages as required. The unit ends with a brief overview of various components of linguistics. You will learn more about these components in the next unit. 5.2 Objectives After going through this unit, you will learn: The basic concepts of linguistics, The prime objectives of Linguistics in understanding the nature of human languages, How to look at linguistic data and understand the metalanguage. 5.3 What is Linguistics? The first primordial question that comes to our mind is what is Linguistics? Linguistics, in a nutshell, is the scientific study of languages. This language can be a spoken language or a sign language used by the human beings. Besides, we can also study artificial languages such as Esperanto under linguistics.

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According to Robins (1993), Linguistics is concerned with human language as a universal and recognizable part of the human behaviour and human faculties.

Let us try and understand the notions of language in terms of linguistics. 5.4 What is Language? According to Kracht

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Languages are sets of signs. Signs combine an exponent (a sequence of letters or sounds) with a meaning.

As we know a sign comprises of a signifier (the form or the shape) and the signified (the meaning represented by the form or the concept), the idea was originally propagated by Ferdinand D. Saussure in a book posthumously published named 'A Course in General Linguistics'. (Course Generale de la Linguistica) Grammars are essentially considered

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ways to generate signs from more basic signs. Signs combine a form and a meaning, and they are identical with neither their exponent nor with their meaning.

For example, the word for tree in Bangla is /gach/ which comprises of sounds g,
NSOU PGEL-4 258 a, ch and when someone puts them together it evokes an image of a tree but there is nothing inherent about those sounds that they must correspond to a tree all the time. This property is called arbitrariness which is one of the most important components of language. Language

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is a semiotic system. By that, we simply mean that it is a set of signs.

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For example, in English, the string /cat/ is a signifier, and its signified is, say, cathood, or the set of all

cats. Sign systems are largely ubiquitous in the sense consider the objects such as

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clocks, road signs, pictograms. They all are parts of sign systems. Language differs from them only in its complexity. This explains why language signs have much more internal structure than ordinary signs.

Ordinary signs are largely iconic, language can talk about non-iconic entities.

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Language allows expressing virtually every thought that we possess, and the number of signs that we can produce is literally

infinite. Is it not evident

that we are able to understand utterances that we have never heard before? Every

day, billions of sentences are uttered by speakers of natural languages yet most of these are novel except in case of repetition. This aspect of language is called recursion. Consider the example below which explains that language gives us infinite possibilities to generate sentences- i. John eats, ii. John eats an apple, iii. I know that John eats an apple, iv. I know you told me that John eats an apple. 5.5 The origins of language Modern man has existed for about 200,000 years albeit after 50,000 BC language had developed with all the structural properties, something, which can be considered as a fully developed sign system. Language is largely an evolutionary phenomenon which is adapted to the communicative needs of its speakers. The organs of speech are biologically secondary (for example tongue helps us swallowing the food) but their development has led to a specialized function such as language. It is argued that the flexibility of the tongue or the relatively deep larynx distinguishes humans from higher primates and they have helped in developing human languages. 5.5.1 Characteristics of Language Linguists vary in their definitions of language. However, all agree that language is a system of vocal signs with an internal structure. It is used for human communication.

NSOU PGEL-4 259 Language is a medium for carrying a social message. As we know that the relationship between signs and what is symbolized is arbitrary but fixed by social convention. The system is stimulus-free and non-random. Language demonstrates a duality of structure in having building blocks (phonemes) and units consisting of these (words). A large number of meaningful units can be formulated out of a small number of building blocks. Languages vary greatly in their form and this has led some linguists to imagine that one's native language determines the way one thinks. The famous Sapir-Whorf hypothesis is a linguistic theory which argues that the semantic structure of a language shapes or limits how a speaker conceptualizes the world. It came about in 1929. The theory is named after the American anthropological linguist Edward Sapir (1884- 1939) and his student Benjamin Whorf (1897-1941). It is also known as the theory of linguistic relativity, linguistic relativism. 5.5.2 How does language work? There is no doubt that we live in a world of languages. We talk to our friends, our associates, our spouses, our lovers, our teachers, our parents, our rivals, and even our enemies. We talk to vendors and total strangers. We talk face-to-face and over the skype, and everyone responds with more talk. Even in our dreams we talk and are talking to. We also talk when there is no one to answer. Some of us talk aloud in our sleep. We talk to our pets and sometimes to ourselves. The possession of language, perhaps more than any other attribute, distinguishes humans from other animals. We need to understand that language is the source of human life and power. "To some people of Africa, a newborn child is a kintu, a "thing," not yet a muntu, a "person." Only by the act of learning language does the child become a human being. According to this tradition, we all become "human" because we all know at least one language."- (Fromkin, Rodman, & Hyams, 2011). 5.6 The 'Design Features' of Language Let us revise on the features we have learnt in Module 1, from a linguists view point. Charles Hockett (1954), proposed a set of '

design features of language'. I Vocal-auditory channel It refers to the idea that speaking/hearing is the mode humans use for language. When Hockett first defined this feature, he did not take sign language into account.

This feature has since been modified to include other channels of language, such as tactile-visual or chemical-olfactory. NSOU PGEL-4 260 II. Broadcast transmission and directional reception Sounds get transmitted in all directions

usually when humans speak.

However, listeners perceive the direction from which the sounds are coming. Similarly, signers broadcast to potentially anyone within the line of sight, while watching who is signing. This is characteristic of most forms of human and animal communication. III. Transitoriness

It is also defined as rapid fading. Transitoriness refers to the idea of

the temporary quality of language. Sounds of human language exist for only a brief period of time, after which they are no longer perceived. Sound waves quickly disappear once

the

speaker stops speaking. This is also true of signs. In contrast, other forms of communication such as writing are more permanent. IV. Interchangeability Interchangeability refers to the idea that humans can give and receive identical linguistic signals; humans are not limited in the types of messages they can say/hear. One can say "I am a man" even if one is a woman. This is not to be confused with lying (prevarication).

Not all species possess this feature. For example, in order to communicate their status, queen ants produce chemical scents that no other ants can produce. V. Total feedback Speakers of a language can hear their speech. They can control and modify what they are saying as they say it. Similarly, signers see, realize and control their signing. VI. Specialization The purpose of linguistic signals is communication.

They are not produced for

some other biological function like bird calls. When humans speak or sign, it is generally intentional.

VII.

Semanticity Specific sound signals are directly tied to certain meanings.

Everyone loves someone - in this example, everyone and someone are quantifiers. Everyone is considered as universal quantifier and someone existential quantifier. VIII.

Arbitrariness Languages are generally made up of both arbitrary and iconic symbols. In spoken languages,

this takes the form of onomatopoeias. In Bangla "tapurtupur", in Mandarin "mǒo" (cat). In ASL "cup", "me" "up/down", etc.

There is no intrinsic or logical NSOU PGEL-4 261 connection between a sound form (signal) and

its meaning. This fact

is demonstrated by the fact that different languages attribute very different names to the same object.

IX.

Discreteness Linguistic representations can be broken down into small discrete units which combine with each other in rule-governed ways. They are perceived categorically, not continuously. For example, Bangla marks number with the plural morpheme /gulo/, which can be added to the end of any noun. The plural morpheme is perceived categorically, not continuously: we cannot express smaller or larger quantities by varying how loudly we pronounce the /-

gulo/. X. Displacement The term

displacement refers to the idea that humans can talk about things that are not physically present or that do not even exist. Speakers can talk about the past and the future, and can express hopes and dreams. This is certainly one of the features that separate human language from other forms of primate communication. XI. Productivity

It

refers to the idea that language-users can create and understand novel utterances.

Utterances they have never heard before.

Humans are able to produce an unlimited amount of propositions. Also related to productivity is the concept of grammatical patterning, which facilitates the use and comprehension of language. Language is a dynamic phenomenon. New idioms are created all the time and the meaning of signals can vary depending on the context and situation.

XII. Traditional transmission It is considered as cultural transmission.

While humans are born with innate language capabilities, language is learned after birth in a social setting.

Children

learn how to speak by interacting with experienced language users.

It can be further shaped by cultural settings. XIII. Duality of patterning You now realize that

meaningful messages are made up of distinct smaller meaningful units (words and morphemes) which themselves are made up of distinct smaller, meaningless units (phonemes). XIV. Prevarication

This design feature shows

the ability to lie or deceive. When using language, humans can make false or meaningless statements.

NSOU PGEL-4 262 XV. Reflexiveness Humans use language to talk about language. Something we have described as a metalanguage in section 5.9.2. XVI. Learnability The way speakers learn

a

Linguistic knowledge What does it mean to "know" a language? As mentioned previously, knowing the sounds and sound patterns in our language constitutes only a part of our linguistic knowledge. Getting knowledge of a language also indicates knowing that certain sequences of sounds express certain concepts or meanings. Speakers of Bangla know what kal means, and that it contrasts with the meaning of /khal/ or /bhejal/. This means when you know a language, you know words in that language, that is, which sequences of sounds are related to specific meanings and which are not. 5.7.1 Arbitrary Relation of Form and Meaning The moment we set eyes on an object we know what it is. We don't have to think twice; the right name comes out instantly. This goes true for computer or thakumar jhuli equally.

When you are acquiring or learning a language you have to learn that the sounds represented by the letters 'house' signify the concept; if you know French, this same meaning is represented by 'maison'; if you know Russian, by 'dom'; if you know Spanish, by 'casa'. Similarly, Bangla word 'hath' is represented by 'hand' in English, 'main' in French, 'nsa' in Twi, and 'ruka' in Russian. When you articulate a language (be it a sign or spoken), you can speak and be understood by others who speak the same language. The deaf people produce and understand sign languages just as hearing persons produce and understand spoken languages. The languages of the deaf are equally developed compared to spoken languages, differing only in their modality of expression.

NSOU PGEL-4 263 In this world, everyone knows at least one language. Five-year-old children become nearly as proficient at speaking and understanding as their parents. Yet the ability to carry out the simplest conversation requires profound knowledge that most speakers are unaware of. This makes human language unique and species-specific. This is true for speakers of all languages, from Bangla to Zulu. A speaker of Bangla can produce a sentence with a correlative clause without knowing what a correlative clause is, such as /je lokti kal asbe bole chilo aj se aste pareni/. However, the fact that we may know something unconsciously is not unique to human language. For example, a child can ride a bicycle without understanding or being able to explain the principles of balance and support or the neurophysiological control mechanisms that permit one to do so. What, then, do speakers of Chinese or Quechua or Swahili or Bangla or Arabic know? Let's discuss it in more detail here. 5.7.2 Knowledge of the Sound System When you know a language firstly, you know what sounds (or signs) are in that language and what sounds are not. One way this unconscious knowledge is revealed is by the way speakers of one language pronounce words from another language. If you speak only English, for example, you may substitute an English sound for a non- English sound when pronouncing "foreign" words like Bangla /til/ the word for 'mole'. If you pronounce it as the Bengalis do, you are going to use sounds outside the English sound system. Bangla people speaking English often pronounce words like 'pen' as phen and 'cat' khaeat as if they were spelt pen and kaet. The English sound represented by the initial letters p in these words is not part of the Bangla sound system. Knowing the sound system of a language includes more than knowing the inventory of sounds. It means also knowing which sounds may start a word, end a word, and follow each other. For example, English has a word 'school' that begins with a consonant cluster /sk/ but in many Indian languages, this clustering is not present word initially. This is the reason Bangla speakers without the knowledge of English pronounce it as /iskul/ and Punjabi Speakers call it /sakul/. Apart from knowing the sound system (phonology), language signs are constituted of three different levels, not just two: morphology, syntax and semantics. Semantics deals with the meanings (what is signified), while the other three are all concerned

NSOU PGEL-4 264 with the exponent. At the lowest level, we find that everything is composed of a small set of sounds or a set of gestures. For example, /sheep/ consists of five letters (and three sounds): /sh/, /i/ and /p/. In order not to confuse sounds (and sound sequences) with letters we denote the sounds by enclosing them in square brackets. So, the sounds that make up [sheep] are [sh], [i] and [p], in that order. What is important to note here is that sounds by themselves, in general, does not bear any meaning. On the other hand, words are not the smallest meaningful units of language. For example, /dogs/ is the plural of /dog/ and as such it is formed by a regular process, and if we only know the meaning of /dog/ we also know the meaning of /dogs/. Thus, we can divide /dogs/ into two parts: /dog/ and /-s/. The minimal units that correspond to meaning are called morphemes. Often, it is tacitly assumed that a morpheme is a part of a word; bigger chunks are called idioms as in /kick the bucket/, /keep tabs on someone/, and so on. The reason for this division is that while idioms are non-transparent as far as their meaning is concerned (if you die you do not kick a bucket), syntactically they often behave as if they are made of words (for example, they inflect: /John kicked the bucket/). So, a word such as 'dogs' has four manifestations: its meaning, its sound structure, its morphological structure and its syntactic structure. The part of linguistics that deals with how words are put together into sentences is called syntax. For example, if the subject is the third-person singular and the verb appears in Present tense then a morpheme -s/ -es is added. i. A dog barks ii. Dog barks iii. *A dog bark The knowledge of syntax determines that i) and ii) are grammatical sentences whereas iii) is unacceptable. For details related to the syntax you can refer to the modules written under Paper 7. 5.8 The goal of Linguistics The goal of linguistics is to observe, describe and analyse the structure of languages. Linguistic theory is concerned with establishing a coherent set of independent principles to explain phenomena in natural languages. There is no such thing as a correct language in any absolute sense. Language is neutral and should not be considered the object of value judgements. People tend to confuse language and attitudes to those who use language.

NSOU PGEL-4 265 Written language is secondary and derived from spoken language. It is only of less interest to the linguist. Linguists are more concerned with designing valid and general models of linguistic structure. Language consists largely of rules which determine its use. There are, however, many exceptions. Native speakers can deal with a large amount of irregularity which is stored in the mental lexicon. Knowledge of language refers to many abstract structures such as those of sentence types or systematic units such as phonemes or morphemes. The language would appear to be ordered modularly, i.e. to consist of a set of subsystems, which are labelled as 'levels of language', such as phonology, morphology or syntax. Most knowledge about language is unconscious and cannot be accessed directly. The task of the linguist is often to demonstrate the existence of this unconscious knowledge and to suggest methods of describing it. 5.9 Structural notions in linguistics Language can be observed at any given point in time - synchronic - or over a period of time considered as diachronic. ------------------< Time axis t1 t2 t3 The term synchronic indicates studying the language either at t1, or t2 or t3 whereas diachronic study can comprise of t1+t2+t3 or looking at the difference between t3 and t2 or t2 and t1. Language needs to be also distinguished between two levels - parole/performance - and the system of a language which can be seen as the abstract ability of the native speaker to speak his/her native language - competence - and linguistic knowledge - langue. The linear ordering of elements is called a syntagm and the vertical array of possible elements for a slot is a paradigm. Paradigm I have a cat You own a dog syntagm--------- The choice of lexical items in a given sentence is considered a syntagmatic choice. For the first sentence, syntagm is I, have, a and cat. We have replaced all three words with you, own and dog to get another utterance this is called paradigmatic choice. Linguistic units can be classified according to whether they are open, like the lexicon,

NSOU PGEL-4 266 and can take on new elements or closed, like phonetics and morphology, which cannot be expanded at will by speakers. 5.9.1 Characteristics of open vs closed classes Content words are called as open class or infinite set. We can and regularly add new words to these classes, such as Bollywood, blog, gherao, and 24/7, pronounced as "twenty-four seven." On the contrary, the closed class contains— Small number of units Polysemous and multi-functional words Speakers use them unconsciously Function words are called closed-class words or finite sets. It is difficult to think of any conjunctions, prepositions, or pronouns that have recently entered the language as these items are not productive in a language. The small set of personal pronouns such as I, me, mine, he, she, and so on are part of this class. Elements which are common in all languages are regarded as language universals. Every language has vowel sounds- it is argued as an absolute universal. Let us consider concrete examples in the next section. 5.9.2 Talking about language and linguistic data The language one uses to talk about language is termed as a metalanguage. For example, notions like pro-drop (in south Asian Languages subjects are dropped if they are pronoun) are used to describe the optionality of subjects. iv. (ami/amra) jacchi (Bangla) I/we going 'I/we is/are going'. In iv) the subject is optional as it can be understood from the context. However, in English subjects can never be dropped. We even require dummy subjects called the expletives. v. It rained. In v) 'it' is called an expletive or dummy subject. There are different methods of collecting object language data: one's own intuitions,

NSOU PGEL-4 267 elicitation from other native speakers or the use of a text corpus. We now turn to the core of grammatical constructions. 5.9.3 The grammatical core The core elements of language are formed in terms of the Words or lexical items. The major categories are nouns, verbs, adjectives and prepositions/postpositions in natural languages. The minor categories are called auxiliaries, case markers, number and gender features. Grammar is largely an autonomous system with its rules which need not come from by language external considerations; cf. the gender system of German or Hindi. There is some indirect evidence for the reality of rules. This comes mainly from language pathology and the area of speech errors. 5.10 Areas of linguistics We can talk about several areas within linguistics which interface between language and other cognitive functions such as writing and thinking. The history of linguistics comprises of various theories which have been proposed in the attempt at explaining the nature of the human language faculty. These theories can be grouped into four broad categories. non-theoretical studies before the 19th century historical linguistics 19th century structuralism first half of 20th century generative grammar second half of 20th century Theoretical linguistics develops models of language competence while applied linguistics deals with the uses to which linguistics can be put into applications such as language teaching or speech pathology. All languages are divided into levels which are the divisions made according to the status of elements - sounds (phonology), words (morphology), sentences (syntax) and (semantics) and language use (pragmatics). Areas of linguistics are concerned with the approach and scope of a linguistic study. This ranges from the social uses of language (sociolinguistics) to the process of learning language (language acquisition), and historical processes (language change) and natural language processing to Artificial Intelligence.

NSOU PGEL-4 268 Figure 1: http://www.middlebury.edu/media/view/462840/standard/tomeis_linguistics.jpg Various linguistic theories have been developed over the past two centuries. Three main schools can be classified as a) Neogrammarianism (late 19th century), b) structuralism (first half of 20th century), and c) generative grammar (second half of 20th century). 5.11 Summary In this module, we have discussed the main ideas pertaining to language, linguistics and their relation. Language is a system of vocal signs with an internal structure.

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Signs combine an exponent (a sequence of letters or sounds) with a meaning. There are

certain elements which are common to all languages (despite a lot of dissimilarities) known as language universals. Linguists analyze languages at various levels such as phonology, morphology, syntax and semantics. 5.12 Review Questions 1. What is the principle of recursion? Describe its manifestation in one of the languages you speak.
NSOU PGEL-4 269 2. What is the iconicity of language? How do we distinguish traffic signals and human signs? 3. Give us four examples of language universals. 4. Do you observe any difference between langue and parole in terms of languages you know? 5. Explain the design features articulated by Hockett. Describe the difference between prevarication and reflexivity. 6. What is metalanguage? Do we need it to learn language? 7. How do you understand the terms 'syntagm' and paradigm'? 8. What are the various levels at which language operates? 9. How do we distinguish between content words and structure words? 10 Do all languages behave alike? Give some general principles of linguistics in support of your answer. 5.13 References and Reading List Fromkin, V., Rodman, R., & Hyams, N. (2011). An Introduction to language. Boston: Wadsworth. Hickey, R. (n.d.). The Neat Summary of Linguistics. https://www.uni-due.de/ELE/NeatSummaryOfLinguistics.pdf Kracht, Marcus. Introduction to Linguistics. https://linguistics.ucla.edu/people/Kracht/courses/ling20-fall07/ling-intro.pdf Robins, R. H. (1993). General Linguistics: An Introductory Survey. 4th Edition. New York: Routledge.
NSOU PGEL-4 270 Unit 6 Branches of Linguistics 6.1 Introduction 6.2 Objectives 6.3 Phonetics and Phonology 6.3.1 Consonant Chart 6.3.2 Cardinal Vowels 6.3.3 Syllable Structure 6.4 Morphology 6.5 Syntax 6.5.1 Phrase Structure Grammar 6.5.2 Deep and Surface Structure 6.5.3 Transformations 6.5.4 The Standard Theory 6.6 Semantics 6.7 Pragmatics 6.7.1 Types of Speech Acts 6.8 Sociolinguistics 6.8.1 Language Variety Studies 6.8.2 Corpus Linguistics 6.8.3 Language and Gender 6.9 Language Acquisition 6.10 Language and the Brain 6.11 Contrastive Linguistics 6.12 Language Change 6.12.1 Language Contact and Language Change 6.13 Language Typology 6.14 Summary 6.15 Review Questions 6.16 References and Reading List 270
NSOU PGEL-4 271 6.1 Introduction In the previous unit, you have learnt the basic definitions related to language and linguistics and certain features which are unique to Human Language. Here let us first recapitulate some of the concepts I have already introduced. Linguistics is defined as the scientific study of language. From different viewpoints, linguistics can be divided into several branches: descriptive linguistics and historical/comparative linguistics, synchronic and diachronic linguistics (if it is based on its aspect of time). Languages are studied in terms of phonetics, phonology, morphology, syntax and semantics. It can also be looked at from sociolinguistic and psycholinguistic (if it is related to or combined with the disciplines of sociology and psychology respectively) perspectives. Here we will discuss the core components of Linguistics first and then move to the application side. 6.2

linguistics and its various branches, b. Identify various aspects of language and their details, c. Establish the link between different branches of language study, d. Understand why errors happen in language use and how to view them. 6.3 Phonetics and Phonology Phonetics is the study of human speech sounds and phonology is the classification of the sounds within the system of a particular language or languages. Phonetics is divided into three types according to the production (articulatory), transmission (acoustic) and perception (auditory) of sounds. Three categories of sounds must be recognized at the outset: phones (human speech sounds), phonemes (smallest units which distinguish meaning in a language), allophones (non-distinctive units). Sounds can be divided into consonant segments and vowel segments. The former can be characterized according to 1) place and 2) manner of articulation. Sounds can be distinguished in terms of aspiration as in [k] vs. [kh]. Consider more examples - 1) Place of articulation labial, labio-dental, dental, alveolar, palatal, velar, glottal

NSOU PGEL-4 272 2) Manner of articulation stops, fricatives, affricates, glides, vowels 3) Voice voiced or voiceless voicing feature e.g. [k] vs. [g] Phonotactics deals with the combinations of sounds possible and where sounds can occur in a syllable. The major structure for the organisation of sounds is the syllable. It consists of an onset (beginning), a rhyme (everything after the beginning) which can be sub-divided into a nucleus (vowel or vowel-like centre) and a coda. Syllable Onset Rhyme Nucleus Coda Prosody is concerned with features of words and sentences above the level of individual sounds, e.g. stress, pitch, intonation. Pitch movements The two most common pitch movements are: 1. Rising pitch yes 2. Falling pitch yes Stress is about which sounds we emphasize in words and sentences.
For example,

In sentences, we usually stress the most important, 'content' words. Rhythm is about how we use a combination of stressed and unstressed words in sentences. Sentences have strong beats (the stressed words) and weak beats (the unstressed words). Intonation is the way the pitch of a speaker's voice goes up or down as they speak. We use intonation to help get our message across.

NSOU PGEL-4 273 6.3.1 Consonant Chart 6.3.2 Cardinal Vowels In order to characterize vowels satisfactorily, the cardinal vowel system was introduced at the beginning of the 20th century by the English phonetician Daniel Jones. The basic principle is that extreme positions for the articulation of vowels are taken as reference points and all other possible vowel articulations are set in relation to them. The vowel quadrangle used for the representation of vowels is derived from a side view of the oral cavity with the face turned to the left, that is the position of / i/ is maximally high and front, the position of /u/ is maximally high and back while the low vowels /a/ and /Z/ are maximal low front and low back respectively.

NSOU PGEL-4 274 Note The left symbol of each is unrounded; the right one (other than the back open vowel) is rounded. There is a general correlation between unroundedness and frontness and roundedness and backness, i.e. these value combinations are much more common than their opposites. 6.3.3 Syllable structure S / \ onset rhyme Initial medial nucleus coda Example: pressed | onset | nucleus | coda | /p r e s t/ | vcl. stop liquid | vowel | vcl. fric. + stop | 6.4 Morphology The term morphology has its etymology is Greek: morph- means 'shape, form', and morphology is the study of form or forms. The emergence of Morphology as a component of linguistics was not until the 19th century. " Works of Bopp 1816 claimed that Sanskrit, Latin, Persian and Germanic languages have a common origin. Franz Bopp's Evidence was based on the grammatical endings of the words. " Between (1819-1837), Jacob Grimm published Deutsche Grammatike which emphasizes on the sound patterning and word-formation patters of the Germanic languages and their relation with other Indo European Languages. " Max Muller 1899 Oxford lectures noted that the evolution of words would express the processes involved in the evolution of languages just like Morphology in Biology. In linguistics, morphology refers to the mental system involved in word formation or to the branch of linguistics that deals with words, their internal structure, and how they are formed. The minimal unit is a morpheme. Morphologists study identification of morphemes, smallest linguistic units with a grammatical function. Morph is the

NSOU PGEL-4 275 phonological realization of the morpheme. English past tense markers have Allomorphs variants. For example, the English past tense morpheme that we spell -ed has three morphs. Jump'jumped ..the final sound /t/ after a voiceless, voiced /d/ in the presence of l repel-< repelled... change because of the environment, and /id/ as in batted after /t/ sound. Root -Stem-Affixes e.g.: Re-consider+ation A stem is a base unit to which another morphological piece is attached. The stem can be simple, made up of only one part, or complex. The root is like a stem in constituting the core of the word to which other pieces attach, but the term refers only to morphologically simple units. Elements that are attached to stem are called affixes. 6.5 Syntax Syntax studies the level of Language that lies between words and the meaning of utterances: sentences. It is the level that mediates between sounds that someone produces (organized into words) and what they intended to say. Early syntacticians distinguish between deep structure - the level on which the unambiguous semantic structure of a sentence is represented - and surface structure - the actual form of a sentence. Sentence structure is normally displayed employing a tree diagram (the so- called 'phrase structure') and by a system of rewrite rules, one can move from an initial unit (the entire sentence) to the individual elements (a so-called 'terminal string'). The term generation is used in linguistics to describe exhaustively the structure of sentences. Whether it also refers to how speakers produce sentences, from the moment of conceiving an idea of saying a sentence, has not been finally clarified yet. A transformation is a change in form between the deep and the surface and maintains the relatedness of semantically similar sentences such as active and passive ones. Generative grammar can be divided into three main periods -an early one, dating from Chomsky (1957), to a central one which was also initiated by Chomsky (1965) and a more recent one which reached its maturity in the 1980s with the development of the government and binding model. Universal grammar represents an attempt to specify what structural elements are present in all languages, i.e. what is the common core, and to derive means for describing these adequately. The language would appear to be organised modularly. Thus syntax is independent of phonology for instance, though there is an interface between these two levels of language.

NSOU PGEL-4 276 The purpose of analysing the internal structure of sentences is : 1) to reveal the hierarchy in the ordering of elements 2) to explain how surface ambiguities come about 3) to demonstrate the relatedness of certain sentences. To begin with, however, students should be aware of how syntax is acquired by young children. 6.5.1 Phrase structure grammar This is a basic type of grammar which attempts to show the structure which lies behind a sentence by breaking it down into its parts. It can be represented in the form of tree diagrams. Sentence — Noun Phrase + Verb Phrase Verb Phrase— Verb + Noun Phrase Noun Phrase— Determiner + Noun (determiner = articles, possessive pronouns, demonstrative pronouns, numerals, etc.) S / NP VP — | N VP NP | | Aux V DetAdjP N | | | | | | Peter has met the new boss S / NP VP / | NP S AUX V / | | Det N NP VP | | | | | | | | | | N V | | | | | | | | | The girl he liked has departed

NSOU PGEL-4 277 6.5.2 Deep and surface structure To indicate the nature of the structure which sentences have but which is not evident from their spoken form, one uses the term deep structure and surface structure. The term surface structure has an obvious meaning. This is the actual form which a sentence has when spoken. The deep structure, on the other hand, is a model of the structure necessary to account for the meaning of a sentence. As mentioned above this might correspond to a map of a real but unobservable mental structure, however, there is no direct proof of this. 6.5.3 Transformations A transformation alters a basic sentence structure into a derived one in deep structure. ACTIVE PASSIVE NP1 V NP2 NP2 be V -en by NP1 Mary ate the cake. The cake was eaten by Mary. S / NP VP | | | VP NP | | | | V Det N | | | | Mary ate the cake S / NP VP — | | | VP NP Det N | | | | Aux V Det N | | | | | | The cake was eaten by Mary 6.5.4 The standard theory Generative grammar has undergone several major revisions since its initial

NSOU PGEL-4 278 introduction by Noam Chomsky in 1957. The present term standard theory is used to refer to the model of generative grammar as expounded in the 1965 book by Chomsky Aspects of the Theory of Syntax. SYNTAX Lexicon ↓ Phrase-structure rules ↓ Filters ↓ Deep Structure [Logical form (deals with Semantics)] Transformations Surface structure [Phonetic form (comes from phonology)] The dominant theory of syntax is due to Noam Chomsky and his colleagues, starting in the mid-1950s and continuing to this day. This theory, which has had many different names through its development (Transformational Grammar (TG), Standard Theory, Extended Standard Theory, Government and Binding Theory (GB), Principles and Parameters approach (P&P) and Minimalism (MP)), is often given the blanket name Generative Grammar. Cook & Newson, (2007) have given the following order for the history of generative syntactic theories along with input from (MIT Department of Linguistics and Philosophy). 6.6 Semantics Semantics is concerned with the study of meaning and is related to both philosophy and logic. Semiotics is the study of communication systems in general. Sign language is a common means of communication among those who are deaf and can, if learned from childhood, approach natural language in terms of scope and flexibility. There are four recognisable types of meaning: lexical meaning, grammatical meaning, sentence meaning and utterance meaning which refer to the areas of derivational morphology, inflectional morphology, syntax and pragmatics respectively. External meaning relationships involve sense (relationships between words) and denotation (relationship of the word to what it signifies).

NSOU PGEL-4 279 There are various internal meaning relationships such as synonymy (sameness of meaning), antonymy (difference in meaning), hyponymy (hierarchical order of meaning). Different models for semantic analysis are available: prototype theory, where a central concept is taken as typical and less central ones are peripheral and componential analysis which seeks to break words down into their component semantic parts. 6.7 Pragmatics Pragmatics is the study of language from usage perspective. It has various sub- forms depending on the emphasis given by linguists, for instance, it can be investigated from a strictly linguistic stance or with regard to social factors. In the analysis of conversation various implicatures - 'rules' are applied. They refer to the quality, quantity, relevance and manner of conversation and are assumed to be almost universally valid. A speech act is a classifiable and structured utterance spoken in an actual communication situation. There are preconditions for speech acts such as felicity conditions which must be met for a speech act to be successful. Speech acts are classified according to their effect. Locutionary acts simple express sense or reference. Illocutionary acts express the intentions of the speaker whereas for perlocutionary acts the effect is of greatest importance. There are further subdivisions in type such as directives (commands for example) or commissives (promises for instance). An indirect speech act is one where the intended meaning of a sentence is different from the literal one. Deixis concerns the various types of pointing which is possible with language. This can be direct, with adverbs of direction, or indirect, for instance with different types of pronoun. Discourse analysis is concerned with the analysis of spoken language in sections larger than the sentence. The two main features for successful discourse are coherence (based on semantic transparency) and cohesion (achieved through formal mechanisms such as sentence connectors and anaphoric elements). 6.7.1 Types of Speech Acts Speech acts can be classified as follows 1) Locutionary acts express the sense or reference as in A cow is an animal or The earth is round. 2) By Illocutionary acts we indicate the intentions of the speaker are expressed by using a performative verb such as I acted like Mary.

NSOU PGEL-4 280 3) Perlocutionary acts deal with the effect of linguistic action is central. Perlocutionary acts include those which have a visible effect on the speaker, such as insulting or persuading someone. The second and third types above are concerned with intention and effect and are thus the more prototypical type of speech acts. 6.8 Sociolinguistics Sociolinguistics is a relatively recent discipline which investigates the use of language in society, particularly in order to determine what the possible reasons for language variation are and hence to understand more about the process of language changes. Various methods have been developed in sociolinguistics such as random and objective. The varieties of language examined by sociolinguists are usually urban and in particular take account of the factors class, age and sex. The central element in a sociolinguistic study is the linguistic variable - some item of language (phonological, morphological, syntactic or semantic) - which is suspected of varying systematically in correlation with the factors such mentioned. There are various kinds of a speech community depending on the linguistic configuration. Diglossia involves a division of languages according to function, whereas a bilingual community has two languages without such a functional distribution. The social development of a language can lead to split. This, in turn, may involve the question of language maintenance and preservation. If a language is discontinued by its entire community one speaks of language death. An important aspect of the social use of language involves the means of addressing others. German, like other European languages apart from English, has a pronominal distinction between acquaintances and strangers which is connected with the notions of power and solidarity expressed in language. 6.8.1 Language Variety studies A dialect is a regional form of a language. It frequently is part of a continuum of dialects. The term sociolect, or sometimes social dialect, is used for a recognisable form on a continuum determined by social class. The history of dialectology goes back to the last century and can be seen as an offshoot of Indo-European comparative philology and was understandably purely historical in its orientation. It used such techniques as the questionnaire and was interested in compiling linguistic maps, particularly those conserving older rural usage.

6.8.2 Corpus linguistics A corpus is a collection of language data which is compiled and analyzed linguistically. Such data can be synchronic or diachronic. In the latter case, it consists of texts, in the former it could also contain sound files or transcription of speech. The advantage of a corpus is that it can offer sufficient attestations of a structure or word to allow linguists to make statistically reliable statements. Equally, corpora can be used to disprove assumptions, e.g. about when a certain structure appeared, in what type of text, or with what author. A corpus can also be used for style analysis and may in some cases help to determine authorship by looking at recurrent patterns in the syntax or vocabulary of an author. For example, the Brown corpus is a corpus that contains the speech of present-day American English. 6.8.3 Language and gender The area of language and gender is concerned with many issues. There are two main views on language differences between the genders. One relies upon the difference between the two biological genders male and female, while the other stresses the fact that male dominance is the operative force. There have been many attempts to use gender neutrality in language by creating new generic forms such as chairperson or simply chair instead of chairman/chairwoman. The goal of such creations is to arrive at a neutral label. These words can be used for either genders or the third gender without highlighting any particular. In the area of written address, English has had considerable problems, e.g. the forms Mrs And Miss (which stress the marital status of the woman, but not of the man) are now regarded as antiquated and unacceptable. The use of Ms. shows some of the difficulties of the attempts to neutralize the language: the success depends on whether the new form is accepted in the society in question. 6.9 Language acquisition Language acquisition is the process whereby children learn their mother tongue. It consists of abstracting structural information from the language they hear around them and internalizing this information for later use. This phenomenon of language acquisition can explain why one can produce a theoretically unlimited set of sentences in one's native language. This position is considered as the nativist view and contrasts with an earlier empiricist view. There are fairly definite stages which a child goes through during early language acquisition. These form a progression from the babbling stage to that of the multi- NSOU PGEL-4 282 word sentence. The first comprehensible word is usually uttered between nine months and one year. By the age of 6 or 7, a child is expected to acquire all the structural features of his/her native language. Language acquisition is paralleled by other linguistic situations, notably by that of creolization where speakers with little or no linguistic input manage to create a new language is a very short period of time. It also argues that children need to get a linguistic environment within their puberty level without which they become incapable of speaking. This is called the critical age hypothesis. There are different models of second language acquisition which reflect the manner in which learners gain knowledge of the new language, either in a similar manner to their native language - hypothesis - or against the background of this - the interference hypothesis. There are also models which emphasize how a second language is produced (monitor model) or which stress the role of external factors (discourse and acculturation models). 6.10 Language and the brain Neurolinguistics is the study of all aspects of language directly related to the functioning of the brain. It is difficult to determine where the language faculty is located but at least two main areas (frontal lobes) have been identified in the brain: 1) Broca's area responsible for the production and 2) Wernicke's area which is involved in understanding language. Aphasia refers to any physically-based malfunctioning of language. The two main sources of this are lesions caused by accidents and brain disease resulting from cancerous tumours. There are various kinds of impairment which may involve production or comprehension or both. An individual with aphasia may have difficulty finding words or producing sounds or may show a lack of grammatical words. The tip of the tongue phenomenon can be seen with non-pathological speakers and is characterised by a sudden block in lexical retrieval and which is released again for no apparent reason. Slips of the tongue involve the involuntary and unintended switching of elements among words of a sentence. Normally the onset or rhyme of adjacent syllables is switched and this phenomenon offers firm evidence for the validity of the syllable as a phonological unit. 6.11 Contrastive linguistics Contrastive linguistics is a relatively recent sub-discipline in linguistics which is concerned with the comparison of at least two languages with the deliberate goal of

NSOU PGEL-4 283 indicating the pitfalls for language learners with the first language and a target language L2. In its orientation, contrastive linguistics is synchronic and does not consider possible genetic relationships between languages. There is a theoretical and an applied approach to the field which is concerned with outlining general principles and applying these in practical analyses respectively. The main phenomenon which is considered in contrastive linguistics is interference which represents the use of structural features from the outset language in the target one. While this by no means explains all mistakes in the target language it does account for a large number of systematic mistakes - technically termed errors. The simplest form of interference is substitution. Speakers also show over- and under-differentiation according to whether a feature, possible in the target language, is more or less frequent in the outset language and hence used more or less often by the second language speaker. Interference is found on all levels of language. For instance, on the sound level, it represents a foreign accent. On the lexical level, it is found in the many cases of false friends. In syntax, it can lead to a not inconsiderable amount of misunderstanding if the structures produced cannot be processed by native speakers of the target language. It can also be found on the level of pragmatics where differences in discourse strategies can lead to disconcerting effects in the target language. 6.12 Language change Language change is present in all languages at all stages and is largely regular. Speakers are not always conscious of this. However, if it involves elements of an open class, like the lexicon, then speakers usually notice it and may try to prevent it by prescriptive behaviour. Language change is not intentional but arises from the natural variation present in language at all times, e.g. that which occurs when speakers attempt to move upwards in society or when they demonstrate solidarity with the class to which they belong. There may be an internal motivation for change. This is mainly the case when the change leads to paradigmatic regularity, a so-called analogical change which results in more regular nominal or verbal forms. Speakers tend to overestimate the avoidance of homophony as a source for change and not to grasp long-term structural changes which are often connected with typological drift, the movement from one type to another over several centuries, e.g. from synthetic to analytic in the history of English. Change may lead to a shift in status for linguistic elements. For instance, transparent words may become opaque. Full lexical words may criticize (become temporarily attached to stems) and then appear as inflections (permanently attached). This process is known as

NSOU PGEL-4 284 grammaticalisation. At any one stage of a language, there will be remnants of former changes (such as umlaut in English). These remnants often appear as suppletive forms in paradigms. In historical linguistics, there are two main methods for gaining knowledge of earlier stages of a language: the comparative method which involves looking at forms common to two or more genetically related languages and the technique of internal reconstruction which uses information about the structure of a single language at different periods to gain knowledge about a very early stage. Language change is found on all levels of language, both in the past and in the present. Consult the above sections for examples from different spheres. 6.12.1 Language contact and language change Languages come into contact and they exchange morphological syntactic strategies. This gives rise to language contact situations and contact-induced varieties. This contact has also had some kind of effect on the form of the language involved. Here one must distinguish between direct contact when speakers of two or more languages intermingle, and indirect contact, when the second language is known only through the printed word or (nowadays) the non-print media. The latter type involves a language with sizeable prestige and results in cultural borrowings. The third type of situation can be termed delayed effect contact because the effect is only apparent some considerable time later. Such an effect is usually low-level; such as that on the level of phonetics; but may cause major changes over long periods if the morphology is affected. Stable contact situations may arise with bilingualism as a result. If the languages in contact are functionally distinguished then one calls the situation diglossia. Contact between dialects is also of importance as seen clearly in the history of English. Here many forms survive in the standards which have their origin outside of the east midland area around London which was the geographical source for early Standard English. Languages which are contained in a geographically well-delimited region can often form what is termed a linguistic area (a translation of German Sprachbund). These languages frequently come to share structural properties which diffuse throughout the area, irrespective of genetic affiliation. 6.13 Language typology Language typology involves the classification of languages according to their grammatical structure and not based on genetic affiliation.

NSOU PGEL-4 285 There are four basic types: analytic (little or no morphology), synthetic (portmanteau inflections), agglutinative (one to one correspondence between form and meaning), poly-synthetic/incorporating (Incorporated lexical and morphological forms). There would seem to be a typological cycle such that languages develop from analytic to synthetic, back to analytic and so on. The shift to a synthetic type occurs largely when word forms coalesce and grammaticalisation occurs. A language can become analytic when it loses inflections through phonetic attrition as has happened in the history of English. This cycle need not be so neat and simple: there are frequently conflicting forces operating in a language so that incorporation and analysis may arise concurrently. Typology also concerns the question of universals. These refer to features which are present in all or almost all the languages. Furthermore, some universals imply the existence of others and are thus called implicational universals, a term coined by Joseph Greenberg, a leading figure in contemporary typological study. 6.14 Summary The unit walks you through various branches/ components of linguistics. While the primary components of any language revolve around its phonology, morphology, syntax and semantics, Linguistics also interacts with society, history, culture, literature and many such facets of human life. 6.15 Review Questions 1. What is Linguistics? 2. How many branches of linguistics are discussed here? 3. What role does phonology play in linguistics? 4. How is phonology useful to the learners of a new language? 5. Are morphology and syntax related to each other? 6. What is the study of meaning called? 7. How many types of syntactic analysis are possible? 8. How are tree diagrams useful in understanding the structure of a sentence? 9. What is the role of contrastive linguistics?

NSOU PGEL-4 286 10. What do we mean by speech acts? How many speech acts are discussed? 11. What does typology of language refer to? 12. Is language change natural? Can we avoid it? 6.16 References and Reading List Cook, V. J. and Mewson, M. 2014. Chomsky's Universal Grammar : An Introduction. 3rd edn. New Delhi : Wiley India. Fromkin, V., Rodman, R., & Hyams, N. (2011). An Introduction to language. Boston: Wadsworth. Hickey, R. (n.d.).The Neat Summary of Linguistics. pdf coffee. com/neat-summary- of-linguistic-2-pdf-free. html

NSOU PGEL-4 287 Unit 7 Learning Strategies and Styles 7.1 Introduction 7.2 Objectives 7.3 Learning Strategies vs. Learning Styles 7.4 Learning Styles 7.4.1 Role of the Teacher 7.5 Learning Strategy 7.6 Language Teaching Approaches 7.7 Summary 7.8 Review Questions 7.9 Reading List 7.1 Introduction In this unit, you will learn the basic concepts related to the strategies of learning and styles related to language learning. Often language poses a challenge in the case of learning. We will talk about certain strategies here. At the outset, we need to distinguish the differences between learning strategies and learning styles. The unit discusses the difference between learning and learning strategies. Whereas the former is unconscious the latter is developed by the learners. Since every student possesses his/her own style of learning, it gives rise to different learning styles. Students use cognitive to social strategies
to ease the difficulty of learning. 7.2 Objectives

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After going through this unit, you will be able to: a. Understand the difference between learning strategy and style b.

Understand the role teacher plays in promoting learning c. Identify different approaches to teaching languages d. Identify learner and teacher qualities. 287

NSOU PGEL-4 288 7.3 Learning strategies vs. learning styles: Go through the table to understand the salient differences in learning strategy and style. Learning strategy Learning styles Rubin (1987) describes learning strategies are strategies which contribute to the development of the language system which the learner constructs and affect learning directly. Broadly speaking, learning styles can be defined as general approaches to language learning. Learning strategies are steps taken by students to enhance their learning. Strategies are especially important for language learning because they

87%	MATCHING BLOCK 53/74	SA	PGELT 5 _ 6 (1-400).pdf (D165254851)

are tools for active, self- directed involvement, which is essential for developing communicative competence. Appropriate language learning strategies result in

improved proficiency and greater self- confidence. Throughout history, the best language students have used strategies ranging from naturalistic language practice techniques to analytic, rule-based strategies. Learning style refers to the preferred ways which individuals use to solve problems confronted in their learning. The learners' learning styles are often not perceived or used consciously. Learning style plays an important role for everyone to learn, to obtain information, to communicate with others. Being conscious of their learning styles will help students to improve their language learning proficiency. The term "learning style" originates from psychology. It broadly refers to how a learner tries to learn something, based on individual characteristics, used unconsciously and not perceived. Everyone has a learning style, but each person is as unique as a signature. Each signature appears to be influenced by both nature and nurture.

NSOU PGEL-4 289 Classification of language learning strategies has primarily followed the theory of cognition (Macaro, 2001). Cognition refers to how the brain works for information processing and retrieval. Classification of strategies has many advantages. Learning strategies have been classified by many scholars (Wenden and Rubin, 1987; O'Malley et. al, 1985; Oxford, 1990; Stem, 1992; Ellis, 1994, etc.). Strategy subsets enable researchers to describe the correspondence between mental processes and strategic processes (O'Malley and Chamot, 1990). Strategy inventories may also serve as a valuable reference guide for educational instructors in the process of promoting autonomy in the language learner. Oxford's (1990) Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) is one such classification system linking groups through a series of self-report assessments and questionnaires. Oxford divides strategies into two major classes: direct and indirect. Keefe (1979: 4) defines learning style as "characteristic cognitive, affective, and physiological behaviours that serve as relatively stable indicators of how learners perceive, interact with and respond to the learning environment"; "Learning style is a consistent way of functioning that reflects underlying causes of behaviour". In 1987, Willing defines learning style as an inherent, pervasive set of characteristics related to how learners prefer to learn or to deal with new information. Reid (1995, 69) defines learning style as "an individual's natural, habitual, and preferred way(s) of absorbing, processing, and retaining new information and skills, and a pervasive quality in the learning strategy or the learning behaviour of an individual". Learning strategies are the behaviours and thought that a learner engages in during learning that is intended to influence the learner's encoding process.

NSOU PGEL-4 290 Now let us discuss the learning styles first and then we can proceed to learning strategies. The strategies a student uses to learn, depend greatly on his/her learning style. 7.4 Learning styles Each student possesses his/her style of learning. As a result, we observe different students with different learning styles in the classroom. Some of these are listed below: 1. Visual or spatial learners: Pupils need to see things to fully understand them. They learn best from visual objects such as diagrams, charts, etc. They prefer to write things down. 2. Auditory or musical learners: They learn mainly through listening so they learn best through discussions and talking. They benefit most from reading texts aloud and using a tape recorder. 3. Physical or kinesthetic or tactile learners: People learn by using their body, hands and sense of touch. They tend to use their muscles so they can be used well in playing, tidying, cleaning the board, collecting activity books, etc. They learn best through using their hands making things, fitting things together or taking them apart so hands-on activities are ideal to help those students learn best. 4. Social or interpersonal learners: They prefer to learn in groups or with other people. They can understand others' feelings and intentions. 5. Solitary or intrapersonal learners: Many prefer to work alone and use self-study as they can understand well the feelings, strengths and weaknesses. They tend to write a personal diary, achieve independent projects, discuss feelings about certain topics, express likes and dislikes, etc. 6. Verbal or linguistic learners: Some also prefer using words, both in speech and writing. 7. Logical or mathematical: Some students prefer using logic, reasoning and systems.

NSOU PGEL-4 291 In conclusion, we can say, one uses learning strategies automatically without being aware of them. 7.4.1 The role of the teacher The role of teachers here is to, first of all, recognize their students' learning strategies, and bring them to their attention and talk about them. Secondly, s/he should encourage students to use them in the classroom and use them more to make the learning process effective. We will discuss these issues more in section 7.5 and also in the next unit. 7.5 Learning strategy Students use the following learning strategies most often when learning a language: 1. Cognitive strategies enable the learner to manipulate the language material in indirect ways, e.g. through reasoning, analysis, note-taking, and synthesizing. 2. Metacognitive strategies are used to manage the learning process overall, e.g. identifying preferences and the need for planning, monitoring mistakes, and evaluating task success. 3. Memory-related strategies help the learners link an item or concept with another but do not necessarily involve deep understanding, e.g. using acronyms, sound similarities, images, keywords. 4. Compensatory strategies assist to know for missing knowledge, e.g. using gestures, miming or guessing the meaning from the context. 5. Affective strategies help us manage their emotions, such as identifying one's mood and anxiety level, talking about feelings, rewarding oneself, and using deep breathing or positive self-talk. 6. Social strategies enable you to learn via interaction with others and understand the target culture, e.g. asking questions, asking for clarification, asking for conversation help, talking with a native-speaking partner, and exploring cultural and social norms. Now, let us look at various teaching approaches which help in building learning strategies.

NSOU PGEL-4 292 7.6 Language Teaching Approaches Ricardo E. Schütz explains how in learning languages, "a distinction is usually made between mother tongues, second languages, and foreign languages. A mother tongue is the first language or languages one learns (or acquires) as a child. When immigrants come to a new country and learn the language of that country, they learn it as a second language. On the other hand, when English-speaking students in the United States learn French or Spanish in school, or when Brazilians study English in Brazil, they are learning a foreign language." The acronyms ESL and EFL denote learning of English as a Second and as a Foreign Language. Many theories about the learning and teaching of languages have been proposed. The study of these theories and how they influence language teaching methodology today is called applied linguistics. The grammar-translation method (18th, 19th and early 20th century), for example, is an early method based on the assumptions that language is primarily graphic. The main purpose of second language study is to build knowledge of the structure of the language either as a tool for literary research and translation or the development of the learner's logical powers, and that the process of second language learning must be deductive, requires effort, and must be carried out with constant reference to the learner's first language. The audio-lingual approach became popular from the 1940s through the 1960s. It is based on structural linguistics (structuralism) and behavioristic psychology (Skinner's behaviourism), and places heavy emphasis on spoken rather than written language, and the grammar of particular languages, stressing habit formation as a mode of learning. Rote memorization, role-playing and structure drilling are the predominant activities. Audio-lingual approaches do not depend so much on the instructor's creative ability and do not require excellent proficiency in the language.

NSOU PGEL-4 293 By the middle of the 20th-century cognitive psychologists like Vygotsky and Piaget came up with theories that helped to explain the limited effectiveness of the traditional prescriptive and mechanistic approaches to language teaching. These theories serve as a basis for the new natural-communicative approaches. Beginning in the 1950s, Noam Chomsky and his followers challenged previous assumptions about language structure and language learning. They introduced language as creative (not memorized), and rule-governed (not based on habit). The language also relies upon principles and parameters known as language universals. Most recently, there has also been a significant shift toward greater attention to reading and writing as a complement to listening and speaking, based on a new awareness of significant differences between spoken and written languages. It relies on the notion that dealing with language involves an interaction between the texts on the one hand, and the culturally-based world knowledge and experientially-based learning of the receiver on the other. We now emphasize individualized instruction, more humanistic approaches to language learning, a greater focus on the learner, and greater emphasis on the development of communicative competence, as opposed to merely linguistic competence. In addition to Chomsky's generativist approach, the advances in cognitive science and educational psychology put forth by Piaget and Vygotsky in the first half of the century strongly influenced language teaching theory in the 1960s and 70s. These new trends favouring more humanistic views and putting a greater focus on the learner and social interaction gave way to the Natural (USA) and Communicative (England) approaches. Psychologist Charles Curran's Community Language Learning, as well as Krashen and Terrell's Natural Approach (in the 1980s), are good examples of this latest trend in language teaching. Hammerly defines it as Communicative Acquisitions Naturalistic mega theory of language instruction. 7.7 Summary In this unit, we have examined the notions related to language learning and strategies. While articulating on the strategies we have briefed a summary of the teaching approaches. I have shown how it all began with cognition and teaching now tries to take a more humane approach. In Unit 8, you will get a comprehensive overview of language teaching.

NSOU PGEL-4 294 7.8 Review Questions 1. Adapting your speech to the listener can involve A. giving attention to register. B. making use of prompting. C. politely correcting. 2. A common feature of speech which is not fluent is A. hesitation. B. encouragement. C. turn-taking. 3. Interactive speaking involves A. developing a topic. B. using a variety of language patterns. C. exchanging ideas. 4. An example of self-correction is A. No, what I actually said was..... B. I mean coming down the stairs, sorry. C. That's right. In other words, a lot of people think that..... 5. Trying to help the listener can involve A. requesting clarification. B. interrupting. C. paraphrasing. 6. The speaker uses repetition to A. explain things more simply when communication has broken down. B. speed up the interaction process. C. clarify things for a listener who has not heard properly. 7. Write a brief note on generativist position on teaching 8. Try to differentiate the cognitive approaches with translation approach.

NSOU PGEL-4 295 9. How many learning styles are discussed? Are these important? 10. How can a teacher help by recognizing the learner's learning style? 11. How are learning strategies different from learning styles? 12. What method of teaching is used now? Who influenced this method? 7.9 Reading List Ellis, G. & B. Sinclair. (1989). Learning to Learn English. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. O'Malley, J.M., & Chamot, A. (1990). Learning Strategies in Second Language Acquisition. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. Oxford, R. L. (1990). Language Learning Strategies: What Every Teacher Should Know. New York: Newbury House/ Harper & Row.

NSOU PGEL-4 296 Unit 8 Linguistics and ELT 8.1 Introduction 8.2 Objectives 8.3 English Language Teaching and the Importance of Linguistics 8.4 Thinking about language 8.5 Assessment 8.6 Role of Socialization 8.7 Role of Linguistics 8.8 Methods and methodologies 8.9 Summary 8.10 Review Questions 8.11 References 8.12 Reading List 8.1 Introduction In this unit, we will discuss an applied area of linguistics known as English language teaching. The scope for research in this area is quite open and dynamic. Linguistics is considered essential for language teaching because linguistics and language teaching can be likened to the relationship of knowledge about the engine and the skill in driving a car. It will be better for the driver to support himself with some knowledge about the car or the engine so that he can drive it well and know how to overcome some engine trouble in case he has to face it. In the same way, it will be better if a language teacher has some knowledge about, for instance, the characteristics of the language in general and the specific language he is teaching in particular. In this relation, he should know how language works and express meaning, and what structures are used in the particular language he is teaching. He should get familiar, for instance, with the theory about the general mechanism of producing speech sounds, so that he will be able to tackle any pronunciation problem his students may encounter. By studying linguistics he will have deeper insights into the nature of language and act accordingly in teaching the language. For instance, when he agrees that the use of language is a matter of habits and practice; in teaching it to his students he must implant the habit of using it for communication until it becomes deeply established. 296
NSOU PGEL-4 297 8.2 Objectives

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After going through this unit, you will be able to: a. Understand the

role of
linguistics in language
teaching b. Identify the needs for teacher to be aware of language analysis c. Apply linguistic principles in language teaching d. Use proper methods of assessment while evaluating learner scripts. 8.3 English Language Teaching and the Importance of Linguistics The English language is the 3rd most popular languages in the world according to Ethnologue 2019. The demand for learning this language is ever increasing. As philosopher Franz Fanon once mentioned, "To speak a language is to take on a world, a culture." Undoubtedly there is a demand for gaining language proficiency. In this Unit, the objective will be to discuss the need for understanding of Linguistics for English Language teachers and learners. It is argued that English Teachers need to be well trained in Linguistics because when they are on duty, they work like correspondents, education specialists and assessors. They also work as educated human beings. Teachers are the forerunners of developing a sense of negotiators of socialization to their students. The teachers work like connectors as it is really important to develop good conversational skills to be able to communicate with students from varied backgrounds. Teachers and trainers should develop their communication strategies so that they know the way to structure the lessons and deliver them to the students. Students require to understand language for communicating productively in class and outside as well. Conversely, understanding the students also becomes crucial. Listening to the students carefully and responding to them is an important issue. It is because understanding and assessing what they know, indicates their ability to reflect. The students are a crucial part of assessment related to teaching techniques which the teachers must go through. Linguistics is really important for teachers to instill confidence in their work because lately, the model of education is innovating rapidly. The classrooms are getting diverse and there are more students with diverse socio-economic backgrounds and most importantly different levels of exposure to English. This shows that teachers, to a great extent, will have to face students whose first language is not NSOU PGEL-4 298 English. In this type of world of rapid innovation and diversity, a deeper knowledge of linguistics will assist teachers to notice that the speech forms they value are characteristics of their own culture and background. They are neither general nor characteristically more effective than other possible speech forms. If the teachers cannot identify the effectiveness of other ways of speaking, this can shake their student's self- esteem in their ability to communicate. Consider the awkward situation given by Smitherman (1977) through a conversation thread which is as follows: Student (excitedly): Miz Jones, you remember that show you tole us about? Well, me and my momma's nem? Teacher (interrupting with a "warm" smile): Bernadette, start again. I'm sorry, but I can't understand you. Student (confused): Well, it was that show, me and my momma! Teacher (interrupting again, still with that "warm" smile): Sorry, I still can't understand you. (Student, now silent, even more, confused than ever, looks at the floor, says nothing.) Teacher: Now Bernadette, first of all, it's Mrs Jones, not Miz Jones. And you know it was an exhibition, not a show. Now, haven't I explained to the class over and over again that you always put yourself last when you are talking about a group of people and yourself doing something? So, therefore, you should say what? Student: My momma and me? Teacher (exasperated): No! My mother and I. Now start again, this time right. Student: Aw, that's okay, it wasn't nothin. This is why it is really important to have Linguistic knowledge so that neither the child nor the teacher will be humiliated during communication in the class. This is how Linguistics can prepare the English Language teachers to work with students with varied cultural, social and linguistic backgrounds. Their understanding of the use of language would be probably different from the Native- Indian English speaker which is a key factor in teaching.

NSOU PGEL-4 299 Teachers work as educational specialists. They select educational materials for specific classes, grades and or levels for the children in that specific group. This involves a careful and thorough basis of student evaluation results and the capability to differentiate between flawed knowledge of English and cognitive learning obstacles. Language and linguistics play an essential role in the teaching process. It plays a serious developmental role throughout the school years without the student's cultural, social or linguistic differences. For this reason, teachers are frolicking a serious part in supporting language development. Language teachers utilize the important aspects of language associated with the academic syllabus of the different subject courses. These educationalists must fully instill the functions and systems of language operations for this will help them to be able to choose materials that help improve the students' linguistic awareness. This will help the teachers to come up with effective and innovative planning of educational materials of instructions which will give the students chance to apply new forms and modes of presentation to which they are being shown. This is why a basic knowledge of educational linguistics is also a requirement to endorse language progress with all of the students in classrooms currently as the teachers need to help the students become more conscious about the linguistic functions in various types of communication through the course. 8.4 Thinking about language The foremost important question here is to ask 'what do English language teachers teach and learners learn?' This seems rather illogical. The question seems to answer itself; it seems self-evident to note that what teachers teach and learners learn in ELT classrooms is language, specifically the English language. However, if we start to explain this common-sense understanding of ELT, what initially seems clear is revealed to be full of complexity, and raises several dilemmas that are embedded in the everyday practices of ELT teachers and their approach to teaching. For example, you need to ask the following: i) Is the language in the classroom addressed primarily as a system of grammatical rules or patterns, or as a system for expressing meaning and communicating, perhaps communicating to solve tasks or for learners to express their own identity? Of course, it is possible, perhaps likely, that a combination of these perspectives may be part of teachers' understandings of language and apparent in their classroom teaching.

NSOU PGEL-4 300 ii) If so, how can they be combined coherently? iii) Similarly, which language skills are of primary importance in the ELT classroom- 'spoken skills' (i.e., listening and speaking) or 'written skills' (i.e., reading and writing)? iv) Thus, what is meant by language knowledge (or knowledge of the language)? Are learners learning about language so they can consciously and explicitly describe how language operates, or is the focus more on how to use the language via implicit knowledge below the level of consciousness, perhaps with little or no explicit attention to 'rules'? And how might teachers balance these perspectives in practice? These are the questions that we will try to answer in the subsequent sections. 8.5 Assessment English Language teachers also need to work on a lot of assessment of assignments. Teachers assess students in terms of their academic and communicative progress. Do you realize the importance of feedback to students about their (students) own progress? It is really important as it affects their sense of "self-esteem" as learners to the more crucial decisions about reading group placement, promotion or referral for evaluation. Teachers need to invest a lot of focus on segregating the learners according to their capabilities at an as early age as possible. Usually, in several nursery schools, the students-to-be are tested with "Readiness Test," and according to the results of these tests, the students are segregated according to the performance they have shown in the test. To make a just decision about the students' capabilities, these educationalists need to know the different sources of variation in a community that speaks a vernacular variety of English, standard development for L2 learners of English, normal divergences from the matured standard that are allied with early development stages, or developmental malfunction. English Language teachers must be using up a lot of time understanding and instilling the educational linguistics in them so that misunderstanding a student could be prevented. 8.6 Role of socialization We consider teachers as the forerunners of developing a sense of negotiators of socialization to their students as well. They play a unique role in the field of socialization in the life of students. Socialization commences at home which continues at school and then later throughout the whole life. The students learn the daily routine, the

NSOU PGEL-4 301 moral beliefs and the means and manners of communication of their cultural communities through the assistance of teachers. From a linguistic and communicative point of view, students without knowledge of English who enter school are asked to learn the Second language as it is the medium of instruction of that particular institution. The students tend to grab the language very fast at a young age and so minimal help is required and due to this, the children can blend in with the other students socially and academically through communicating while they learn the new language. In this situation, the parents and teachers have to work hard so that children can learn the language effectively. If the parents don't know the English language, then, they must learn it as well so that their children can be guided at home as well as in school. The language should be spoken at home as well as in school to improve rapidly. We are not saying that the mother language should not be spoken at all but to improve both spoken and written English, rapid practice is required at home and outside the home. When there is a problem where the parents do not know English, teachers must give a little bit of extra attention to their children at the place that they can practice. Earlier in this unit, we have mentioned that English language teachers play a very important role in the students' linguistic and social life. Through the study of linguistics, teachers confidently approach the students and through knowing educational linguistics, the teachers can have the ability to understand the role of the first language (which is not English) in the students' lives and that of their own families and with proper care and without humiliating the student, a teacher can assist the student successfully regardless of what the culture of the child (ren) is.

NSOU PGEL-4 302 8.7 Role of Linguistics Teachers are expected to know the function of the language and the way it contributes to skillful reading and writing. Knowing Basic English indicates that an English teacher should know how to distinguish between the parts of speech like nouns, verbs, articles, consonants, adjectives and more such categories. The roles of some branches of linguistics e.g. phonetics, phonology, morphology, syntax, generative transformational grammar, semantics, pragmatics, sociolinguistics and psycholinguistics have been already discussed in Unit 6. There is another segment of linguistics which is called applied linguistics which studies the use and application of linguistic research in other domains. Among the subfields of linguistics mentioned in the above paragraph, the sociolinguistics and psycholinguistics are the branches of linguistics that are related to other specialised fields of study. Seeing this, it can be said that Linguistics is like a research-based field of studying any language. Thus, if a teacher undergoes the process of learning and understanding linguistics, he/she is a complete professional in teaching English Language and also English as a Second Language (ESL). The factors discussed in the unit are interconnected between the teachers, the academic and social life of students, the culture and ethnicity of both the students and teachers and also the linguistic issues. Under the applied linguistics a couple of basic positions are held in English language teaching: a) Form-focused teaching which emphasizes the teaching of the rules of grammar, structures, the development of vocabulary and the sounds of language; and b) Meaning-focused teaching which emphasizes language use, communication or fluency and appropriateness of expression in different situations. Language teaching came into existence as a profession in the early eighteenth century in Europe, whereas it existed in India nearly 3000 years ago. Its foundation was developed during the early part of the twentieth century, as applied linguists, with a focus on the fields of linguistics and psychology to support what was thought to be a more effective teaching methodology. Language teaching in the twentieth century was characterized by frequent changes, innovations and development of language teaching ideologies. Pit Corder argued that applied linguistics was a collection of applications of linguistics at various levels to determine precisely the constraints, or laws of language teaching operation, albeit of linguistics in a broad sense. Cook and Wei mentioned that applied linguistics is an interdisciplinary field of research and practice dealing with practical problems of language and by applying available theories, methods or

NSOU PGEL-4 303 results of Linguistics or by developing new theoretical and methodological frameworks in linguistics to work on these problems. Varshney defined applied linguistics as the collective term for the various applications of linguistic (and phonetic) scholarship to related practical fields-foreign language teaching, lexicography, translation, speech pathology and therapy, error analysis, etc. Applied linguistics in the widest sense, therefore, borders on other disciplines, for example, sociology, anthropology, psychology, biology, computational linguistics, stylistics, etc. The speech therapist, the literary critic, the translator, the communication engineer, the language teacher, the syllabus framer, the educational planner, the textbook writer, the dictionary-maker have found linguistics useful for their work. Finally, Contrastive Analysis deals with the problem of mother tongue interference; it is not enough to predict language teaching and to describe the best way of mistakes, what is needed is their correction; applications, instances of the human linguistic ability of different descriptions which are superficial and incomplete. Today, it is beyond any doubt that English is used as a world language for business, science and medicine. 8.8 Methods and methodologies According to Stern (1983) 'language educators sought to solve the problems of language teaching by focusing attention almost exclusively on Method' (Stern, 1983: 452), with methodologists (and presumably teachers) asking which method or approach was the most effective for English language teaching. Consider, for example, Audio- lingualism, the Silent Way or maybe Communicative Language Teaching. In recent years, however, the debate has developed around the Method, traditionally seen as a theoretically consistent set of teaching principles that would lead to the most effective learning outcomes if followed correctly (Richards and Rodgers, 2001). It fails in making English language teaching and learning more effective. Around twenty years ago, Prabhu (1990) proposed that any attempt to find a 'best' method was illogical given that teachers quite reasonably adapted and combined individual methods to accommodate contextual influences and their personal beliefs. At the same time, applied linguists such as Pennycook (1989) argued that traditional views of Method frustrated teachers who, in the real world, we're unable to implement them fully and consistently. Pennycook also argued that the idea of Method and the search for the best method maintained unequal power relationships within ELT between academics and researchers on the one hand and teachers in language classrooms on the other. As a result of this sustained criticism indeed, researchers such as

NSOU PGEL-4 304 Kumaravadivelu (1994, 2003,2006.) have noted that we are now in a 'Postmethod era', to the extent that this idea is now regularly discussed and examined in teacher training and development texts. (e.g., Thornbury, 2006; Harmer, 2007). Given these developments and the apparent move away from Method as a major focus within ELT, As Allwright and Hanks (2009: 37) put it, 'why should we care about language teaching methods?' Examining language teaching methods serves a clear purpose. If we are in a Post method era, 'methods can be studied not as prescriptions for how to teach but as a source of well-used practices, which teachers can adopt or implement based on their own needs' (Richards and Rodgers, 2001: 16). For example, the development, drilling and practising of dialogues in the classroom defined the audio-lingual era, yet drills are still used by many teachers today, whether they explicitly associate such techniques with Audio-lingualism or not. We know Bell (2007), had asked whether teachers think that methods are 'dead', finds that they offer a source of options and practical classroom interventions. Thus even, perhaps especially, in a Post method world of methodological eclecticism, knowledge of methods is useful. 8.9 Summary In conclusion, English language is a language when combined with a deeper understanding of Linguistics and is instilled in a teacher and if taught properly to students, the students, in turn, will have a proper form of linguistic awareness without any form of humiliation while speaking and writing in the English Language despite the nations' diverse social, ethnic and linguistic backgrounds. 8.10 Review Questions 1) From the conversation cited in section 8.1figure out the culture-specific linguistic constructions 2) Can you see mother tongue interference while speaking English by L2 Speakers? Do you consider them as a hindrance! Justify your answer by posting examples. 3) What are the principles of linguistic analysis? 4) How is linguistics a support to understand the learners' problems? 5) What methods of assessment can we adopt by knowing linguistics?

NSOU PGEL-4 305 6) How is a mother tongue of the learner an influencing factor in learning a second language? 7) What are the contributions made by Pennycook and Allwright in choosing the right method to teach? 8) What role do the parents play in the development of learners' second language? 9) Do social and ethnic backgrounds of the learners cause problems while teaching? 10) How does a knowledge of language become an important input in teacher education? 8.11 References Fromkin, V., Rodman, R., & Hyams, N. (2011). An Introduction to language. Boston: Wadsworth. Hall, G. (2011). Exploring English Language Teaching Language in Action. Routledge. Hickey, R. (n.d.). The Neat Summary of Linguistics. 8.12 Reading List Aitchison, Jean. (1988). The Articulate Mammal, 4th edn. London: Routledge. https://books.google.co.in/books/about/The_Articulate_Mammal.html Crystal, David. (1988). The English Language. London: Penguin. Trask. R. L. (2004). Language, the Basics. New York: Routledge.

NSOU PGEL-4 306 Module 3 : Branches of Linguistics Unit 9 Psycholinguistics 9.1 Introduction 9.2 Objectives 9.3 Origin and Concept of Psycholinguistics 9.4 Sound Production and Human Brain 9.5 Branches of Psycholinguistics 9.6 Scope of Psycholinguistics 9.7 Summary 9.8 Review Questions 9.9 Reading List 9.1 Introduction In the previous units of Module 1, we have learnt about language, its various perspectives and the different sounds that are produced in English. In this unit, we will learn about the cognitive aspects involved in the use of language, its representations and processing. This unit also aims to discuss the interrelation between linguistic use and psychological process and/or influences involved. Recent developments in the field are increasingly generating as to how the interrelation influences language learning and its applications. 9.2

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Objectives At the end of this unit, you will be able to: Understand

certain concepts in psychology that features and enables language use, Can apply the acquired knowledge in obtaining and analysing information of this kind, Develop greater awareness of psychological patterning of learners in their situation, that facilitates language learning and teaching and its uses based on their exposure to the concepts. 306

9.3 Origin and the concept of Psycholinguistics Isn't it very interesting to find out how we manage to speak and understand a language at the same time? From our earlier studies, we know that it is man alone who is gifted with the ability of the speech mechanism. And, it is the same mechanism that either creates or mars man to man relations in any given society be it at formal or informal fronts. It is also highly interesting that by the use of language we dig deeper to understand the same language. It has such vastness. It calls into action the different features of the human body to coordinate and cooperate for an effective and meaningful expression. The linguistic elements may be combined into 'n' number of syntactical arrangements but, it is a human mind that helps in processing the arrangements and derive some logical relation and construct meaning from the arrangements (reading and writing) as much as from the way it is being delivered (intonation, stress, mood, tone, expression etc.) and received by the users (speaking and listening). It can be well observed from the behavioural strategies applied by a newly born child that struggles to understand or get itself understood by people around. Minute skills are involved in the entire process of forming meaningful communication. Well, to understand how psychology and linguistics work hand-in-hand it is essential to take a look at the origin of the concept of psycholinguistics. Before we do so, let us take a look at an advertisement below as our starting example: A closer look will take you to the circled letter (inverted 'a'). Every single letter, image, or linguistic element included in the advertisement speaks and conveys a meaningful connotation. The arrangement of the linguistic elements, and the diction, trigger the thought process. At the sight of the advertisement, we derive some idea and comprehend what it intends to convey. Undoubtedly, it involves an arrangement of letters, words, phrases,

and images. Let us consider the case step by step. But, how do the thoughts get organized? What are those physical parts involved and how does psychology get connected, if that be so? Can you attempt writing them in the space provided below? --- According to a study conducted by Willem Levelt, Director Emeritus, Max Planck Institute for Psycholinguistics, The Netherlands, has mentioned that the study of empirical linguistics goes back to the end of the eighteenth century in contrast to the claim of the psycholinguists that consider the origin of 'psycholinguistics' with the Chomskian 'cognitive revolution' during the late 1950s and 1960s . However, there are several views concerning the coinage of the term. Some studies mention that the term 'psycholinguistics' was coined by psychologist Jacob

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Robert Kantor in his book An Objective Psychology of Grammar (1936)

along with we also find mention that it was coined in the 1940s . After the publication of Charles E. Osgood and

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Thomas A. Sebeok's Psycholinguistics: A Survey of Theory and Research Problems (1954)

which reported the proceedings of a seminar sponsored in the United States by the Social Science Research Council's Committee on Linguistics and Psychology, the term was more into general use. Etymologically, it is of Greek origin. Linguistics, as we know, is the study of human language and related behaviour on one level and on the other level, psychology is the study of the human mind. It brings in close association and interrelation with one another. Psycholinguistics is a branch of study that deals with the acquisition, production and presentation of a language in a given context which is different as regards time, situation, culture and many other factors. It is not just confined within the arrangement of linguistic elements. The acquisition, production and perception of a native language are different from the acquisition, production and perception of learning a second or a third language. Psycholinguistics is essentially concerned with the development of theories on different aspects of language learning and provides an

NSOU PGEL-4 309 understanding of the psychological processes involved in the language producing skills, viz. speaking and writing and, the language perceiving skills like reading and listening. It identifies the complexities involved both bodily and psychological, that explains how human personality evolves across the stages of human lifespan and how language use is shaped through the stages of physical and psychological developments. Here, language is a term used as an all-inclusive concept applied in various contexts - could be the language of humans, or, the language of communication or computer language. The concept of Psycholinguistics is considered to have emerged in 1951. However, some views differ considering that study of psycholinguistics is traced back to the study of psychology. By building a link with neurolinguistics it has also been connected to the origin of psycholinguistics. However, it was in 1951, an interdisciplinary seminar at Cornell University was organized by the Social Science Research Council (SSRC) on language behaviour where the interaction between psychologists and linguists led to the systematic development of studies on psycholinguistics. The SSRC seminar brought together linguists like Thomas Seboek, Joseph Greenberg, Floyd Louncebury and psychologists like John Carroll, Charles Osgood, and George Miller. The publication of the report of the proceedings of the Seminar in the Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, entitled "Psycholinguistics" rapidly spread the concept of psycholinguistics for explorations by psychologists and linguists alike. The Sapir-Whorf Hypothesis and Noam Chomsky's Generative Linguistics launched during the 1950s, considered landmarks in the development of psycholinguistics, added fuel to the fire. 9.4 Sound Production and Human Brain However, it is to be understood here that sound production and the human brain are interrelated and the functioning of the human brain or its size is potentially connected in making the arrangements for the production of sound. Considering its importance and contribution it is important to understand that it was the anatomy of the human brain by Paul Broca, a French surgeon and German Doctor, Carl Wernicke's localization of a second region considered crucial in understanding human speech were the milestones in the understanding of speech mechanism and connections between language use and the brain. Broca's area so named after the surgeon is considered to credit the left hemisphere of the brain for language ability whereas Wernicke's area named after the German Doctor is considered crucial in the understanding of human speech. The breakthrough came from the works of Broca (1861) who came out with the fundamental discovery that the third frontal convolution of the left hemisphere of

NSOU PGEL-4 310 the brain is the source of language production and it was Wernicke who discovered the areas of the left hemisphere of the brain that is responsible for memory, for sound production and generating the image with the utterance of a word. The brain is a bundle of billions of neurons or nerve cells in varied shapes and sizes and other cells that nourish the nerve cells. These neurons when activated pass signals to one another that trigger the movement of some chemicals in and out of the neurons which generates a 'charge'. The central nervous system consists of the brain and the spinal cord and it is connected to the entire body through the peripheral nervous system. The innumerable neurons in the brain function differently in clusters or groups of neurons and the cortex of the brain are the seat of complex brain activities. Much before psycholinguistics came into the picture it was neurolinguistics that established the relationship between the brain and language use. Let us take a quick look related to the functioning of the various parts of the human brain: Hindbrain (including the cerebellum), and, Midbrain (along with pons and medulla in the hindbrain forms the brainstem) : controls balance, controls breathing, heartbeat and alertness Forebrain contains: the thalamus the hypothalamus the cerebrum contains the cerebral cortex : Relays the signals from the senses, Involved in eating and sexual responses, Responsible for perception, emotion and cognition. It is considered to be the biggest part of the brain and is divided into left and right hemispheres. The cerebral cortex is further divided into four lobes. Frontal lobes Involved in movement, emotional experiences and behaviour control Parietal lobes Involved in touch and taste sensation and registers the location of objects Occipital lobes Or, the visual cortex, analyses signals from eyes and visual pathways Temporal lobes : Processes auditory signals and language structure Left hemisphere : Dominant in many aspects of language use Right hemisphere Perception of the rhythm of speech or emotional expressions on the face. Psycholinguistics is an integration of psychology and linguistics, where the former is the study of the human mind and behaviour and the latter of human language. But, psycholinguistics is different from either of the two branches of study. This we have

NSOU PGEL-4 311 understood in our study on Saussure's distinction of la-langue and la-parole. Using a language has certain distinct ways that are different in different situations and are dependent on the structure of a language particular to that language system. Psycholinguistics is the branch of study that examines the processes of functioning of the human brain in its acquisition, perception and production of human language. It is a wider understanding of the 'psychology of language' that is extremely helpful in the domain of language learning and teaching. Task 1: List the functional regions of the brain and explain how they function concerning one another. You may take help from other sources of reading for further references to elaborate. Your answer: It would be interesting to understand some examples of the influence of the human brain in the use of language or its acquisition after birth, case studies on Genie, Oxana Malaya, Russian bird-boy are good sources and can be explored for more on them. Task 2: Once you have read the cases, pick up any one of them and write down your understandings of events like this. You can also include some of your references in case you have come across any of them. Your answer: 9.5 Branches of Psycholinguistics The study of Psycholinguistics has been further sub-divided under the following heads: 1. Clinical linguistics is an application in the field of speech disorders. It studies the linguistic features and movements involved in the production of speech and the disorders arising from damage caused to the brain. The study of clinical linguistics gained momentum during the 1970s and with the particular mention of David Crystal. He defined it as "the application of linguistic science to the study of communication disability, as encountered in clinical situations" . In more recent years, language use and/or communication which is seen as complex human interactions have become more convergent in the study and interrelation of linguistics, neuroscience, genetics and psychological workings. 2. Neurolinguistics analyses the process of working of the human brain and the

NSOU PGEL-4 312 production of human speech properly. It attempts an analysis of the structure of the brain and investigates the process of acquisition and language inputs and how it programs the language output. 3. Developmental psycholinguistics deals at large with the process of acquisition both of the first language and the second language. This branch of psycholinguistics tests adult representations and proposes to explain how these representations are developed. 9.6 Scope of psycholinguistics During the Summer Seminar in 1955, psycholinguistics was a new concept that has by now been studied from multiple perspectives and in various disciplinary contexts. The applications are many - be it in engineering, or, philosophy or language, psychology, sociology, the study of signs and so on. Understanding/s of psycholinguistics and its applications is a continuous field of thorough research. According to Diebold, the subject matter of psycholinguistics implicitly involves the following: The nature and function of language, Approaches to the study of language, Speech perception, The sequential organization of linguistic events, The scientific aspects of linguistic events, Language acquisition, bilingualism and language change, Pathologies of linguistic behaviour, Linguistic relativity and the relation of linguistic processes to perception and cognition. It all revolves around language use and the behavioural changes that take place during input, processing and output in the process of communication. These are specific to specific language systems and human biological features that enable sound production and brain function abilities. The process of communication takes into account the different kinds of behaviour involved in the entire transmission right from encoding to decoding. The language study involves intended behaviour during encoding and interpretative behaviour during decoding and the code transmitted as a message. The code or the message, in any form of communication, is either visible (series of signs and symbols in the form of reading or writing) or audible (sound in the form of listening or speaking) or tactile (touch sensations). The behaviour and/or the

NSOU PGEL-4 313 responses depend on the context of message transmission. The psychologists find their interest in the behavioural pattern of the communicators (sender, decoder and receiver), the linguists are curious about the system or the arrangement of the structural elements and the communication theorists are bent on knowing how well the code can be transmitted i.e. the accuracy of transmission. The study of behaviour by the psychologists involved with the use of language has been called the verbal context by Miller. The 57-pages report published as the output of the Cornell University Seminar in 1951 was a revolution by itself as it dealt at large the core issues in analyzing the process of communication. Shannon-Weaver's The Mathematical Theory (The Information Theory) was already there before the publication of the report which had largely spoken about the importance of the information theory. The Mathematical Theory of Communication came to be considered as the 'real science' pulling in linguists and psychologists for interdisciplinary endeavours. The report had also stressed the 'problem of meaning' and focussed on making clear 'terminological distinctions' and the Sapir-Whorf Hypothesis on the role of culture in language use. Psycholinguistics: A survey of theory and research problems became the "charter of psycholinguistics" (Diebold, 1965) in studying human verbal behaviour. Another important factor concerning the SSRC committee post-Cornell University Seminar in 1951 that deserves mention was the substantial funding received from Dale Carnegie Foundation and other major fundings including defence funding. The psycholinguistic theories so developed from studies are widely used in preparing audio-visual instructional materials as teaching-learning aids. It is considered that such instructional aids are more beneficial in teaching a foreign language. It is also of great aid in the understanding of bilingualism and language acquisition. 9.7 Summary The present unit has intended to discuss the advent of 'psycholinguistics' as a distinct field of study. The unit discusses the various concepts embedded into psycholinguistics. It attempts to provide an understanding of the role and influence of psychology and/or the human mind in enabling language acquisition and function. The discussion has also gleaned through the beginning of the concept and its existence at present. The importance of psycholinguistics is evident in the regular applications in the fields of engineering, medical, pathologies related to human behaviour and many more. The development of many theories in the field needs to be consulted and studied for a greater understanding of the unit.

NSOU PGEL-4 314 9.8 Review Questions 1. Psycholinguistics or the '

Explain from your reading of the text and references. 2. Psycholinguistics is interdisciplinary and is studied by people in one particular field. Do you agree? Justify your take on this. 3. One's language determines the ways one's mind construct categories. What would be your observation on this? 4. Do you think language influences culture or vice-versa? Substantiate. 5. Define the following: a) Language perception, b) language acquisition and c) language production. 6. Can you identify an application from the field of engineering where the concept of psycholinguistics has been applied in any of its forms? 7. Trace an application from the field of pathology studying human behaviour where the concept of psycholinguistics has been applied in any of its forms? 8. Analyze a write-up of yours, of any interest of your choice, and locate the influence of psychology in writing the same. 9. Study the 'Information Theory' and attempt writing a critical appreciation of the same. 10. Elaborate the importance of the Sapir-Whorf Hypothesis in the field of psycholinguistics in your own words. 9.9 Reading List Steinberg. D. and Natalia. S. (2006). Introduction to Psycholinguistics. London: Taylor and Francis. Traxier, J M., (2019). Introduction to Psycholinguistics: Understanding Language. West Sussex: Wiley and Blackwell Endnotes https://oxford.universitypressscholarship.com/view/10.1093/acprof:oso/ 9780199653669.001.0001/acprof-9780199653669 NSOU PGEL-4 315 2https://www.britannica.com/science/linguistics/Linguistics-and-other- disciplines#ref411913 3https://www.toppr.com/guides/biology/control-and-coordination/human-brain/ 4Clinical Linguistics & Phonetics, November-December 2011; 25(11-12): 922- 927 5Applications of Psycholinguistic Theory to Foreign Language Teaching, By-Estarellas, Juan

NSOU PGEL-4 316 Unit 10 Sociolinguistics 10.1 Introduction 10.2 Objectives 10.3 Origin of the concept and its implications 10.4 What is society? 10.5 Social markers that connect language and society 10.5.1 Process of socialization 10.5.2 Background and Education 10.6 The Dialects 10.7 Social stratification 10.8 Summary 10.9 Review Questions 10.10References and Reading List 10.1 Introduction The focus of the unit is on language learners and language users in multiple contexts - socio-cultural, academic, personal, political and so on. In a multicultural and multilingual country like India, the challenges in language learning and its applications in society are many in which people are variously socialized, interactive and consequential. Looking at the system systematically is a challenge both for the language teacher and the learners from heterogeneous backgrounds. The dynamism and complexities of relationships, discourses and communication are in a more macro sense. In this unit, we will learn about the socio-cultural aspects involved in the use of language, its representations and processing. This unit also aims to learn the interrelation between linguistic use and psychological process and/or influences involved. Recent developments in the field are increasingly generating as to how the interrelation influences language learning and applications. 10.2

sociolinguistics and its applications, 316

NSOU PGEL-4 317 Identify the interrelation between language and society in different social groups, Analyze the social relevance of the linguistic features by the participants in a society that is different for different speech communities, Improve critical thinking skills of the learners and encourage them to apply their observations. 10.3 Origin of the concept and its implications We will begin by looking at the following visual illustrations in and around us. Take a look: It clicked! Immediately after the visual senses signalled the basic cognitive process started working. You noticed and ideas triggered in your minds. The contexts are different but they are understood by the members of a society of all backgrounds but at multiple interpretative levels. How?

NSOU PGEL-4 318 Task 1 1. What are the steps that you have followed in understanding the series of signs and symbols in the advertisements? Do you agree with what has been mentioned below as the initiation point? a. Visual stimuli initiated b. c. 2. Are the patterns of development of ideas and data processing the same in all the images? 3. Do you find any relation between the linguistic elements and socio-cultural aspects? Your answer: -- -- -- -------------------- The attention and interests in language use and its diversities are increasingly gaining attention and interests not only among the psychologists but across disciplines for insights into language use because language is the medium and basis of social relationships and indicator of membership in different social groups and speech communities. The question that naturally arises how does one identify oneself with the social groups and are there any specifications to be a member of that speech community? This is a broad area of investigation that had developed over the years and researchers are still trying to understand the nature and role of the relationship between language and society. The advent of the concept of 'sociolinguistics' is considered to date back to the 1960s and is largely associated with the name of William Labov in its conceptualization (Koerner 1991, 57). In a general sense, it is considered to study the relationship between language and society. But, it would be unjustified to confine it within such a narrow concept or to consider sociolinguistics deals with social questions. It has also been identified with social psychology with specific reference to how the groups function in terms of input behaviour and output behaviour in their mutual exchange of language. We can usefully highlight some relevant markers in the morphology of the word 'sociolinguistics'. Any and every language functions within a society, for the society and by the inhabitants of the society. From a rational point of view, it would be necessary to understand the concept of society and the scope of social interaction

NSOU PGEL-4 319 and social relevance to get into the understandings of the relation between language and society. 10.4 What is society? A society is a system and the wings through which it functions are the sub- systems/parts and all its parts are interconnected. Now, what is a system? It could be said to be an entity composed of numerous interconnected parts that gives a complete shape to it and any change in one of its parts would disbalance the overall structure. As the term 'system' suggests, it is something that is structured, organized and follows a pattern. The parts like the physiological parts of any living organism are exclusively interconnected and are in a patterned relationship so is the society and its parts. It would, perhaps, not be wrong to say, that, society is a living system and through role allocations and positioning the system runs. For example, educational institutions are one of its parts that enables the base of understanding one's society and relation to it, the pathways of civilization. And, the medium through which a society and its system function is communication in all its possible forms. It could be a series of written signs and symbols (literary texts, advertisements, etc.), verbal interactions, discourses, sartorial, ritual, cultural, formal and informal behaviour, age, sex, the hierarchy of social representations, music or any other manifestations are symbolically significant in communicating ideological possibilities. A series of communicative events take place in society because of the interaction of its members and things are communicated by the use of language among the homogeneous or the heterogeneous speech communities. Language has been considered as an abstract system that is different for different users and as a result, the system arrangements differ widely too. Naturally, this increases the range of understandings of its macro-micro scale of linguistic structuring to that of its interpretations per the context of use and cultural setup. Let us look at some examples. The book so cited below is suggested for close reading and understanding of how the language that functions within a society has been used to speak about the same society. Any work of art portrays a society and its cultural context within a time frame. The front cover itself appears so dynamic and vibrant with several contextual connotations. The signs and symbols, the choice of diction, the application of transferred

NSOU PGEL-4 320 epithets, the use of font cases, the use of colour sequences have purposes of their own. It takes discussion position one from the national level to that of the international state of affairs. A still from the silent comedy The Modern Times, written and directed by Charlie Chaplin in the early twentieth century. A creation appealing to all times so poignant and bubbling with ideological interpretations at multiple contexts. It is a brilliant example of the use of language as a tool of communication. Task 2 You too must have come across many such cross-references or situations with sociological implications. Attempt a brief explanation based on your understanding and discuss it with a partner. --------------------- -- -- ------------------------- --- 10.5 Social markers that connect language and society In attempting to analyze language from a social perspective the various connecting factors need to be understood that finds expression through the social markers that are of social relevance. Through the interaction of linguistics with several other academic disciplines, the differences and similarities are understood implicitly or explicitly. From among these social markers, we will select some dominant factors. Linguistics is studying a language with specific purposes - understanding the nature of the language to induct language theories and second, describing the language by using the theories. But, it is not, rather cannot be, studied in isolation as it is interconnected to the study of psychology, philosophy, sociology, physiology, semiotics, phonetics, biology or, for that matter study of paralanguage and other disciplines to get into the understandings of the language functions. 10.5.1Process of socialization A child after its birth is a biological identity with certain needs and instincts. How

NSOU PGEL-4 321 and when the process of socialization begins needs to be the guiding question? The child at this stage is unaware of any social realism or socialization. The process starts when the control and guidance by the adults are exerted on it be it for any biological function during its stages of growth or the pieces of training imparted for speech, walking or greetings (saying, 'Hello', 'Namaste' and such others) or showing talents in singing, dancing, recitation and the likes. The linguistic features are imbibed much before the child enters the formal process of education and along with the socio-cultural elements are internalized as part of 'enculturation' way ahead 'acculturation' finds its way. Simultaneously, the child also starts imbibing semiotic processes by becoming able to identify the objects around it and differentiate animate from the inanimate. This process of socialization could be classified as primary and secondary socialization where the primary socialization is initiated at home and through the family environment and secondary socialization starts with the formal process of education and other social engagements or socializing agents. However, there is a third categorization called anticipatory socialization which takes place concerning one's association with a particular group which may be a result of social mobility. 10.5.2Background and Education Education is a social process and is the base on which the super structure is to be founded. Society exists and is meaningful with the existence of its members - humans, animals, trees and so on. It starts preparing the individuals right after birth to enable them to lead a meaningful and harmonious co-existence. It initiates the process of socialization that paves the way for social mobility. Now, there is a difference between 'educated' and 'knowledgeable'. It is the representative use of the language through the individuals' knowledge, skills, attitude, dressing sense, the value system that defines both the individual and the society to which the individual belongs. As language learners, we have seen the term language in itself includes two important constituents - langue and parole. And, from Mehrabian's statistical analysis we know that it is around 93 per cent non-verbal part of our communication that is being exhibited and of it, 55 per cent is attributed to body language in the process of communication. It is through the application of the language be it through writing or deliberations that one's culture, values, world-views, psychological conditionings are reflected. Sociolinguists are increasingly interested to develop an analysis of how the active language users and their behavioural inputs are fitted in with the larger processes and changing conditions of a society. It involves an understanding of the complexities of social attitudes reflected in communicative developments based on internal and external factors that combine with characterizations of contemporary social life. The

NSOU PGEL-4 322 local factors like one's ethnicity, culture and community, upbringing environment, physiological conditions, individual differences, ego diet and external factors like socioeconomic status, exposure to the outside world, educational standards together shape the language use of the social participants. Much later, one's self-esteem and openness to development are also subject to socialization - a relatively free play of personality and sentiment irrespective of training received or prone to community adherence. However, that demands a deep-rooted understanding of the individual's stages in the development of the self and need appeasement. Thus, the capacities for the mind, self and society are intricately interwoven in the use of language both in input and output communicative functions in society. Adapting a speech style or mark a difference from the vernacular language has also been influential in shifting the linguistic features during applications. As language facilitators, we come across many classroom situations that open for us a plethora of learning opportunities as we are directly involved with the learners. Much in the same line, we too open 'n' number of analytical grounds of our personality as markers of personality by the use of language be it in written, verbal or tactile. For example, assessment and evaluation is a crucial part of the education process. As facilitators, we have moral and professional responsibility as an examiner or script checker. Consider the following sentence below: Q: "What is this? Did you understand the question? What did it ask you to do?" Task 3 After reading the example above, can you put your observations in a frame? [Hints to consider your observations: What do you think are the representations from the example above? Does it indicate any social relevance while dealing with the learners? Attempt framing the example from your perspective and observations stated.] Your answer: Task 4: Read the following conversation, guess the thematical context, and comment upon the sociolinguistic features involved in it. Situation: Two persons are conversing. They are in the age group 35 (say, X) and 65 (say, Y) respectively. Gender - could be any. The conversation goes like this: X: I love living in small and cosy apartments.

NSOU PGEL-4 323 Y: I cannot think of living in some match-box like apartments. We live in big houses. Your answer: 10.6 The dialects The study of dialects that prevail in society is categorically studied under the classifications into regional dialects and those of the towns and cities. They are further sub-divided as upper-class dialects and lower-class dialects. Now, what is a dialect? It refers to the specificities of the language used by a particular speech community. They are identified as belonging to the same speech group by the particular ways of using that language, its tones and modulations, grammatical usage, vocabulary and pronunciation. For example, when people from the districts of Purulia or Malda speak to themselves, or, users of BrajBhasha and Maithili, or, say, Brahmin Tamil and Iyengar Tamil have a unique dialect of their own. They have a socio-historical background of their own. It is also an attempt to understand the socio-economic context which might have influenced the language used by their predecessors. The effects of "language crossing" as a form of ideological contestation are of considerable influence in the present day context both from linguistic and socio-cultural perspectives. The patterning of sentences, the tonal quality, the psychological workings, the written texts, the sartorial manifestations, music, rituals or the customs talks about the language in use not only from the temporal point of view but the history and growth of the language concerned. In many cases, it is a demarcation between the social hierarchy and speaks volumes on social stratification that (might) have changed considering from the original settlements, geographic boundaries and area allocations on the use of dialects to that of (any) recent developments alongside the indicators in terms of age, gender and social status that one enjoys or is in line with the society. In this regard, it needs to mention some prominent theories of socialization that explain how social interaction and communication plays an important role in shaping an individual's personality and/or behaviour pattern. 10.7 Social stratification The more is said of the social arrangements of the groups of people the lesser it seems. Right from the creation of humans on earth this concept of stratification has been under the umbrella terms of 'haves' and 'have-nots'. If we analyze the concept by all its prevailing theories and phenomenal existences the root of demarcation remains the same. So long we had been talking about 'equality for all. Today much

NSOU PGEL-4 324 before we talk of 'equality' it is the question of 'equity' -access to the resources is a priority than actually enjoying it or getting closer to its reach. Society exists for people, by people and is of the people (all living). On the same plane, the stratification is also created by the people, for the people and of the people. But, to what extent it is justified or acceptable or rational that is highly debatable and has never been realised in the history of mankind. Functionalist theory, Marxist theory, Feminist theory, Weberian theory, Natural Superiority theory (also known as Darwinism) are some of the prominent theories that have dealt with social stratification in volumes. But, the fact remains that equality for all the members of a society is, perhaps, a myth and that is why after seventy-three years of independence we are struggling for 'access' at the minimum. History is a witness of many legalized or hereditary systems of stratification through ages. Yet, the rate of literacy, gender disparity ratio, gross enrolment ratio in primary school education that we witness from the Government statistics and Census is a clear indicator of political and economic relationships. Obvious then, the total area of linguistics, its applications, lexical items, semantics, phonology, semiotics, social exposure are Greek and Hebrew to a great majority as to them to meet the basic needs of food and clothing is a yell. Where one section of learners can afford posh institutional environment and education to some other of the same age group a new pen or a pencil or a notebook is a lucrative offer. The very fact that people stand at differences in the class system is highly complex to understand the differential allocation of income, status and privileges, opportunities for various social utilities and the educational achievement can impact a child or govern the social relationships. Examples of such kind, I am sure, all of us have met at some point or the other on different grounds maybe. Even when social mobility is facilitated in some situations yet, the predominant rule prevails of consciousness whether or not one could fit oneself in the transformation. It is likely to happen both at the individual level or social relationships that one come across in the changing phases. It is a tough fight. Instances are many to prove the case in point and exceptions to the rule could also be cited. Whatever be it, the ranking structure of a society is a predominant claim for the linguists, psychologists, sociolinguists, anthropologists or politologists or political philosophers to base their hair-splitting understandings and research on the influence of social stratification on social behaviour. Concludingly, we have considered a limited number of factors in the thematic context of understanding how language defines a society or to say, how society influences language use. But, many other factors contribute to the understanding of the relation between language, culture and society. Also, we may take into account

NSOU PGEL-4 325 the individual customs, rituals and traditions of any speech community, the registers or the jargons, or instances of tough-mindedness to stick to one's tradition and rejection to change as contributing factors that shape the sociolinguistic elements particular to a specific community contrary to instances of 'style-shifting - formal or informal, as a social feature of language use. Further, sartorial, cultural or educational indoctrinations are also among the other factors to be concentrated upon. Even from the standpoint of guided and controlled situations like classrooms, workplaces (again different for corporate, public or private sector), recreational atmospheres like clubs, playgrounds, grapevine communication channels also call for our attention to understand the interrelation between language and society. Task 5: From your understanding of the readings from Sociolinguistics write a critically appreciated essay on how language is influenced by a society that one lives in, based on your personal experiences. Your answer: 10.8 Summary The present unit focused on the concept of sociolinguistics and its coming into existence as a separate discipline. The unit discussed the embodiments of the linguistic features in a socio-cultural context and their implications. The relation between language and society is from the conception of society itself but, its manifestations through cultural contexts evolved gradually. The unit attempted to give an idea of how the various social stratifications are constructed in human society based on lingual, cultural demarcations. It also highlighted the multiple variations of language usage based on regional or local deviations called dialects. 10.9 Review Questions 1. Do you think language has ever been influenced by any society? Substantiate your points. 2. Is the language used by you, shaped by the society of your time? If yes, how do you think it has influenced you? 3. How do the applications of language differ from one situation to that of another? For example, use of language in a home atmosphere to that in a formal situation? 4. Can you identify some of the dialectical variations of the language used by you? Jot down some of the key features of variation as identified by you. This

NSOU PGEL-4 326 could help you to understand the cultural diversities that, perhaps, shaped the language use. 5. Identify the initiation steps and elaborate on the process of socialization of a child as observed by you from your understanding of the concept. You may consider selecting the context after a child's birth, or, early days of school education situation or, as you choose. 6. Explain the concept of stratification from your understanding. 7. Explain a few of the stratification dimensions and add your critical comments on them. 8. What does the Constitution of India say on the social stratification issue? What are the articles related to it? 9. How do you look at stratification issues in the context of present-day technological advancements? 10. How do you think you can educate the learners on the eradication, if not wholly, of stratification? Suggest a few measures. 10.10References and Reading List 1. Hymes, Dell. Toward a History of Modern Sociolinguistics. pdf https://www.tilburguniversity.edu/sites/default/files/download/TPCS_175_ Rampton_2.pdf 2. Sociolinguistics and cultural studies: New ethnicities, liminality and interaction.pdf https://doi.org/10.1080/10350339909360443 3.

End-Notes: 1. https://www.google.comurl?sa=i&url=https%3A%2F% 2. Fwww.ebooks.com%Fen-us%2Fbook%2F1211822%2Fthe-mammaries-of-the-welfare- state%2Fupamanyu- 3. https://www.bl.uk/people/albert-mehrabian

NSOU PGEL-4 327 Unit 11 Linguistics as a pedagogy 11.1 Introduction 11.2 Objectives 11.3 What is pedagogy? 11.4 Linguistc Standpoint 11.5 Linguistics as Peadagogy 11.6 Summary 11.7 Review Questions 11.8 References 11.9 Reading List 11.1 Introduction As a language teacher, at times it becomes a little worrying to connect the contents of the course to the world at large or connect with their real scopes of application. The learners of the Digital Age are far more open to contents through unlimited web resources across the corners. It is with one click of the mouse a gamut of information is open for access. Thus, the challenge is somewhere else. It is with the method of delivering the contents to them. It is, again, as a language teacher, the task is challenging as much as interesting. A language is used to understand the same language and also, make it understandable to the language users. It is all about how well and proper it is to use the language, and make it meaningful for the learners an enable for application in their respective situations. The learners are from various backgrounds and as a result, social contexts are wide and it involves intricate analyzing of the social meanings of the language used. It needs to be understood here, that the local contexts, in many cases, are more important for consideration than the society at large. 11.2 Objectives After reading

the contents

conceptual difference between the terms "linguistics" and "pedagogy", 327

NSOU PGEL-4 328 understand the importance to study these, enable them to apply the fundamental concepts in their teaching-learning situations with understanding, self-evaluate their level of thinking skill and diagnose the pathways for the betterment. https://www.readwritethink.org/classroom-resources/lesson-plans/using-science-texts-teach 11.3 What is Pedagogy? Language is used in many modes. It could be a series of signs and symbols as written communication, verbal mode or any forms of non-verbal communication. Thus, it becomes very important to have a clear understanding of the various units interconnected in the process of communication to make the teaching-learning process fruitful. It becomes essential that the knowledge of the units to the facilitator sound reliable, and authentic because it is a Herculean task to make the language used in the classroom by the language teachers to get connected outside the classroom for its applications by the learners. So, the entire process involves the following key questions to be answered or understood by the language teacher: 1. Who are the learners (or, listeners)? 2. What is their level of learning the language? 3. What is the background of the learners (listeners)?

NSOU PGEL-4 329 4. What are the objectives of language learning? 5. What are the objectives of teaching (specific as well as general)? 6. What is to be learnt/What is the message? 7. What is the quality of the materials to be used in the process? 8. How is that to be communicated to all the learners (listeners)? 9. What are the facilitating factors or the obstacles in the execution of the process? 10. What is the degree of the scope of exposure and practice? https://images.app.goo.gl/ksnByhyDDwZScC2v6 Etymologically, the term 'pedagogy' is Latin in origin from "paidagogos" referring to the slave who was in charge of taking children to and from school (from 'paid'- boy + 'agogos' - guide). More commonly, it suggests an approach to teaching. It is an art by itself. If we are to consider pedagogy as a guide or an approach to teaching then, along with the above mentioned ten questions are to be coupled with the technological advancements in recent years. The experience of language in the context of twenty- first-century teaching-learning experiences needs to include ICT-enabled exposure as part and parcel of the collective life both in terms of time and space. Behaviourism came out to be a pedagogical concept that opened up many vistas of observation. Skinner's 'Teaching Machine' may be considered one such example. It was followed by Friere's Liberationism. His book "The Pedagogy of the Oppressed"

NSOU PGEL-4 330 talks volumes on learner-centric education as an approach to the pedagogy of teaching. Vygotsky's "social constructivism" shifted the focus to the social aspects of learning as a pedagogical approach. The concept of pedagogy has changed with the changing demands and needs of teaching-learning behaviour. Of the recent developments, Piaget's 'cognitive constructivism', much in contrary to 'social constructivism', took us through the learner's internal process of cognitive developments for a teacher to be alert. However, it was Geroge Siemen's concept of "connectivism" (2005) that connected the teaching-learning approach in line with the technological advancements of the time which in no way can be ignored. In the twenty-first century, with the explosion of technological advancement, new pedagogical approaches are advancing faster. In fact, working in collaboration with technology is the need and demand of the time. Thus, it all directs the attention of the (language) teachers to make a conscious move towards guiding (not monopolising the teaching-learning environment) how to learn or how to search for knowledge, how to make use of the internet to extract the desired information or to navigate through the boundless sea of information. 11.4 Linguistics standpoint "FOR a small group of specialists", says Charles F. Hockett, "knowing about language is an end in itself. These specialists call themselves linguists and the organized body of information about language which their investigations produce is called linguistics." Most of the other definition of linguistics revolve around the same concept. On the other hand, many linguists are not willing to generalize the concept on the ground that studying about a few languages do not open the floor as a whole. The data is very limited and as a result, there can be no generalized conception of the word 'linguistics'. However, it cannot be denied that linguistics is a branch of study dealing with language or the sub-sections involved under the umbrella term. In attempting to define it we will look at some equivalent terms like 'Linguistics' (American) with French 'Linguistique' or German 'Sprachwissenschaft'. It has also been identified with 'linguistic science' by Edgar Sturtevant in his book An Introduction to Linguistic Science. Much later, it was synonymously used with 'philology' which was later confuted by the philologists Roland Kent and Edgar Sturtevant by their publication of the article "Linguistics Science and Classical Philology". Thus, it promotes to contradiction as well as to discussion on the scope and purview of 'linguistics'. Now, to build an appreciation and sensitivity towards the myriad of ways that construct the domain of linguistics is an uphill task for the

NSOU PGEL-4 331 language teacher and the students too. Much has been said about the sphere of linguistics. It is agreed upon that it has something to do with the study of language and all its intricate arrangements. So, the basic point of understanding is language, more specifically, human language. Therefore, we need to delve deeper into what is language? Language, again, can be looked at from multiple perspectives and is not confined to one fixed definition. It is all about human behaviour and the varied ways of manifestations. Topic for discussion Let us consider the following features. Read and then decide if you agree to include them within the broad category of what we call 'language'. Language is the special ability of humans and not of non-humans Language is the representation of the psychology of its user Language is a social identity Language is a social marker of hierarchy Language is a social condition Language is volatile Language is voluntary and involuntary Language is a name given to a system Language is systematic (follows special arrangements) Language is non-systematic (if we go by 'meanings are arbitrarily assigned) Language is defined by the society of its time (a social phenomenon) Language is an ideology Language is a tradition Language is breaking the rules and tradition (hence, ambiguous) Language is a biological process just as any other physiological parts function in the human body A combination of all the considerations mentioned above calls for our attention to understand the domain of linguistics or categorizing the spectrum of language. It constitutes a miniature angle. Vast observations, generalizations, predictions and assumptions, discussion and rejection are a continuum. Perhaps, so, linguists are

NSOU PGEL-4 332 unwilling to generalize its concept. Of all the 15 features mentioned above, even if we take any one of them it is in itself a macro concept. It draws from other disciplines and branches of study because language is the common medium to express thoughts as much as the tool to cross-section and experiment the expressed thoughts. Coming back to the concept of language again, on the one hand, it is about the creation of meaning, interpretation of the messages, the articulation of sound that includes voice modulation, pitch, intonation, stress, accent, the use of words in a patterned (or, unpatterned) way, about the mutual relation between the words or their positioning and also, the syllables in the words, that is to say, the syntactical arrangements and so on. On the other hand, it is about the use of punctuation, signs and symbols (considering each sign as a text to be interpreted), thematic arrangements (persona used), pictorial landscape, if any, text background, philosophical reflection, if that is a collective work (or from some corpora) where meanings have a sequel, the timeframe and the likes, set up different yet inter-related levels for study and analysis of the language. All these embrace the scope of linguistics. By now, it must be possible for us to make a good assumption of the vastness and the range of linguistics. And, all these are by themselves vast in their area. For example, 'meaning'. The subset is profound to be studied for its own sake. How one derives the meaning of a text or a sign or a symbol or even a tactile sensation concerns the understanding of psychology, sociology, economic factors, tradition and cultural aspects etc. It cannot be defined at a superficial level without digging into the root. Moreover, a 'signified' brings along with it an array of 'signifiers' and the process continues. At the same time, it also demands a contrastive study of the past to that of present developments and future assumptions. History can in no way be ignored to get an understanding of the present or to look forward to the future. The plethora of data so involved is, unquestionably, unlimited and arbitrary. Next comes, the execution or the application part which again involves multiple levels and sub-levels. This involves the 'core' part of language use that is to say, 'how' of language (la parole) which, according to Albert Mehrabian follows 7-38-55 rule adding to the interpretation and construction of meaning. Then, we have the local and global contexts of time and space as fundamental to the construction of meaning added by demographic, geographical, physiological, first or second or foreign language acquisition factors all to be considered for connotation and denotation of messages be it written or verbal or any other forms of communication e.g. ritualistic or sartorial communication. Again, we have demarcations like 'language of the rulers' to those of the ruled, language specific to social hierarchy or concepts like 'andro texts, 'gyno texts', 'neutral language' and such other social constructs.

NSOU PGEL-4 333 India, at present, has 22 official languages whereas there are many more beyond the count yet to be listed. Think of the situation worldwide, their diversity and macrocosmic stature. Perhaps so, the linguists are reluctant to generalize any concept under their purview. It is here the language teacher's job is highly complex and categorically striking at all levels. Added to these, the degree of success is also characterized by the support received from the external environment be it about acoustics or infrastructure or human resource or final resource. But, whatever be the level of support received or not received the onus is on the (language) teacher. Then, the prominent question that is to strike a language teacher is how real the language study had been for the learners and does it have a practical relevance? 11.5 Linguistics as a Pedagogy We have understood that pedagogy is an approach; an art of teaching or, going by its etymology, it is a language teacher's guide to the outputs from the inputs in a classroom. It helps improve the quality of teaching as much as it enables learning in an informed and meaningful way such that during application the learners can apply with understanding. Learners already have some amount of information with them - may be related or inapplicable to the given context. The new learning is to be constructed from the old or the existing knowledge. The language teachers with their dealing of the subject matter also widens the power of imagination of the learners. They are initiated to think beyond the delivered talk and start making a construction which is their own. With the use of the units of language to explain that same language in a given context, time frame and space, the process of restructuring or meaning-making happens. It is here, the (language) teacher decides to choose the resource materials to be used, how to use, the nature of the relationship or the interaction that is to take place between the teacher and the taught, plan and analyze a lesson into its constituent parts, the process of assessment to diagnose the errors made and provide proper feedback that it encourages them to improve and develop. Bloom's taxonomy or Anderson and Krathwohl's revised taxonomy could be a good tool to prepare a lesson unit towards their improvement. The assessment and evaluation process is not a subject-matter outside the teaching- learning process. Hence, the same taxonomy grids are equally, if not more, applicable to get the desired outcomes from the inputs in the classroom. The art of preparing question also adds to the entire process of language 'constructivism'. The questions need to be framed in such a way that the purpose of questioning and assessment is achieved, the failing of which lessens the authenticity and reliability of the entire process of teaching-learning. In this, it is often found that the comments by the

NSOU PGEL-4 334 language teacher as a mark of feedback (which is not the same) have an appealing or demotivating effect. As we are collaborating our efforts with that of the OERs we come across many such technological applications that encourage us. For example, while using Grammarly we received encouraging feedback to motivate us. Quick Task : Can we make use of this visual data for interpretation by the learners? http://images.app.goo.gl/UVqt2wbayXPFfVUn6 Caution! The teacher is to guide the learners on how to interpret without interpreting it. (Using the language to interpret the language). If linguistics ("study of language") is to be used as a pedagogy, the language to be used is to be studied first to understand how to use it and transfer the understandings to the learners such that they can be meaningfully applied. The ICT enabled learnings have already made things much easier than before when it comes to the minimal use of the language (He, English as L2). The software applications (mobile or computers) have in-built functions that are easy to understand and use. Moreover, by wide discussions and debates from the various platforms, the language teachers can cross- fertilize the functional strands and make a potential contribution to the development of language pedagogy. Just as a child after birth starts learning a language (sound) from simple to complex it is in much the same way in the formal system of education the steps and stages of implementing the subjects (or, courses) or the contents of the courses are introduced. The classroom situation is also likely to follow the same pattern where a learner is geared to develop the skills from simple to critical thinking skills and with understanding. Learning cannot take place at one go. It is a step-by-step process and

NSOU PGEL-4 335 requires repeated practice, particularly for second language learning. The impact and role of psychology in learning a language is time tested and continues to be explored further. An understanding of psychological development is extremely crucial in language acquisition and is governed by age-group. Bio-genetic and socio-genetic factors stand side by side in the development of personalities as an important consideration in language learning and development. It is to be kept in mind, that, the purpose of language learning is not the same for all. In some cases, it might be for specific functions and usages whereas with some others it may be for passion or profession. But, the learners are under one roof and, inevitably, the psychological gearing (interest) would vary just as the mental mechanisms would differ. It is also important to remember here that the child is learning a second language and that has a direct influence on its native language or vice-versa. The levels of thinking and development may be reflected in different ways with special mention of whether or not it is a conscious effort to learn. The accumulation of impressions in learning will accordingly impact eagerness. Other than these, there are physiological differences which apart from regular and usual functions can create a reverse order in one's mind and ability. Finally, it is more important to configure and map what the learner does with the course contents than what the language teacher does. The language teacher is free to mix and match the pedagogies that suit the different contents that are dealt vis-à-vis the different situations. The same strategy cannot, rather, ought not to be applied at the same level and pace for all the contents. In this, mind-mapping of the learners at the beginning of the session could be of much help in shaping the lesson plans. Motivation is the dress of the planning done. It is intrinsic as much as extrinsic. Rewards and reinforcements encourage us irrespective of age. Learners if motivated towards self-learning followed by a self-evaluation the learning is, perhaps, the strongest and directed towards the route of excellence. The learnings that happen in an automatic process from the various social environments do not require any language teacher. Given a classroom situation, the role of language teachers is tougher because they have to make the skills involved in language learning understandable and meaningful for future applications in their respective life situations. 11.6 Summary The language teacher needs to enable the learner to understand how to learn, unlearn and relearn as an active participant and with autonomy in self-learning but, not in isolation with the world outside. Learning in no way excludes other activities. Learning can happen anywhere and at any point in time. Alertness and eagerness are the conditions both internally and externally to make a good move towards pedagogy.

NSOU PGEL-4 336 After all, pedagogy cannot be defined by or confined to one specific way of thinking because it intertwines concepts and applications right on-field depending on all- pervading contexts. 11.7 Review Questions 1. What are your perspectives of pedagogy? Substantiate your perspective/s with references from your experience and/or knowledge. 2. How do you think pedagogy, learning and teaching triangulate in trying to achieve the desired outcomes? 3. Analyze the interrelation between linguistics and pedagogy from your understanding and referential works that you undertake. 4. "Language is a biological process just as any other physiological parts function in the human body." Express your views on this. 5. Share some of your experiences from your teaching situations where you shuffled the pedagogical style/s and identify the reasons that led you to make the changes. 6. Share some of your experiences from your learning situations where you shuffled the learning style/s and identify the reasons that led you to make the changes in the style of learning. 7. What is the contribution of linguistics to language teaching? 8. How are views of Piaget and Vygotsky similar yet different? 9. What was Skinner's contribution to the development of pedagogy? 10. Is visual or experiential support essential in the process of teaching-learning processes? 11.8 References 1. Verma, S K and Krishnaswamy, N. Modern Linguistics - An Introduction. OUP, 1989. 2. Richter, S. R. S. and Simone Berle. 2015. "Pedagogy as a Poetic Gesture of Language". Educação & Realidade, Porto Alegre, Vol. 40, No 4, pp. 1027- 1043. http://dx.doi.org/10.1590/2175-623651542 1027

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NSOU PGEL-4 338 Unit 12 Computational Linguistics 12.1 Introduction 12.2 Objectives 12.3 Man-Machine Interface 12.4 Concept and Scope of Computational Linguistics 12.5 Challenges in Computational Linguistics 12.6 Applications of computational linguistics 12.7 Summary 12.8 Review Questions 12.9 References 12.10Reading List 12.1 Introduction You must have noticed that, during our web-browsing, many times when we look for information a particular web-page opens and the language used is not understood by us and that calls for translation. Within seconds the page is translated into a language we are comfortable with. How is it happening? It is mathematical processing of the language input by us and conversion into machine-language and again converted to human language of understanding. The large scale of data is automatically calculated and/or translated abiding by the laws of mathematical calculations and then received by us. Thus, the human language is brought into conjunction with the machine language. The computers are programmed to process the human language. Here, the use of the term 'programming' a computer is indicative of formulating a formal language in mathematical terms to implement algorithms for the computers to produce meaningful information in respective contexts. You might be wondering why are we discussing computers here? Well, by the use of the word 'computational' we invite the world of computers. Etymologically, the term relates to computers and/or the process of mathematical computations or calculations. This unit will look into the concept of computational linguistics and its applications. This is, comparatively, a new domain in the field of linguistics in the context of twenty-first-century connecting man and machine through language. 338

NSOU PGEL-4 339 12.2 Objectives The study of this unit will enable you to: a) Understand the concept of 'computation' in the use of language, b) Understand the relationship between human language instruction and computational implementation by machines, c) Facilitate the interaction with machines by developing insights into the essential concepts related in the process, d) Develop self-competence in making effective use of language for the systems to perform better and to the desired needs, e) Be aware of the applications in the field. https://images.app.goo.gl/mcJyntHGnXMz4oMK8 12.3 Man-Machine Interface Happening right now! I am a human mind filled with emotions, ideas, concepts, data and information. But, a machine? It does not have human emotion but, it has data super loaded and is multiplying every nanosecond. How does it understand our language? How does it give us the information that we need? Right now, I am using the machine and it is giving me information that I look for or, that I am documenting for the purpose. How are we getting connected? Is there any language connection? I am sure, you too may have been haunted by these questions. Although by now, we know Sophia - a human resembling machine who can speak, participate in human talks, conduct or take part in live interview sessions. Would you like to meet her? Let us meet Sophia. Let us meet her co-performers:

NSOU PGEL-4 340 Let us meet her co-performers: https://www.geeksforgeeks.org/5-best-humanoid-robots-in-the-world The introduction of digitally programmable computers by Charles Babbage to, the world of human civilization was in itself a revolutionary invention. The journey started in the early nineteenth-century and today in the early years of twenty-first-century we have already met Sophia and her co-partners. What is there in store for us next? There are surely many more advancements beyond our knowledge and understanding. We hit the keypads and with one click the entire universe is let open to us for information sharing and knowledge gain. So what are we doing in the process? We are using human natural language input as utterances, sounds or typing words, phrases and sentences and the computer is analyzing these utterances following an algorithm to find out what connection (read information) is requested. The system operates automatically following the algorithm to produce the desired result and, if further information required, it consults the database available to provide the further set of information desired.

NSOU PGEL-4 341 12.4 Concept and Scope of Computational Linguistics "A Mathematical Theory of Communication" was an article published by the mathematician Claude E Shannon in 1948. The importance and significance of this ground-breaking publication or its contents were such that it led to a minute yet a striking change to rename it as "The Mathematical Theory of Communication" the next year. It paved the way for the blossoming of the 'information theory' and the study of human language and machine language as connectors. The development in the field of computer sciences led to an in-depth understanding of mathematics and linguistics. If the study of language is a domain of linguistics then the programming language using mathematical calculations is the sphere of mathematical linguistics. Not only computers, we largely use digital calculators that make extensive use of numerals as well as symbols for its purposes. It is the mathematical use of linguistic terms for the computer. The use of technical words, mathematical notations, logical symbols are the machine's linguistic elements that instruct computers. These are numeric instructions or algorithms created by human language for the computers to understand and function within a specific time. It is the realm of statistical measures, analysis and structural logic using mathematical tools and techniques. Computational linguistics is considered to be the sub-category of mathematical linguistics that deals with the "application of computers to linguistic problems and with the application of linguistics to computer problems" (Oettinger, 1965 : 147). Do you remember any such situation where you might have lost the most valuable document of yours while working on computers? What did you do then? You have taken the help of an expert or by yourself have retrieved the lost file using some retrieval systems. How was it retrieved? It was with the application of the programming language understood by the computer and mathematical measures and calculations applied by the user to get back the lost data, that is to say, specific commands and controls used for the specific purpose. This is the application of computational linguistics where the language understood and used by the computers (the 'artificial language') in the form of mathematical notations are used as instructions (algorithms) to interpret and translate the human language (the 'natural language'). Here, it needs to be understood that, how will a machine understand human language. Herein, we use a technology that enables the computers to understand human encoding and translate into machine codes. This technology is called the Natural Language Processing (NLP) which is a subfield of computer science and artificial intelligence. NLP aims to understand and decipher the coding used in the form of human language, spoken or written, design and build applications that enable human interaction with the computers

NSOU PGEL-4 342 and other related devices in a faster, easier and economic way. NLP uses features like question answering system, machine translation, speech recognition etc. Computational work on language began with machine translation in the 1950s. Initially, the researchers faced problems in developing the algorithms to instruct a computer, especially, to formulate data structures for grammar. Chomsky's "Three models" and "Syntactical structures" were highly influential in offering notational variations but, other models like "Dependency Grammar" offered more than the notational variations. Take the following example of a notation from Linguistics. n - noun, adj. - adjective, pr.- preposition are examples of linguistic notations. Likewise, we have musical, mathematical notations or those in the field of Chemistry, Biology and so on. https://images.app.goo.gl/KuPpj6Z5KPKesjVg8 Quick task Based on the level that you teach and, also as the would-be language teachers, can you look into the textbooks of language or for that matter any domain of your choice and find more on the applications of linguistic notations? Now, help your students to understand the same. The International Conference on Computational Linguistics in 1969 directed a significant concern with the role of semantics. The concern was more "with the formalization of the semantics of the natural language in terms of metalanguage " (Montgomery, 1970, Report).The research in this field flourished during the 1970s

NSOU PGEL-4 343 and went on expanding to other fields like Speech translation, architectural issues, AI- driven approaches, philosophy etc. However, it was during the 1980s that computational linguistics and natural processing system studies advanced without taking much from mainstream linguistics and relying more on corpus-based data and machine-enabled learning that escalated during the 1990s. It saw the rise of understanding human behaviour taking the help of machines. 12.5 Challenges in Computational Linguistics The inputs are the natural-language text by the humans which a computer automatically analyses the various representations in the form of content used as a natural-language input. The computer processes the analysis made of the representations by identifying the concepts involved and their mutual relations. It is here the role of semantics becomes crucial in the context of natural language processing. The accuracy in representation/s of the concepts serves the basis of computation. Hence, highly formalized semantic concepts are required. The extralinguistic concepts like the socio- cultural, economical, political or psychological issues involved in natural language utterances cannot be derived from linguistic elements. This calls for the formalized concepts in the use of semantic analysis for computation. At the same time, in the process of mathematical analysis (computation), the representation of semantic dependence between the concepts cannot be established keeping in mind the correlation between concepts introduced in a given context is not only grammatical but also semantically dependent on one another. For example, The honest man returned the money to the owner. Here, the concepts 'honest' and 'man' are grammatically (syntactically) interrelated but, the relation between 'man' and 'returned' is semantic that involves Chomskian developments of the actor (man) and the act (returned). The dependency of 'honest' as a concept is established with 'man' because it describes the latter and hence a part of 'man' but, the representation of the semantic relation poses a challenge in computation. Semantics has much been studied off late but, it calls for further insights to enable the process of computation more accurate and easier. Now, the question that may arise is why is this accuracy required? It will be a little difficult to answer in concrete terms but in a nutshell, it can be said, perhaps, that in the days of increased technology computational linguistics aims to make it a faster and easier reach for the language users and also for an ease-of-use. What happens in a linguistic interpretation? The words (or, the concepts) are interconnected and these interconnections lead to interlinking of the concepts for the

NSOU PGEL-4 344 development of newer ideas and direct towards newer purposes of the study. Much in a similar line, the unlimited data are interconnected and interlinked to form a new set of information that adds to the existing knowledge base. Newer contents develop. The interesting point here is how does computation function here to connect the dots and form new information. If we look around it is a chain and network of words that are interconnected to find the interlink to dig deeper insights. Considering that perspective, think of the amount of data and the array of signifieds attached to each sign and signifiers. It is a rich system multiplying every moment and directing to fresh new pathways. Take the following example: Kolkata is the capital of West Bengal. Narendranath Dutta was a Hindu monk from Kolkata. Now, the dots (read concepts) marked in italics are interconnected and during the computational process, they are interlinked by performing a set of natural-language- processing. This processing takes place by breaking the content into units - like name recognition (Kolkata, West Bengal, Narendranath Dutta), identify the parts-of-speech and link them to find the correlation. These identified concepts are now separated and processed separately. Let us, now, look into the concept with a little analytical perspective. Kolkata West Bengal \ Capital of West Bengal, Its State in India, Demography history, Population, Area, Population, Area Speech communities Narendranath Dutta https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=TLuM4E6IE5U#:~:text=Semantic%20 annotation %20is%20the%20process,by%20machines%20to%20refer%20to.

NSOU PGEL-4 345 It now gets associated with the new concept for further machine translation and computation. Extraction from the database directs towards new inferences as: Swami Vivekananda was a Hindu monk from West Bengal (1) Narendranath Dutta was a Hindu monk born in West Bengal (2) (1+2) = Swami Vivekananda is the same as monk Narendranath Dutta from West Bengal. You may, now, be able to identify your experiences while trying to find relevant information which also intelligently guides the pathways to related information during our web-browsing using the search engines. For example, We type what is discourse analysis*......you will be redirected to further concepts (like Discourse analysis examples, Discourse analysis research papers, Importance of discourse analysis), in a knowledge base that not only provides you with the written document but, aids with visuals like images, videos, related news etc. The machine analyses the content using statistical, logical, syntactical tools and techniques. The process of translation during NLP is also challenging to translate, in some cases, as the computers may have difficulties in understanding because the computers try to understand each word in the content than only the phrases or the sentence as a whole. Likewise, the human language code sent by the user may also be faulty.The accuracy of the computer to provide an answer is greatly dependent on the linguistic performance as an input of the user. Therefore, the human language requires to understand the careful use of words and how the concepts get connected to deliver the intended message so that NLP can function with disambiguation and apply algorithms to provide the desired feedback. Ambiguities are cases with words that bear multiple-meaning depending on parts of speech function (noun and/or verb form) or deviation from phrase structure rules concerning the language in use (here English). The syntactical structure in traditional linguistics is also a major concern of the designers of languages for computers. These differences in mainstream linguistics create problems for NLP. But, despite these difficulties, computers are improving their understanding of human language and its intricacies. This directs the computational linguists direct their understanding of interconnected concepts to traditional/mainstream linguistics. However, it is not wise to consider that simply providing bulk data to a computer it will internalize it and learn to reproduce-importance lies what is done with the data. It has to be prepared in such a way that the computer can locate patterns or the links

NSOU PGEL-4 346 and draw inferences. To draw correct inferences the annotation on the data needs to be relevant and connected to the input. This necessitates the greater hold on the annotation of the contents and clarity of ideas and images to receive the desired output from the computer. It is when the annotation done on the data is accurate and relevant to the task the algorithms will be effective for the machine to learn (understand) and perform efficiently the task that it is being asked to perform abiding the algorithms of NLP. 12.6 Applications of computational linguistics The recent developments in the field of computational linguistics could be seen in the prediction, analysis and interpretations of human behaviour using machine- enabled question answering or probing higher into psychological tests, or explain human intelligence, emotional quotient, test decision making and critical thinking abilities, medical diagnosis and its various interpretations involved and others that are genre-specific like grammar checkers, creation of dictionaries and its graphical representations or register-dependent variations. The search engine optimizations, text editor apps like the Grammarly, speech or face recognition applications, CALL (Computer Assisted Language Learning) are the applications of computational linguistics. Because of the complications involved with mainstream linguistics, the NLP at its first step involves the tagging of parts-of-speech because for word classification its role in the content is important to disambiguate. More recently, it is largely based on text-corpora to enable linguistic data more available and comparable with billions of texts. However, the concept of corpora started creating its way from the 1960s a time frame when there was the problem of data availability. The notion of corpora relates to millions of texts multiple sources specific to a genre like fiction, newspaper articles, music, travelogues, legal matters, blogs and diaries, spoken or written communication fields and so on and are based on real as well as imaginative communication setting. Penn Treebank, American National Corpus, British National Corpus, Sketch Engine are examples of text corpora used in NLP. This paved the way for corpus linguistics. Interactive Voice Responses (IVR), applications like Siri for iPhone, Cortona, Alexa are other examples of NLP that conjuncts human language and machine-readable language. Syntactic and semantic analysis are the main techniques employed in natural language processing for the computation tasks to be performed. The Natural Language Toolkit, Stanford NLP Group Software, CSLU Toolkit (for language recognition and facial recognition), Visual Text, Marketing Chatbots (introduced as early as in the 1960s) are some of the well-known natural language processing tools used in computational linguistics.

NSOU PGEL-4 347 Thus, the success and efficiency of computation depend on how successfully linguistic processing (NLP) can be employed and integrated to promote and maintain the efficiency of algorithms for the computers. However, natural language processing remains a complicated subject matter: computers have to process a huge amount of data on individual cases to get along with the language. For languages that are widely used are said to suffer from linguistic performance problems despite the developments in annotation and text corpora. than, think of the languages that are limited in use poses a greater challenge. Finally, for the extraction of information to be more precise, accurate and efficient the computers need to be made more enabling by correct input of the algorithms. 12.7 Summary Everything around us are transforming and technology has, perhaps, left no stone unturned to influence human lives - boon or bane, the way it has found its usage.. We see robots playing human roles to the extent of nurturing a child or, as a baby-sitter following our instructions. Or, in a fraction of second, Alexa, Cortona in digital world does so many work for us. But, have we ever thought how do the machines (or, robots as we say) play the roles or follow human instructions. It is after all using language to perform and execute. In this unit, an attempt was made to take you through an understanding of computational linguistics or the branch of study that deals with processing of human language into machine language. It will give you a basic understanding of the importance of algorithms and computation to derive the right set of instructions in accordance to the output expected of the humanoids. I am sure you would be interested to look more into it. 12.8 Review Questions 1. What has been your understanding of linguistics so far and is there any development on the perspective? Justify. 2. Can you explain the importance of computational skill in your day-to-day life and how do you think you have applied them so far? 3. Construct from your understanding of the unit and the references that you consulted the points on how linguistics cast an influence on computational linguistics. 4. In case of your experiences in teaching (any level or even at home front) or in any situation, have you ever faced issues of understanding the set of instructions to carry out a work? How do you think it can be errorneous or effective?

NSOU PGEL-4 348 5. Explain some of the barriers that may hinder the appropriacy in formulating algorithms. 6. Search and suggest a few applications of computational linguistics apart from those that are mentioned in the unit. 7. Study 'The Mathematical Theory of Information' and relate its relevance in the context of computational linguistics at its inception and the present day. 8. How does NLP function? What parameters are used in making NLP a possibility. 9. Is CALL a reality in India? How extensively is it used? 10. How does Artificial Intelligence (AI) play a part in NLP and other devices like Cortona and Alexa? 12.9 References 1. Oettinger, A. G. (1968). Computational linguistics in a Ph.D. computer science program, pp 831-836.ACM Digital Library.https://dl.acm.org/doi/abs/10.1145/ 364175.364206 2. Benjon, W., & Hays, D. G. (1976). Computational Linguistics and the Humanist. Computers and the Humanities, 10, 265-274. https://www.jstor.org/stable/ 30199826 3. Garbade, D. M. J. (2018). A Simple Introduction to Natural Language Processing. Becoming Human: Artificial Intelligence Magazine. https://becominghuman.ai/a-simple-introduction-to-natural-language- processing-ea66a1747b32 4. Mongtomery, C. A. (1970). The 1969 International Conference on Computational Linguistics: A Progress Report. Spinger.https://www.jstor.org/ stable/30199354 5. Schubert, L. K. (2014). Computational Linguistics. Stanford Encyclopedia of Philosophy. https://plato.stanford.edu/entries/computational-linguistics/ 6. Lappin, S. (2014). What is computational linguistics. The British Academy. https://www.thebritishacademy.ac.uk/blog/what-computational-linguistics/ 7. Digital Guide. (2019). What is natural language processing? Digital Guide Ionos.

NSOU PGEL-4 349 https://www.ionos.com/digitalguide/online-marketing/online-sales/how-does- natural-language-processing-work/ Notes 1 Notational - refers to notation or system of symbols in the field of music, mathematics, language, chemistry and so on. 2 Words that describe other words example noun, pronoun, adjectives that are used to define the other words (say, good is a word that is described as adjective). 3 Corpus-based data- based on practical and real applications or transcriptions of recorded speech. 12.10 Reading List 1. Computational Linguistics. Ralph Grisman. Online publication: 2012. Cambridge University Press. 2. The Oxford Handbook of Computational Linguistics. Ed. Ruslan Mitkov. Oxford University Press. 2003. 3. Modern Linguistics - An Introduction. Verma, S K and Krisnaswamy, N. Oxford University Press.

NSOU PGEL-4 350 Module 4 : Linguistic Analysis Unit 13 Textual Analysis 13.1 Introduction 13.2 Objectives 13.3 Analysis of a text 13.4 Linguistics features of a text 13.5 Purposes of textual analysis 13.6 Skills and Techniques in textual analysis 13.7 Summary 13.8 Review Questions 13.9 Reading List 13.1 Introduction The module is on Linguistics Analysis of a Text. Let us be familiar with the term 'Linguistic Analysis'. Linguistic analysis refers to scientific analysis of a piece of text as a sample. It is based on five branches of Linguistic study. They are phonology, morphology, syntax, semantics and pragmatics. Phonology includes analysis of speech sounds, morphology is for word analysis, syntax operates at the level of sentences, semantics is the area of meaning analysis and pragmatics is the analysis on the use of language for specific situations. 13.2 Objectives

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After going through the unit, you will be able to a) Understand the

basic concepts in Linguistics analysis b) Know about linguistic features c) Understand what text analysis means d) Learn critical thinking skills 350

NSOU PGEL-4 351 13.3 Analysis of a text What does analysis of a text mean? Analysis is breaking down of a text into its component parts and then asking critical thinking questions 'Why' and 'How' to reach a conclusion. When a text is analysed, these individual components are examined. A text is a piece of written material or the written form of a speech, a play, or an article. In academic terms, text is anything that conveys a set of meanings to a person who examines it. In literary theory, text is any object that can be read. It may be a work of literature, or a street sign in the form of a single sentence or a short passage. Analysis of a text is a careful examination of the text in order to find out what it consists of. It is a detailed study to understand more about it. Let us take an example. 1. You can lead the horse to the water but you can't make it drink. This is a single sentence text which talks of showing people how to do things but cannot force them to act. From the structure, we can say that there are two clauses joined with the conjunction 'but'. The main clause 'you can lead the horse to the water' has a complementary clause 'you can't make it drink'. Now, lets us look at bigger texts. 2. I don't want anyone else and neither does She. The problem is I'm talking about her but she is not talking about Me. The nine lines poem by Ryan Hennessy is based on two characters 'she' and 'me'. The argument behind the poem is composed in the last five lines where the poet is talking of a problem. The lines are presented in two or three words so as to match with the single word sentences. 'is' and 'about' are repeated twice to rhyme the sentences. Let us work on few tasks to check our learning.

NSOU PGEL-4 352 Task 1: Analyse the following texts: a) Don't put off until tomorrow what you can do today. Your answer: b) 'Human beings have been speaking for many tens of thousands of years at least, and they may possibly have been singing for about as long. But writing is a rather recent development in human affairs. So far as we know, the first true writing system was invented by the Sumerians, in what is now Iraq, about 5,200 years ago. The use of writing spread out from there, and writing was much later independently invented in a few other places, including at least China and Mexico.' (Trask, 2004: 130). Your answer: Text (a) is a proverb with an embedded structure. The main clause is 'what you can do today' which is embedded with the clause 'Don't put off unit tomorrow'. The text talks of completing task in time to avoid unnecessary delay. Text (b) is a factual description on the emergence of writing. The phrase 'for many tens of thousands of years' and 'have been singing for about as long' plays the role of catching the reader's attention in a story telling mode. This sentence also de-stress the activity of reading heavy disciplinary discourse. You must be wondering are there any principles of text analysis? The following section discusses the linguistic features of text according to which we may analyse a text. 13.4 Linguistics features of a text A feature is a characteristic used for classifying a phoneme, morpheme, or word. Linguistics features are components that create language for communication. The five main components of a language are phonemes, morphemes, lexemes, syntax and context. Together with grammar, semantics, and pragmatics these enable meaningful communication. We are already familiar with the term phoneme. A Phoneme is a minimum distinctive unit which does not have any meaning of its own, but when replaced by another phoneme (in a similarly constructed word) can bring a change in meaning. Phonemes are language specific and are distinctive features of a language. The structure 'The fat cat in the hat' has a number of phonemes. When

NSOU PGEL-4 353 the phoneme /f/ in 'fat' is replaced by /k/ or /h/ we have new words like cat and hat. We will learn more on phonological analysis in Unit 14. Now, let us see what we know about morpheme. A morpheme is a minimum meaningful unit of a language while analysing the structure of a word. Unlike phonemes, morphemes are mutually exclusive. That is one morpheme cannot occur in the place of another morpheme. For example the structure 'gentlemanliness' has four morphemes, [gentle + man + li + ness] each having a meaning of its own and not divisible any further in form. A lexeme is a unit of lexical meaning which exists along with its different forms. Lexemes are a stream of characters which can be grouped together based on a specific pattern. The patterns are the description that a lexeme can represent or take. The words drink, drinks, drinking, drank, and drunk are forms of the lexeme Drink. They are in verb inflection pattern. The lexeme is always written in capital letters. Lexemes can be multiword. Phrasal and prepositional words, idioms and some compounds are multiword lexemes. For example 'fire station' and 'change of heart' are multiword lexemes. Learning a language includes the ability to create phrases and sentences out of morphemes and words. Arrangement of these structures and their formation is 'syntax'. Syntax is the study of sentence patterns in a language. For example, the sentence 'I saw a bird in a big tree.' has NP and VP structure. This is called parsing. You will learn more about parsing in Paper 7. The Context is the circumstances that forms the setting for a statement, or an idea in terms of which it can be understood. Examples of contexts are the words which surround the word 'time' in the sentences: a) I have saved a lot of time and the results were up to the mark. b) I can login at multiple sites at the same time without having to register. c) It is difficult for the first time users who do not know how to customize. d) Travel through space and time. For sentence (a) saving time indicates completing a task in a short time, whereas, for (b) 'same time' refers to the ability to access and use many tools and apps to accomplish multiple tasks in a parallel way. Sentence (c) is a statement on users who are working on a task for the first time to cope with specific functions (at the individual level) and (d) is referring to an indefinite continued progress of events across past, present and future.

NSOU PGEL-4 354 Context can be public or private, official or informal, factual or fictional, literary or non-literary, and prose or poetry. Task 2 : Analyse the context for the following text 1 . Digital learning apps are proving to be fun ways to educate children. They are offering an opportunity to strengthen the brain while learning. Moreover, it is proving to be a great way to keep students engaged. Access to such platforms is also enabling many students to assess, enhance and hone their attention skills. Your answer: The text is on the opportunities of digital learning apps, and the skills of the learner that they are strengthening. Though this is a generalized statement, it can have adverse effects in long time application. Task 3 : Analyse the lexemes from the following: A. Confidence allows one to communicate concisely with clarity. B. Throughout the world, it has been seen that effective communication is vital in the pursuit of a rewarding career. Your answer: The lexemes in the text are (a) communicate concisely with clarity,(b) throughout the world, effective communication, rewarding career. 13.5 Purposes of textual analysis The purpose of a text is the message the author wants to communicate. The purpose of analysis is to break the text into smaller simple topics in order to gain a better understanding of it. In the process it describes the content, structure and functions contained in the text. The purpose of textual analysis involves asking questions on four areas: Mode, Discourse, Lexis and Grammar. The mode covers the physical appearance and presentation of the text. The mode of a text can be written or spoken, spontaneous (conversation) or planned (lecture, essay). Discourse is the sense structure of a text. The purposes of the discourse are to introduce (a) the narrator/ author/ speaker, (b) the linguistic features of genres - newspaper article/ letter/ novel/ instruction manual etc., and, (c) the lexical and syntactical patterning.

NSOU PGEL-4 355 The lexis discusses the formal and informal types of expressions. Does the text draw on ambiguous words? Are there repetition of words and any other text specific words? We need to look for these answers in textual analysis. The grammar looks into the grammatical structures that organize the text. Task 4 : Analyse the following text according to mode, discourse, lexis and grammar. A little while ago I asked Mrs Z to give me a black marker pen. She understood what I said and gave me a blue marker. I put the pen in my folder and went to the class. I could not find the maker at first but in a minute I found it in my folder. Then I drew a picture of the speech organs on the board. I came back to the table and put the marker down. And you all drew it in your sheets. Your answer: The above text is a spontaneous discourse of a class teacher with many words in the past tense. The text also introduces irregular verbs. These words are in the italics. The lexical and syntactical patterning is focused on those grammatical points in the text. 13.6 Skills and Techniques in textual analysis When we read a text, in the first reading we are drawn to the text message and then we shift our focus to the text structure. When we are reading a story for example, we absorb ourselves into the story path, and its events and after the reading ponder on its characters and try to recapitulate a few times the situations which we appreciated the most and on the actions on which we want to reflect on. In the unconscious process, we revise on the language used in the story. If we are working on the text then in the second reading, we focus on its structure. So there are few steps involved here. First, choosing the text we want to read, then making notes of the elements in the text with 'why' and 'how' questions and answering those questions and finally drawing conclusions with reasonable support. Now, what are the language structures on which we need to focus for text analysis? You will discover them while working on the tasks and later on when you will learn to see text analysis elements in everything you read. This can be investigating how often certain words and phrases are repeated in social media posts or which colours are predominant in advertisements for certain products. The critical thinking skills are needed for textual analysis. They are analysis, inference, and interpretation. Task 5: Find the Key elements for text analysis.

NSOU PGEL-4 356 The chief difficulty in learning a new language is the trouble of changing from the sentence-pattern which you are used to in your own language to the sentence- patterns of the new language. Learning new words is easy, for that is only a question of simple memory and the building up of 'links'; but it is clearly necessary to teach the sentence patterns of English, and to make them a habit, as early as possible. 2 Your answer: It can be concluded that the above text is on pros and cons of learning a new language. Therefore the 'why' and 'how' questions for the text analysis are: why learning new a word is easy and how are sentence-patterns learnt. The key elements are: new words and sentence-patterns. Task 6 : Analyse the text 3 to identify the idea and technique. If you are an amateur conjurer one of your tricks would go down very well as an action-chain. I once saw a teacher make an action-chain by taking off his collar and tie and putting them on again. On another occasion, to give his class some practice in imperatives (and precise instructions), he took off his jacket and asked the class to tell him how to put it on again. When they said, "Put your arm in the sleeve," he put his left arm in the right armhole and had to be corrected, then he put it on back to front while they shouted further instructions, put it upside down, inside out, etc., until he almost strangled himself. The class was almost in hysterics. They probably learned a lot: at any rate they were not bored. Your answer: In the first reading of the text, you will find that the theme of the text is teaching precise instructions through an action chain. The learners come up with imperative constructions after viewing the context. The technique used in the teaching is performing and at the same time describing actions. 13.7 Summary Linguistic analysis of the text features is an area that has a few sub areas. The areas that are introduced here are in detailed discussion for the other units of the module as well as in other core courses. The aim of the unit is to introduce you to the linguistic analysis through a variety of tasks.

What is text analysis? 2. What are the processes for reading and analysing a text? 3. What are the lexemes? Give examples. 4. What are the purposes of text analysis? 5. What are linguistic features? 6. Arrange the following steps for processing a text. a. Making first round of basic notes. b. Reading a text third time to identify examples and techniques. c. Reading or viewing a text for ideas and themes. d. Reading a text second time to identify ideas and themes. 7. What skills are necessary for textual analysis? Discuss them with their applications. 8. Write and example of a text analysis on grammar. 9. Write an example from real life situation on mode analysis. 10 What are the skills necessary for text analysis? Justify your answer. 13.9 Reading list Carroll,

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Salkie, Raphael. (2006). Text and Discourse Analysis. London: Routledge. Trask, R. L. (2004). Language - the Basics. New York: Routledge. Toolan, Michael. (2016). Language, Thought and Reality. New York: Routledge. https://Language-Text-Context-stylistics-Discourse-ebook/ Notes 1 The Times of India, Kolkata, 11th June 2021, page 7. 2 The Teaching of English Abroad, Part 1: Aims and Methods. F. G. French. Oxford: Oxford University Press, 1975, Page 40. 3 Essential English for Foreign Students - Teacher's Book -1 C. E.. Eckersley. London: Longman, 1963, Page 47.

NSOU PGEL-4 358 Unit 14 Phonological Analysis 14.1 Introduction 14.2 Objectives 14.3 Identification of Phonemes 14.4 Identification of Allomorphs 14.5 Writing phonological rules 14.6 Summary 14.7 Review Questions 14.8 References 14.1 Introduction We are familiar with the terms phonetics and phonology which we discussed in Paper 3. Phonology is the study of sound systems of all languages. Phonological analysis is an analysis of the speech sounds of a particular language. The aim is to determine how differences of speech sounds are phonemic or help us identify distinct phonemes and those that are non-phonemic or allophones which are in free variation. 14.2 Objectives After reading and working on the activities from the unit you will be able to a) Understand the concepts of phonetics and phonology based on practical activities b) Undertake phonemic analysis of a given data c) Understand the principles of phonetic analysis d) Learn how to write phonological rules 14.3 Identification of Phonemes A phoneme is a class of minimal distinctive unit that features contrasting and mutually exclusive environment from all other distinctive sounds of a language. Phonemes of a language are identified from arranging, comparing, and combining the forms of utterances with the help of phonetic transcription. In identification process 358 NSOU PGEL-4 359 we need to find out whether the occurrence of any particular initial is limited by the following sounds. If it is limited, then it is an allophone. The variation of speech sounds which combine to form a phoneme are its allophones. Allophones are phonetically similar sounds in complementary distribution. This means, where one sound can occur, the other variant cannot occur. We will make this clear with some examples later. These phonetically similar sounds never occur in an identical environment. For example, [pV] in pin and [p] in spin are allophones, as they cannot distinguish words. They are not similar in sound quality. The first one is aspirated while the second one is unaspirated. In order to understand the position of a sound, we need to become familiar with the word 'environment' of a sound in a syllable. Take a look at these examples: [pVwn] and [spwn] In these words, the sound /p/ occurs in two places. [pV] occurs initially and is followed by a vowel sound. The sound is also the first sound in a stressed syllable. This environment can be represented as: - x v (where the initial - stands for blank, 'x' stands for the sound under discussion and 'v' for a vowel.). [p] is the second word is medial (not initial). It is the second sound in the syllable and is also followed by a vowel sound. The environment for this sound is represented as: c x v (where 'c' stands for a consonant, 'x' for the sound and 'v' for a vowel). Since the two sounds occur in different environments performing specific functions, they are said to be distributed in complementary distribution. This means, one sound completes the function of the other sound which it cannot perform. [ph] can occur only at the beginning of a stressed syllable. It cannot occupy a medial position, therefore this function is completed by [p] medially. Together, the two allophones perform the function of one phoneme. (There is one more allophonic variation of the phoneme /p/ which always occurs finally, and is called the unexploded variety, and is represented as shown [po]. You find this sound in a word like 'tip'. (Phonemes occur in contrastive distribution, i.e. they bring about a difference in meaning, when they occur in similar environment e.g. pin and bin. For each sound in a syllable, environment can be marked in a similar fashion to determine whether a sound is a phoneme or an allophone. Let us look at some activities to help you gain practice in such exercise. Activity 1 Sindhi Language: Compare the sounds [p] and [pV] from the data 1 . Do they exist in similar or contrastive environments? State why.

NSOU PGEL-4 360 [pcpu] leaf [tcu] bottom [dcu] door [ycju] opportunity [kVcto] sour [j e j u] judge [Seki] suspicious [bcju] run [pVcnu] snake food Your answer: From the data, [p] and [ph] are in contrastive distribution. Both occur in word initial positions as in 'leaf' and 'snake food'. Since there is a difference in meaning, it indicates that by replacing the sound, a new word is formed. Aspiration is phonemic in Sindhi as there are other aspirated stop sounds like [kh]. In phoneme identification, phonemes in initial clusters are identified in two ways. If different clusters contain a common member, and if all the members of a cluster occur alone as initials, then it is a phoneme or a distinct unit. For example, demonstrate has the cluster '-nstr-', the cluster 'str-' is also found in 'strategic' and 'illustrate'. The members of the cluster are [s], [t] and [r] occur as initial sounds in saga, tortoise and restaurant. Therefore we may conclude that /s, t, r/ are distinct phonemes of English. Activity 2 Japanese language 2 : Consider the sounds [t] and [t•]. Determine whether they are allophones of the same phoneme or two different phonemes. If they are allophones state the complementary distribution; if phonemes, state the contrast. What phonological process is illustrated here? [tatami] mat [tegami] letter [t•it•i] father [•ita] under [t•izu] map [koto] fact [ut•i] house [degut•i] exit Your answer: The sounds [t] and [t•] are two distinct phonemes and not allophones for the following reasons. a) /t / occurs at word initial position (mat, letter) and word medial position (fact, mat). b) /t•/ occurs word initially (map), word medially (father) and word finally (house, exit). The phonological process is word final vowels are high when they occur after fricative, affricate and nasal sounds.

NSOU PGEL-4 361 Activity : 3 Spanish Language: Analyse the data 3 below and find the phonemes of the Language. [t=] is voiceless retroflex stop, [d=] voiced retroflex stop. [pεθ] fish [bεθ] time [t=ia] aunt [d=ia] day [kat=a] tasting [gat=a] 'she-wolf' [pat=a] foot [papa] pope [t=oro] bull [koro] chorus [θima] peak [sima] abyss [fjεst=a] fiesta [sjεst=a] siesta[oxo] eye [oso] bear Your answer: The distinct phonemes are /p/, /b/, / t= /, /d=/, /k/, /g/, /θ/, /f/, /s/, /x/. They all occur in contrastive distribution, in mutually contrasting environments. For instance, the words, [pεθ] 'fish' and [bεθ] 'time' have similar environments '-εθ' with a different initial sound. Therefore they are minimal pairs and the initial sounds / p / and /b/ are two distinct phonemes. For the word 'siesta', /s/ is a phoneme (since 'abyss' and 'peak' occur as minimal pairs) therefore sj- is a cluster. Thus fj- is also a cluster of two phonemes Therefore, /f/ and /j/ are phonemes. 14.4 Identification of Allomorphs Allomorphs are variations of sounds of a single phoneme which occur in the same position but do not form new words. Thus they are phonetically similar sounds which never contrast with each other. If all the phonetically similar sounds in the question share a feature of articulation, absent in all other sounds in the environment, then they are classified as allophones of the same phoneme. Let us work on few activities on allophone identification. Activity : 4 Consider the data 4 from Greek, focusing on the following sounds: [x] voiceless velar fricative [c] voiceless palatal stop [k] voiceless velar stop [ç] voiceless palatal fricative [kano] 'do' [çeli] 'eel' [krima] 'shame' [xano] 'lose' [ceri] 'candle' [xufta] 'handful' [çino] 'pour' [çeri] 'hand' [kufeta] 'bonbons'

NSOU ? PGEL-4 362 [cino] 'move' [kori] 'daughter' [oçi] 'no' [kali] 'charms' [xori] 'dances' [xali] 'plight' [xrima] 'money' a) State the status of [x, k, c and ç]. b) Are they in complementary distribution or in contrastive distribution? c) Specify the occurrences of [k] and [x] sounds. Your answer: a) /k/ and /x/ are phonemes because they occur word initially creating two different words in the environment '___ ano'. /ç/ and /c/ are also phonemes because they too occur word initially creating two different words in the environment '___eri'. b) They are in contrastive distribution. c) /k/ and/x/ occur a single consonants word initially ad well as in word initial clusters as /kr-/ and /xr-/ combinations. Activity 5 Look at the transcriptions of a number of words in Scots. 5 a) Match the orthographic English gloss in the box below with the Scots transcription. (Hint: diphthongs in RP are usually lengthened monophthongs in Scots). b) Do you think the sounds mixture between /w/ and /h/ are phonemes, allophones or in free variation? Give reasons. (Voiceless labial velar approximant, a kind of [w] and [M].) Scots transcription English orthographic gloss Scots transcription English orthographic gloss Ma'e why Mwp Whip cwe: away wwt•wz witches Mwt• which weð rve:n weathervane Mec whale cM wt Awhile We: Way M wt White

NSOU ? PGEL-4 363 Með Λ r Whether We:t Wait Me: whey wcnt want we ł z Wales Your answer: /w/ and /M/ are phonemes because they occur as minimal pairs in: whey and way, weather and whether, whales and Wales. 14.5 Writing phonological rules Phonological rules are symbolic statements on the occurrences of sound segments (phonemes). The function of a phonological rule is to provide phonetic information necessary for pronunciation. There are two components of a rule. The left hand component segmented from the right hand component by a slash (/) . The left hand component specifies the sound segment in the analysis and its features. The right hand component specifies the environment in which it occurs, its preceding and following sounds. The word boundary is marked by a hash tag (#). For example the following is a phonological rule: C [Velar] → [Palatal] / _____ V [Front] This rule states that velar consonants transform to palatal consonants in the context before front vowels. Let us work out few activities. Activity 6 Bukusu is a language of the Bantu family spoken in Kenya. The nasal prefix / n-/ shows that the verb is in first person (I eat, go, sing etc.).Two different processes occur when /n/ occurs before another consonant. Analyse the words from the data6 and think what is happening. /β/, / / and /x/ are voiced bilabial fricative, palatal nasal and voiceless velar fricative. /i:/ is a long vowel. ndi:la 'I hold' d¦ina 'I scream' se:nda 'I move' suna 'I jump' d¦u: ga 'I watch' xala 'I cut' gaβa 'I divide' geta'I pour' mbi:ma 'I weigh' ndasa 'I add' xola 'I do' mbula 'I roam' mubuka 'I perish' ndula 'I trample' fuka 'I cook' fwa:ra 'I dress' funa 'I break' mbala 'I count'

NSOU PGEL-4 364 a) How does the nasal occur? Name the phonological processes. b) Write phonological rules on nasal prefix /n-/ in Bukusu. Your answer: a) There are four types of nasals in the data. These are: alveolar nasal /n /, palatal nasal / /, velar nasal / /and bilabial nasal /m /. These nasals are distributed in the following contexts: i) The alveolar nasal /n/ occurs word initially and medially before alveolar stop /d/ & before front back vowel/a/. ii) The palatal nasal / / occurs word initially before palatal affricate /®/. iii) The velar nasal / / occurs word initially and medially before voiced velar stop /g/. iv) The bilabial nasal /m/ occurs word initially before voiced bilabial stop /b/ and back high vowel /u/. b) Phonological rule for /n-/: i) C[+nasal] → [alveolar] / #____ C [+alveolar][+stop][+voiced] V [+front][+back] C. Now write the phonological rules for ii), iii) and iv). Your answer: Activity 7 Data 7 from

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Italian. Focus on the phones [k] and [t]-do they contrast? What about their nasal counterparts [ ] and [n]? (['] means that the following syllable is stressed.) ['

ne:ro] black ['sta ko] tired ['tap:o] tap ['a ke]also ['fi:ne] end ['te go] I hold ['njente] nothing [fran't•jeze] French ['lu ggo] long ['u gja] claw ['ka:po] head ['li gwa] language ['onda] wave [in'vemo] winter
NSOU ? PGEL-4 365 Your answer: Distribution: /k/ and /t/ occurs in the minimal pairs 'tap' and 'head'. They are therefore phonemes. Their distribution is mentioned in the following rules. C → [+Velar, - voiced] / [+stressed] _____ [+long front vowel, CV] # C → [+dental, -voiced] / [+stressed] ____ VCV# /n/ and / / are allophones. They are not phonemes because they do not contrast each other. Their complementary distribution is stated in the following diagram. / / before velar stops /n/ /n/ elsewhere Activity 8 Look at the data from English. State the rule that specifies when /t/, /d/, /s/ and /z/ become palatalized as /t•/ , /®/, /•/ and /¦/. Nonpalatalized Palatalized hwt mi 'hit me' hwt• ju 'hit you' lwd him 'lead him' lw®ju 'lead you' pVæs s 'pass us' pVæs ju 'pass you' luzðem 'loose them' lu¦ju 'lose you' Your answer: Phonological rule: Palatalization occurs when they [t, d, s, z] are followed by a palatal glide. C → [palatal] / ____ C [palatal glide] 14.6 Summary The unit is a practical application of the knowledge introduced in paper 3. Most of the answers to the activities are discussed in the unit for the autonomous learning. Phonological analysis involves detailed examination of the phonemes in their environments. Here

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are some review questions to check your comprehension on the unit.

NSOU PGEL-4 366 14.7 Review Questions 1. Hypothetical Language a) Consider the sounds [s] and [z] and determine whether they are allophones of the same phoneme, or represent two different phonemes. b) If the answer for (a) is allophone, then state the complementary distribution; if the answer for (a) is phoneme, then state the contrastive distribution. Argue for your answer. c) What phonological process is illustrated here? d) If the two sounds are allophones, write a rule that accounts for their distribution using feature notation. [seri] finger [idos] pot [mosta] sky [lize] top [tuga] pain [tiva] dog [sozi] light [mizas] loud 2. Phonological rule Using feature notations, write rules for expressing the following phonological processes. a. A vowel becomes short when it occurs before a consonant word-finally, or before a consonant cluster. b. Word-final consonants are deleted after an unstressed vowel. c. Word-final vowels are deleted when followed by a voiceless affricate consonant. 3. State in plain English what the following rules do. a. C [-sonorant] → [α voice] / _____ C[-sonorant][α voice] b. V → [+stress] / _____ Co# c. C [+sonorant] → [+syllabic] / C ____ # 14.8 References Bloch, Bernard and George L. Trager. 1972. Outlines of Linguistic Analysis. New Delhi: Oriental Books. Carr, Philip. 1993. Phonology. New York: Macmillan Education.
NSOU PGEL-4 367 Notes 1 http://pyersqr.org/classes/Ling106/Phonology%20Exercises.pdf 2
http://www.sfu.ca/~mcrobbie/Ling220/PRACTICE%20EXERCISES.pdf 3
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NSOU PGEL-4 368 Unit 15 Semantic Analysis 15.1 Introduction 15.2 Objectives 15.3 Semantic relations 15.4 Semantic rules 15.5 Types of Meaning 15.6 Teaching Semantic Analysis 15.7 Summary 15.8 Review Questions 15.9 References and Reading List 15.1 Introduction In the previous unit you have learnt on relation between a sound and its environment. This unit is on Semantics. This is a discussion on the relationship between individual words, paragraphs and sentences in their particular contexts. Semantics aims to study meaning in a language. Semantics analyses the grammatical structures from sentences, paragraphs and whole texts and interprets them. In other words, it is about drawing meaning from texts. 15.2 Objectives

After reading the unit you will be able to a) Understand

the difference between semantic analysis and pragmatic analysis b) Differentiate between different types of meaning c) Learn how to teach semantic analysis d) Understand semantic relations 15.3 Semantic relations Semantic relationships or associations can be perceived at three levels: between words or at word level, between meanings of phrases and between meanings of sentences. What a word means depends on its relation with other words. The relations 368

NSOU PGEL-4 369 aspect is concerned with the semantic links that exists between pairs of words. The links are either of semantic differences or of semantic similarities. Let's us look at different semantic relations. Proximity is nearness in relationship. For example red versus scarlet and green versus emerald are graded in semantic proximity. Similarly, table and chair share the same semantic features of object, and pieces of furniture. Therefore they are grouped as nouns denoting pieces of furniture. Equivalence is similarity of meaning between two or more words or sentences. It is found more for the sentence level and rarely at the word level. For example the sentences: Jim swims well = Jim is good at swimming = Jim is a good swimmer. Opposition is the contrast of semantic that establishes semantic relations. Opposition is of two types; polar opposition and relative opposition. Examples of polar opposition are young-old, near-far, day-night etc. Relative opposition implies the relation between two words, either of which requires the other to explain it. For example, the verb 'to leave' implies moving away from a place and its opposite 'to arrive' indicate moving towards a place or destination. Let us take another example. In the two sentences: a) Nitin is taller than Manish and b) Manish is shorter than Nitin; There are two opposite words 'taller' and 'shorter' but the sentences are in equivalence relation. This is because the sentences have of exchanged Subject and Predicate. Inclusion is a semantic relation between two or more words where the meaning of a word is contained in the semantic features constituting the meaning of another word. For example: vehicle - tram, bus, auto, etc. Task 1: Match the semantic relation for the following sets of words: Equivalence Woman - female adult Opposition Animal - horse, cow, giraffe Proximity light-dark Inclusion ship-boat

NSOU ? PGEL-4 370 Red Scarlet Your Answer: Task 2: Name the semantic relations to the following diagrams. a) b) Ship Boat c) d) Your answer: a) b) c) d) 15.4 Semantic rules Semantic rules are ambiguities that make certain kinds of communication possible. They are ambiguities that people have agreed on to give meanings to and are based on certain symbols and words of a structure. They are also known as semantic fallacies. Semantic misunderstandings arise when different meanings are given to the same set of words and phrases. Learning on misunderstandings make us better communicators and help us to be effective communicators in all our relationships. The following are common semantic misunderstanding. Equivocation: a word or a phrase with two or more meanings can be misunderstood. Example: climbing the corporate ladder. The two different interpretations to this sentence are: finding success in a job, and getting into more responsibilities. The verb 'move' can mean change of place, push, pull or carry or stir something. 'Crash' can mean a vehicle collision, a drop in the Stock Market, ocean waves hitting the shore, to attend a party without being invited, and to strike cymbals together. This rule occurs when two or more meanings are drawn from the same word. Relative words: words that gain meaning from comparison and do not have Night Day Tree Oak Pine

NSOU PGEL-4 371 exact definition. They change depending on the context and are very subjective. A giraffe is big if compared to a human being, but a giraffe is small when compared to the earth. This is relative term. An individual's own ideas and concepts are relative, differing from other individuals. Let us take another example. Let's play the relative game. The word 'relative' can mean big, hard, stupid, free or heavy depending on the context. Abstraction: general language that represents ideas or concepts without physical references. For example, instead of 'thanks for washing the dishes' we prefer to say 'thanks for cleaning up'. Effects of abstraction may lead to misunderstandings and misinterpretations. This is illustrated in the following paragraph. A mother wants to visit to a grocery store. Before leaving, she calls her two daughters and says, 'The house is in a mess, so clean up the house by the time I'm back from the store'. The girls did what they were told. When the mother returned, she found that the dining and living space was still in mess. Then she ask her daughters, 'You haven't dusted or vacuumed?'. Her daughters replied you had told us to clean the mess, so we have cleaned our rooms'. The mother was vague in her communication with her daughters, and the girls had cleaned what they thought was mess in the house. The mother had to be more specific with her instruction, and that would have made the communication clear. With specific instructions the girls would have done the cleaning of the entire house. Task 3: Give the semantic rules for the following. 1. Let's talk about rights and left. You're right, so I left. 2. Time flies like an arrow, fruit flies like a banana. 3. The word 'create' can mean build, compose, imagine, make, construct or erect. Your answer: Task 4: Give the semantic rules for the following. A. That was a live frog - (having life) Do you live here - (to exist) B. Wind the clock - (to turn) The wind blew - (moving air) C. John records the number of repetitions he does on a piece of exercise equipment

NSOU PGEL-4 372 and turns his records to his coach at the end of the week. What are the two meanings of word 'record'? Your answer: 15.5 Types of Meaning Semantics is study of meaning. There are seven types of meaning. These seven types are: Conceptual meaning, Connotative meaning, Stylistic meaning, Affective meaning, Collocative meaning, Reflected meaning, and Thematic meaning. Conceptual meaning also synonymous with cognitive meaning or denotative meaning that comes to our mind as soon as we see a word in isolation. For example: when we read the word 'man' we specify its constituent meaning as human, adult and male. It is contrasted in its constituent meaning from another word 'girl' which is specified as human, not adult and female. Conceptual meaning is the base for all other types of meaning. Connotative meaning is the meaning which varies according to individual experience, age and culture. It conveys feelings and emotions related to the word. For example, 'white' has a connotation associated with light, purity and innocence. Stylistic meaning reflects the social situations of its utterance. For example, information on the Television does not sound the same when my best friend recaps the announcement. Words with same conceptual meaning and same stylistic meaning are rare. Affective meaning conveys the meaning expressed through conceptual or connotative content of words. It conveys individual's feelings and attitudes through politeness, sarcasm, irritation. Tone and intonation are essential elements of affective meaning. To express affective meaning we rely on mediation of other categories of meaning - conceptual, connotative and stylistic. Reflected meaning arises when there are multiple conceptual meanings. It arises when one sense of a word forms part of our response to another sense. Taboo words have reflected meaning. For example: Cock is substituted by rooster. Collocative meaning refers to word associations or partnerships that

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a word acquires on account of the meanings which co-occur in its environment. For example,

pretty and handsome share the common ground 'good-looking'. Replacing a word
NSOU PGEL-4 373 with synonym affects the meaning. Other examples of Collocative pairs are 'right on time, fast on track, hard to crack, etc. Task 5: Discuss the meaning types from the following. a) Big business b) Home for a sailor/soldier c) Ex politician- Statesman d) A Needle is a thin sharp instrument Your answer: Task 6: Discuss the meaning types from the following. a) Fast reading/ fast colour/ fast friendship/ fast road/ fast car b) He is as cunning as a fox. c) /p/ is described as voiceless + bilabial + plosive d) Messing with money is like messing with monster. Your answer: Answers for Task 5: a) Collocative meaning, b) Affective meaning, c) Connotative meaning, d) Conceptual meaning 15.6 Teaching Semantic Analysis The semantics field has three basic concerns. These concerns are: a) the relations of words to the objects they denote, b) the relations of words as they are interpreted and c) the formal relations of signs to one another. The formal relation of signs to one another is symbolic logic. When we come across an unfamiliar word, how do you determine its meaning? First we try to find clues from the context and speculate on its meaning and then check it with a dictionary. For example when we read the sentence; "Applied linguistics is often said to be concerned with solving or at least ameliorating social problems involving language." we may wonder what the word ameliorating means. We might guess it speaks about trying to solve. When the word is checked in the dictionary it reveals that is about 'making better'. In the process, explanation clue is required for NSOU PGEL-4 374 the meaning of the unfamiliar word. Clues are of five types. a) Definition or explanation clue- it can be found in the explanation of the unfamiliar word found in the context immediately after its use. b) Restatement or synonym clue- which is a simple expression for a difficult word. In the above example, 'ameliorating' appears to be restatement of 'solving' and another expression for it. c) Contrast or antonym clue- sometimes meaning of the unfamiliar word is derived by contrasting it to the context. For example in the sentence 'Manika is gregarious, unlike her brother who is quiet and shy'. 'Gregarious' is a contrast to 'quiet and shy'. Thus it means Manika likes company or is social or excessively talkative. d) Inference or general clue- that is deriving the lexical form from its structure and then getting to its meaning. For example, 'ameliorating' appears to be verb from the word structure. e) Punctuation-for example (;) in the sentence, 'The speakers jokes were amusing and pertinent; they were directly related to points she made in her speech.' The punctuation clue suggests that the meaning of the word pertinent is explained in the context immediately after its use. Semantic clues are used to determine meaning in a context and understanding the clue from the structure is a strategy for semantic analysis. Teaching semantic analysis involves the other strategies we have discussed in this section. Let us revise on them. The first strategy is to state the general process that a reader uses to determine the meaning of unfamiliar words. There can be different ways depending on the reader choices. Some readers opt for checking words from e-dictionaries readily available on devices rather than opening dictionaries. The second strategy is understanding and identifying the type of clue is used in a given structure. The third strategy is recognizing multiple meanings of words from the context. Task 7: Identify the semantic clues from the following: A. Some people are gullible-easily cheated or tricked because they believe everything that others say. B. Unlike his quiet and low key family, Biswas is garrulous. C. My opponent's argument is fallacious, misleading- plain wrong. D. You don't need to worry about talking to Mr. Ben. He is an affable principal.

NSOU PGEL-4 375 E. Mr. Ben is an affable principal. He is pleasant and easy to approach and always friendly. Your answer: Task 8: Recognize and state the multiple meanings of word 'leave' for the following. a) May I take your leave. b) Can I leave a note. c) I left my purse here. d) You cannot speak without your leave e) My secretary has decided to leave. f) Leave the laundry- Jack will wash them later. g) Seven from twelve leaves five. h) Leave it with Mary. I am sure she will sort it out. i) She left her daughter a lot of money. j) She knew that she had left her childhood behind. Your answer: a) f) b) g) c) h) d) i) e) j)

NSOU PGEL-4 376 15.7 Summary Semantic analysis begins with the relationship between individual words. It is the field of studying meaning with references to how language works. Semantic analysis is crucial for effective communication and learning communicative skills. The unit includes a number of tasks following the theoretical inputs as self-check activities while reading. There are few review questions to check your comprehension of the unit. 15.8 Review questions 1. What are the different types of meaning? Discuss. 2. What is a semantic rule? 3. What is semantics? Illustrate with examples. 4. What are the different semantic fallacies in misunderstandings? 5. Cite ten multiple meanings for the word 'light'. 6. Cite ten examples of Collocative Meaning. 7. In what ways Affective meaning differ from Stylistic meaning? 8. What are the strategies for teaching semantics? 9. Design a classroom activity on semantics for high school students. 10. Design a lesson plan on teaching semantic analysis. 15.9 Reference and Reading list Goddard, Cliff. 2011. Semantic Analysis - A Practical Introduction. 2nd Ed. Oxford Text Books in Linguistics: Oxford University Press. Saeed, John. I. 2016. Semantics. 4th Ed. Sussex: Wiley Blackwell.

NSOU PGEL-4 377 Unit 16 Pragmatic Analysis 16.1 Introduction 16.2 Objectives 16.3 Difference between Pragmatics and Semantics 16.4 Pragmatic Function 16.5 Pragmatic Competence 16.6 Pragmatic Idioms 16.7 Summary 16.8 Review Questions 16.9 References 16.10Reading List 16.1 Introduction In the previous unit we have discussed Semantics as the study of meaning of words. Pragmatics is the study of how context contributes to this meaning. Both semantics and pragmatics are main branches of study in Linguistics. Pragmatics is the study of how people react to different symbols and words, their assumptions, purposes and goals in the intended meaning. For example: the utterance 'Have you got any cash on you?' has the deeper meaning implied by the speaker - can you lend me some money, I don't have much on me. The listener derives the purpose of the utterance and responds accordingly to the speaker. 16.2 Objectives

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After reading the unit you will be able to a) Understand what

pragmatic competence is b) Learn the difference between semantic analysis and pragmatic analysis c) Develop pragmatic skills d) Work on pragmatic analysis of idioms and phrases 377

NSOU PGEL-4 378 16.3 Difference between Pragmatics and Semantics Semantics and pragmatics both study the meaning of speech communicated through language. Both semantics and pragmatics look into the ways in which words acquire extra meaning. But they act differently. The main difference between them is of word meaning and word meaning in contexts. We are already aware that semantics studies the meaning of words and their meanings within sentences. Pragmatics studies words and their meanings within their contexts. Pragmatics will also help you study speech acts, their relevance and implicature and conversations. (You will learn these in Unit 8 and in Paper 9B) In the previous unit we have looked at various aspects of meaning. Here we will analyse the processes by which native users of a language give interpretations to word strings and study how words are used. The study of the semantics and pragmatic interface can indicate the difference between what is said and what is communicated in the context. The focus of semantics is context independent meanings that are regulated by rules of grammar. The focus of pragmatics is context dependent language uses that are regulated by the principles of rhetoric and discourse. For example, in the sentence 'My dog chased a cat in the park,' since the utterance contains the pronoun 'my', part of the meaning implies that it was uttered by you. As you uttered it, 'my' refers to you. The semantic meaning is partly dependent on the context, the situation in which it was uttered, the time, the addresser and the addressee. Activity 1 Find the definitions - Semantics or Pragmatics? Is mainly concerned with a speaker's competence to use the language system in producing meaningful utterances and processing utterances produced by others. Is a person's ability to derive meanings from specific kinds of speech situations- to recognize what the speaker is referring to, to relate new information, to interpret, to infer. Activity 2 State whether the statements are true or false. Pragmatics Semantics

NSOU PGEL-4 379 A. Pragmatics

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is the study of intended meaning B. Semantics is the study of the meaning of single words

C. Pragmatics is context dependent, and Semantics is context independent. D. Both semantics and pragmatics are studies of intentions of the participants is conversational exchanges Your answer: A ( ) B ( ) C ( ) D ( ) Activity 3 Differentiate the implied meaning by the speaker and the inferred meaning by the listener from the following: a. S1: What is the time now? S2: The milk man has just arrived. b. S1: Can I borrow your Shakespeare? S2: Yeah. It is there on the table. c. S1: Remember there is no 'I' in team. S2: No. but there is a 'U' for people who do not understand the relationship between orthography and meaning. d. S1: 'Nice Day' S2: 'A lovely day' S1: 'That is not what I have in mind.' e. S1: What are you doing today?' S2: Today is Sunday. Your answer: In dialogue 'a.' speaker 2 has an indirect answer for the query of speaker 1. Speaker 2 has to infer the time of the day with the arrival time of the milk man. In the dialogue 'b.' speaker 1 has asked for a book, speaker 2 deduces the name of the book and guides speaker 1 to its location. In the dialogue 'c.' speaker 2 is referring to 'you' as 'u', as well as to the presence NSOU PGEL-4 380 of the others. The deeper meaning is co-operation and being a member of a team. In dialogue 'd.' Speaker 1 is not agreeing with speaker 2. Depending on S1's facial expression, tone of voice and the context, pragmatically it may mean exactly the opposite, 'This is not a nice day'. In dialogue 'e.' Sunday' may be semantically interpreted as the first day of the week. Pragmatically it may mean giving a suggestion or making an invitation depending on the context and intention of S2. 16.4 Pragmatic Function The meaning which a speaker intends to convey to the listener is the pragmatic function. There are two situations in which pragmatic function can be inferred. The first situation is when the speaker's intention is conveyed with the actual word meanings. The second situation is when the meaning crosses the individual words and conveys a different meaning to the listener than what the speaker had wished to convey. These are pragmatic implicatures.This happens due to contextual interpretation of individual words. For example, the two statements; 'I don't think' and 'I think - not' in the following exchange: Q: Will you come to the market? A 1: I don't think (the market is open today). A 2: 'I think -not' (coming). Both the answers to the question are in non-agreement, beginning with the same set of words but forming utterances with different meanings. A1 talks of it not being the marketing day. Thus it is implied that people will not go for marketing. This is the situation where the listener has to cross the meanings of the individual words to infer what the speaker wishes to convey. A2 is a direct response to the question, where the speaker's intention is conveyed by actual word meanings. Let us work on few activities. Activity 4 Identify the function of the pragmatic markers in the following exchanges; S1: Are you free to work on the garden this weekend? S2: Well, actually I'm pretty busy this week S1: What about next Wednesday?

NSOU PGEL-4 381 S2: Right, yeah that would work. Your answer: In the first response, the words 'well' and 'actually' denote the listeners thinking process. In the second response, the words 'right' and 'yeah' is assessment of the listener's utterances. The following chart is on pragmatic markers and their functions. Functions Examples Cognitive Denote thinking process Referential/ self-correction Elaboration/ hesitation Assessment of learner's knowledge about utterances Structural Opening and closing of topics Sequencing topic shifts Summarizing options Continuation of or return to topics Referential Cause/ contrast Consequence/ digression Interpersonal Mark shared knowledge Indicate speakers attitudes Show emotional response/ interest and back channel Well I think, I see, I believe, I say In other words, I mean It's like/ sort of well, just, kind of Right? Ok, right, well, now Anyway, so, then, next And, so, yeah Additionally, and so, and, plus Because/ but, although So/ anyway You see, you know Yes, of course, really, I agree, actually, hopefully Great, sure, ok, yeah

NSOU PGEL-4 382 Mean Words Indicate affective response and reaction to the discourse Gosh, wow, ouch Adapted and modified from Jennifer Ament & Júlia Barón Parés, 2017. Activity 5 Identify the pragmatic function A: Do you have weekends off? B: It's like work all seven days. Sort of well, work at home. A: Are you free on holidays? B: Yes, of course. Your answer: Activity 6 Identify the pragmatic function S1: Are you also annoyed with your boss like I am? S1: I mean how was your day? S2: Well, it was great. Your answer: Activity 7 Indicate where in the above table would you place the following pragmatic markers? 1. Actually 2. Moreover 3. Then 4. Almost 5. Kind of 6. Ah 7. If 8. Sort of Your answer:

NSOU PGEL-4 383 16.5 Pragmatic Competence Pragmatic competence is the ability to use effective language in a contextually appropriate manner. Pragmatic competence is fundamental to communicate our thoughts, ideas and feelings. The different aspects of pragmatic competence are: 1. a speaker's ability to use language for different purposes 2. a listener's ability to understand the speaker's intentions 3. a command of the rules by which the speaker and the listener interact with each other. Using language for different purposes: using language for daily interactions with others. It is the ability to know what to say, how to say it and when to say it to make our interaction appropriate in a given situation. These are classified as three major skills. a) Conversational skills: asking for, giving and responding to information, turn taking, eye contact, introducing and maintaining topics, making relevant contributions to a topic, asking questions, avoiding repetitions or irrelevant information, asking for clarification. b) Negotiating Skills: Adjusting language based on the situation or person; using language of a given peer group, using humour, using appropriate strategies for gaining attention and interrupting, asking for help or offering help appropriately, offering/ responding to expressions of affection appropriately, intonation of voice. c) Paralinguistic skills; facial expression, body language, body distance and personal space. Pragmatic Competence is the ability to understand speaker's intention from the listener's perspective. Speaker's intention is processed by the hearer simultaneously with the utterance or after it is uttered. The primary intention expressed in a particular context serves the function of guiding the conversation. Knowing the speaker's intention and attitudes creates a precognitive understanding of the ideas and this leads to successful transfer of information. Rules of interaction: There are certain rules by which the speaker and the listener interact with each other. The rules for the listener are: a) Paraphrasing what is heard. b) Repeating what is heard in one's own words and letting the speaker know

NSOU PGEL-4 384 that the listener has understood what is being said. c) Wait for the turn to ask questions. The rules of the speaker are: a. Communicate the message keeping three factors in mind: Perlocution (how the message is received by the listener), locution (the semantic or literal significance of the utterance) and illocution (the speaker's intention). You will learn more on these in the Unit on Discourse Analysis in Paper 9B. b. Co-ordinate the non-linguistic cues (paralinguistic aspects) with the linguistic component of the message. c) Choosing correct words for the intended communicative impact. Activity 8 Match the different shades of meaning for the word 'pragmatics'. a) There were pragmatic 1.Concentrating on results and facts inferences. rather than speculation and opinion. b) The decision was pragmatic 2.Adjust views to the state of the in nature. world. c) A sensible, pragmatic approach 3.Clear communication of was taken to public sector reform. thoughts and ideas. d) The writer takes an in-depth, 4.Practical and logical response. highly pragmatic approach e) The decision was pragmatic 5.Focused on reaching a goal. so that it could be easily extrapolated. Your answer: Activity 9 Identify the rules of interaction and components pragmatic competence from the following excerpts. i) Once, I asked this young lady why she didn't show up on our date, and she

NSOU PGEL-4 385 said looking everywhere except at me, 'I'm sorry, but I missed the train.' ii) The chicken is ready to eat. iii) Will you come out on a dinner date with me? Yes, I can come, but I won't tell you. Your answer: Answers for Activity 8: a) 3, b) 5, c) 1, d) 4, e) 2 Answers for Activity 9: i) paralinguistics, ii) choosing words for intended communication, iii) adjusting language based on situation or person. 16.6 Pragmatic Idioms An idiom is a sequence of words functioning as a single unit, whose meaning cannot be inferred from its parts. For example spill the beans is an idiom which means 'give away information deliberately or unintentionally'. Idioms can be analysed pragmatically when they are interpreted from their context. Pragmatic idioms are also called routines, social formulas or gambits. They have important roles in every day conversation and communication. Transparent idioms are free collocations which get the meaning from the constituent words. For example, wearing a pink shirt (stop bullying), break eggs to make an omlette (at the cost of something), cut wood (sleep/snore while sleeping), cutting corners (doing something poorly to save time or money). Semi-transparent phrases are metaphors with a literal interpretation. For example: add fuel to fire (cause a conflict or difficult situation), kill two birds with a stone (get two things done with a single action, reap more benefits than expected), it's a piece of cake (it is easy), let the cat out of the bag (give away a secret), a blessing in disguise (a good thing that seemed bad at first). Semi-opaque phrases are metaphor idioms which are not completely intelligible by themselves. For example: the shoe is on the other foot (change of situation to the opposite of what it was before), tarred by the same brush (to think that someone has the same bad qualities as another person), on the ball (doing a good job), the best of both worlds (an ideal situation), the elephant in the room (a major problem the people are avoiding), throw caution to the wind (take risk). Opaque phrases are expressions whose meanings cannot be derived from their component parts. For example, pass the buck (shift the responsibility for something NSOU PGEL-4 386 to someone else), from the horse's mouth (from the person who is involved), wrap your head around something (understand something complicated) your guess is as good as mine (I have no idea), take a rain check (postpone a plan, promise to do something at the next opportunity). Activity 10 Give the meanings of the following idioms a) No pain, no gain b) Better late than never c) Hang in there d) Under the weather e) A bird in hand is worth two in the bush Your answer: Activity 11 Identify the type of idiom from pragmatic analysis a) A perfect storm b) Break the ice c) Ignorance is bliss d) Once in blue moon e) A storm in a tea cup Your answer: Activity 12 State whether the following idioms can occur by themselves or as part of a sentence a) Come rain or shine (no matter what) b) Burn bridges (destroy relationships) c) As right as rain (perfect) d) Cut the mustard (do a good job) e) On cloud nine (very happy) Your answer: Activity 13 Find the idioms which are proverbs. a) Haste makes wastes

NSOU PGEL-4 387 b) Familiarity breeds contempt c) It takes two to tango d) Like riding a bicycle e) Run like the wind f) Snowed under g) We see eye to eye h) Waste not, want not Your answer: 16.7 Summary In the previous unit we had learnt a few aspects of Semantics. A section of this unit discusses the difference between semantics and pragmatics. The unit is a practical application of the theoretical discussions on pragmatic analysis on pragmatic function. This unit also introduces you to the skills of pragmatic competence. Pragmatic idioms can be analysed from their use and function. From your day-to-day conversation you are aware of the use of some them. Since there are no definite theories on pragmatic idioms, you may refer to the booklist for further studies on the topic. Applications of Pragmatic analysis in the language classroom are varied. As it examines meaning systematically in contexts it is useful in creation of meanings, figuring out meanings, in contexts of interactions. These are presented in the activities throughout the learning material. There are a few review questions to test your comprehension. 16.8 Review Questions 1. What is Pragmatics? 2. What is Semantics? 3. What is the major distinction between Semantics and Pragmatics? 4. Elaborate the term Pragmatic function. 5. What is pragmatic marker? What are their functions? 6. Discuss the Rules on interactions. 7. What is the difference between transparent and opaque idioms? 8. List ten idioms that you have come across and discuss their applications. 9. What is pragmatic competence? 10. Discuss two activities on developing pragmatic competence.

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Pragmatic and Functional Uses of Idioms. https://www.academia.edu/28737254/PRAGMATIC_AND_FUNCTIONAL_ USES_OF_IDIOMS

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PREFACE In the curricular structure introduced by the University for the students of Post Graduate degree programme, the opportunity to pursue post Graduate course in a subject is equally available to all learners. Instead of being guided by any presumption about ability level, it would perhaps stand to reason if receptivity of a learner is judged in the course of the learning process. That would be entirely in keeping with the objectives of open education which does not believe in artificial differentiation. I am happy to note that this University has been recently accredited by National Assessment and Accreditation Council of India (NAAC) with grade 'A'. Keeping this in view, the study materials of the Post Graduate level in different subjects are prepared on the basis of a well laid-out syllabus. The course structure combines the best elements in the approved syllabi of Central and State Universities in respective subjects. It has been so designed as to be upgradable with the addition of new information as well as results of fresh thinking and analysis. The accepted methodology of distance education has been followed in the preparation of these study materials. Co-operation in every form of experienced scholarship is indispensible for a work on this kind. We, therefore, owe an enormous debt of gratitude to everyone whose tireless efforts went into the writing, editing and devising of a proper layout of the materials. Practically speaking, their role amounts to an all-out involvement in layout of the materials and an involvement in 'invisible teaching', as well. For, whoever makes use of these study materials would virtually derive the benefit of learning under their collective care without each being seen by the other. The more a learner would seriously pursue these study materials, the easier will it be for him or her to reach out to larger horizons of a subject. Care has also been taken to make the language lucid and presentation attractive so that they may be rated as quality self-learning materials. If anything remains still obscure or difficult to follow, arrangements are there to come to terms throughout the counseling sessions regularly available at the network of study centers set up by the University. Needless to add, a great deal of these efforts is still experimental-in fact, pioneering in certain areas. Naturally, there is every possibility of some lapse or deficiency here and there. However, these do admit of rectification and further improvement in due course. On the whole, therefore, these study materials are expected to evoke wider appreciation the more they receive serious attention of all concerned. Professor (Dr.) Subha Sankar Sarkar Vice-Chancellor Printed in accordance with the regulations of the Distance Education Bureau of the University Grants Commission First Print : August, 2022 Netaji Subhas Open University Post Graduate English Language Teaching Programme (PGELT) PGEL-4 (Core Course) Course Title: Introduction to Linguistics Netaji Subhas Open University CBCS Postgraduate Degr ee Program (PGEL Course Code: PGEL-4 (Core Course) Course Title: Introduction to

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3/74	**SUBMITTED TEXT**	20 WORDS	**79%**	**MATCHING TEXT**	20 WORDS

At the end of this unit the learners would be able to Understand the nature of language

At the end of this unit, the learners will be able to: a. Understand the concept of language

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as "a device of some sort for producing the sentences of the language under analysis" (

as a device of some sort for producing the sentences of the language under analysis."

5/74	**SUBMITTED TEXT**	15 WORDS	**65%**	**MATCHING TEXT**	15 WORDS

is the social manifestation of speech and it evolves from the activity of speech. Language is

is the social manifestation of speech. Language is a system of signs that evolves from the activity of speech. Language is

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the sounds of English it is the pulmonic egressive air-stream mechanism which is used. 2. Glottalic air-stream mechanism - the larynx, with the glottis firmly closed, is the initiator of ingressive or egressive air-stream. In Sindhi language some sounds are produced with the help of glottalic air-stream. 3. Velaric air-stream mechanism - The back part of the tongue is the initiator which is lifted up so that it comes

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| 13/74 | SUBMITTED TEXT | 29 WORDS | 56% | MATCHING TEXT | 29 WORDS |

Verma, S K. N Krishnaswamy: 2009. Modern Linguistics, An Introduction. India. Oxford University Press. 3. Yule, George. 2006. The Study of Language. 3rd ed. / 9780521543200/ 2006. India. Cambridge University Press, 4.

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| 14/74 | SUBMITTED TEXT | 12 WORDS | 80% | MATCHING TEXT | 12 WORDS |

The Frame/Content Theory of Evolution of Speech Production. Behavioral and Brain Sciences".

The frame/content theory of evolution of speech production}, author={Peter F. MacNeilage}, journal={Behavioral and Brain Sciences},

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of the respiratory system, the Phonatory system and the articulatory system

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quiz 5 i. What is language? a. A species specific system of calls b. Something that stands for something else c. A system of arbitrary symbols used to communicate d. Transfer of information from one person to another e. A system of speech patterns ii. Which of Charles Hockett's sixteen design features of language refers to the ability to talk about absent or nonexistent objects? a. Arbitrariness b. Displacement c. Openness d. Semanticity e. Prevarication iii. What is meant by the duality of pattering (i.e., what are the two levels at which language is patterned?) a. Sound and grammar b. Sound and meaning NSOU PGEL-4 246 c. Grammar and meaning d. Phonetics and syntax e. Phonemes and morphemes

Quiz 6376067663640682964 usa 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 • What is language? a a. A species specific system of calls b b. Something that stands for something else c c. A system of arbitrary symbols used to communicate d d. Transfer of information from one person to another e e. A system of speech patterns • Which of Charles Hockett's sixteen design features of language refers to the ability to talk about absent or nonexistent objects? a a. Arbitrariness b b. Displacement c c. Openness d d. Semanticity e e. Prevarication • What is meant by the duality of pattering (i.e., what are the two levels at which language is patterned?) a a. Sound and grammar b b. Sound and meaning c c. Grammar and meaning d d. Phonetics and syntax e e. Phonemes and morphemes •

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Objectives At the end of this unit the learners will be able to Understand the

Objectives At the end of this unit the learners will be able to: a. Understand the

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The study of language in the context of its use is called a. Phonology b. Morphology c. Syntax d. Semantics e. Pragmatics 4.

The study of language in the context of its use is called a a. Phonology b b. Morphology c c. Syntax d d. Semantics e e. Pragmatics •

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According to Robins (1993), Linguistics is concerned with human language as a universal and recognizable part of the human behaviour and human faculties.

According to Robins (1985): "Linguistics is concerned with human language as a universal and recognizable part of the human behaviour and of the human faculties,

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An Introductory textbook of Linguistics & Phonetics, Seventeenth edition. Bareilly: Student Store publication 3. Verma, S.K. and N. Krishnaswamy. 1989. Modern Linguistics: An Introduction, India: Oxford University Press. 4.

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that we are able to understand utterances that we have never heard before? Every

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design features of language'. I Vocal-auditory channel It refers to the idea that speaking/hearing is the mode humans use for language. When Hockett first defined this feature, he did not take sign language into account.

Design features of language[edit] Vocal-auditory channel Refers to the idea that speaking/hearing is the mode humans use for language. When Hockett first defined this feature, it did not take sign language into account,

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This feature has since been modified to include other channels of language, such as tactile-visual or chemical-olfactory. NSOU PGEL-4 260 II. Broadcast transmission and directional reception Sounds get transmitted in all directions

This feature has since been modified to include other channels of language, such as tactile-visual or chemical-olfactory. Broadcast transmission and directional reception When humans speak, sounds are transmitted in all directions;

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the temporary quality of language. Sounds of human language exist for only a brief period of time, after which they are no longer perceived. Sound waves quickly disappear once

the temporary quality of language. Language sounds exist for only a brief period of time, after which they are no longer perceived. Sound waves quickly disappear once

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speaker stops speaking. This is also true of signs. In contrast, other forms of communication such as writing are more permanent. IV. Interchangeability Interchangeability refers to the idea that humans can give and receive identical linguistic signals; humans are not limited in the types of messages they can say/hear. One can say "I am a man" even if one is a woman. This is not to be confused with lying (prevarication).

speaker stops speaking. This is also true of signs. In contrast, other forms of communication such as writing and Inka khipus (knot-tying) are more permanent. Dfl.jpg Interchangeability Refers to the idea that humans can give and receive identical linguistic signals; humans are not limited in the types of messages they can say/hear. One can say "I am a boy" even if one is a girl. This is not to be confused with lying (prevarication):

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Discreteness Linguistic representations can be broken down into small discrete units which combine with each other in rule-governed ways. They are perceived categorically, not continuously. For example, Bangla marks number with the plural morpheme /gulo/, which can be added to the end of any noun. The plural morpheme is perceived categorically, not continuously: we cannot express smaller or larger quantities by varying how loudly we pronounce the /-

Discreteness Linguistic representations can be broken down into small discrete units which combine with each other in rule-governed ways. They are perceived categorically, not continuously. For example, English marks number with the plural morpheme /s/, which can be added to the end of any noun. The plural morpheme is perceived categorically, not continuously: we cannot express smaller or larger quantities by varying how loudly we pronounce the /

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displacement refers to the idea that humans can talk about things that are not physically present or that do not even exist. Speakers can talk about the past and the future, and can express hopes and dreams. This is certainly one of the features that separate human language from other forms of primate communication. XI. Productivity

Displacement refers to the idea that humans can talk about things that are not physically present or that do not even exist. Speakers can talk about the past and the future, and can express hopes and dreams. A human's speech is not limited to here and now. Displacement is one of the features that separates human language from other forms of primate communication. Productivity

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refers to the idea that language-users can create and understand novel utterances.

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Humans are able to produce an unlimited amount of propositions. Also related to productivity is the concept of grammatical patterning, which facilitates the use and comprehension of language. Language is a dynamic phenomenon. New idioms are created all the time and the meaning of signals can vary depending on the context and situation.

Humans are able to produce an unlimited amount of utterances. Also related to productivity is the concept of grammatical patterning, which facilitates the use and comprehension of language. Language is not stagnant, but is constantly changing. New idioms are created all the time and the meaning of signals can vary depending on the context and situation.

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While humans are born with innate language capabilities, language is learned after birth in a social setting.

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learn how to speak by interacting with experienced language users.

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meaningful messages are made up of distinct smaller meaningful units (words and morphemes) which themselves are made up of distinct smaller, meaningless units (phonemes). XIV. Prevarication

Meaningful messages are made up of distinct smaller meaningful units (words and morphemes) which themselves are made up of distinct smaller, meaningless units (phonemes). Prevarication Prevarication

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the ability to lie or deceive. When using language, humans can make false or meaningless statements.

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W https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Hockett%2527s_design_features#/media/File:Dfl.jpg

their first language, the speakers can learn other languages. It is worth noting that young children learn

their first language, the speaker is able to learn other languages. It is worth noting that young children learn

W https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Hockett%2527s_design_features#/media/File:Dfl.jpg

However, listeners perceive the direction from which the sounds are coming. Similarly, signers broadcast to potentially anyone within the line of sight, while watching who is signing. This is characteristic of most forms of human and animal communication. III. Transitoriness

however, listeners perceive the direction from which the sounds are coming. Similarly, signers broadcast to potentially anyone within the line of sight, while those watching see who is signing. This is characteristic of most forms of human and animal communication. Transitoriness

W https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Hockett%2527s_design_features#/media/File:Dfl.jpg

language with competence and ease; however, language acquisition is constrained by a critical period such that it becomes more difficult once children pass a certain age. 5.7

language with competence and ease; however, language acquisition is constrained by a critical period such that it becomes more difficult once children pass a certain age.

W https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Hockett%2527s_design_features#/media/File:Dfl.jpg

| 49/74 | **SUBMITTED TEXT** | 36 WORDS | **100%** **MATCHING TEXT** | 36 WORDS |

If you do not know a language, the words (and sentences) of that language will be mainly incomprehensible, because the relationship between speech sounds and the meanings they represent is, for the most part, an arbitrary one.

if you do not know a language the words and sentences of that language will be mainly incomprehensible because the relationship between speech sounds and the meanings they represent is for the most part an arbitrary one

W https://quizlet.com/196826966/linguistics-1-final-flash-cards/

| 50/74 | **SUBMITTED TEXT** | 16 WORDS | **91%** **MATCHING TEXT** | 16 WORDS |

Objectives At the end of this unit, you will be able to: a. Understand the scope of

Objectives At the end of this unit, you will be able to: a. Understand the role of

SA PGLT 3 Full Book Final Corrected.pdf (D165254858)

| 51/74 | **SUBMITTED TEXT** | 19 WORDS | **77%** **MATCHING TEXT** | 19 WORDS |

After going through this unit, you will be able to: a. Understand the difference between learning strategy and style b.

After going through this unit you will be able to: a. Understand the difference between a morpheme and phoneme, b.

SA PGELT 5 _ 6 (1-400).pdf (D165254851)

| 52/74 | **SUBMITTED TEXT** | 15 WORDS | **90%** **MATCHING TEXT** | 15 WORDS |

Signs combine an exponent (a sequence of letters or sounds) with a meaning. There are

SA Essay for English Linguistics.pdf (D47974981)

| 53/74 | **SUBMITTED TEXT** | 18 WORDS | **87%** **MATCHING TEXT** | 18 WORDS |

are tools for active, self- directed involvement, which is essential for developing communicative competence. Appropriate language learning strategies result in

are tools for active, self-directed involvement, which is essential for developing communicative competence. An appropriate language learning strategy should result in

SA PGELT 5 _ 6 (1-400).pdf (D165254851)

| 54/74 | **SUBMITTED TEXT** | 22 WORDS | **63%** **MATCHING TEXT** | 22 WORDS |

in the word 'banana' the stress is on the second syllable, in the word 'orange' the stress is on the first syllable.

SA Aspects of Language for plagiarism check (1).docx (D117826118)

| 55/74 | SUBMITTED TEXT | 13 WORDS | 100% | MATCHING TEXT | 13 WORDS |

After going through this unit, you will be able to: a. Understand the

After going through this unit you will be able to: a. Understand the

SA PGELT 5 _ 6 (1-400).pdf (D165254851)

| 56/74 | SUBMITTED TEXT | 14 WORDS | 96% | MATCHING TEXT | 14 WORDS |

Objectives At the end of this unit, you will be able to: Understand

Objectives At the end of this unit, you will be able to: a. Understand

SA PGLT 3 Full Book Final Corrected.pdf (D165254858)

| 57/74 | SUBMITTED TEXT | 11 WORDS | 100% | MATCHING TEXT | 11 WORDS |

Robert Kantor in his book An Objective Psychology of Grammar (1936)

SA BEGS-32- Final Copy.pdf (D163712610)

| 58/74 | SUBMITTED TEXT | 11 WORDS | 95% | MATCHING TEXT | 11 WORDS |

Thomas A. Sebeok's Psycholinguistics: A Survey of Theory and Research Problems (1954)

Thomas A. Sebeok's entitled Psycholinguistics: a Survey of Theory and Research Problems

W http://staff.uny.ac.id/sites/default/files/DIKTAT%20into2ling.pdf

| 59/74 | SUBMITTED TEXT | 17 WORDS | 87% | MATCHING TEXT | 17 WORDS |

Objectives At the end of this unit, you will be able to: Understand the concept of

Objectives At the end of this unit, you will be able to: a. Understand the of

SA PGLT 3 Full Book Final Corrected.pdf (D165254858)

| 60/74 | SUBMITTED TEXT | 20 WORDS | 92% | MATCHING TEXT | 20 WORDS |

psychology of language' is the study of the psychological and neurological factors that enable humans to acquire, use, and understand language.

SA SED-212 new 17.08.2021.pdf (D116059393)

| 61/74 | SUBMITTED TEXT | 23 WORDS | 65% | MATCHING TEXT | 23 WORDS |

Verma, S.K, Krishnaswamy, N. (1989). Modern Linguistics - An Introduction. Oxford University Press. 4. Yule, George. (2006). The Study of Language. Third Edition. Cambridge Univerisity Press.

SA 013E1250-Introduction to Linguistics.pdf (D165066599)

| 62/74 | **SUBMITTED TEXT** | 12 WORDS | **100%** | **MATCHING TEXT** | 12 WORDS |

of this unit, you will be able to: understand the

SA BEGS-32- Final Copy.pdf (D163712610)

| 63/74 | **SUBMITTED TEXT** | 11 WORDS | **100%** | **MATCHING TEXT** | 11 WORDS |

Knowledge of Language: Its Nature, Origin and Use. New York: Praeger. 3.

Knowledge of Language: Its Nature, Origin and Use, New York: Praeger. —— (1995)

W https://vibdoc.com/encyclopedia-of-linguistics.html

| 64/74 | **SUBMITTED TEXT** | 17 WORDS | **86%** | **MATCHING TEXT** | 17 WORDS |

Verma, S K and Krishnaswamy, N. (1989). Modern Linguistics - An Introduction. New Delhi: Oxford University Press. 6.

SA language and linguistics final-1.pdf (D109478087)

| 65/74 | **SUBMITTED TEXT** | 13 WORDS | **88%** | **MATCHING TEXT** | 13 WORDS |

After going through the unit, you will be able to a) Understand the

After going through the unit you will be able to: a) Recall the

SA PGELT 5 _ 6 (1-400).pdf (D165254851)

| 66/74 | **SUBMITTED TEXT** | 20 WORDS | **70%** | **MATCHING TEXT** | 20 WORDS |

There are a few review questions to check your understand of the unit. NSOU PGEL-4 357 13.8 Review Questions 1.

There are a set of review questions to test your comprehension of the unit. NSOU PGEL-3 184 14.9 Review Questions

SA PGLT 3 Full Book Final Corrected.pdf (D165254858)

| 67/74 | **SUBMITTED TEXT** | 11 WORDS | **100%** | **MATCHING TEXT** | 11 WORDS |

are some review questions to check your comprehension on the unit.

are some review questions to check your comprehension on the unit. 1.

SA PGELT 5 _ 6 (1-400).pdf (D165254851)

| 68/74 | **SUBMITTED TEXT** | 17 WORDS | **84%** | **MATCHING TEXT** | 17 WORDS |

John B., ed. (1956). Language, Thought and Reality: Selected Writings of Benjamin Whorf, Cambridge, Mass.: MIT Press

John Carroll, ed., Language, Thought and Reality: Selected Writings of Benjamin Lee Whorf (Cambridge, MA: MIT Press, 1956), 135. 14

W https://dokumen.pub/download/a-concise-introduction-to-linguistics-5nbsped-0415786517-97804157865 ...

| 69/74 | **SUBMITTED TEXT** | 11 WORDS | **100%** | **MATCHING TEXT** | 11 WORDS |

After reading the unit you will be able to a) Understand

After reading the unit you will be able to a) Understand

SA PGELT 5 _ 6 (1-400).pdf (D165254851)

| 70/74 | **SUBMITTED TEXT** | 12 WORDS | **100%** | **MATCHING TEXT** | 12 WORDS |

After reading the unit you will be able to a) Understand what

After reading the unit you will be able to a) Understand what

SA PGELT 5 _ 6 (1-400).pdf (D165254851)

| 71/74 | **SUBMITTED TEXT** | 16 WORDS | **58%** | **MATCHING TEXT** | 16 WORDS |

is the study of intended meaning B. Semantics is the study of the meaning of single words

is the study of the meaning of a language. In short, semantics is the study of the linguistics meaning of words,

W http://staff.uny.ac.id/sites/default/files/DIKTAT%20into2ling.pdf

| 72/74 | **SUBMITTED TEXT** | 25 WORDS | **96%** | **MATCHING TEXT** | 25 WORDS |

Italian. Focus on the phones [k] and [t]-do they contrast? What about their nasal counterparts [ ] and [n]? (['] means that the following syllable is stressed.) ['

Italian . Focus on the phones [k] and [t]-do they contrast? What about their nasal counterparts [IJ] and [n]? (n means that the following syllable is stressed.) 2.

W https://www.azlifa.com/wp-content/uploads/sample-phonemic-analysis.pdf

| 73/74 | **SUBMITTED TEXT** | 14 WORDS | **81%** | **MATCHING TEXT** | 14 WORDS |

a word acquires on account of the meanings which co-occur in its environment. For example,

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| 74/74 | **SUBMITTED TEXT** | 6 WORDS | **62%** | **MATCHING TEXT** | 6 WORDS |

Pragmatic and Functional Uses of Idioms. https://www.academia.edu/28737254/PRAGMATIC_AND_FUNCTIONAL_ USES_OF_IDIOMS

PRAGMATIC AND FUNCTIONAL USES OF IDIOMS
PRAGMATIC AND FUNCTIONAL USES OF IDIOMS

W https://www.academia.edu/28737254/PRAGMATIC_AND_FUNCTIONAL_USES_OF_IDIOMSEnglish

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9 MODULE - 1 : ORAL COMMUNICATION ? You have looked at the nature of spoken English language in your previous units. Here, in this module let us revise what we have learnt so far and test our knowledge of phonology. Language, is primarily an oral activity and when we speak, our spoken language consists of a succession of speech sounds that are produced with the help of the organs of speech. After going through the unit you will be able to: a) Recall the topics on phonology b) Work on a range of phonological activities c) Apply your knowledge from paper 3 in the activities d) Develop knowledge on spoken English Speech sounds are produced voluntarily. They require that organs of speech be moved in certain definite ways in order to produce the required language for communication. The succession of sounds is composed of proper speech sounds and glides. The speaker has to go out of his way in order to make a glide as a glide that occur as natural and inevitable result of pronouncing two speech sounds one after another. Most of the glides are inaudible or hardly audible even to the most practiced ear. Now let us test up to what extent you people have developed the proficiency in

10 NSOU ?PGEL 5 & 6 pronunciation skill. Some activities and tasks have been designed to test your knowledge in this regard. English has twelve pure vowel sounds. A vowel sound is produced with an open vocal tract with open jaws, and adjusting the height of the tongue. There are front, back and central vowels depending on the part of the tongue that is used in the articulation. There are also low (open)and high (close) vowels uttered according to the height of the tongue. Two vowels have long and short representations depending on the breadth of air used in their utterance. Let us work on the following activities on vowel sounds. Look at the following list of words:- Cast, called, sale band, woman, village, what Now, tell us which letter of the alphabet is common to all the words? Does that letter 'sound' the same in all the words? Go through the words again and again to find out. Your answer: Answer key: /a/. No it has 7 kinds of different sounds. Look at the following list of words :- though tough cough through rough bought thorough bough hiccough Which letters of the alphabet are common to all the words? Do you think, these letters represent the same sound in all the word? If not, write down the sounds produced by this group of letter in each word. Your answer: Answer Key This letter /o/ represents different sounds. Though - / /, Tough - /ʌ/, cough /ɑ/, Through - /u/, Rough - /ʌ/, bought /c:/, Thorough- /ʌ/ Bough- / / e e

11 NSOU ? PGEL 5 & 6 Look at the following sets of words:- Bead, weep, seize, believe, piece, peace, theme, people, police, key, ski, Quay, aesthetic Each set of these words above possesses a common vowel sound. The vowel sound that we find in the word 'bee' is common to all the words. Which letters in each word represent that sound? Your answer: Answer key: bead, weep, seize, believe, piece, peace, theme, people, police, key, ski. Look at the following words and find out words having different vowel sound. Circle those words. flirt chirp skirt furl heart heard thirst first hard word guard card Answer Key: chirp, hard, guard, card English has 24 consonant sounds produced in nine different places of articulation and seven manners of articulation (stricture). The consonants are voiced or voiceless depending the movements in the vocal cords and can be aspirated due to presence of breadth during articulation. Consonants have lower articulator (moveable) and upper articulator (fixed or unmovable) for their utterance. Let us work on the following activities. Look at the following list of words:- Song, scent, descend, brass, assume, cement, fancy, pace, exercise Tax, psychology All the words above, contains one common consonant sound. Can you identify that very sound? Which letter stands for that sound in each word?

12 NSOU ?PGEL 5 & 6 Your answer: Answer Key: /s/ Look at the following sets of words:- i) question, quite, quiet, square, squash ii) excuse, excite, box, exercise iii) exact, examine, exist, exert iv) unity, use (n.) (n.) utilize, university In each set of words one of the letters represents a combination of two sounds. Now identify the letter and associated sounds in each case. Your answer: Answer key: i) q-/kw/, ii) x- /ks/, iii) e- /jg/ iv) u-/ju:/ Go through the following pairs of words. Do you find same pronunciation in them? If so write S on the brackets provided against each pair; if not write D for the different . i) write, right ( ) ii) tear, tier ( ) iii) heard, hard ( ) iv) hurt, heart ( ) v) let, late, ( ) vi) get, gate ( ) Go through the following words find out the exact number of sounds in each word. The first one is done for you. i) thumb- Three sounds as shown: /th-u-m/ (b is silent) ii) mango iii) pleasure iv) third v) scissors vi) psychology

13 NSOU ? PGEL 5 & 6 vii) journal viii) mother ix) eye x) through I hope you have successfully done the Activity No. – VIII. Now write down the initial sound of each word and make word with the same sound in the initial position. One is done for you. Example – i) thumb → / θ /→ thigh Your answer: ii) iii) iv) v) vi) vii) viii) ix) x) Produce the initial sounds of the following English words and say whether they are voiced or voiceless. i) father _____ v) sound _____ ii) sugar _____ vi) very _____ iii) zoo _____ vii) thanks _____ iv) sun _____ viii) there _____ Answer key: Voiced /z, v/, voiceless /f, s, th/ English has 8 glides. A glide is a combination of two vowel sounds occurring together. They are produced in a quick succession that the two sounds tend to merge and produce a different sound. The utterance of a glide begins at the position of the first vowel articulation and moves towards the position of the articulation of the

14 NSOU ?PGEL 5 & 6 second vowel. The second vowel is more in prominence. Can you cite two different words which have only one sound and that is a vowel glide? Write down those words and cite the glide:- For example might and right have 'i' which becomes /aI/ glide in utterance. Now cite another example. 1. _____, 2. _____ = / / / Write three words for each of the glides of English. Your Answer: /eI/ ……………………………., ……………………………., ……………………………., ……………………………., /cI/ ……………………………., ……………………………., ……………………………., /eΩ/ ……………………………., ……………………………., ……………………………., /aΩ/ ……………………………., ……………………………., ……………………………., /e / ……………………………., ……………………………., ……………………………., Fill in the blanks with words that are pronounced the same but have different spelling:- i) write …………… ii) straight …………. iii) mite …………… iv) Sun …………… v) bear ……………… vi) bow(verb) …………… vii) tail …………. viii) cast …………… ix) sight ……………… x) roll …………… In this unit we have looked at different speech sounds that are represented using graphics or letters of the alphabet. We have discovered that the same sound can be represented by different spellings, and similarly one spelling can be used to represent a variety of sounds. However all these are rule bound and such rules will be discussed later in specialised courses on phonology. The unit also provides a large number of activities to help you practice different aspects of phonology.

15 NSOU ? PGEL 5 & 6 1. Balasubramaniam. T., (2001). Chennai: Macmillan India Pvt Ltd. 2. Gimson, A. C., (1962). Edinburgh: Edinburgh University Press. 3. Hockett, C.F., (1958). New York: The Macmillan Company. 4. Jones, D. (1914). Cambridge: W Heffer and Sons Ltd. 5. Katamba. F., (1989). London and New York: Longman Linguistics Library. 6. O'Connor. J.D. ((1980). Cambridge: CUP. 7. Verma. S. K. , and N Krishnaswamy. (19997). Chennai: OUP.

? The basic function of a language is communication. English is no exception. People generally convey their messages among themselves in order to communicate their views with each other on matters of specific interest to them. Sometimes, they communicate in writing and at other times through speaking and listening. Spoken words are the most frequent as well as the most important means of communication among the people. As far as spoken language is concerned, pronunciation, rather use of speech sounds appropriately really matters a lot. In this case, messages are communicated or transmitted through sounds or audible means. That is why for the purpose of verbal communication what is necessary is proper pronunciation— appropriate handling of sounds. Since Phonetics, an important branch of Linguistics, deals mainly with the pronunciation skills as well as ways of speaking, it has a major role to play in the field of communication. The objectives of the unit are: a) Revision exercises on phonetics b) Understanding the practical aspects of phonetics c) Learning how to teach phonetics 16

17 NSOU ? PGEL 5 & 6 English is a widely spoken language and it has different status in different parts of the world. In a multilingual set up like India, one of the major languages in use is English. For example, if a Bengali speaker is left in a city in Kerala or Mizoram or vice versa s/he cannot communicate to the people of that city unless s/he uses English. Besides, the same scenario can be seen across the globe. The English plays the role of or a link language. In the countries like the UK, the USA, Australia, South-Africa, Canada and other places, English is considered as the native or the first language while in the countries like India, Bangladesh, Pakistan, Sri Lanka, Nigeria, Tanzania, etc. its status is that of a non-native or second language (used as associate-official, educational, social, media, interpersonal language) and in countries like China, Japan, Germany, and Russia it is considered as a foreign language, used only for international purpose and it is not mandatory to learn this language. Whatever is the status of English — First, Second or Foreign — the proficiency in all the four skills — Listening, Speaking, Reading or Writing — is essential so far as communication is concerned. Though the language acquisition in a first language context is natural, in this situation the child has constant exposure from the environment, s/he belongs to, and such an opportunity is highly lacking while learning the second language. Here the language is mainly learnt through classroom instruction and it entails a conscious analytical effort. Since second language is not acquired through the natural process rather learnt later in life. The conscious teaching of pronunciation becomes necessary; there is every possibility of the interference of child's mother tongue what s/he has already mastered. We believe, one is over- burdened with various thoughts by this time and finds it difficult to cope with the nuances of a new language. Let us quickly sum up what we have discussed so far. We have delineated the importance of correct pronunciation while communicating, especially in a new language we are learning. English in this case is the language in question, and we have discussed the various statuses it has in different parts of the world. Finally, we have mentioned some reasons why acquiring proper pronunciation becomes difficult while learning English. Here are two activities to help you recall the points we have made so far. Go through the following list of various countries. Note that with each and every country name there is one first bracket attached to it. Write 1, 2, and F inside the brackets according to the status of English [1 st ,2 nd , and Foreign] in the corresponding

18 NSOU ?PGEL 5 & 6 countries: i. Ireland ( ) vi. Scotland ( ) ii. France ( ) vii.West Indies ( ) iii. Myanmar ( ) viii. China ( ) iv. New Zealand ( ) ix. Namibia ( ) v. Egypt ( ) .x. Nepal ( ) We hope you could get this activity easily. You may check your answers with the Google. Have you ever visited a state in India where you could use neither your mother tongue nor Hindi? What strategies do you use to communicate in such a situation? Here are some suggestions, list the weaknesses or drawbacks of these strategies: a. You will use gestures and sign languages: b. You will take a dictionary with you and keep referring to it. c. You will take a friend with you wherever you go d. Any other: (please mention) These are not proper strategies. Gestures and sign languages may be helpful up to a point. But there is always the danger of sign language being mistaken. Sign language is culture bound and is not uniform in all parts of the country. You may even land yourself in trouble if you use some sensitive gestures without your knowledge. Carrying a dictionary and referring to it each time is quite cumbersome and it is also time consuming. Dictionary provides a literal meaning and often this may make no sense in real communication. Though dictionary is a good source for knowing the meanings of words in isolation, it is not good for communication. Taking a friend along with you each time you go out may be a good idea. But you are imposing yourself on your friend's personal time. He/she may not be available for you always, and it is a matter of obligation, and how long can you survive like this. It is difficult. By rejecting these three situations and the other reasons you may possibly have, we are establishing the fact that a link language is essential for communication between people of two communities speaking different languages. In India, English has been serving this purpose eminently, and hence it is given a lot of importance in our education programmes. Our job is to make our learners learn this language properly, and learning good pronunciation is one aspect of such teaching.

19 NSOU ? PGEL 5 & 6 Our behaviour in the classroom is called 'classroom dynamics'. This is a complex phenomenon and includes our behaviour (how we control the class, how we read the lesson, how we stand in front of the students, how we use the chalk board, how do we ask questions, how do we encourage the students, how well we make them involve in the learning process, etc.). During this process, we often tend to switch from speaking to writing and back to speaking. You know how the chalkboard or ppt slides are used in the class and for what purpose. Speaking and writing reinforce each other. Suppose I use a word penchant % % [pa: a:] and pronounce it the way British do it, many of my students will neither get the word nor its spelling. It is at such times, writing becomes necessary. There are various other occasions, and I have cited just one. You are aware of many situations where you keep switching from speaking to writing and vice versa. In the next activity, we would like you tell your reasons for doing so. You are a teacher of the English language. In your class, you obviously use English. You speak in English as well as write a few things on the board. Make a list of situations for each of these activities in the space given below:

_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____ At the beginning of this unit, we found English is used differently in different parts of the world. It is not only the label, but its pronunciation and use also varies from place to place. However, there is one way in which English pronunciation is fixed as the standard. It is better to be aware of this pronunciation for purposes of teaching and also measuring the progress of our students. For example, the accent used by the British people is quite different from that used by the Americans or the Australians.

20 NSOU ?PGEL 5 & 6 Similarly in India, where English is spoken as a second language it has developed a distinct variety. But within this variety, there are further variations, for example, the speech of a Bengali speaker of English differs sharply from that of a Telugu or Marathi or Punjabi speakers of English. To solve this problem, while teaching spoken English, it is necessary to be aware of Phonetics to describe the types of errors in our speech. It is necessary to follow a particular standard for teaching Phonetics as well as spoken English. One native regional accent that has gained social prestige is the Received Pronunciation (RP) of England, as used in the southern part of England. It is also a status symbol to use RP for the elite class of the society. It is considered as the correct pronunciation of English. In many non-native speaking countries RP has been selected as a model. The teaching-learning of English pronunciation focuses on the following aspects: a. The sound system or the segmental features. These include the forty four speech sounds consisting of 24 consonant sounds, 12 pure vowel sounds, 8 diphthongs and occasionally a triphthong. b. Supra-segmental features include the combination of individual sounds to produce syllables, words, clauses or utterances. These become meaningful with stress, rhythm and intonation. You would have noticed that there are several words in English that are pronounced alike, but spelt differently, and conversely, we also have words that are spelt alike but pronounced differently. You have come across several examples of such words in your daily life. Here is an activity for you to show your awareness of such words. 1] ' ' and ' ' are spelt differently but they are pronounced the same, / be ∂ /. Make a list of five other pairs of words which are spelt differently but pronounced in the same way. Your answer: 2] Read out the following words and transcribe them using a dictionary. Learn to pronounce them correctly:- remember language lotus alphabet necessary caravan London letter father correct property brother English rumour cattle particular repertoire between pronunciation important

21 NSOU ? PGEL 5 & 6 Now we will introduce to you a new concept called the 'minimal pairs'. Minimal pairs are a set of words which differ from each other in a single phoneme. For example look at the words 'tag' and 'bag'. They are minimal pairs because they differ in the initial phoneme 't-' and 'b-'. Similarly, 'sit' and 'sat' are minimal pairs as they differ in the vowel sound '-i-' and '-æ-'. We use minimal pairs to establish that a particular sound is a phoneme. This is required especially with sounds that have similar qualities. For example /p/ and /b/ are similar in all aspects. Both are bilabial sounds and both are plosives. The only difference is that /p/ is voiceless whereas /b/ is voiced. In many languages these sounds are not separate (e.g. Malayalam). To establish /p/ as different from /b/ we need a minimal pair. Look at these words that bring about a contrast in the words: pin and bin; pit and bit; pat and bat; pail and bail; pall and ball; pill and bill; I can go on giving many examples for other sounds also. Here is an activity for you which helps you look for such words and also makes your understanding of the concept of minimal pairs clear to you. 3] Find words to match the following words with a minimum difference only in the vowel sound. One is done for you:- i) bend/band; v) force _____; ix) ten _____; ii) knit _____; vi) dawn _____; x) cat _____; iii) tale _____; vii) sill _____; xi) car _____; iv) broke _____; viii) win _____; xii) back _____; Give at least three minimal pairs to distinguish between the following sets of English vowel sounds: For each set, one example has been given. /e/ /æ/ _set____ ___sat_____ _____ _____ _____ /i:/ / I / beat_____ bit_____ _____ _____ _____ _____

22 NSOU ?PGEL 5 & 6 / / / :/ cot_____ caught_____ _____ _____ _____ _____ /3: / / ʌ/ curd_____ cup_____ _____ _____ _____ _____ You have already learnt about phonemes in your earlier courses. Let us quickly revise it for you. Phoneme is defined as a minimal distinctive unit of speech sound. There are three operational words here: minimal, distinctive and unit. Minimal is the smallest part which cannot be divided further, distinct because it is unique – the qualities it has are not possessed by other phonemes and it is a unit which means it is independent and can combine with other units based on a set of rules (phonological rules). Phonemes can be consonants, or vowels. Among vowels, we have pure vowels and diphthongs. In the next few activity, we like you to use your knowledge of phonetics, the transcription and complete the activities by writing words or symbols, etc. Identify the diphthong for each of the following words and add three more words to the list. The first one is done for you. / eI / came, make, face, samedaisy, play, great / / neither, idle, high, light / / home, post, shoulder, soap / / how, house, doubt, flower / / noise, soil, coin Try to pronounce the following words and write the pure vowels or diphthongs in the space provided :- try — / / boil — / / suite — / / Cord — / / put — / / fool — / /

23 NSOU ? PGEL 5 & 6 town — / / stand — / / clerk — / / budge — / / starch — / / wind — / / court — / / pear — / / point — / / poor — / / measure —/ / party — / / Fill in the blanks with appropriate vowel sounds to make complete words:- 1. r ___ b (rob), r ___ b (rib), r ___ b(rub) 2. p ____t ò (patch), p ____t ò (pitch), p ___t òò (porch) 3. f _____ l (fill), f _____ l (feel), f _____l(fall) 4. s ___ k (sick), s ____ k (suck), s ____ k (seek) 5. r ___ d (read), r ____ d (red), r _____d (road) 6. w ___v(weave), w ___v(wove), w ___ v (wave) 7. d ʒ _____ (jar), d ʒ ____ (jaw), d ʒ _____ (jew) 8. b _____ (buy), b ___ ___(boy), b ____(bay) 9.θr ___ (three), θr _____ (threw), θr ____ (throw) 10. ð ____ (thy), ð _____ (they), ð _____ (though) The phoneme /d/ occurs in initial, medial and final position for the words: daughter, holiday and bed. Give at least one example of each of the following consonants in initial, medial and final position. Initial Medial Final A] /t/ _____ _____ _____ B] /θ / _____ _____ _____ C]/p/ _____ _____ _____ D] /t ò / _____ _____ _____ E]/k / _____ _____ _____ F]/ ʒ / _____ _____ _____ In English, /p/ is a voiceless, bilabial stop.Give three term label of the following consonants:- i) / z / ii) h /

24 NSOU ?PGEL 5 & 6 iii) / l / iv) /ƒ/ v) / d ʒ / vi) / m / vii) / k / viii) / v / ix) / d / x) /ŋ/ Phonemic transcription or broad transcription represents each speech sounds (44 in all) with a unique symbol. In other words, these unique symbols are for each phoneme of a language. We have learnt about Phonetic Transcription and the International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA) in paper3 Module 2 Unit 8. Let us revise on that learning in the following activities. b) Give phonetic symbols to match the following descriptions of consonant sounds. The first one is done for you. i)voiced post-alveolar frictionless continuant / r / ii) voiceless palato-alveolar affricate / / iii) voiced alveolar nasal / / iv) voiced labio-velar semi-vowel / / v) voiceless alveolar fricative / / vi) voiced velar plosive / / vii) voiceless dental fricative / / viii) voiced bilabial plosive / / ix) voiceless labio-dental fricative / / x) voiced palato-alveolar fricative / /

In this unit, we have looked at the variety of ways in which a language can be spoken. In this context we have taken the example of English and demonstrated how it enjoys different statuses and also spoken differently in different places. It is therefore necessary to understand the structure of standard English and while teaching English as second language and be aware of it. In order to drive home these concepts, we have provided you with several activities that provide practice in understanding the pronunciation of words, transcribing words, identifying similar sounding words and many other aspects related to spoken English. We have revised your knowledge of phonetics course which you studied last semester and this unit will help you cope with the demands of the next units in this module. 1. Akmajian, Adrian., et at., (2017). . Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. 2. Balasubramaniam. T., (2001). Chennai: Macmillan India Pvt Ltd. 3. Hockett, C.F., (1958). New York: The Macmillan Company. 4. Katamba. F., (1989). London and New York: Longman Linguistics Library. 5. Roach, Peter., (2009). . Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

? ł The first question that comes to the mind of a person who wishes to learn an acceptable pronunciation of English is, which of the various forms of pronunciation should we learn? No two persons belonging to same nationality pronounce their own language exactly alike. The difference may be due to the locality in which they live; social surroundings or early influences, and there may be individual peculiarities for which it is difficult or impossible to account. After reading and working on the unit you will be able to: a) Have an idea on the extent to which pronunciation can vary b) Identify the reasons of variation c) Learn on the processes of variation d) Understand grapheme–phoneme correspondences It is often noticed that the pronunciation of English among people brought up in 26

Manchester is different from those from Exeter and both differ from the pronunciation of those brought up in Edinburgh or in London. Let's take an example. Differences of English pronunciation according to locality may be found in the treatment of letter 'r' in such word as 'part'. In Scotland it is pronounced as slightly flapped while /r/ is not pronounced until it is followed by vowel sound. So the pronunciation of 'part' is According to their rule /r/ is not pronounced when it is in the final position of the word or when it is followed by a consonant sound. So they pronounce as (for 'car') but In many parts of North and West of England /r/ appears as In southern England the vowel sounds in 'boot' and 'book' are different where as in Scotland a short closed /u/ is used for both the words. Pronunciation is also influenced by the difference of education. People of limited education in different parts of England omit / / and pronounce for the word 'help'. In London (Cockney) words like 'name' is pronounced with the diphthong, / aI/ or / æI / instead of /eI/ and words like 'house' or 'about' are pronounced with / æ u /, or sometimes / ∂bæut / In uneducated Yorkshire speech the vowels of 'put' /u/ and cut / ʌ / are labeled to a vowel intermediate between these two. Because of the so many variations it is really very difficult for the foreign learners to know which types of pronunciation should be learnt and which one should be accepted as the standard variety. But certainly the most useful type is the one which is based on the speech that is used in the southern England [where city of London is situated]. It is generally used by the people, educated at Public Schools and Preparatory Boarding Schools. It is easily legible in all parts of English – speaking countries. It is more widely understood than any other variety. The term Received Pronunciation (RP) is often used to designate this type of pronunciation. Among several different styles of pronunciation notable ones are the rapid familiar style, the slower colloquial style, the natural style used while addressing an audience, the acquired style of the stage while acting and the acquired styles used in singing. Of these the slower colloquial style is perhaps the most suitable for beginners. Contracted forms are a distinct feature of English. They are found in written conversations, in the spoken form of the language. They maintain rhythm in connected speech. Many words have more than one contracted form. Write the following combinations as contractions(monosyllable, if possible), using the phonetic symbols(one is done for you):- Example – she will = ò l .

a. I will _____ g. I would _____ b. You will _____ h. You would _____ c. He will _____ i. She would _____ d. It will_____ j. It would _____ e. We will _____ k. we would _____ f. They will _____ l. They would _____ Nicholas, a 6-year old child used a creative spelling to spell the word . What assumptions on his part produced this spelling? In American English, /r/ is often one of the most difficult features of pronunciation for speakers of other languages to learn. Sometimes it is even difficult for the native speakers themselves, being one of the last sounds the children acquire when they learn American English. It is also one of the sources of extreme dialectical variation, for example, it was evident in the pronunciation of ' ' by Ted Kennedy, the US senator from Massachusetts or in that of a country music singer George Jones and Tom Brokaw /far/. Even when beginning students of Linguistics often transcribe the word , they often use the tense vowel /i: —. /fir/ Here the vowel sounds higher than the lax vowel /j/ as in 'bid'. In reality the vowel in 'fear' lies between /j / and / i:/ Even though they admit that it does not seem quite as high as the tense vowel /i/ as in 'bead' as in /bId/ Same thing can be seen in pronunciation of word like 'sir' as /sIr/ These vowels are basically called r-coloured vowel that refers to English vocalic sounds that have an r-like quality. I hope, by this time you have understood, to some extent, the variation of pronunciation with respect to American dialectic English. Now it is necessary to test up to what extent you have perceived this variation. Let us engage in a relevant activity. Transcribe the following words exhibiting vowels before /r/:- i) boor ii) bore iii) poor iv) care v) car vi) dear vii) fir viii) mire ix) sewer x)mirror ł The English language has two types of /l/ —— dark l (/ł /) and light or normal l (/l/). The /ł / occurs in words like 'lark' and 'tail' and has a lower sound than /l/

29 NSOU ? PGEL 5 & 6 which occurs in the words like 'lead' or 'light'. Even /l/ or light /l/ occurs in a word when it is preceded by bilabial sound like /p, b/. In English dark-/l/ is basic. Its dark quality is due to a co-articulation effect caused by an accompanying raised and retracted tongue body. Light-l is a positional variant occurring before front vowels such as / I / and / i: /. Before front vowels /l/ is not produced with a retracted tongue body and the body is more forward and thus the light variant is produced. An English speaker, learning French, Spanish or German must learn to produce all of the 'l's in these languages as light since none of them has / ɫ /. Write the lateral: clear or dark /l/ for the following words: Love ball Live able Light pillow Language doll house Answer: for the left hand column it is clear /l/ and for the right hand column it is dark/l/. In English phonology, a strange behaviour is seen among some of the voiced consonants. Depending on where they occur, sometimes, they become voiceless. This is due to the influence of the environment. E.g. Take a word like 'absolute' – the second consonant /b/ is voiced in normal circumstances. In this word, since it is followed by /s/ which is a voiceless sound, /b/ tends to lose its voice quality and is pronounced as /p/. This is just one example, and you may find similar occurrences in different words. Here is an activity to help you understand this better. In some of the following words the /l/s and /r/s are voiceless. Identify these words and try to establish the conditions under which /l/ and /r/ lose their voicing:- (You may use a dictionary to do this activity.) a) Alpo f) try b) archive g) splat c) black h) spread d) play i) leap e) dream j) read.

30 NSOU ?PGEL 5 & 6 A grapheme is the unit of written language, and we know that the unit of spoken language is a phoneme. From our background knowledge we know that a single grapheme can have more than one sound. For example, a grapheme [f] has its phonemic correspondences in the utterances of the words; family, laugh, philosophy, different, etc. We all had learnt the spellings of words in English and their pronunciation at the same time. We had to learn the ways words are spelt and the ways they are said. This was phonological awareness. Phonological awareness is one of the critical skills of becoming a good reader. Let us work on few activities on phonological awareness. Write the following words using the phonetic symbols:- i) Water ii) splat iii) lit iv) tin v) eaten v) beading vi) pull vi) beating vii) craft viii) knight Now check your answers using a dictionary. Write the speech sound symbol for vowel sounds in each of the words. One is done for you:- For the word 'fish' it is/ I / and for 'fear' it is /Iə/. i) mood ii) caught iii) cot iv) and v) tree vi) five vii) bait viii) toy ix) said x) soot Write the speech sound symbol for the first sound in each of the following words:- i) psychology vi) though ii) use vii) pneumonia iii) thought viii) cyberneticsa iv) cow ix) physics v) knowledge x) memory Write the speech sound symbol for the last sound in each of the following words:- a) cats f) judge

31 NSOU ? PGEL 5 & 6 b) dogs g) rough c) bushes h) tongue d) sighed i) garage e) bleached j) climb Describe each of the following speech sound symbols using articulatory features:- i) /n/ ii) /a/ iii) /l/ iv) /e/ v) /s/ vi) /h/ vii) /z/ viii) /a / ix) /m/ x) /ʌ/ A sound change is a replacement of one sound by another. There are two types of sound changes; Phonetic change or change in a single phonetic feature and Phonological change or merging of two sound units to the creation of a new word. The reason behind a sound change is ease of pronunciation. There are three kinds of phonological processes in English, assimilation, deletion, and addition. Assimilation is changing to similar phonetic features and dissimilation is change to dissimilar phonetic features. Progressive assimilation happens when the preceding sound influences the following sound. In English this happens in continuous speech. For example: 'understand the' /ʌndə 1 stændə/ becomes /ʌndə 1 stænd/. The final sound of the first word /d/ (alveolar stop) influences the first sound of the second word /ð/ (dental fricative) and turns it into /d/. Regressive assimilation occurs when the following sound influences the preceding sound. For example: 'with this' /wiθðjs/ becomes /wiððls/ when uttered together. That is the dental voiced fricative / ð / of the following word influences and dental voiceless fricative /è/ of the preceding word and makes it voiced. Deletion of a sound is 'cope'. Syncope, Apocope, and procope are deletions. Deletion or elision is omission of one or more consonant, vowel or a syllable from a word or phrase. Apocope is deletion of the final sound segment. For example 'first light' is often pronounced f3:slaɪt.The final /t/ is deleted if it is followed by a consonant. Another example of deletion is 'Just don't'd3ʌsdeJ nt is uttered as /d3ʌsdeeJ nt Similarly, deletion of an initial segment (([k]nie→fnaif)) is procope and deletion of medial segment is syncope (chocolate '→ choclate, restaurant '→ restrant).

32 NSOU ?PGEL 5 & 6 Addition of a sound is 'thesis'. Prothesis (special→especial), epithesis ('blue' [blu]→/bəlu/, are additions. Metathesis is switching of places. For example 'ask' becomes /aks/. Examine the following data and state whether it is progressive and regressive assimilation:- 1. Health = _____ 2. Comfort = _____ 3. Keep going = _____ 4. happen = _____ Examine the following examples and tell whether they are apocope or syncope :- i) Just for fun / d3ʌstfəfʌn / ii) Abhor / əbhɔ:/ ? /əbɔ:/ iii) Hand bag / hændbæg?hænbæg/ ?/hæmbæg / iv) White pepper /waɪt 'pepə/ →/waəp' pepə / In morphology structural zero or null morpheme is a morpheme that has no phonetic form, indicating that the derived form is same as the stem. For example, sheep + plural morpheme is also sheep. When there is a contrast in the phonemes or in the order of phonemes then we have overt formal difference or process morpheme. For example 'foot' /fut/ and 'feet' /fiyt/. We will learn more on morpholosy in Paper 6. Identify the forms which have a structural zero and those which illustrate process morphemes:- i) ran ii) hit iii) met iv) cut v) split vi) spat vii) sang viii) bought ix) deer

33 NSOU ? PGEL 5 & 6 Give two words for each of the following words which differ in only one sound segment [one is done for you]: few : mew waste : _____ cat : _____ leisure : _____ try : _____ Chew _____ battle : _____ bought: _____ out :_____ gate : _____ The unit is designed as a revision on earlier units on Phonetics and Phonology along with theoretical inputs in variations in Phonology. This is spread over a vast area, covering phonetic changes in phonology, morphology, grapheme-phoneme correspondences, sound changes in phonological processes, and variations due to style and location. Here are few review questions at the end of the unit to check your comprehension. 1. What is sound change? Illustrate with examples of deletion in English 2. Cite five examples each for Metathesis and prothesis in English. 3. Explain Structural Zero and Process Morphemes with examples. 4. Distinguish between clear /l/ and dark /ɫ /. 5. Compare variation in pronunciation due to location in English and your first language. 6. Discuss variation in pronunciation due to style from your first language and English. 7. What is assimilation? Discuss different types of assimilation in English. 8. Give the phoneme-grapheme correspondences: a) off, enough, photography, different b) machine, ashamed, station, wish c) closure, provision, garage, usual 9. Mention the common vowels in the following sets and their grapheme correspondences. a) earth, world, bird, her, turn

34 NSOU ?PGEL 5 & 6 b) daughter, horse, yawn, tall, paw c) pat, trash, exact, damp, lamb 10. Mention the common diphthongs in the following sets and their grapheme correspondences. a) air, mare, there, chair, rare b) cable, may, great, same, weigh c) road, sole, sow, bureau, soul 1. Akmajian, Adrian., et at., (2017). . Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. 2. Balasubramaniam. T., (2001). Chennai: Macmillan India Pvt Ltd. 3. Hockett, C.F., (1958). New York: The Macmillan Company. 4. Katamba. F., (1989). London and New York: Longman Linguistics Library. 5. Roach, Peter., (2009). . Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. 6. Verma. S. K., and N Krishnaswamy. (1997). Chennai: OUP.

? The English are particularly sensitive to variations in the pronunciation of their language. Such extreme sensitivity may make the people claim that modern speech is becoming more and more slovenly, full of 'mumbling and mangled vowels' and 'missing consonants'. There is, however, little evidence to show that English is spoken in a more 'slovenly' manner now, than it was a few centuries ago. However, what is more significant, socially as well as linguistically is the attitude that considers a certain set of sound values as more acceptable or 'more beautiful', than another. The factor suggests that there definitely exists a standard for comparison although it is never explicitly imposed by any official body. Let us judge the English pronunciation style or stress pattern in the historical perspective. After reading the unit you will be able to a) Learn how to teach Pronunciation b) Distinguish features of RP and GIE c) Design a pronunciation syllabus for your class 35

36 NSOU ?PGEL 5 & 6 d) Understand spelling-pronunciation relationship The introduction of the term Received Pronunciation is usually credited to Daniel Jones after his comment in 1917 "In what follows, I call it Received Pronunciation (abbreviation RP), for want of a better term." However, the expression had actually been used much earlier by Alexander Ellis in 1869 and Peter DuPonceau in 1818 (the term used by Henry C. K. Wyld in 1927 was "received standard"). According to Fowler's Modern English Usage (1965), the correct term is "the Received Pronunciation". The word received conveys its original meaning of accepted or approved – as in "received wisdom". The reference to this pronunciation as Oxford English is because it was traditionally the common speech of Oxford University; the production of dictionaries gave Oxford University prestige in matters of language. The extended versions of the Oxford English Dictionary give Received Pronunciation guidelines for each word. RP is sometimes known as the Queen's English, but recordings show that even Queen Elizabeth II has changed her pronunciation over the past 50 years. RP is an accent (a form of pronunciation), rather than a dialect (a form of vocabulary and grammar as well as pronunciation). It may show a great deal about the social and educational background of a person who uses English. Anyone using RP will typically speak Standard English although the reverse is not necessarily true (e.g. the standard language may be pronounced with a regional accent, such as a Yorkshire accent; but it is very unlikely that someone speaking RP would use it to speak Scots). RP is often believed to be based on the Southern accents of England, but it actually has most in common with the Early Modern English dialects of the East Midlands. This was the most populated and most prosperous area of England during the 14th and 15th centuries. By the end of the 15th century, "Standard English" was established in the City of London. A mixture of London speech with elements from East Midlands, Middlesex and Essex, became known as RP. However, the notion that one variety of pronunciation was socially more acceptable than others has existed in England. For reasons of politics, commerce and presence of the Royal Court, the pronunciation of south-east of England, and more particularly that of London region became more prestigious. Even the Public Schools of the nineteenth century also helped in the dissemination of the speech of the ruling class. With the spread of education a bulk of educated people whether belonging to the upper class or not, and those who heartily aspired for the social advancement, changed their accent to sound more like the socially accepted standard. 37 NSOU ? PGEL 5 & 6 Like all accents, RP has changed with time. For example, sound recordings and films from the first half of the 20th century demonstrate that it was usual for speakers of RP to pronounce the /æ/ sound, as in , with a vowel close to [ɛ], so that would sound similar to a present-day pronunciation of . Figure – 7 [A comparison of the values of /i: æ ɑːɔːʊ u:/ / for older (black) and younger (light blue) RP speakers (Fromde Jong et al,2007:1814)] The 1993 Oxford Dictionary changed three main things in its description of modern RP, although these features can still be heard amongst old speakers of RP. Firstly, words such as , , , were pronounced with /ɔ:/ (as in General American) instead of / /, so that sounded close to . The Queen still uses the older pronunciations, but it is rare to hear them on the BBC any more. Secondly, there was a distinction between horse and hoarse with an extra diphthong /ɔ:/ appearing in words like , , and . Thirdly, final 'y' on a word is now represented as an /i/ - a symbol to cover either the traditional /I/ or the more modern /i:/, the latter of which has been common in the south of England for some time. Before World War II, the vowel of was a back vowel close to [ʌ] but has since shifted forward to a central position so that [ ] is more accurate; phonetic transcription of this vowel as ‹ʌ› is common partly for historical reasons. In the 1960s the transcription /∂ʊ / started to be used for the "GOAT" vowel

38 NSOU ?PGEL 5 & 6 instead of Daniel Jones's /oJ /, reflecting a change in pronunciation since the beginning of the century. Joseph Wright's work suggests that, during the early 20th century, words such as cure, fewer, pure, etc. were pronounced with a triphthong/iu∂/ rather than the more modern /ju∂/. The change in RP may even be observed in the home of "BBC English". The BBC accent of the 1950s was distinctly different from today's. A news report from the 1950s is recognizable as such, and a mock-1950s BBC voice is used for comic effect in programmes wishing to satirize 1950s social attitudes such as the Harry Enfield Showand its "Mr. Cholmondley-Warner" sketches. There are several words where the traditional RP pronunciation is now considered archaic: for example, "medicine" was originally said /medsIn/ and "tissue" was originally said /tIsju:/. All should agree that pronunciation is an important part of foreign/second language learning. For many learners, again, it creates impediments on the way of learning a language. Naturally, a relevant question arises: when should we start teaching pronunciation and how? – Should we begin teaching with phonic drills even before teaching grammar or vocabulary? Or should we start it in the early age considering that the children are the better adapters than the adult learners? – Or should pronunciation be taught overtly or should it be introduced gradually or unobtrusively? Should one teach stress and intonation relatively earlier in the course or when the sound pattern along with vocabulary and grammar has been already mastered? Answers to these questions, although varying in nature, still now evolves with the development of linguistics to which phonetics and phonology belong to. In the 1940's and 50's when a systematic approach to phonology based on the concept of the phoneme was introduced into structural and audio-lingual language teaching, it was believed that the information gathered from the contrastive study of speech sounds across languages (in order to identify the similarities and dissimilarities between target and original languages) would systematically help learners to overcome the phonological impediments presented by the new language. The trend as established in 1960's is still being followed. It emphasizes the teaching of segmental phonemes, phonemic contrast and contrastive analysis using a variety of practical exercises. It also recognizes the importance of the supra-segmental features and offers practice in stress and intonation. Most training takes place early in a course and pronunciation is introduced more gradually and unobtrusively. The emphasis, then, is shifted to the global listening, speaking activities and grammar teaching and so on.

39 NSOU ? PGEL 5 & 6 Another method advocates mimicking and imitating the teacher without offering any explanation. Specific exercises are used to deal with particular pronunciation problems as and when they arise. Phonetic or phonological explanations may be offered if none of the above procedures work. It is said that in 1980's, with the introduction of the communicative language teaching, the sufficient exposure is not given in pronunciation teaching and this type of negligence creates obstacles for the learners to communicate effectively. It is important to note the changes that the socio-linguistic view of language has brought about in the definition of objectives in teaching pronunciation. , it is now accepted that acquisition of a native-like pronunciation is no longer necessary. The most important consideration is that the learners' pronunciation should be intelligible to the native speakers. , attention is paid mostly to the acceptability of the pronunciation (may be considered a social criteria). It means that learners should avoid any sort of feature(s) of pronunciation that might in any case be very offensive as well as irritating to the native listeners. It is, therefore, advisable that learners should be taught to articulate clearly using a neutral pronunciation avoiding strictly local characteristics. , greater attention is now paid to the teaching of rhythm, stress and intonation. It is especially important to keep in mind that the changes in pronunciation occur when we utter larger units of speech than when we utter isolated words or sentences out of context. This is the area where discourse analysis has particularly influenced teaching pronunciation. In this context you should have a fair concept of General Indian English [GIE] because you are supposed to interact those students who are already influenced by the Indian version of the RP pronunciation thereby creating a severe communication gap. Let's explore the vowel sounds of GIE first:- Key words GIE Key words GIE feel, bead, beak, beat, heat i: shoe, boo, boot, hoot u: tin, bid, bit, hit I about, buck, but, come ∂ bake, bait, bay, came e: bike, bite, buy, height aI bed, bet e boy, toy ɔI man, bad, back, bat æ bout, bow aʊ par calm a: peer, stir, clear, rear I∂

40 NSOU ?PGEL 5 & 6 cot, hot, lot, nod pair, fair, rare, chair e∂ boat, go, pour o: poor, tour, sure Ω∂ book, look, put, suit ʊ Give the GIE symbols for the vowels in the following words. i) exact / / ii) what / / iii) new / / iv) suppose / / v) four / / vi) free / / vii) sea / / viii) city / / ix) should / / x) fruit / / Give the GIE symbols for the diphthongs in the following words. i) either / / ii) coin / / iii) town / / iv) cheer / / v) there / / vi) moor / / vii) steward / / viii) wear / / ix) loyal / / x) night / / In general, Indian English has fewer peculiarities in its vowel sounds than the consonants, especially as spoken by native speakers of languages like Hindi, which in fact has a vowel phonology very similar to that of English. Among the distinctive features of the vowel-sounds employed by some Indian English speakers are discussed in the following paragraphs. Many Indian languages (with the exception Western Hindi and Punjabi do not natively possess a separate phoneme /æ/ (as in >trap<). Thus, many speakers do not differentiate between the vowel sounds /ϵ/ (as in "dress") and /æ/ (as in >trap<), except in cases where a such as >bed</>bad< exists in the vocabulary of the speaker. Such a speaker might pronounce "tax" like the first syllable of "Texas". Speakers of Southern languages and , who do differentiate /ϵ/ and /æ/, do not have difficulty making this distinction. Eastern languages, notably Bengali does have the /∂e/ sound for both the vowels â: (hâñcco—the sneezing sound—pronounced as hæñcco)and /e/: (henglâ—greedy—pronounced as h∂engla). The vowel has two sound values in Bengali: as au in ro ('more') and (K likâtâ). It lacks the short vowel value for (p râthâ). Chiefly in Punjab and Haryana states, the short ϵ becomes lengthened and higher to long making >pen< sound like >paenn<. When a long vowel is followed by "r", some speakers of Indian English usually use a monopthong, instead of the diphthong used for many such words in many other accents. Thus "fear" is pronounced [fir] instead of [fi∂] Indian English often uses strong vowels where other accents would have unstressed syllables or words. Thus "cottage" may be pronounced [k ted3] rather than [kɑtId3].

41 NSOU ? PGEL 5 & 6 A word such as "was" in the phrase "I was going" will be pronounced [u∂z] or [uɑs] in Indian English: in most other accents it would receive the unstressed realization [wɒz]. Another example is that many Indian English speakers often pronounce >the< as /∂i:/, irrespective of whether the definite article comes before a vowel or a consonant, or whether it is stressed or not. In native varieties of English, >the< is pronounced as [ð] when it is unstressed and lies before a consonant, and as [ði:] when it is before a vowel or when stressed even before a consonant. Continuing the above point, the indefinite article >a< is often pronounced by many Indian English speakers as [e:], irrespective of whether it is stressed or unstressed. In native varieties of English, >a< is pronounced as [∂] when unstressed and as [eI] when stressed. The RP vowels /ʌ/, /∂/ and /\3:/ might be realized as /∂/ in Indian English. Bengalis often pronounce all these vowels as a, including the >r<-colored versions of these vowels. Thus, >firm< may be pronounced the same as [farm]. "Van" as bhan etc. General Indian English realizes /eI/ (as in >face<) and /oʊ/ (as in >goat<) as long monophthongs[e:] [o:] Many Indian English speakers do not make a clear distinction between / / and /ɔ:/ In English, some Indian speakers don't pronounce the rounded /ɑ/ or /ɔ:/, and substitute /a/ instead. This makes >not< sound as [nat]. The phoneme /ɔ:/, if used, is only semi-rounded at the lips. Similarly in North India "coffee" will be kaafi, "Copy" will be kaapi etc. Words such as >class<, >staff< and >last< would be pronounced with a back >a< as in British English but unlike American English, i.e., [kla:s], [sta:f] and [la:st] rather than American [klæs], [stæf] and [læst] and in South of India "Parent" is pa:rent. Most Indians have the of Those who don't, are usually influenced by American accents. Not using the trap-bath split is often popularly construed as attempting to imitate an American accent.

42 NSOU ?PGEL 5 & 6 Key wordssymbol Key words symbol Key words symbol Key words symbol Give the GIE symbols for the fricative and affricate sounds in the following words. i) half / / ii) view / / iii) heathy / / iv) than / / v) almost / / vi) school / / vii) ship / / viii) revision / / ix) rich / / x) age / / Put the GIE symbols for the consonant sounds. i) heap / / ii) buy / / iii) tea / / iv) dear / / v) car / / vi) ago / / vii) my / / viii) any / / ix) singer / / x) learn / / xi) yet / / xii) why/ / Most pronunciations of Indian English are rhotic, but many speakers with higher education are non-rhotic. Standard Hindi and most other vernaculars (except Punjabi & Bengali) do not differentiate between /v/) and /w/). Instead, many Indians use a frictionless approximant [ʊ] for words with either sound, possibly in free variation with [v] and/or [w]. So and are homophones. Because of the previous characteristic many Indians pronounce words such as >flower< as [fla:(r)] instead of [flaJ ∂(r)], and >our< as [a:(r)] instead of [aJ ∂(r)]. symbol symbol symbol symbol /p/ /b/ /t/ /d/ /k/ /g/ /ct/ Key words Key words Key words Key words pin jam /d3/ Them /dd/ ram /r/ bin mat /m/ Sun /s/ yes /j/ tin nose /n/ Zoo /z/ water /w/ dam song /ŋ/ sheep /ʃ/ kite fan /f/ garage /ʒ/ get van /v/ Hen /h/ chat think /ʈh/ Leaf / ò / / ʒ /

43 NSOU ? PGEL 5 & 6 The voiceless plosives /p/, /t/, /k/ are always unaspirated in Indian English, whereas in RP, General American and most other English accents they are aspirated in word- initial or stressed syllables. Thus "pin" is pronounced [pIn] in Indian English but [p h jn] in most other accents. In native Indian languages (except Tamil), the distinction between aspirated and unaspirated plosives is phonemic, and the English stops are equated with the unaspirated rather than the aspirated phonemes of the local languages The same is true of the voiceless post alveolarafficate/t ò /. The stops English /d/, /t/ are often [d], [t], especially in the South of India. In Indian languages there are two entirely distinct sets of coronal plosives: one and the other retroflex. To the Indian ears, the English alveolar plosives sound more retroflex than dental. In the Devanagari script of Hindi, all alveolar plosives of English are transcribed as their retroflex counterparts. One good reason for this is that unlike most other native Indian languages, Hindi does not have retroflex plosives. The so-called retroflexes in Hindi are actually articulated as apical plosives, sometimes even with a tendency to come down to the alveolar region. So a Hindi speaker normally cannot distinguish the difference between their own apical post-alveolar plosives and English's alveolar plosives. However, languages such as Tamil have retroflex plosives, wherein the articulation is done with the tongue curved upwards and backwards at the . This also causes (in parts of Uttar Pradesh and Madhya Pradesh) the /s/ preceding alveolar / t/ to allophonically change to [ò] (>stop</stɑp/ → / ò tap/). Mostly in south India, some speakers allophonically further change the voiced retroflex plosive to voiced and the nasal /n/ to a nasalized retroflex flap. Many Indians speaking English lack the (/3/), the same as their native languages. Typically, /z/ or /d3/ is substituted, e.g. / tr ʒ :z∂:r/, and in the south Indian variants, with /ʃ/ as in >"sh'"ore<, All major native languages of India lack the dental fricatives (/θ/ and /ð/; spelled with). Usually, the [t h] is substituted for /θ/ and the unaspirated [d*], or possibly the aspirated version [d h ±]. is substituted for /ð/ For example, "thin" would be realized as [t h In] instead of /θIn/. South Indians tend to curl the tongue (retroflex accentuation) more for /l/ and /n/. Most Indian languages (except Urdu) lack the /z/. While they do have its nearest equivalent: the unvoiced /s/, strangely, it is not used in substitution. Instead, /z/ is substituted with the voiced palatal affricate (or post alveolar) /d3/, just as with a Korean accent. This makes words such as >zero< and >rosy< sound as [dzi:ro] and [ro:dzi:]. This replacement is equally true for Persian and Arabic loanwords into Hindi. The probable reason is the confusion created by the use of the grapheme >:< (for /dz/) with a dot beneath it to represent the loaned / z/ (as >::<). This is common among people without formal English education.

44 NSOU ?PGEL 5 & 6 Many Indians with lower exposure to English also may pronounce / f / as aspirated [p h]. Again note that in Hindi (devanagari) the loaned / f / from Persian and Arabic is written by putting a dot beneath the grapheme for native [p h] >:<: >::<. This substitution is rarer than that for [z], and in fact in many Hindi- speaking areas /f/ is replacing /p h / even in its native words. Inability to pronounce certain (especially word-initial) by people of rural backgrounds. This is usually dealt with by . e.g., /is.ku:l/, similar to Spanish. Sometimes, Indian speakers interchange /s/ and /z/, especially when plurals are being formed. Whereas in international varieties of English, [s] is used for pluralization of a word ending in a voiceless consonant, [z] for that ending in a voiced consonant or vowel, and [hiz] for that ending in a sibilant. Again, in dialects like all instances of / ò / are spoken like [s], a phenomenon which is also apparent in their English. Exactly the opposite is seen for many . In case of the post alveolar affricates /t ò //d3/, native languages like Hindi have corresponding affricates articulated from the palatal region, rather than postalveolar, and they have more of a stop component than fricative; this is reflected in the English of Hindi Speakers. While retaining /ɔ/ in the final position, Indian speakers usually include the [a] after it. Hence /riŋ.iŋ/→ riŋ.giŋg) /l/, /m/ and /n/ are usually replaced by the VC clusters [∂], [∂m] and [∂n] (as in /but.t∂n/), or if a precedes, by [il] (as in /lit.til/). Syllable nuclei in words with the spelling (a in RP and an r-colored schwa in GIE) are also replaced VC clusters. e.g., , /mi:t∂r/ → /mi:t∂r/. Indian English uses clear [l] in all instances like Irish English whereas other varieties use clear [l] in syllable-initial positions and dark [l] (velarized-L) in coda and syllabic positions. A number of distinctive features of Indian English are due to "the vagaries of English spelling" Most Indian languages have a very phonetic pronunciation with respect to their script, and unlike

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English, the spelling of a word is a highly reliable guide to its

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modern pronunciation. In words where the digraph >gh< represents a voiced velar plosive (/g/) in other accents, some Indian English speakers supply a murmured version [g 4], for example >ghost<[g h o:st]. No other accent of English admits this voiced aspiration. Similarly, the digraph >wh< may be aspirated as [v h] or [w h], resulting in realizations

45 NSOU ? PGEL 5 & 6 such as >which<[v h It ò], found in no other English accent (except in certain parts of Scotland). In unstressed syllables, native English varieties will mostly use the schwa while Indian English would use the spelling vowel, making >sanity< sound as [sæ.ni.ti] instead of [sæ.n∂.ti].Similarly, >above< and >ago< can be heard as [e.b∧v] and [e.go] instead of [∂.b∧v] and [∂.go]. English words ending in grapheme > a < almost always have the > a < being pronounced as schwa /∂/ in native varieties (exceptions include words such as >spa<). But in Indian English, the ending > a < is pronounced as the long open central unrounded vowel/a:/ (as in >spa<) instead of schwa. So, >India< is pronounced as / In.dI.a:/ instead of /In.dI.a/, and >sofa< as /so:.fa:/ instead of /sou.f∂/ The word "of" is usually pronounced with a /f/ instead of a /v/ as in most other accents Use of [d] instead of [t] for the "-ed" ending of the past tense after voiceless consonants, for example "developed" may be [dɛvl∂pd] instead of RP /dIvɛl∂pt/. Use of [s] instead of [z] for the "-s" ending of the plural after voiced consonants, for example >dogs< may be [dɑgs] instead of [dɑgs] Pronunciation of >house< as [hauz] in both the noun and the verb, instead of [haus] as noun and [hauz] as verb. The digraph >tz< is pronounced as [tz] or [td3] instead of [ts] (voicing may be assimilated in the stop too), making >Switzerland< sound like [sʊit.z∂r.lænd] instead of [swIt.s∂.l∂nd]. In RP, /r/ occurs only before a vowel. But many speakers of Indian English use / r/ in almost all positions in words as dictated by the spellings. The allophone used is a mild trill or a tap. Indian speakers do not typically use the retroflex approximant/ cl/ for >r<, which is common for American English speakers All consonants are distinctly doubled (lengthened) in General Indian English wherever the spelling suggests so. e.g., >drilling</dril.liŋg/. >Here< is sometimes pronounced [he∂(r)] (like in >hair< and >hare<) instead of [hI∂(r)]. English pronunciation of the grapheme > i < varies from [I] to [aI] depending upon the dialect or accent. Indian English will invariably use the British dialect for it. Thus, >tensile< would be pronounced as [tɛn.saIl] like the British, rather than [tɛn.sIl] like theAmerican; >anti< would be pronounced as [æn.ti] like the British, rather than [æn.taI] like American. While Indian English is historically derived from British English, recent influences from American English can be found to have created their own idiosyncrasies. For instance, it is common to both spellings "program" and "programme" being used in both formal and informal communications.(Two examples from Indian newspapers providing both spellings are provided here)

46 NSOU ?PGEL 5 & 6 In this unit we have discussed in detail, the peculiarities associated with the English language, and attempts made to standardize the pronunciation. Though there had been concerted efforts put in by many scholars, it was formalized by Daniel Jones and came to be called Received Pronunciation. This is largely restricted in use and even this model has undergone changes over the years. This standard is compared with the General Indian English and an attempt has been made to contrast both the vowels and consonants in both the systems. Adequate illustrations are provided to make these discussions clear. Finally, the role spelling has in determining the pronunciation is discussed. 1. What should you consider when you choose a standard pronunciation to teach? 2. Write a brief note on the changing trends of pronunciation teaching from the 1940's through the 90's. 3. Identify at least two problem zones in the consonant features that students find difficult to master. How would you alleviate these problems? 4. Suggest ten exercises for alleviating problems with consonant features. 5. Identify at least three problem zones with vowel sound features that are difficult to master. How would you alleviate these problems? 6. Suggest ten exercises for alleviating problems with vowel features. 7. What should be the objectives of pronunciation teaching? Suggest objectives from your own experiences and for your needs. 8. Suggest five examples for each of ten consonants with varied spelling pronunciation. 9. What would you consider a useful and workable syllabus for your students while teaching pronunciation? 10. What are the variations in RP and GIE for the fricatives of English? 1. Gimson, A.C. 1972. Edward Arnold. 2. Stern. H.H. 1972. (ed. Patrick Allen and Birgit Harley), Oxford India Press. 3. Strevens, P.D. 1977. Oxford India Press.

? This module has a focus on Language Functions and the various ramifications it can have in the process of communication. In this module we shall look at four of these aspects in some detail. The features being discussed here are situations and meanings that language facilitates, as well as form and discourse that is employed for conveying the ideas. We will provide you with as many examples as possible and keep the theoretical discussion to the minimum possible level. This is to help you infer the principles and concepts on your own. 'Language Functions as Situations'— Look at the title of the unit. Of the four words included two are called operative words. We are sure, you are able to guess which two are operational or carry the meaning to be conveyed. Please enter these two words in the space below: Your response: We have discussed in detail what language is, and its salient features in Paper 4. (Take a look at Module I of Paper 4.) Since we know enough of what language is, 47 MODULE - 2 : VOCABULARY STUDIES

48 NSOU ?PGEL 5 & 6 this word cannot be an operational word in our present context. The third word in the title is a preposition or a structure word. Therefore, this cannot be an operational word either. That leaves us with two more words 'functions' and 'situations'. These are new to us. These are our operational words. We are sure while choosing your answer, all these thoughts passed in your mind and you arrived at the correct answer. Let us go forward. After going through this unit, the learners will be able to: a. Understand the term language function properly, b. Appreciate the role language plays in making functions operational, c. Identify various language functions from our daily life, d. Use materials and strategies for using language functions in the classroom. Language is abstract. This means, we cannot see it or feel it, but can use it. If something is as abstract as air, how can it perform any function? And how can such function have a variety of operations? Did you think of these questions? If 'yes' we are happy. They are the right questions to ask to clear our doubts and make progress. In order to understand the concept of function, we need to revise a bit of our previous lessons, especially module 1 of Paper 4. We learnt that language is living, it was born long time ago, it was one of the inventions of human beings to help them live in comfort, it varies according to space and time and it is something unique to human beings. Some linguists also say language is life. What do they mean by this? Is this a tall claim? They say that it is impossible for human beings to live without language? Do you agree with this? State your response. Your answer:

49 NSOU ? PGEL 5 & 6 We do a variety of things in our life. Perhaps each of the things we do is connected with language. To understand this, let us make a list of things we normally do every day since the time of getting up from bed to retiring at the end of the day. Here is a possible list – freshen ourselves up, have tea, bath, dress, breakfast, go to school/office, work, lunch, meet friends, get back home, shop around, dinner, watch television, get into bed. There may be a few additions or deletions, the order may change, but you would agree most of us go through this routine day after day. How many of these jobs are done in silence without any use of language. Take for example your bath – do you talk to yourself (be honest), while eating or having tea though there is no need to talk, the food and tea will not taste the same when you have it alone in silence. So is your work in office, and the conversation with your dear ones while watching television etc. Language is intricately woven into our life and the two cannot be separated. Therefore, some linguists rightly say 'language is life'. We hope you agree with this, and perhaps begin to believe that language is life or it is very important in our life to be happy. We have largely agreed on the fact that language is life. But we are yet to look at the operational words in our title – 'function' and 'situation'. Let us now turn to each one of these individually. Let us begin with function. In life we do several things as you saw it previously. Let us look at life a little differently now. Here is a list of some action verbs. Take a close look at them and then complete the grid that we have provided based on your own experience. The list of action verbs is as follows: making requests, introducing friends, apologizing, enquiring, giving directions, giving instructions, offering advice, thanking someone, accepting a proposal, refusing a suggestion, quarrelling, bargaining etc. Have you involved yourself in doing one or more of these things at some time or the other almost everyday of your life? The frequency may vary. Based on your experience, fill in the following grid. The first column has the action verb, in the second column you need to say either 'yes' or 'no' and in the third column give the frequency that is probably true of you. You may choose one of these options – everyday, once a week, once a month, occasionally, rarely, never. Here is the grid. The first item has been completed as an example. The last three rows are vacant for you to fill more verbs of your own choice.

50 NSOU ?PGEL 5 & 6 Making a request Yes Almost every day. Introducing someone Apologising Bargaining Thanking Enquiring Arguing Accepting (a proposal) Refusing (a proposal) Giving advice Giving instructions Giving directions Persuading Getting angry Explaining Narrating a story/anecdote Sharing a joke Take a close look at the words in column 1. Each of these denotes a function. Now you should be able to see the relation between language and function. Each action of ours is in some way associated with language and it is the language that performs the function – for example can you scold someone in silence or ask for something you need in silence?(Of course, one may use what is called 'mime', but this is severely restricted and needs a lot of talent on the part of the communicator. And not all may understand the mime the same way.)

51 NSOU ? PGEL 5 & 6 We have now established that language can perform functions. We need to be more specific. How does language perform these functions, or what aspects of language do we need in order to perform these functions? That makes our understanding of language as performing functions much more clear. Let us take a few examples from the above list and analyse them so that we understand the role of language in performing a function. Let us begin with a very basic function – Introducing someone. Look at the conversation given below: There are three people A, B and C. A and B are friends. A and C are also friends. But B and C do not know each other. A introduces B to C in this conversation. Akbar: Hello, Bhaskar, how are you? It is a long time since we have met. Bhaskar: Hello, Akbar. So nice to meet you here. I was not in town for the last six months. I was deputed to Darjeeling on a project. Akbar: I hope you enjoyed being there. It is a beautiful place, cool and nice. Bhaskar: I am afraid not. It is a good tourist place, but not good enough to stay there for long. It is pretty expensive. Caroline: Hello Akbar. What have you been doing here? Who is this young man with you? Akbar: Good afternoon, Ms Caroline. I came out here for a stroll and a good cup of tea with some buttered scones. Why don't you join us? Caroline: Thank you, but I have an appointment with my dentist. I will join you some other time. Incidentally, who is this young man? Akbar: I am sorry Ms Caroline, I forgot to introduce my friend Bhaskar. He works for Tata Tea Estates. He is a renowned tea taster. We did our schooling together. Caroline: Hello, Mr. Bhaskar. Nice meeting you. Akbar: Bhaskar, meet my teacher, Ms Caroline. She teaches English at the Xavier University. I was her student in my M A Class. She is a well- known author and a critic. Bhaskar: Pleasure meeting you madam. I hope to keep in touch with you. Caroline: It is my pleasure. I will be in touch and we will all meet some time for a good cup of tea and butter scones. Bye for now.

52 NSOU ?PGEL 5 & 6 Akbar: Bye, madam. See you soon. Bhaskar: Bhaskar: Akbar, I may need to leave immediately after tea, I have to meet a few clients down the lane. Akbar: Sure Bhaskar, do come home some time. My parents often remember you. Bhaskar: Sure, I will. I miss the Id party in your house. Bye for now. Read this conversation a few times and make a note of some of the structures Here is a quick analysis: a. It begins with a few polite expressions – 'Hello' and 'How are you' These expressions do not carry any meaning, except helping in building a rapport. These are essential in most conversations at the beginning. b. We meet a new person Ms Caroline. The way Akbar addresses her indicates that she is a senior person. (Is there any other clue that suggests she is older and senior to Akbar and Bhaskar?) c. Akbar introduces Bhaskar to his teacher. This is part of the etiquette. Younger people to be introduced to the senior people. Men to women and not the other way around. d. Look at some more expressions: 'meet my teacher'; 'he is my friend; 'nice meeting you'; 'pleasure meeting you'; 'he works for'; 'he/she is'; 'we were'; 'tea taster'; 'teacher'; 'keep in touch' etc. Do these phrases indicate the presence of any grammar? We call them formula expressions. They are used on occasions like introducing people and we hardly use them in other contexts. It is polite to use these expressions as a matter of courtesy and etiquette. However, introduction is not without grammar. We generally use simple present tense: 'he is a tea taster' 'she teaches English' etc. We also use adjectives such as 'a renowned tea taster'; 'a well-known author/critic' etc. While introducing people, we need the following: a. Familiarity with formula expressions which are polite. b. Use of simple present tense, c. Adjectives to qualify people, d. Names of professions,

53 NSOU ? PGEL 5 & 6 Let us take a look at one more function and analyse it in a similar way. This time we will take up the function of bargaining. Obviously, we need to have two people for this function – a seller and a buyer. The goods sold should be worth being bargained. So let us think of someone buying a second hand bicycle. The buyer is a student (St) studying in IIT Kharagpur and the seller is a cycle repairer (Cr). Here is the conversation. St: Hi, Abdulla. Do you have some cycles to sell? Cr: Oh, Navin, yes, of course. They are over there. St: (Looking at a few bicycles): This one seems good. How much is this? Cr: You have chosen a good bicycle. This is a Raleigh bicycle and it is just three years old. Quite new! I will sell it for Rs 1,200. This is a special price for you. St: That is too much for an old bicycle. Make it Rs. 750/- Cr: Sorry, I cannot reduce the price so much. I may reduce it by Rs 100/- St: No, that is too much. I will have to change the seat cover, fix a carrier; I have more expenses to meet after buying. Give me your last price. Cr: Rs.1050/- and nothing less. St: No, make it Rs.900/- and with a new seat cover and a carrier, I will pay you Rs 1,000/- Cr: It is a loss to me. But since I know you, take it. St: Here, take these Rs.500/-. Clean the bicycle thoroughly, fix the seat cover and the carrier and also oil all the parts. I will come back in the evening. Cr: Bring the rest of the money, I don't want you to hear you say, 'I will pay the rest later'. St: No, Abdulla, I will pay the rest in the evening and take the bicycle. But remember to keep it ready. Cr: Thank you, Navin, you can trust me for that. Bye. Read this dialogue a couple of times and identify some of the grammar items. Let us analyse this and find out. a. The two people in conversation know each other. How do we know this fact? They address each other by their name. Their relationship is not formal, therefore, greetings like 'Hi' and "Oh' are used. The conversation begins with a greeting. This is always a good sign and helps to establish a rapport.

54 NSOU ?PGEL 5 & 6 b. There are questions beginning with 'Do you have. .?' Navin is making enquiry about the availability of bicycles. The question can be answered with 'yes' or 'no'. c. Suppose Navin were buying sugar in a grocery store, he would still ask the same question. But there is a difference between sugar and bicycles. Sugar is quantity noun (uncount) while bicycles is countable. d. Do we have different types of questions with these two types of nouns? Yes, 'How much' for uncount and 'How many' for count nouns. e. Look at the bargaining part. Was it a tough bargain? In Navin's place, how much would you have paid for an old bicycle? Look at terms like – No, last price, reduce, add something, etc. You must be familiar with all these words and expressions. While bargaining we need: a. Greetings – either formal or informal depending on our relationships. b. We need to have good vocabulary and familiarity with nouns or names of different things we need to buy or parts of the object we want to buy. c. We should know to frame questions with 'Do you. .' of 'Can I have. .' and also 'How much. .' and 'How many. .' d. We should be familiar with expressions for suggesting alternatives – 'not this, but. .' 'a little different' ' in a different size or colour' e. We should be familiar with formula expressions like 'Here you are'; 'You are welcome' etc. We have given you a description of two language functions and the type of grammar and vocabulary you need to transact these functions. Go back to the grid and choose two more functions and analyse them in a similar way. It may be easy, if you think of a conversation that takes place between the two people involved. For this we can use cue cards, and in the next part we will talk about cue cards. Before we proceed, let us take a quick look at what we have discussed so far. Would you like to write a brief summary? Please do so, before reading the next part of the unit. Your response: In this unit, so far we have looked at the following.

55 NSOU ? PGEL 5 & 6 a. We have tried to establish how language is very important in our life and that it can be considered a synonym for life. b. We have made an analysis of our daily life using a set of action verbs. c. We have demonstrated that each of these action verbs is also a life function and involves language use. d. Since language and life are synonymous, life functions can be considered as language functions. e. We have looked at a few language functions and checked how frequently we use them in our life. f. We have elaborated on two language functions with the help of simple conversations and also looked at the language inputs. We shall now look at the materials to develop good conversations among our learners with the help of cue cards. Are you familiar with the word 'cue'? Just refer to a dictionary and note down the meaning as it is given there. Your response: defines the word cue as follows: cue Here are four meanings of the word cue. When we say, 'cue cards' this word becomes an adjective qualifying the cards which carry cues. There is some information on the card which provides a cue to the persons who has to do or say something. Take a look at these cue cards. Remember, cue cards always occur in pairs. Therefore, this is well suited for use in pairs. Take care to see that each pair partner has a different card, and does not get to see the card the other person has. This is important to maintain the principle of

56 NSOU ?PGEL 5 & 6 information gap. (We have discussed this during the last semester in our lessons on communication strategies.) Once you have looked at the cards, we will discuss how to use them in the class and also provide a model response. A: Greet B B A: _____ B: _____ B: Respond A: Make a request B: _____ A: _____ A: Rephrase your request B: Don't understand B: _____ A: _____ A: Accept the condition B: Put a condition B: _____ A: _____ A: Thank B close conversation B: Agree to help B: _____ A: _____ B:Close conversation These cue cards can be used fruitfully to involve the class in a conversation based on a set of functions. The present one serves the functions of making a request, and accepting the same between two friends. How do we use it in our class? Here is a step wise procedure. 1. Divide the class into pairs. 2. Give instructions about the cue cards. 3. Distribute the cue cards to each pair. 4. Allot a fixed time within which they need to complete the task of writing the conversation. Make sure nobody gets any extra time. 5. Ask some of the pairs and to come to the front of the class and enact their roles. 6. Ask the rest of the class to listen and suggest improvements. 7. Provide your feedback. We have suggested seven steps of classroom procedure. Are you sure how to go about these? We will briefly discuss each step in the next part and then arrive at a model dialogue.

57 NSOU ? PGEL 5 & 6 1. Divide the class into pairs. This is a simple activity. You may use a variety of strategies to do this. You can ask the class to form pairs on their own choice or you may allot partners randomly. There are other strategies which you can learn from your books on methods of teaching. 2. Instructions: The instructions you give should be very clear. Ask the pair partners not to show their cards to the other member. They should read the cue and develop an utterance based on this cue. 3. Distribution. Make sure the two members in the pair have different cards which are complementary. 4. Time: Depending on the function specified in the cue card, the time may be allotted suitably. The time allotted should be adequate enough to allow the participants to think, note down their utterances, correct them, check with each other and arrive at the final dialogue. Make sure nobody exceeds the time allotted. 5. Reporting: Pick a few pairs of students randomly to report to the class or present their dialogues. 6. Ask other students to listen carefully, take notes and give feedback. 7. Listen to all the pairs making their presentation and also listen to the comments from other students. Make notes and provide feedback. Point out the weaknesses without mentioning the student who made the error. Let the errors be the errors of the class rather than being errors made by an individual. This cycle can repeat with other cards. Finally, before concluding the unit, we will look at the possible dialogue that can be developed based on the cue cards given here as a sample. The cards say A and B are friends. Therefore, the conversation needs to be less formal. A: Hello Bashir, how are you? B: Hello, Andrew, fine thank you, and how are you? A: Bashir, I am in some trouble, I need some money, could you lend me a thousand rupees. B: Beg your pardon.

58 NSOU ?PGEL 5 & 6 A: You see, my mother is in hospital. I need to deposit some money, the banks are all closed. I need money urgently, could you lend me a thousand rupees. B: I do have the money, but I need it for paying my rent which is due the day after tomorrow. If you promise to return it tomorrow as soon as the banks open, I will part with this. A: Certainly. You can trust me for that. B: Here is your money. A: Thank you so much, Bashir, I will see you tomorrow. B: See you. Take care. Here is a small task for you. Rewrite this dialogue slightly differently. What type of conversation will happen if A and B are strangers and not friends. (A need not ask only for money). If A and B are relatives, or friends but who have had a quarrel recently. Your response: We will conclude this unit with a brief summary. Language is closely related to life and it is difficult for us to live without language. In our life, we need to perform a variety of functions, and these demand the use of language. Therefore, the functions assigned to life become functions of the language. There can be a variety of functions which we are compelled to fulfil every day using language. We need to sensitise our learners to these functions and there are a variety of ways of doing it. One very easy way of doing it is to use cue cards. Any teacher can prepare cue cards with a little bit of imagination and practice. In the next unit we will look at we will look at the relation that exists between these functions and situations on the one hand and meaning on the other. We will introduce some new concepts in the next unit. Bye till then.

59 NSOU ? PGEL 5 & 6 a How is language defined here? b. Do you agree with the definition? Give reasons, c. Are language functions the same as life functions? d. Give some examples of language functions? e. Mention a few language functions you use commonly. f. Mention some language functions that are not common. g. How is grammar related the language function? h. Do all language functions have the same grammar? i. What materials can be used to teach language functions? j. Why is pair work a useful strategy for teaching language functions?

? This unit is a continuation of the previous unit which discussed the close relationship that exists between language and life and how language is an inseparable aid to fulfil life functions. In the previous unit we looked at the functions a language can perform in isolation. In this unit we will try and discuss how these language functions can be bunched together as situations and the specific meanings they can be assigned. At the end of this unit, the learners will be able to: a. Understand the concept of language functions in greater detail, b. Bunch a few language functions based on contexts/situations. c. Understand how the complexity of functions vary with situations, d. Understand the concept of block grading for purposes of teaching, In this unit let us attempt to explore the meaning of the two words 'situation' and 'meaning'. The word 'situation' is commonly used, and often you must have uttered 'In my situation, you would not behave like this.' Though we say this fairly frequently, what do we mean by such an utterance? The second word is 'meaning' which is 60

61 NSOU ? PGEL 5 & 6 equally common. Both these words have intricate interpretations, and this unit helps you gain some understanding of these two words in the context of language use. To begin with let us look at the various definitions of these two words provided in situation /sIt ò uel ò (ə)n/ Out of these three meanings, the first one is more common than the other two. We can rephrase the first meaning as 'context' for our purposes and relate it to life and language. In our everyday life we pass through a variety of contexts or situations and let us make a list of these to begin with. Perhaps you can make one and later compare it with what is given. Your response: Please note down your list here: This is called a remembering exercise. Recollect the routine in your daily life and think of the various contexts you need to pass through (or negotiate). Some of the contexts can be as follows: a. Eating b. Travelling c. Shopping d. Banking e. Coping with job f. Attending a function/wedding, etc. g. Playing (as a member of team) h. Organising an event such as a conference, get together, etc. Look at these situations from a different angle by rephrasing them slightly

62 NSOU ?PGEL 5 & 6 We have provided about eight situations, but this list can grow endlessly and we are sure your list is longer and better than what we have given. Good job, keep it up. We need to look at these situations in some more detail and see how language use is unique to each one of them. Before getting to that, let us also look at the word 'meaning' and how it is used in the context of a situation. provides the following definitions for the word meaning. meaning mi:nIŋ/ There are five meanings which are all equally important. For our present purposes, let us take definitions 2, 3 and 5. What do they convey to us? How are they related to the word 'situation' and in turn to language use? These are some questions you can ponder on and note down your responses below. Your response:

63 NSOU ? PGEL 5 & 6 We need to take up a situation, look at it carefully and see how many meanings it can lend itself to. Once we do this, then, it will be possible for us to delve into the question of language use. We shall do it now with some examples. Let us choose a situation to begin with. In the previous unit you have looked at the term function, and looked at the illustration for a function like bargaining. Suppose we want to locate it in a situation, where would it fit best? Perhaps in the Supermarket or in a vegetable market (at the green grocer) or it could be a saree shop etc. Bargaining is a function, and shopping is the situation. A language function though it is independent, is often situated in a context, and depending on it, the language use can vary. Let us elaborate this point a little more. Imagine the situations where you bargain – very often in a vegetable market (fish market) and perhaps a store that sells sundry things like items of grocery in small quantity, some small household items. Depending on how important the item you want to buy, the urgency with which you want to have it, and depending on the time of the day when you are bargaining, the language use is likely to vary. (Recall your bargaining with a vegetable vendor in the morning and evening and on prices for different types of vegetables.) In the previous paragraph, while elaborating a situation, we used terms like: quantity, urgency, time of the day, mood of the person, etc. Along with these, you can add terms like age of the customer, seller, gender etc. These factors also constitute meaning in relation to the situation. Now do a remembering exercise of a different kind. Try and enact buying selling function in a specific situation. You need to find a partner for this who understands the situation. Let this be a purely thinking exercise and not a writing exercise for the present. In order to participate in this role play, you need to remember the following. Read these lines from a poem written by Kipling: I KEEP six honest serving-men (They taught me all I knew); Their names are What and Why and When And How and Where and Who. I send them over land and sea, I send them east and west; But after they have worked for me, give them all a rest.

64 NSOU ?PGEL 5 & 6 We are sure you are already familiar with this poem. What is its significance? Take a second look, and find out the names of six people who are poet's serving- men? Write down their names below: Your response: You got six words as your response – What, Why, When, How, Where and Who. What do these words suggest? They all occur at the beginning of a question, and so they are called question words or 'Wh_' words since all of them begin with these two letters. (In 'how' you still have these two letters, but not in the same order, and hence qualify to be in this group.) These six question words are very important while speaking to someone. What do these words signify? Take a look and in our discussion, we will change the order of words for their priority. : This word signifies the relationship that exists between the speaker and the listener. The relationship can vary widely from intimate to formal to unknown stranger. Within this, we can also have hierarchy as follows: ? Friends – close old, new, acquaintance etc. ? Relatives – siblings, parents, in-laws, grandparents, children, elders, youngsters etc. ? Workplace: teachers, boss, subordinate, helper, colleague, visitor, client etc. ? Strangers: people we meet on street, fellow travellers on train/bus etc. at the reservation counter, officials in different offices etc. (In speaking to each one of these persons, the language we use varies because of the relationship we have with them.) This word signifies the topic of discussion. The topic could be serious, light-hearted, casual, personal, gossip etc. Depending on the seriousness of the talk, the language we use gets modified. This word signifies the location or place where we talk to each other. You must have realised this as a student or a teacher. A teacher uses a language that is very formal in the class, and as soon as he walks out, if you have a question to ask he responds in a very informal manner. This is true of conversations that happen in the office, at home, on a picnic, while travelling

65 NSOU ? PGEL 5 & 6 etc. The language we use is governed by the location where the conversation takes place. This word signifies the time and duration of the talk. The point of time when you meet and speak to a person is very important. Equally important is the duration – if you can convey something in five minutes how well do you do it and the impact it has on the listener. On the other hand, if you need to convey a longer message which might take half an hour or more, the impact on the listener could be different. To make your message meaningful, you choose language appropriately. This word signifies the purpose. We need to speak in order to explain or describe something, convince a person, plead or request a person, or admonish someone. In each of these cases the language we use cannot be the same. This word signifies the mode of communication. We may not always communicate by speaking face to face. It could be a telephonic talk, a video talk, a broadcast (as in the case of newscasters), or it could be through writing in various forms such as a hand-written letter, email, text message, or an informal note scribbled on a piece of paper. In each of these cases the language we use varies. These six aspects are closely related to each other and they do not exist in isolation. The following diagram shows how closely they are connected with each other. This should help you understand the complexity of our speech and how we make a number of adjustments in the language we use depending on various factors. This indicates, we are gradually attempting to relate situation and meaning and we have also referred to variation in language use without providing examples. In the next

66 NSOU ?PGEL 5 & 6 part of this unit let us look at some examples and later analyse the language used. Look at the following situation and the five possible sentences you may get to hear. At a party, the friends have gathered in a room. The host appears there and needs to ask them to vacate the room and move elsewhere. Here are the expressions and their meaning. a. I am afraid this room is needed for something else. Do you mind moving to the first floor please? (Frozen/very formal. The host feels a sense of hesitation in uttering these words. Perhaps, the friends are rather senior people and his relationship with them is not intimate.) b. We need this room, and I want you all to move upstairs. (Formal, but not frozen like the previous one. The host knows the people he is talking to fairly well, yet he uses polite expression.) c. Hey, you all, move upstairs, we need this place. (Informal. The host is very friendly with the people he addresses) d. Up you go, all of you. (Intimate. – the host need not observe any rules of formality, he relates to the people he is talking to very closely.) (Adopted from Pit Corder) These relations can be shown by developing different types of dialogues as illustrations. Rather than create dialogues, we will provide you situations and also the meanings with some grammar items that can go into each one of them. That will lead us to discuss one more aspect—gradation in language teaching. In the illustration provided above, you saw one situation in four different meanings. The meanings are in terms of frozen, formal, informal, and intimate. Between any two of these relations, there could be degrees of variation. You do speak formally to your boss and also to your father. But the degree of formality is different between the two. This is also true of the way in which you talk to your father and mother. With mother you tend to be less formal bordering on intimate. You would have perhaps observed this. Next time when you engage yourself in a conversation with someone, be conscious and make a note of the following: your relationship, the context, time of speaking, place of conversation, reason and the mode. That will help you understand this unit better.

67 NSOU ? PGEL 5 & 6 Let us also take one more familiar example and help you understand the concept of grading. In the previous unit we looked at the function of buying, selling. Let us analyse this in a little more detail with shopping as the situation in different contexts or meanings. Meaning 1: A young boy of five years, gets Rs. 20/- as his birthday gift. He is allowed to spend it all by himself. There is a shop in front of his house, the shopkeeper knows him. The boy runs to the shop, places the Rs 20/ note on the counter and shouts (he is excited), "Uncle, biscuits and chocolates". The uncle helpfully places on the counter some biscuits and chocolates and the boy runs back. Meaning 2: The same boy grows up and in ten years' time is studying in the final year of his school. His father gives him Rs 2000/- and asks him to buy a bicycle to cope with his heavy schedule of attending school, tuitions and other chores. The boy is happy, goes to a shop that sells bicycles. Now he has a longer conversation with the shopkeeper (not just uncle, a bicycle seller). He cares to choose a bicycle of his choice with proper saddle, a designer handle, proper pedal covers, a carrier etc. He also bargains on the price and finalises the deal before paying the money. Meaning 3: The same boy a few years later has completed his education and has found a job for himself. He is getting ready to marry. He goes to a shop to buy his wedding clothes with a larger sum of money. The transaction here is much more complex in terms of choice of colours, design, fabric, size, price and many more factors. And if in this situation, it was a girl and bride to be, the complexity would be more severe. Meaning 4: The boy is now nearly forty years old. He is well settled and he and his wife plan to buy a house. They go to a builder who has a few houses to sell and the transaction goes on for days before settling the deal. You can imagine the conversation that takes place in each of the above situations. The grammar involved is not very different in each of these cases. The following items of grammar are necessary but with different degrees of complexity. One needs to be familiar with nouns, their variety (count or uncount), ability to frame questions with 'do you. .' or 'can I.. .' responses with yes/no and formulas like 'here you are' and some greetings. These vary with each transaction and there is an increase in complexity. As the meaning changes and makes way for more complex expressions, we move to the next level of grading. We call this block grading. We will discuss this in greater detail in your course on curriculum and materials. Let us now conclude the unit with a quick summary of what we have discussed.

68 NSOU ?PGEL 5 & 6 We began with a revision of the previous unit where we discussed the relationship between language and life. If life has functions, these functions are performed by language. Then we began with an outline of this unit where we looked at the dictionary definition for the two operational terms 'situation' and 'meaning'. We modified these to suit our purposes and made a list of various situations and how these alter in different contexts. Each context provides a meaning to the situation thus governing the form of language to be used in each case. We looked at some examples. We also became familiar with the six question words and their meanings in the context of our speech and how it is essential for us to observe etiquette in our conversation with others. We finally looked at some explanation that helps us to develop dialogues on our own. In the next unit we shall look at function and form and while doing so we will help you recall the grammar you have studied earlier. a. What are language functions? (Look at the previous unit) b. Are language functions bound by situations? c. How do you define a situation? d. What is the difference between situation and meaning? e. How do you understand the term context? f. What are Wh words? Mention all of them g. How do the Wh words determine our speech? h. How does our speech vary from situation to situation? Illustrate. i. What type of language do you use with your mother? j. How important are these in social communication? 1. Corder, P. (1973). Hammondsworth: Penguin. 2. Deuter, M. et.al. (Eds). (2015) (Ninth Edition). Oxford. OUP. 3. Kipling, R (1902). Oxford: OUP (for the poem 'I Keep Six Honest serving-men')

? In the previous two units we looked at language as an integral part of life performing various functions in different situations. The functions vary according to the context lending meaning to them. We guard ourselves in negotiating these functions by observing rules of etiquette dictated by society or among members of a particular group or profession. After going through this unit, the learners will be able to: a. See how language functions are closely associated with forms, b. Understand the modified structure of a syllabus, c. Appreciate the functions as can be derived from a structural syllabus, d. Relate the items on a functional syllabus with necessary forms. In this unit, we will continue the discussion on language functions in relation to the form. So we need to have an understanding of the term 'form' to begin with and see 69

70 NSOU ?PGEL 5 & 6 how this relates itself to language. While discussing these aspects, we may need to bring in certain aspects of syllabus design to enhance our understanding. We have provided a tentative list of language functions and forms for you to peruse and add your own items to the list. These lists are put together from reflecting on life and a few sources. These can be modified according to our local contexts. However, the forms largely remain unaltered for they are drawn from authentic sources i.e. grammar books. ? Explaining ? Interpreting ? Summarising ? Arguing, agreeing with someone ? Sequencing ? Hypothesising (predicting) ? Generalising ? Expressing likes and dislikes ? Defending ? Narrating, retelling ? Persuading ? Enquiring, probing, seeking information ? Analysing ? Evaluating ? Defining ? Drawing conclusion (cause and effect) ? Nouns in subject, object position e.g. (sub) is a (obj). ? Nouns showing agreement with verb, pronouns. e.g. (N) (V) a teacher, he(pro) works very hard ? Adjectives, their order and relevance e.g. six beautiful red roses. ? Phrases – prepositional phrases e.g. Children playing ? Verbs and their different forms – tense and aspect e.g. go, went, gone; go, going, gone. ? Modals e.g. will, shall, can, may. ? Adverbs e.g. quickly, lazily, etc. ? Questions – polar and content e.g. Are you a teacher? Who is a teacher? ? Sentence types e.g. Assertive, interrogative, imperative, exclamatory. ? Degrees of comparison e.g. good, better, best. ? Complex sentences e.g. Having practiced well, the child won the prize.

71 NSOU ? PGEL 5 & 6 You have had a look at such lists earlier when you were studying in schools. You must have tried to establish a relation between the two. If not take a close look at the two lists and see if there is any relation between the two, and write your response below. Your response: The form and function are in fact, closely related to each other. A long time ago, while teaching English, the emphasis was on learning the form in isolation. This was found to be not very helpful, and hence, syllabus framers changed their strategies and introduced new types of syllabuses where forms were taught along with functions. The first approach was called the Structural Approach while the second one is known by several names – The Situational Approach, Notional-Functional Approach, Communicative Approach etc. Names do not matter for us now. We are interested in seen how language functions are realised by using appropriate forms. Let us briefly familiarise you with the concept of a syllabus and types of syllabuses we have in ELT. Later, let us look at a small portion of the syllabus to see how closely form and function are related to each other. All of you are familiar with the term syllabus. You have had syllabus to study as students and as teachers you were conscious of the topics included in the syllabus to help you cope with your work. Given this experience, would you like to define a syllabus. Please write your response here: Your response: A syllabus is a document that is produced by a few personnel in the department of education. Many of them are teachers who work under the supervision of an administrator to produce this document. What does this document do? Any guess?

72 NSOU ?PGEL 5 & 6 Write your views on what does the syllabus do? The syllabus as a document provides a checklist to the teacher. It specifies the topics to be taught, the sequence in which the topics need to be taught and also the time it takes to teach each of the topics on the syllabus. What is being said here should give you some idea of whether your views are right or not so. Let us define a syllabus in a broad sense. A syllabus has topics that need to be taught. Therefore the syllabus becomes a list of topics. But can a list of any topics become a syllabus. Perhaps not. It needs to be further refined. The list needs to be specific. That is a good development. Specific to what or who? It has to be specific to the course of study and also the level of the learners. Let us understand this with an example. English is taught in almost all the classes in school curriculum. Class VI children have a course in English. Class VII children also have a course in English. Though both classes have a course in English (subject is the same, but levels are not) the two classes have to have two different lists of topics to be taught, in other words, the two syllabuses are different. Similarly, class VI children study English using syllabus for class VI English. They also learn another language like Bengali (Bangla). Can the syllabus (list of topics) in English be used for teaching Bangla? The answer is 'no'. This shows that syllabus has a specific list of topics according to the course of study or subject being taught. Thus in class VI we have a syllabus to teach English, and other syllabuses to teach Bangla, Mathematics, Social Studies, Science, Hindi/Sanskrit and whatever other subject that they may have. This makes the point on the list of teaching items being specific in two different ways. Now let us replace the word topics with the term 'teaching items'. Now our definition will read as follows: 'A syllabus is a specific list of teaching items for use by the teacher.' This is reasonably a good working definition of the syllabus. This document which is produced by the authorities or a committee has to take care of certain aspects. We will not look at all aspects (except the contents) in some detail.

73 NSOU ? PGEL 5 & 6 A syllabus should begin with a description of the learners for whom the syllabus is meant. While describing the learners the following factors need to be addressed. The age of the learner, the socio-economic background, and the academic background (capability). This is essential entering behaviour. Secondly, the syllabus should provide a clear statement of objectives or what it proposes to achieve in terms of leaners learning output. This will have to be stated very clearly that the learning outcome can be observed, measured by the teacher and demonstrated by the learner. The third aspect of the syllabus deals with the contents. It clearly delineates the materials that can be used to achieve the objectives stated earlier. (We will discuss this with an example to show the form function interphase.) The fourth aspect deals with the methodology – it suggests how the materials or the content provided in the third part can be transacted in the class. This section also helps the teacher understand the flexibility in terms of sequencing the teaching items and the time that needs to be spent on teaching each item. The syllabus concludes with a note on evaluation. This section helps the teacher understand the inherent weaknesses in the syllabus and suggests ways of modifying the syllabus for better utilization with a set of new learners. Now let us look at sample extract from a structural syllabus and see how this shows the relation that exists between the form and function. Sl No Item Illustration Remarks 6 Simple present I get up at six in the Revise all the action (Habitual) morning verbs associated Do you get up at six in the with daily habits or morning? routine activities. Yes, I do get up at six in the Provide help with morning. yes/no questions Do you get up at five in the and their answers morning? Familiarise the No, I do not get up at five in learners with wh the morning. questions and What time do you get up in answers as well. the morning? I get up at six in the morning.

74 NSOU ?PGEL 5 & 6 10 Simple past I went to market yesterday. Introduce verbs and Where did you go their past forms. yesterday? Teach both regular I went to market yesterday. and irregular verbs. Did you go to market Provide illustrations yesterday? for assertive, Yes, I went to market negative and yesterday. interrogative forms. Did you go to post office yesterday? No, I did not go to post office yesterday. 15 Past continuous I was going to market when you called me. Let us look at the above illustration. This is not an authentic sample, but something construed to illustrate to help you understand the present discussion. This is a typical structural syllabus which is form focussed or deals with explicit grammar. This syllabus can be used in class VIII of a regional medium school. There are two items illustrated (not two immediate items as is evident from the serial numbers). The items are mentioned in column 2 followed by illustrations in column 3. There are five illustrations and represent three different uses – use in an assertive sentence, an interrogative sentence and a negative sentence. Such illustration is said to be comprehensive. The fourth column helps the teacher understand the related items and some classroom strategies to be adopted. The focus is heavily on form and not on function. Let us now modify this to include a function and see how a functional syllabus looks.

75 NSOU ? PGEL 5 & 6 https://www.netlanguages.com/blog/index.php/2017/08/28/what-is-functional- language/ (accessed on 27 th November 2019) Before we say something, would you like to take a close look at the two different syllabuses and comment on their similarities and differences? Please write your response below: Your response: There are quite a few similarities between the structural syllabus and the functional syllabus. Both syllabuses depend on language structures. The structural syllabus does not explicitly create a context for meaningful use of the structure. The functional syllabus on the other hand provides a lot of context and also includes more than one grammar item supported by vocabulary. It elaborates on different ways in which the

76 NSOU ?PGEL 5 & 6 items can be exploited for developing all the four skills. The topic suggested in the second column is not a grammatical item but a language function. Here the language function is 'Helping People'. In order to do this, we need language. We may need to request someone. So look at the words in column 3 Think of sentences with these words e.g. Can you lend me a hand? (This box is too heavy for me to carry.) There are more words and phrases given. In the same column under grammar certain structures are suggested and these will help us frame appropriate sentences which can be used in conversations as well as in writing. This is followed by some hints on pronunciation. Column four has a focus on all the skills and tasks; for each skill is specified and the last column suggests the types of reading passages that can be used in the class to help learners grasp the function. The second syllabus clearly illustrates to you how a language function cannot be performed without learning the structures. However, while teaching the focus should be on the function and by participating in the classroom activity, the learners will use and practice the structures without being aware of it. (This reiterates Prabhu's hypothesis 'meaning is best learnt when the focus is on meaning'. Sem 1, Paper 10, Module 2, Unit 8) Before we conclude this unit, we would like to make one more point clear. This is in fact a repetition of what we have said earlier. While discussing functions, we cannot restrict ourselves to one item of grammar or one structure. The structures need to be bunched together to perform a function. (For example, while giving directions, you need to be familiar with prepositions largely spatial terms to denote distance, signposting terms, imperatives, caution and warning, some adjectives to qualify places etc.). Structures bunched together in this manner can express themselves at different levels of complexity e.g. giving directions to reach a nearby place, giving directions to travel to a different town, city or country, giving directions to negotiate a difficult terrain such as mountain, river bed or a jungle (as is done in the army) etc. Though the complexity increases, the bunch of structures remain largely the same with some modifications. Such modifications account for grading or selecting tasks suitable to our learners. We cannot ask our students in class IX to give directions to scale an unknown mountain or negotiate a forest to destroy enemy ambush. The increase in complexity and grading is known as block grading in a functional syllabus. We will close this unit here with a quick recapitulation of the points discussed. We looked at the language function in relation to the form. Form has been the traditional

77 NSOU ? PGEL 5 & 6 input in language teaching. But form alone cannot help a learner pick up the language unless a context or meaning is provided to the form. This is why we take resort to teaching language using functions without ignoring form. To illustrate this we have looked at two sample pieces of syllabuses and compared them to establish the need for fusing form with function. In the next unit we will look at an entirely new concept called the discourse. We will introduce this topic and later you will learn more about discourse in your courses on sociolinguistics. a How are language functions still form based? b. What are some of the language functions you are familiar with? c. What is the meaning of form? d. How useful is learning form helpful in communication? e. How do we modify the teaching of form to make it more useful? f. What is a syllabus? g. How is the term 'specific' understood in terms of syllabus? h. How many types of syllabuses are you familiar with? i. What is the type of syllabus you use in your class? j. How is meaning of a structure made clear in a syllabus?

? This is the last unit of this module and discusses a different aspect of language function which is popularly called discourse. To understand this we need a little bit of background knowledge. You are familiar with language analysis. We have already introduced you to subjects like phonology, morphology and syntax. Phonology deals with analysis of language in terms of its speech sounds. The minimal unit of analysis here is a phoneme, which is defined as the minimal distinctive unit of speech. In morphology, we look at morphemes as minimal units of analysis. A morpheme is a syllable or a group of syllables that carry meaning. For example, a word like management, has two morphemes – 'manage' and 'ment'. These are classified as independent morpheme (manage) and bound morpheme (ment). A bound morpheme needs the help of another morpheme to express itself. In syntax, the minimal unit of analysis is a clause (sentence). This has a definite structure which cannot be normally violated. But language often has units larger than clauses or sentences. In our daily 78

79 NSOU ? PGEL 5 & 6 life, we do not usually speak in isolated sentences. Most of these have a context and are in the form of a response or addition to what is already said or exists. So we have longer units for analysis in the form of conversations, speeches and written texts (passages) which need to be analysed using a different system. Such system of analysis is called Discourse. At the end of this unit, the learners will be able to understand the: a. term discourse, b. nature of speech acts, c. terms coherence and cohesion, d. use of cohesive devices, Let us begin with a definition of discourse and then look at the entire aspect historically which provides us with the essential background knowledge. Discourse analysis can be defined in simple terms as analysis beyond sentence level. This definition is certainly not adequate. So let us look at what discourse analysis does in some detail with a few examples. This will perhaps help us get an idea of this topic. The field that studies discourse is called 'discourse analysis'. This is a relatively new field and discusses how while using language either in spoken or written form is guarded by a few social and linguistic factors. Since this involves broader analysis, the unit of analysis is a longer text such as passages (referred to as texts) or conversations and speeches. The context in which the language is used forms an important part of the analysis. Let us look at a few examples: Look at the following conversation which has just one turn: A: Hi. What's wrong? No television. B: Match washed out, heavy rains. Having gone through this, answer the following questions: a. What do you think is the relationship between A and B? b. What is the emotion expressed by A? (Anger, disappointment, surprise, annoyance, etc.) c. Give reasons for your choice of answer to question 'b'. d. If B's response was not preceded by A's question, how would you understand it?

e. What mood is B in? (disappointed, bored, annoyed, etc.) f. Give reasons for your choice of answer to question 'e'. Write your responses here: a. b c. d. e. f. It is not difficult to answer these questions. Besides, there are no definite or single answers to these questions. Your answer depends on your understanding of the conversation in terms of your understanding of the culture as well as the context. You may be able to justify your answer accordingly. When you come across a text, and you start analysing it from aspects as mentioned here, you are involved in discourse analysis. This is just one example and such analysis can become more complex. Now let us look at a bit of history. About seventy years ago, in 60s of the last century, two language philosophers Austin and Searle looked at the language as a performative entity. Austin wrote a book What was the premise that motivated Austin to write this book? Look at the following sentences: a. I declare you man and wife. (A priest in a church wedding) b. I name this ship Queen Elizabeth. (Launching a ship) c. Your time starts now. (A quiz master) d. Ready, steady, go. (A referee in athletics) e. I declare the session closed. (Chairperson in a meeting)

These sentences are utterances by different people, and the context is provided in the brackets. We would like you to take a second look at these sentences once again. Do they remain just sentences or do they perform an action. When the priest says 'I declare you man and wife', from the moment, the two young people get united in a holy wedlock. They are no longer single. The utterance enacts the beginning of a married life for the couple. Similarly, a vessel without a name acquires an identity as the Queen Elizabeth. Rest of the sentences also indicate the beginning or the end of an action. These are but a few examples, and there could be many more similar sentences. Austin and Searle were interested in such expressions. Austin used three different labels to identify such utterances – locution, illocution and perlocution. What do these three labels mean? Let us take a look. a. Locution: Locution comes from the root word 'Loque' (Latin) which means to speak. Locution or locutionary act refers to the actual words spoken by the speaker. These are understood without any context or they mean what each word in the utterance denotes. In this act, the listener does not attach much importance to what the speaker has been saying. b. Illocutionary act: When a speaker adds emphasis to what he says by using certain words like – request, ask, order, command, etc. the utterance acquires some force. This is understood as illocution. Such sentences can warn people, criticize or appreciate them, or assure them of something or express regret. Let us look at an example for each one of these. , there is a snake hiding under the bag.(caution) ii. I want you to by this evening. (order) iii. I thought ! (comment) iv. I what you have written. (appreciation) v. I to meet you tomorrow in the morning. (commitment) vi. I am , I forgot to get your book. (apology) c. Perlocutionary act: This refers to the listeners' response to the illocutionary act of the speaker. This depends on how the listener understands the words of the speaker and expresses it either verbally or non-verbally. For example look at sentence 'iv' above. It is an appreciation of somebody's work. The listener obviously should be pleased to have this remark and express happiness with a smile or a 'thank you'. However, caution needs to be observed in that there may be lack of consonance between illocutionary act and the perlocutionary act.

Let us take one utterance and see what its import is in all three acts. A is visiting B in his house and the two are casually chatting. A tells B "I am thirsty". Locutionary: B does not react. He simply hears what A said. Illocutionary: Understands it as a request, but does not budge. Perlocutionary: B does not say anything, but gets up and goes to the kitchen to fetch a glass of water. The three aspects provided by Austin in 1962, were further refined by Searle and categorised into five classes of speech acts. These are: Representative, Directive, Commissive, Expressive and Declarative. Let us look at the definitions of each one of these and also illustrate them to help us in our understanding of the concepts. 1. Representative: This is also known as Assertive. Utterances pertaining to making a promise, expressing a belief, or concluding a talk. It could also extend to reporting events and denying something. Following examples illustrate Representative acts. a. I am told you are on the lookout for a new house. b. Finally, the deal is fixed, and we may now sign the document. c. The Prime Minister came on the television to declare the lockout. d. There is no truth in the statement that India is a poor country. 2. Directives: This is an act where the speaker largely uses a set of imperatives suggesting to the listener to act accordingly. The utterances could be in the form of requests, commands, insistence, plead, or even implore. Here are some illustrations to make the point clear. a. Could I ask you to type this letter for me? b. I would like you to finish this work before the end of the day. c. You better do it now. d. This is urgent, and you should understand and start working right away. e. Please, I need this to make my presentation, why don't you help me. 3. Commissive: These utterances suggest that the speaker is committed or decided to act in a particular manner. The speaker may swear or promise to do something or express his intention. a. The Government promises to provide shelter to all the people. b. The policeman swore to arrest the thief before the sun set. c. The president expressed his wish to visit all parts of the country to personally

inspect the progress made. 4. Expressive: The speaker expresses his feelings about something. This could relate to happiness, sorrow, pain, pleasure, likes dislikes, etc. Here are a few illustrations a. I am delighted to see such a beautiful garden. b. I am sorry to hear about your bereavement. c. I like these cakes very much. They are delicious. d. I am happy that you graduated. My heartiest congratulations. e. Thank you for the lovely message you sent on my birthday. f. Ouch, I sprained my ankle while getting off the stairs. g. I completely forgot to visit you last evening. My apologies. 5. Declarative: The speaker brings about a change in the status of something or somebody by uttering these expressions. These are the real performatives and here are a few illustrations. a. I declare the conference open. b. I name the baby Anand. c. I declare the man dead. d. You are dismissed. This has become a long piece of writing without giving you a chance to interact with us. Now is the time for some questions. If you are doing a discourse analysis of this piece of writing, what functions would you assign such writing? Your response: Here is a small task. You have looked at three Speech Acts and a little later the same reorganised as five speech acts. Each of these has been illustrated by us. Take a close look at each one of these, and provide at least one additional illustration for each of the categories. i. Locutions: ii. Illocution: iii. Perlocution: iv. Representative: v. Directive:

84 NSOU ?PGEL 5 & 6 vi. Commissive: vii. Expressive: viii. Declarative: Now let us look at the further uses of discourse analysis. We have begun this unit with a statement that discourse is beyond a sentence. Therefore, discourse analysis takes into account some continuous text which is either spoken or written. What are some of the features of such texts? Think of what we can call narrative discourse. You are familiar with stories which can either be narrated or written. When we narrate, we use some supplementary techniques like, voice modulation, acting, gestures, etc. and we do this especially when we are narrating a story to young audience. While writing some of these aspects may be lost, but can be captured using illustrations. Both oral and written texts have some common features. Let us call the first feature . We shall try and understand what unity means in the following section. Unity is a simple word and all of you know its meaning. The word suggests coming together and staying together. We are now discussing language texts. These texts are made of sentences, and discourse makes sure that these sentences are held together using some mechanism. What is this mechanism? We will introduce two words and show how this unity can be achieved in our language texts. The first word is 'coherence' and the second 'cohesion'. Have you come across these words? Do you know their meaning? Look up a dictionary and write their meanings in the space given below: Your response: Coherence: Cohesion: Did the dictionary meaning help you understand the qualities suggested by these two words. Let us try and understand the two terms by looking at some examples. Coherence in simple words can be said to be a feature of good writing that makes it easy to read. The author should take care to introduce the topic properly at the

85 NSOU ? PGEL 5 & 6 beginning. This introduction should help the reader anticipate what is to follow. Subsequently, the author should develop each of the points in a logical manner. Adequate examples or illustrations should be provided to help the reader understand each concept. Finally, the author should summarise the points so that the reader has a clear idea about what is read. I am sure you have experienced this while reading some books. Some books are easy to read, and you feel you can understand them easily. They exhibit good qualities of coherence. There are some books which appear to be difficult to read. We are sure you have read both types of books in your life. Next time you read a book, try and see what qualities make it easy for you to read it. Now let us look at the word 'cohesion'. Coherence works at the level of a paragraph while cohesion works at the level of a sentence. A sentence (or an utterance in case of speaking) is made of words. These words need to follow a certain order which is governed by rules of grammar and logic. Take a look at these sentences and try and figure out what is incorrect: a. She is a tall boy. (Very easy for you) b. We bought this bicycle a new tyre. (What did you buy – bicycle or the tyre) c. The girl in the car needs water. (Who needs water, the girl or the car) d. Here is the pen that writes well and was presented to me on my birthday. (What is more important – the quality of writing or presentation or the occasion when it was presented.) We can go on constructing more sentences like this. (You may look up some books in modern grammar for more examples.) Both Coherence and Cohesion bring about a unity in our writing, but they do so at different levels. The term unity is defined by different people in different ways. The one I like most is from George Bernard Shaw and here it is for you: This captures the sense of unity or these three phrases can be translated as introduction, development and conclusion. Unity or coherence and cohesion are achieved by using what are called cohesive devices. These are simple words that can glue two words, sentences (ideas) and even paragraphs. Let us see what these cohesive devices are and conclude the unit.

86 NSOU ?PGEL 5 & 6 There are five categories of words that can work as cohesive devices. These are: i. Ordinals ii. Prepositions iii. Conjunctions iv. Pronouns v. Adverbs Let us look at them with some examples. are words that suggest the order in which the events occur. You must have come across words like These words suggest a sequence of events. Here is how you can describe making tea. First take a glass of water. Pour it into a vessel and put it on the stove to heat. As it is getting hot, add a spoon of tea leaves. Allow it to boil. Then remove the vessel from the stove, and cover it. Leave it aside for awhile to brew. Next, take a cup and strain the hot liquid into the cup using a strainer. Finally, add a little hot milk and a spoon of sugar. Sip your tea and enjoy it. In describing how to make tea, five steps are used. You could use terms like firstly, secondly, thirdly, fourthly and fifthly. Alternately, you can use terms like then, next, finally, etc. to make the passage read a little better. You could now describe a process using ordinals. Describe how to use the ATM to withdraw money. Your response:

87 NSOU ? PGEL 5 & 6 There are two types of prepositions – the spatial and temporal. Spatial prepositions refer to showing relationship across space while temporal prepositions establish relationship across time. Look at this example: I will meet you at the theatre at six o'clock. In this sentence, 'at' is used as spatial first and later as temporal. These prepositions bring about a sense of unity in the sentence. It will connect the two major nous 'I' and 'you'. It also joins other nouns 'theatre' and time 'six o'clock'. Further, the two sets of nous mentioned earlier also get connected because of these prepositions. Such bringing together of words to provide meaning is called cohesion. Choose a short passage from a story, or your notes and mark all the prepositions. See how they bring about a unity of thought or meaning in the sentences. Your response: It is the tacit function of conjunctions to bring about a unity between two words or phrases that belong to the same clause. You are aware of this. There are a few conjunctions that can bring about a unity between paragraphs. Here are a few conjunctions – although, because, whenever, wherever, in order to, no sooner, as much as, etc. The examples cited are either subordinating conjunctions (such as after, although, as, because, if, that, etc.) or correlative conjunctions (neither … nor, both...and, not only) . You can look up some passages and see how these conjunctions bring about a unity in the passage. These are very important words in English. They replace a noun and make a passage more readable by making it less monotonous. Look at the following Pronouns and see how they work in a passage. Adverbs like , do the same job as prepositions and conjunctions described above. We have not exhausted the list of words you can use in any of the categories cited above. There are other cohesive devices that bring about unity in a paragraph. We may discuss this later in a different course on sociolinguistics. Before we conclude let us summarise the unit quickly.

88 NSOU ?PGEL 5 & 6 We began with a discussion of the term 'discourse'. We did not offer any definition of the term, but we explained it using a variety of examples. Subsequently, we moved to look at speech acts as discussed by two language philosophers Austin and Searle. For each of the speech acts we also looked at some illustrations. Finally, we looked at two terms called coherence and cohesion. We discussed some aspects of these two terms in connected speech as well as written texts. We also mentioned how cohesive devices are responsible in bringing about coherence in thought and expression. a. What is the basic unit of analysis in grammar? b. How important is discourse in using language appropriately? c. Is a sentence (clause/utterance) a unit for discourse analysis? d. What do we mean by speech acts? e. Give examples of the speech acts as mentioned by Austin? f. What changes did Searle make to Austin's classification? g. What do you understand by the terms cohesion and coherence? h. What are cohesive devices? i. Give examples of how a pronoun can be a cohesive device. j. What happens to a text without cohesion? 1. Austin, J.L., (1962). Boston: Harvard University Press. 2. Cook, G. (1992). Oxford: Oxford University Press. 3. Krishnaswamy. N. (2009). Chennai: Laxmi Publications. 4. Searle, J.R. (1969). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

? Most of our waking time is spent in interacting or communicating with others around us. Communication can be through writing and through speaking. Research studies tell us that we use speaking skills to communicate with others more than through writing. In this unit you will learn what is meant by 'Presentation Skills' and in what ways does it help you in communicating with people effectively and the various situations you need to make presentations. You will also learn features of an effective presentation and the do's and don'ts you have to take care of while making a presentation. The entire Module is presented in two parts: making short and long presentations. Then there are two units on how to teach speaking skills. After reading the unit you will be able to a) Understand what is meant by 'presentation,' b) Learn on Presentation Skills, c) Develop communication skills. 89 MODULE - 3 : TEACHING SPEAKING SKILLS

90 NSOU ?PGEL 5 & 6 You have already learnt in Paper 3 what is meant by phonetics, phonology, how important stress and intonation are in speaking English, how to develop speaking skills and how to remedy some speech problems. You have also learnt language functions, language form and meaning as well as what is meant by discourse. In this module we will proceed further and understand the nuances of presentation skills and how to teach speaking skills. But before that, answer these two questions: 1. Why do you think stress and intonation are important when we speak English? (Clue: think of the features of a speech and how do these two aspects help attain clarity) Your answer: 2. What do you understand by language function and how is it different from form? (Clue: think of grammar and use of language) Your answer: What is discourse? (Clue: go to unit 2 and read the features of a discourse) Your answer: 91 NSOU ? PGEL 5 & 6 Let us first take up Presentation skills. Let us understand what is meant by presentation. If we understand language as communication, we should also know the different situations in which we communicate with each other. Basically there are four contexts in which we communicate: i. One-to-one communication where we are engaged in conversation. Debates take place in formal contexts where there are two parties or two individuals. ii. Many-to-one communication which is in the context of interviews. Here a group of people ask questions to one person and get the responses. iii. Many-to-many in the context of a meeting and also group discussions where a group is engaged in discussing a topic or problem. iv. One-to-many in the context of presentation. The context is one person addressing a group of people. Each context and the way communication takes place have their own features and principles. Each of these contexts needs specific skills. In each case one has to be a good listener as well as an engaging speaker. Some people are called 'good conversationalists' while some are called good debaters. Yet some others take part in discussions very efficiently. Public speaking and presentation is done in the context in which one person speaks to a group of people. This means, you have to keep a group of people pay attention to you for a specific time. Now, reflect on your abilities and decide in which contexts are you best at. Question: What are the different modes of communication? Your answer: Let us focus on the presentation skills. Since this is a context in which you have to keep a group of people or an audience engaged for a while you have more responsibility as the speaker to communicate your ideas clearly. As the rule goes, the onus of making the listener understand depends on the speaker. Does that make you feel a little nervous? In fact, many people feel uncomfortable speaking to an audience. But actually there is no need to be so if you keep a few points in mind. In this unit we will discuss these points which are common for short presentations as well as longer presentations.

92 NSOU ?PGEL 5 & 6 Let us now understand what we mean by Presentation. Presentation is the art of packaging an idea and effectively, delivering it to an audience to achieve an objective. In professional and business world effective presentation is important, because an idea, however brilliant it may be, may not be accepted if it is not 'presented' effectively. Learning presentation skills is therefore very essential in our professional career. We make presentations on various occasions. Presentations can mainly be classified as formal and informal. Depending on its nature, we can say whether it is public or closed door presentation. Again, the type of audience determines whether it is a presentation for experts or for laymen, whether it is to introduce or update knowledge of the audience. The subject also can determine the type of presentation, whether it is a Project proposal, or reporting the progress, or about the completion of the project. Oral presentation involves essentially three factors: i. The presenter, ii. The medium/ materials, iii. The target audience. In the first place when you make an oral presentation you have to remember the three P's. in that order. When you plan and prepare for a presentation you must ask yourself the following questions. These questions will give you a clear concept of the three aspects of presentation mentioned earlier. It is said that a well-planned job is as good as the job half done. Planning and preparation for the presentation will give you confidence that you can perform well. While planning you should keep in mind the 6Ws: – the audience, their profile. – the subject you are dealing with. – is it a formal occasion or an informal one; whether it is a public place or a closed door meeting? – is it an after-dinner speech, are you one of the speakers, and if so when is your turn and who are the other speakers and how much time do you have to make the presentation?

93 NSOU ? PGEL 5 & 6 – what is the purpose? Is it to motivate the audience, or to give new information, or to update their knowledge? – the most important point is how to convey the message to the audience. These days, we can add one more dimension – is it face to face or online mode of presentation. For planning a presentation it is essential that you know the topic well in advance, the target audience for who the presentation will be delivered, and the time at your disposal. Depending on these factors, you can plan the limitations of the points you can deal with. Then, you should decide how much time it would take to collect the materials and where and how the materials can be gathered. You can plan a time frame for preparation at this stage. Thorough preparation is a guaranteed way to produce a good presentation. Very experienced and senior professionals may give the most appalling presentations because of lack of preparation, while a junior and less experienced executive who is honest and worked hard to prepare well might give a brilliant performance. If you are well prepared for the presentation you may say that you have won half the battle. Now, how do you prepare for the presentation? Keep the following points in mind when you prepare for a presentation. ? Once the topic and the time given to you are understood, if the subject needs some reading, then, get the books and journals that are relevant. Make notes while you read. ? Take down quotations within quotation marks; cite names, illustrations and references. If you are using someone else's materials, acknowledge the source. ? Sequence the points. Wherever necessary add illustrations and examples. Prepare audio visual materials to support your presentation. Even if you are planning a simple chalk and board presentation, work carefully. ? You may like to refer to your notes when you are presenting. Write down only the points in large letters on 3x 5 inch cards. Indicate the places where you want to show the audio visuals. Do not overcrowd the cards. Number the cards as per the sequence of points and stack them in order so that you may refer to them when making the presentation. ? Make sure of the infrastructure, equipment and power connection at the place of presentation. These days it has become very common to make presentations using the power point slides. A Power Point slide is a visual support to oral presentation. It helps you to remember all the points as well as helps the audience understand the presentation better. You prepare the slides to support your presentation. Therefore it is important

94 NSOU ?PGEL 5 & 6 to carefully prepare the slides. Now, try and answer the following questions to check if you have understood what you have read so far. Question 1: What are the three essential factors in making presentations? Question 2: What are the six points the presenter has to keep in mind and why? In the first place write down the presentation. Then take the main points to prepare the slides. The first slide could show the title and the points you are going to deal with as an introduction. Each slide should deal with one thought or concept or idea. Remember they are points. So don't write sentences. Make them into bullet points. Keep them simple. Don't clutter the slides with too many points. Each slide should have only four or five bullet points. It is better to use short bulleted phrases. As far as possible avoid punctuations. Now let us look at how the layout of the slides should be. In the first place, you must take care of the font size. Choose a size which is visible to the audience in the last row. Normally for an audience comprising fifty people for the title, the font size 38 to 44 is used and nothing smaller than 28 for the text. Choose the background and colour of the letters carefully. Choose two or at the most three colours. Avoid yellow as it is not very much visible. Red is too harsh to the eye. Contrast the template and the font colours. While preparing you may choose animation so that one point appears at a time. Choose simple animation. Normally in academic presentations we don't use sound effects. Use pictures, cartoons, graphs and maps wherever relevant. Once the slides are prepared, go through them, check the facts, and edit the content, spelling and lay out. Pay attention to spelling and grammar errors on your slides as they look very glaring once the slides are projected and create a poor impression on the audience. A very important point you should remember is that you should decide on the number of slides depending on the time given for your presentation. If the presentation is short don't use too many slides. After you plan and prepare the materials for your presentation, run through the entire material once. In this unit you have learnt what is meant by presentation skills, the various contexts in which you make presentations, types of presentations, the factors involved in making presentations and planning and preparing, the two stages involved in making presentations.

95 NSOU ? PGEL 5 & 6 Once you plan and prepare your presentation, you are ready to make the actual presentation to the audience. You will read about it in the next unit. 1. What do we mean by a good presentation? 2. How many types of presentations are discussed here? 3. Is there a difference between presenting, and communicating? 4. What are some of the important features to keep in mind while presenting? 5. How important is planning a presentation? 6. What are the six important aspects of planning? 7. What are the responsibilities of a presenter? 8. What does preparation involve? 9. How has technology made presentations easier? 10. What are some of the features of a slide used for presentation? 11. Prepare two slides about what you have read on 'preparing slides'. Remember to use bullet points only. Mohanraj, J. et.al. (2012). Hyderabad: Orient BlackSwan (ISBN 1978 81 250 4665 3)

? In the previous unit you have learnt that we make presentations in various contexts. In fact, we make many informal presentations in our professions as well as in the world outside our institution or place of work. For example, when guiding a new colleague through the basic office procedures, reporting some investigation in a departmental meeting, giving an overview of a new product to the board members, presenting yourself when you are asked in an interview to talk about yourself, are occasions you make formal presentations. If you look at each of them carefully, you will realize that the approach in each presentation is different. In all these contexts we are communicating and make an effort to communicate effectively. In the interview context when you present yourself you have to think of the most important skill you have relevant to the job to talk about. When selling a product you don't talk about the price first but about the benefits the product will give to the client in a particular field. Similarly, in academic contexts like presenting a project report your focus will be different. 96

97 NSOU ? PGEL 5 & 6 After going through this unit, the learners will be able to: a. Appreciate the various occasions when one needs to make a presentation. b. Differentiate between a formal and an informal presentation. c. Plan and deliver a good presentation suitable to the context. When it comes to personal life too we make presentations. For example, when the son wants to buy a higher grade mobile phone which is expensive, he has to tell the parent why he needs it and what the advantages are etc. to justify the cost. When the parents ask the children to do a particular chore they need to explain to their children and they need to present the matter in a convincing way. You must have realized by now that whatever we have discussed so far about making a presentation corroborates with the questions we said we should ask in the section on Preparation. (Recall the six questions that we have highlighted in the previous unit.) Once we are sure of the target audience, the purpose of our talk and have a grip over the subject, we can be confident of our presentation. Whatever be the subject and context of the presentation it should be done in a systematic manner. You have to structure your presentation carefully. As said earlier, in the context of presentation there are three main factors – the presenter, the audience and the subject. The onus of making the subject interesting and easy to understand for the audience lies with the presenter. So you can see how huge a responsibility lies on the shoulders of the presenter. However, it is a skill you can achieve if you work towards it. Before we proceed further, we should understand that sometimes we make short presentations, for example, JAM or 'Just A Minute' speeches in the academic contexts or in the context of some recruitment procedures. While everything else remains the same whether it is a long or short presentation, in case of planning and preparation we have to be more careful in the case of short presentations. Someone has said, 'if you want me to speak for one minute-allow me two weeks to prepare, if it is for half- an-hour give me a week; if it is for an hour, ask me and I can do it now.' What he meant was that if it is a limited time given for presentation the presenter has to make

98 NSOU ?PGEL 5 & 6 careful consideration of how to begin, how many points to deal with and the right sequence of the points and also the conclusion to make the entire speech effective. Making presentations involves three factors: i. the contents, ii. the manner, iii. the personality (of the presenter). Earlier we said that while preparing we should pay attention to the subject and should think of what we are going to present. So, when we are making the actual presentation also we should be alert and focus on the contents. The contents should be relevant and adequate points have to be dealt with within the given time. Do not try to cram your presentation with too many points if the time given is short. Deal with only the essential points in such cases. of the content depends on is given. The presentation should be well structured. It should have a beginning, a logical development of points, and an effective conclusion or summing up. This is very well expressed by someone who said, 'when making a presentation you tell the audience what you are going to tell them, then tell them, and finally tell them what you have told them and why.' Secondly, remember to break the subjects into smaller chunks so that it is easier for the audience to absorb the subject in small doses. Choose the illustrations and examples appropriate to the topic and also level of the audience. Whatever is the subject/topic of presentation, however heavy and technical the topic is, some people make it very interesting and easy for the audience to understand. It is important you present the topic. Let us discuss how to make a presentation effective. We already said that the presentation should have an 'introduction'. Now let us see what your introduction should be like. In the first place remember that your introduction should catch the attention of the audience. There are several effective ways in which you may introduce a topic. You can begin the talk with a famous quotation. Choose

99 NSOU ? PGEL 5 & 6 a quotation relevant to the topic. Choose to quote someone who has credibility with your audience. If the audience is of scientific temperament take a quotation from a scientist, if it is a general talk and you want to present some general truth you may choose to say 'Once Mahatma Gandhi said..., or 'Once Winston Churchill said....., or 'Dr. Abdul Kalam always said....'and so on. Another way of catching the attention of the audience is to start your talk with humour. Wit and humour puts the audience in a relaxed mood and they become receptive to the talk. A witty presenter is anytime a favourite of the audience. A third way of introducing a topic is to ask a question. Asking a question is a good way of letting the audience know what you want to communicate with them. It makes them instinctively get in what you are going to say. It is better to ask a question which does not make them think very hard and also structure the question in a way that they can answer with a 'yes/no'. Yet another effective way of beginning the talk is showing the audience an interesting picture relevant to your topic. This will them to receive your talk. For example, if your topic is on communication skills you may show them a picture with people in conversation. Then you could ask them a couple of questions on what they the people are talking about. Let us have another example. There is a picture or a cartoon of a group of people just rolling over each other with laughter and then the next one is a person entering the room and one of them tells the new entrant 'Oh we were just talking about you'. Let the audience have a look at the picture and then ask them a series of two or three questions about the picture. You must have noticed that in this example you are combining two strategies of introducing the topic; that of showing a picture and asking questions. Actually you have combined a third aspect of humour because you are using a cartoon. The next aspect of the content is 'development of the points'. In the section on Preparation we have learnt that the points we want to convey need to be developed logically. We should remember that the points should be arranged sequentially and in a logical manner. Now, what is sequence and logic? It means the points need to be arranged in such a way that one point should 'lead' to the next. They should in no way be presented in a 'disjointed' way. This takes away the effectiveness of the presentation even if all the points you are making are very important. You should also know that some points need more elaboration then some others. So, do not devote too much time on points which need no elaboration and 'gloss over' more important ones. The third aspect of the content is the conclusion. We normally 'wrap up' our presentation with a conclusion. The conclusion should actually be a summary of the presentation. It should give the audience a comprehensive view of the entire

100 NSOU ?PGEL 5 & 6 presentation. So, even if they forget a couple of points during the course of the presentation the conclusion may act as a recapitulation of those points. This is all the more important in a long presentation. In case of short presentations, it is enough to mention the few points you have made in a sentence or two. While we are presenting is an important aspect, we convey the subject is all the more important. The manner in which we make our presentation either sustains or mars the interest of the audience. What you say in the introduction should establish a rapport with the audience. As said earlier, begin your presentation well to attract the attention of the audience. The attention span of the audience is just about 20 minutes. So you have to use strategies to sustain their attention for longer periods if your presentation is not brief. A long talk can be monotonous. Therefore you may make it interactive. You may also ask them a question intermittently. But remember to frame the question in such a way that they do not feel that you are testing their comprehension but getting a feedback from them. If it is a long presentation, use a combination of strategies using audio, visuals and also varying your tone. In the first place, remember that your voice should reach the last person among the audience. Modulate your voice according to the size of the audience. What does this mean? This means if the size of the audience is large speak louder. If you are provided with a microphone, don't shout into the microphone. Similarly, if the audience size is small and you do not need to speak into a microphone, avoid it. Another important factor you should remember is to use a language appropriate to the level of the audience. For example, if it is a technical subject and the audience is well versed with the technical field you can use the technical jargon. But if you are explaining a technical subject to laymen it is best to avoid jargon and put the information in as simple a language as possible. As far as possible, use short and simple sentences. Remember the acronym KISS (Keep It Short and Simple) when constructing sentences. The nature of the visual aids and the manner in which you use them assume a lot of importance in making presentations. Integrate the aid with the matter you are presenting orally when you reach the point. Make sure that everyone in the audience is able to see clearly what is projected. Do not stand between the screen and audience and create a shadow play. Use a pointer or cursor when you want to draw their attention to a specific point. Talk to the audience and do not read from the screen. If you are using a chalkboard, write down quickly and legibly on the board. Do not speak to the audience turning to the chalkboard. We have said earlier that the onus of presentation lies on the presenter. Hence the personality of the presenter assumes a lot of significance. We should understand that

101 NSOU ? PGEL 5 & 6 in a face-to-face situation the general bearing of the presenter, i.e., the facial expression, gestures, the voice, the dress and the appearance help in effective communication. So keep the following points in mind while making a presentation. In the first place, relax before presentation. It is but natural for the beginners and inexperienced to feel nervous when speaking to an audience. Even if you are well prepared, a little bit of nervousness is natural. So take a deep breath and walk with confidence to the podium of stage in front of the audience. Remember to have a good look at the audience before you begin. Adopt a posture which looks relaxed and friendly. Give them a smile. A smile certainly wins over people. A smile lights up a smile in those you are looking at and will in turn give you confidence. Eye contact establishes a rapport with the audience. It is important then, that you maintain eye contact with the whole of your audience during your presentation. A key element that ensures a dynamic eye contact is the 'aura effect'. This means, when you are actually looking at one friendly face in the middle of the audience at least three people behind the person would think you are looking at them. If you are looking at a person in the last row at least four-five people sitting in the audience would believe you are looking at them. This is because the field of your vision appears to 'fan out' as it gets farther away, extending to the sides, in front of or behind the person you are actually looking at. You need not look at everybody nor do you need to keep your gaze on a person for too long. But remember to keep eye contact with people sitting at different places in the audience to give them a feeling of 'inclusiveness'. It also gets you feedback from the audience. You will know whether they are 'with' you or are distracted. As said earlier, the voice quality is important. Your voice should be modulated depending on the size of the audience. It should be clear enough to reach all the members of the audience. Vary the pitch to avoid monotonous tone. Secondly, pronounce the words clearly. If you are not sure of the pronunciation of any word, refer to the dictionary and learn the correct pronunciation. Another factor you should remember is to maintain pauses at appropriate places. Do not hurry through your presentation. Fluency does not mean speaking rapidly, but keeping to normal speed and maintaining pauses for comfortable listening. Keep your note cards with you. They should be numbered and kept in right sequence so that you don't get confused. Refer to your notes if you forget a point. But do not read from the notes. At the end of your presentations invite questions. Listen to the questions carefully, understand them properly and give an answer sincerely. Do not dismiss any question even if it is a trivial one. If you do not know the answer, admit it.

102 NSOU ?PGEL 5 & 6 Above all, the attitude of the presenter is of great importance. Have a positive attitude towards your audience and respect their intelligence. You should be flexible enough to change your approach if they do not feel involved. This is essential to sustain the interest of the audience in your presentation. In this unit you have learnt many factors about presentation skills. You learnt that making short presentations require more careful preparation than long presentations because of the time limit. You have also learnt that there are three stages in acquiring presentation skills: planning, preparation and actual presentation. In each stage you have to follow a few principles and strategies. 1.How many types of presentations are discussed here? 2. What do you understand by JAM? 3. Give reasons why it is difficult to prepare for a short presentation. 4. How is content organisation an important aspect of presentation? 5. What are the three 'Ps' of a presentation? 6. What care needs to be taken during the presentation? 7. In how many ways can you introduce a topic? 8. What are the presentation strategies discussed here? 9. What does 'aura effect' mean? 10. What role do visuals play in a presentation? 11. How can the presenter sustain listener interest during a long presentation? 12. How are the points developed logically in a presentation? 13. How important is a good conclusion to a presentation? 14. What relevance does the question answer session have in a presentation? 15. What care should the presenter take while answering the questions? 16. What role does the presenter's dress and appearance have in a presentation? Theobald, T. (2019). California: Kogan Page.

? In the earlier units you have learnt certain aspects of spoken English like what is phonetics, what is phonology, what is stress and intonation etc. Knowledge of these helps us become better speakers of English. In this unit and the following unit you will learn factors pertaining to how to teach spoken English. In this unit, in particular you will learn the various approaches to spoken English, theories related to speaking, importance of teaching pronunciation and other aspects of English speech. Besides these you will also learn how to select an appropriate variety of English. You will also learn about native and non-native speakers of English, the importance of teacher competence, and how to select materials for teaching spoken English. We know that in the globalized world communication in English is possible across the world. Today, even those countries like Japan and Germany and the Arab countries, where English has not been used for communication within the country and only a limited number of people learnt English for specific purposes of communicating with other countries for trade and commerce, have started teaching English increasingly. Therefore, we can understand that for greater outreach and effectiveness, learning to speak English with clarity and confidence is imminent. 103

104 NSOU ?PGEL 5 & 6 After going through this unit, you will be able to: a. Appreciate the spread of English as a global language. b. Understand the need to teach spoken English properly. c. Learn about how to teach spoken English. d. Differentiate different approaches to teaching spoken English. If it is important to know the various aspects of spoken English in order to learn as well as teach speaking skills, it is all the more important to know the various approaches to teaching spoken English. So, let us have a historical perspective of teaching spoken English. Looking at the history of teaching English we can understand that the place and approach to teaching spoken English has changed significantly over the years. The emphasis has shifted from teaching accurate production of individual speech sounds and teaching discrete items of pronunciation to broader communicative aspects of connected speech. In the years when Grammar and Translation Method was prevalent very little systematic attention was paid to teaching spoken English. The Direct Method advocated intensive oral communication skills in a carefully graded progression in terms of question and answer between the teacher and the student. The Structural Approach aimed at the aural-oral training in the form of listen and repeat drills. Here accuracy was emphasized and language laboratories became popular. When we look at the Oral Approach and Situational Language Teaching, we find teaching begins with spoken English. Oral practice of controlled sentence patterns is given in specific situations. Emphasis moves to presentation of brief dialogue and a gradual movement from guided to free communication is seen in the Notional/Functional Approach. When the Communicative Approach made its advent, emphasis shifted from accuracy to fluency, and in the Natural Approach we find that the learner is not put under any anxiety, and speech is allowed to 'emerge' gradually. Emphasis on communication continues in the Post Method era. Over the centuries as the teaching of English underwent various changes in terms of Approaches to language learning and teaching, we see an evolution of different

105 NSOU ? PGEL 5 & 6 theories of teaching speaking. Among the theories the most prominent ones are the Behaviourist, Innate and Interactionist theories. Up to 1960s the Behaviourist approach gave prominence to speaking since it was assumed that language was primarily an oral-aural phenomenon. So the teaching and learning of language followed a stimulus- response-reinforcement pattern involving constant practice and formation of habit. Teaching of speaking skills involved imitation, repetition and memorization of the input given to the learners. The audio-lingual approach emphasized the process of teaching in the order of listening-speaking-reading-writing. Later, with Chomsky's assumption that every child is born with an innate capacity to acquire language the Innate Theory evolved. The belief was once the basic grammar was provided learners become active and creative in their use of language. In the 1970s and 1980s the Interactionists propounded that providing a linguistic environment for interaction was necessary for efficient language learning. It was thought that for production of speech the messages need to be 'planned'. This plan should have a basis of four major processes like conceptualization, formulation, articulation and monitoring. For example, if the child has to understand the use of past tense, she/he has to understand the concept of time, and, that the action is over, and, then how this concept is expressed. Once this becomes clear the child would be able to form the past with regular or verb in the irregular form of the verb. This allows the child to articulate sentences using the correct form, may be after a few errors and corrections monitored by adults. The functionalists viewed speaking in a contextualized process where the context of culture and context played an important role in the language use. Bloom B.S. is known for his (1965) has identified three domains of educational activities: a) Cognitive(deals with knowledge) b) Affective(deals with feelings and attitude) c) Psychomotor(deals with manual or physical). He also identified levels within the cognitive domain ranging from simple recall or recognition of facts to the highest order of evaluation. The levels are; knowledge; understanding; application; analysis synthesis; and evaluation. It is assumed that a good use of Bloom's Taxonomy would help both teaching and learning. In teaching spoken English moving from the simple level to the complex level gradually would create a relaxed atmosphere for the learners and they would learn to speak with increasing confidence. So the learner should be made familiar with the grammar and vocabulary of the language, understand the meaning and apply the gained knowledge in various contexts, analyze as well as compare and contrast and judge their own thought and ideas. All these pertain to the cognitive domain. They should also have a positive attitude towards the language and learn it willingly. This pertains to the Affective domain. In the psychomotor domain tasks could be provided that need some physical activity like miming and performing. Humanistic Theory propounded by Carl Rogers and Abraham Maslow, Constructivist

106 NSOU ?PGEL 5 & 6 Theory made popular by Jean Piaget, Socio-cultural Theory propounded by Vygotsky belong to the field of Educational Psychology, have influenced educational methods, goals and objectives and are relevant in teaching speaking. You need to know two other names: Krashen and Lenneberg. Krashen's monitor theory also known as Input Hypothesis and Lenneberg's Critical period Hypothesis influenced the teaching methods and brought in many changes in the classroom methodology. All these theories mentioned here have their influence in teaching listening and speaking skills. We understand that that over the decades the teaching and learning of English have acquired new dimensions. Given this background, many issues and questions arise in teaching spoken English. Some questions that we need to ask are: ? What is the status of pronunciation? When and how should we teach pronunciation? ? At what level should segmental features be taught? Is drilling of individual sounds and pattern practice effective? ? Do learners transfer the accurate sounds to connected speech? ? Can we really 'teach' the more subtle features like rhythm and intonation? ? How much of the mother tongue influence is acceptable? A large number of these questions are addressed by researchers and experts in teaching language. We know that teaching of pronunciation assumes importance in any language, more so in English. There is no one to one correlation between spelling and pronunciation unlike in the Indian languages. Therefore teachers need to make an extra effort in terms of pronunciation and of words in English. Pronunciation and stress at word level lend accuracy which contributes to intelligibility. Therefore, teaching pronunciation is crucial to teaching spoken English. Having said that let us understand that the 'when' and 'how' of teaching pronunciation depends on the situation and the target students. If the target students are adults, concepts and the articulation could be explained and if they are young then imitation and repetition including gestures and action oriented teaching. As teachers we know that learning is more effective if teaching is contextualized. So setting contexts which involve stress and intonation, and explaining the change in meaning if stress at the word and sentence level is changed would help. Practice in word stress and intonation in meaningful contexts could be given. For example, take
107 NSOU ? PGEL 5 & 6 the case of the words like 'present' and 'object'. We have learnt that if

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the stress is on the first syllable it is a noun and if it is on the second syllable

it is a verb. A simple sentence like 'I to so many unnecessary lying all over the floor' or 'All the delegates invited are today and all of them are going to their reports' would go a long way in making the meaning of the word as noun and verb very clear. You may make the learners acquire a basic knowledge in phonology of English. Opportunities to understand the sound pattern and language structure and a scope for self-reflection could give a better understanding of the spoken form. Another important aspect of teaching in the non-native context is to make them understand and diagnose the problem areas in the target language. The problem areas are mostly for the second language learners of English. In India there are learners of English belonging to more than 22 major languages. Hence the problem areas differ depending on their mother tongue. For example a word like 'school' could have different problem areas in pronunciation or, for some speakers there may not be any problem at all pronouncing the word. Another important feature of English is the contractions and reductions. A word in isolation is carefully pronounced. But in connected speech the sounds of certain words are changed and they sound different from what they are like when pronounced in isolation. For example 'will not' becomes 'won't'. Again, in a sentence articles and prepositions are not stressed normally. As teachers we need to draw the learners' attention to such characteristic features of English. We understand that English is spoken by those who have learnt it as their mother tongue and those who have some other language as their mother tongue but learn English also. People who speak a language as their mother tongue are called 'native speakers' of the language, and those who speak the language which is not their mother tongue are called 'non-native speakers'. These learners are called the second language learners. The non-native speakers learn the language based on the native speakers as model. In case of English, there are at least three major varieties of native versions of English to choose from: British, American and Australian apart from the notional standard Received Pronunciation. The second language learner may also have a choice of not sounding like any of the native speakers of English and retain their own cultural and social identity. The choice depends on the needs of the learners, why they learn to speak English, and to what use they want their competence to be put to use. Those who want to interact

108 NSOU ?PGEL 5 & 6 at international level for business and profession will have different use of English from those who want to use English only to communicate with the non-native speakers of English. Whatever be the reason, there is one factor which is very important, which is intelligibility or clarity of speech. When non- native speakers learn to speak English it is natural that they have the influence of their mother tongue in articulating the sounds in English. Native-like speech in second language learning situation takes time, and often it cannot be achieved easily. In fact, very few can achieve native-like pronunciation in another language. Non-native speakers, even if they pronounce words and sentences very well, problems with stress and intonation and other phonological nuances may still cause misunderstandings or even communication break-down. Therefore it is better to focus on global aspects of English. What is required of the learners is that they try and erase the gross mother tongue features which 'interfere' with the English sounds and make them sound different from what they should be. Then we can say that the learner has attained a 'neutral' variety of English which is universally understood. This is possible with practice. For this we can choose the RP or Received Pronunciation as reference point. The advantage is that RP is well described variety and internationally acknowledged. Standard dictionaries indicate this pronunciation and also display the British and American variants separately. What the second language learners of English should remember is, that it is near impossible to achieve native-like pronunciation nor is it really necessary. What is important is clarity and global intelligibility of speech. If an African speaks English and he is intelligible to an Indian, an Indian is intelligible to a Russian and when a Russian speaks English and a German understands, we can say that we are moving towards global English. Teacher competence in the area of spoken English is of crucial importance in the second language teaching context. A competent teacher goes a long way in making learners attain reasonable proficiency in English. This is because the learners primarily learn to speak by emulating the teacher. When it comes to teaching spoken English, for a long time the non-native speaking world preferred to employ native speakers of English even if they were not trained as teachers, because they spoke English with authority as they owned the language. However, with the changing perspectives and needs of the learners this attitude has changed. 'In today's complex and globalized world, well-trained, multilingual and culturally sophisticated teachers are needed to teach learners of English. It is time for those involved in the ELT profession to resist

109 NSOU ? PGEL 5 & 6 the employment of untrained native speaker teachers.' (Graddol 2007, p.121). Teachers who have acquired speaking skills as second language can use their experience to understand their learners' needs. Of course, teachers themselves should be aware of the nuances of English pronunciation and should be able to speak neutral variety of English for the learners to emulate. Teachers who do not develop 'neutral' variety or do not work towards 'global intelligibility' are not received well by the learners. A competent teacher of English would use strategies effective for the learners to practice speaking. The materials used should be familiar and easy to use. This would reduce the learning anxiety. We can use authentic materials like newspaper clippings of advertisements, headlines, pictures, hoardings seen posted in different parts of the city, Railway tickets, instructions written in hospitals and other places, and many more materials available around us to motivate learners to speak in English. Again, as a teacher you should focus on achievable goals instead of focusing on elements which are out of control of the learners. We should understand that the thinking in teaching pronunciation has shifted from 'what is convenient for the teacher to teach?' to 'what is effective for the learners to learn?' Some fine native-like features in the phonology which do not come in the way of intelligibility could take a secondary place in the pedagogy. Certain phonological features which cause intelligibility problems for listeners need to be identified and more emphasis could be given in learning these features accurately. A common phonological core for Indian speakers of English has been identified as Indian English by R. K. Bansal and various other researchers. We as teachers of English need to be aware of this. As teachers of Spoken English we also should be able to identify appropriate materials for practice. The materials should be familiar and easily accessible for the learners. Materials should take care of all the aspects of spoken English from articulation of sounds, pronunciation of words, stress at word as well as sentence levels. We should also give practice to the learners in terms of attaining fluency. 'Since speaking involves two people, materials could have activities involving two or more learners and make them more communicative and closer to real-life situations. Above all, the learners' needs and the use they will put the language to should be kept in view while designing materials for them.' (Jayashree Mohanraj 2015).In the next unit we will see a number of tasks for practising various aspects of spoken English and also learn how to use them in the classroom. Let us now check if we remember what we have read so far. Answer the following questions.

110 NSOU ?PGEL 5 & 6 1. What is the importance of spoken English? 2. How important is good pronunciation? 3. What are the finer aspects of good pronunciation in English? 4. What are some of the changes that have taken place in the teaching of spoken English? 5. How is Bloom's taxonomy useful in teaching spoken English? 6. What are the major varieties of spoken English seen around the world? 7. Which model is normally recommended as standard? 8. What do we mean by 'global English'? 9. Why should a teacher be competent to teach spoken English? 10. Can a second language learner achieve native speaker competence? Is it essential? Bloom. B. J., (1965). New York: Longman Higher Education. Graddoll. D. (2007). London: The British Council. Krashen, S. (1988). Massachusetts: Prentice-Hall International. Maslow, A. H. (1970). New York: Harper and Row. Mohanraj. J. (2015). Hyderabad: Orient BlackSwan. Vygotsky. L. (1970). Cambridge, Massachusetts: MIT Press.

? In the previous unit we learnt what are native and non-native varieties of English, how to select the model for learning to speak English as second language learners, and the various aspects of teaching spoken English. We must remember that a fair number of tasks developing speaking skills, include developing listening skills. In fact listening is like a springboard to speaking. Careful listening helps in not only articulating sounds accurately but also in understanding the nuances in pronunciation and stress and intonation. So, practically, teaching of listening and speaking go hand in hand. At the end of going through this unit, the learners will be able to: a. Prepare tasks for different aspects of teaching spoken English, b. Understand the concept of spellings in English, 111

112 NSOU ?PGEL 5 & 6 c. Identify the stressed syllable in a polysyllabic word, d. Understand the nuances of speaking on phone, e. Understand the etiquette for participating in group discussions and other social conversations. Now, let us look at some tasks that can be used to teach spoken English. These tasks are arranged in a graded manner of teaching segmental features, supra-segmental features as well as fluency. You will also have some sample tasks which will develop communication skills in English. Each task is accompanied by a brief account of at what level the task can be used and what materials are used and also how much time would the task take approximately. The market is full of books which give practice in spoken English. However, what we should learn from them is to develop or modify the tasks for our learners. Now, let us look at the sample tasks one by one. This task is to help learners become aware of the accurate pronunciation of words with the sounds which pose a problem to them. The material used is a list of words prepared by the teacher. Take a list of ten pairs of words which are minimal pairs like: Dictate the words to learners. Ask them to write down the words in pairs as they hear. Ask each of them to read out what they have written in the same order. This will ensure what sounds they have listened to and how they pronounce the words. If the teacher finds there is a problem in their articulating the sounds in the words, more practice could be given. They could even be made aware of how to articulate the specific sounds by explaining the position of the lips, tongue etc. This activity can be given to learners as beginners. Time that can be allotted could be 20-30 minutes. You may think of modifying, extending this task by asking the learners to think of similar pairs of words and exchanging the list with their partners in the class to

113 NSOU ? PGEL 5 & 6 pronounce the words. Another modification, which is slightly more challenging, is to make them use the words in meaningful sentences and speak them aloud with the correct pronunciation. This will ensure their articulating the sounds correctly in connected speech. To make them understand the spelling-sound relationship in English. The material required is a list of words. Give learners a list of words which are homophones i.e. sound the same but spelt differently. For example: Jumble the words up and ask them to put them in order and then pronounce the words. This task can be given to the beginners. 15 minutes may be allotted for this task. As modification and extension of the task you can give the learners to prepare another such list of words. They could use the dictionary to look up for such words. This will, to some extent, help them develop dictionary-skills. These lists could be shared with other learners in the class. You may ask them to write and read aloud sentences using these words with distinct meanings. Generally, second language learners in India feel a little intimidated when they encounter long words in English. This in turn affects their levels of confidence while speaking. If they are taught to break the words in terms of syllables, they will be able to handle any long words. The following task is an example. In the first place show the learners how to break a word into syllables. For example: Institution can be broken as in-sti-tu-tion for convenience of articulation. Then write a reasonably long word on the chalk-board. Pronounce the word yourself showing the syllabification. Ask the learners to repeat. The third step could be presenting longer words like and Then ask them to pronounce the word using the strategy of syllabification. This task can be used for high school/intermediate level of learners. The purpose is to enhance their confidence in pronouncing words in English. The task may take about 15 minutes.

114 NSOU ?PGEL 5 & 6 Stress at the word as well as sentence level plays a very important role in intelligibility. A second language learner should try to learn to maintain stress at the proper syllable and word when speaking English. When we speak Indian languages we stress every word as there is no significance attached to stress in normal speech. The task involves a list of words, a couple of suitable pictures as suggested here and a poem or a few sentences. We may begin to make them repeat words with two syllables with stress on first syllable and then the second as learnt earlier in words like and The second step could be to draw a picture like a tree or cloud and fill up the picture with words, phrases related to that picture and ask the learners to read them out. The third step in the task could be to ask the learners write down the sentences within the picture. For example, you may draw a picture of an urn and within that you may write a stanza of Keat's Ode to a Grecian Urn and ask the learners to recite it aloud with proper stress on words to make the reading rhythmic. This task could be given to Intermediate level learners. The task may take 20-25 minutes. Using pictures to motivate the learners to speak is found to be effective. You may use an interesting action oriented picture or even a picture with just two characters. You may give a few questions about the picture like: who are the people in the picture?; Do you think it is a special occasion?; Do you think the two people in the picture are happy?; Do you think the two people are related? The questions vary depending on the picture. If the learners are a little advanced you may take the task from controlled to free and more challenging task by not giving any leading questions but ask the learners to interpret the picture. Another idea is to use a series of three or four pictures which stand for a story. Don Byrne used picture stories to motivate learners to narrate a sequence of events. A third variation is to project a set of six to eight characters in front of the class and ask one of the learners to describe one picture and the rest of the group to guess the character that is being described. This works as a good guessing game which is interesting for the learners. Yet another idea of using pictures is to give a pair of learners a cartoon strip with the speech bubbles empty. The learners have to guess what the characters are saying and speak out. This activity makes them think, guess and also can be fun. These tasks with the variations mentioned can be used in elementary to intermediate levels. The task should take 15- 20 minutes.

115 NSOU ? PGEL 5 & 6 For advanced level learners what is required is an opportunity to speak. We can create this opportunity by making the task purposeful. Role-play gives this purpose. You may begin with conversation. Conversation is open-ended and may develop further. For elementary level you may prepare cue cards and make it a pair work task. A typical set of cue cards for elementary learners may look like this: A B A: Hello . A:——————— B: ————— B: Hi. A: Are you free this evening? A: ———————— B: ————————— B: Hm, I guess so. A: Shall we go for a movie? A: ———————— B: ————————— B: Great idea! I'd love it.. A: Fine. Let's meet at A: ————————— Grand theater at 6 then. B: Alright. B: ————————— A: —————— A: See you. B: Bye. Each learner in the pair gets one card and reads out his part. As a teacher you will have to give proper instructions like they need to take turns in speaking. The same task could be made more challenging and may look like this: A B A: Greet B A: ——————————— B: ———————- B: Reciprocate A's greeting. A: Ask what B is doing in A:——————————— the evening. B: Say you are free. B: ——————————— A: ————————— A: Suggest you go for a movie. B: Accept with pleasure. B: ——————————— A: ————————— A: Arrange to meet at B: Alright. ...... theater at .... A: ———————— B: ————————— B: Respond.

116 NSOU ?PGEL 5 & 6 This activity can be used with learners at various levels of learning depending on how challenging it is made. It may take about 20 minutes. Telephone conversation assumes a lot of importance in today's context. Create a situation for the learners where you can give them practice speaking on telephone. Before assigning the task make them aware of the telephone etiquette like speaking softly and not shouting into the phone, introducing yourself first if you are the person calling, speaking clearly and precisely because your body language does not aid the receiver of the call, putting expression in the voice and so on. Then give the task with clear instructions to follow when working out the task. One such task could be as follows: The task requires you to prepare a small advertisement for rentals. The task is: You are looking out for an accommodation. Here is an advertisement. Call the number given in the advertisement and have a telephone talk with the landlord/lady. Work in pairs. Available. Two bedroom apartment Fully furnished. Good location. Small family preferred. Telephone: 11012345 You may simulate the situation by asking them to sit at two different corners in the class facing away from each other. If necessary give a few cues to carry out the conversation. Repeat the task with different situations for different pairs. The task will take about 20-25 minutes. You may give topics for the learners or ask them to choose any topic they like and ask them to come prepared for a one-minute speech. You may even give them a topic like ' Give them guidelines before they prepare. Tell them to choose only limited number of points, to have an introduction and a conclusion. While they are speaking observe them, take down notes discretely and after everyone finishes, give your feedback. Give general feedback, and if any specific point needs to be made about a particular speaker, tell them. But remember

117 NSOU ? PGEL 5 & 6 not to interrupt their speech and also not to dwell on negative points. Encourage them to speak. This activity can be followed up and made a little more challenging after you feel that the learners have gained confidence speaking to an audience. Fish-bowl is a very suitable activity. Write down various topics on strips of papers and place them in a bowl. Each learner picks up one strip and speaks on the topic assigned there for one minute. You may give them five minutes to prepare before they speak. This task takes about 30 minutes of the classroom time if there are 20 learners in the class. It is important to give intermediate and advanced learners practice in speaking independently in debates and group discussion contexts. A task for debate could be as follows: Divide the entire class into two groups. Give a topic like . Ask each group to take a stand for or against the topic. Pair them taking one from each group to speak. Set time limit of two minutes for each speaker. Give them about ten minute's preparation time. This task may take more than 30 minutes depending on the number of learners. Modification to this task could be forming another smaller third group or pair who can act as observers and give comments on the overall performance of each group. This is more challenging and can be tried with an advanced group. A simple task for group discussion may be given to initiate the class for more serious problem-solving exercises. Some relevant topic could be given to them for discussion. For example: You are planning an educational tour to a historical place. As a group plan the details. You may discuss the following points: suitable date and time of travel, duration of the tour mode of travel like train, bus etc., things to carry, place of stay, how to keep notes, division of responsibilities and other details. The total time for this task could be 30-40 minutes. The initial 10 minutes for the teacher to give instructions. Then the actual discussion of 20 minutes and then the teacher's feedback of the discussion may take about 10 minutes. Create some situation for discussion and assign roles to a group of learners. Form groups to assume roles of members involved in the situation for discussion. Before

118 NSOU ?PGEL 5 & 6 you assign tasks explain how each member of the group needs to get a chance to speak, and also the politeness principles to be observed by members respecting each other's views and so on. A sample of one such task is given here: You are students of Institution for Excellence. Your institution has won awards for clean and green environment for the past five years. However, of late a small mound of garbage has been accumulating close to your institution because of the placement of the garbage bin. You have observed that people have started dumping garbage in and around the bin which gives rise to a stink, inconveniencing the students in the Institution. An emergency meeting has been called by the principal to discuss the problem. You want to submit a memorandum to the Municipal Commissioner to get the Bin relocated. Members attending the meeting: Principal, 2 Members of the Faculty, 2 Student Representatives, 1 Municipality Ward Member, 1 Member of Society for Protection of Environment and Quality Life (SPEQL), 2 Journalists of local newspaper (Special Invitees). This task will take about 50 minutes. 20 minutes could be given for instructions and time for the group to assume roles and prepare for discussion. The actual discussion may take 20 minutes and the teacher's feedback another 10 minutes. You may think of several such situations for problem solving tasks. In advanced levels of learning, presentation skills assume importance. Hence learners need to be initiated to make presentations to a group of audience. For this relevant topics can be chosen and some preparation time be given for the learners to make their presentations. The learners need to be instructed how to prepare materials like slides, and how to present themselves before the audience and then be given the topics. A couple of such topics as cases for presentation are given here: i. You are an officer deputed by the Municipal Corporation of your city to convince a group of residents about rain water harvesting in their residential complex. Present the process, benefits and their responsibility etc. ii. You are a student volunteer who has taken the responsibility of bringing awareness in a close-by residential complex about the harmfulness of plastic. Explain the hazards of plastic use and suggest alternatives to plastic on various situations.

For this task, the topic may be given to the learners on the previous day. Guidelines and help need to be given to them. They may even be guided to the sources for collection of materials and points to speak about. Each learner may be given about 10-15 minutes to make presentation. You may have to prepare several such topics depending on the number of learners. It is a good idea to have a repository of such relevant topics collected over a period of time. Such tasks help the learners use language in real life situations too. In this unit we have discussed a few sample tasks in developing different aspects of speaking skills at various levels. The list is not exhaustive. Each sample task should be able to generate several ideas in you to be used in different situations in different levels. The main objective of these tasks is to give confidence in speaking English. These tasks give practice to the learners not in a clinical environment of a language laboratory but, in a real life-like situation simulated in the classroom. Thereby they help the learners perform reasonably well with confidence when encountered by a demand to speak English in life. Your experience in learning the various aspects communication in English should help you develop several such tasks when you need to teach in a class. 1. What is the best technique to teach pronunciation of individual sounds? 2. How are pairs of words with similar sounding words helpful in classroom teaching? 3. What is the easiest way to help students understand the concept of stress? 4. What exercises can be used to show the relationship between spelling and pronunciation? 5. How do we help our students to learn the spellings of longer words? 6. Is syllabification an easy process? 7. What method can be used to teach natural conversation? 8. Prepare a set of Cue-cards based on the model provided? 9. How is group discussion a good activity? 10. Suggest two topics for group discussion and debates. Ref: Graddol, David (2007) English Next, UK, British Council. Jayashree Mohanraj (2015) Let Us Hear Them Speak, new Delhi, Sage Publishers.

? This Unit initiates you to the scope and potential of the Lexi-grammatical axis of Collocation-Idiom-Phrase in acquiring a to the point of mastery or command of English as it should be spoken and written with native fluency. As lexeme or morpheme a word is a bi-referential signifier: it refers to itself as a visual and aural/ articulate entity, lending itself to texting and articulation in a coherent and communicable structure. Language can enhance, restructure and undercut phenomenal reality by the force of self-reference, that is, how the words sound in a speech and look like in a script, how much they touch and evoke our sense-impressions, and how much they transmit data and information with the least possible distortion and refraction mediated by the user in the act of speaking and writing. Therefore, viewing language from the other side, each word literally in itself and variably, with figurative charges in a set of relationships, is a referent to an object or ideation outside itself. At the end of this unit, the learners will be: ? Familiar with a range of vocabulary items, ? Able to use the words learnt appropriately, ? Able to spell the words correctly and use them in their own language, ? Pronounce the words as per the norms of English language, 120 MODULE - 4 : TEACHING VOCABULARY

121 NSOU ? PGEL 5 & 6 ? Able to use the words in appropriate contexts and combinations. Language of all varieties, in all possible ramifications, is associative, collocative and additive, stretching beyond letters of the alphabet and phonemes (articulatory unit or speech sound). What is interesting is that a lexeme or word has a natural tendency to gravitate to or attract another or at places a chunk of other words in order to convey proper meaning in both spoken and written forms This phenomenon of linguistic intra-compatibility between two words or among a number of words generates from long-term and widely accepted usage by the native speakers. In this, even though grammatically permissible and syntactically correct, a sequence of words may appear strange and ludicrous to the native speakers, to the point of incomprehension at times. Therefore, Collocation is important for L2 or FL learners (Second Language Learners or Foreign Language Learners), so much so that knowing Collocation and Mis-collocation (Rayan, 2016) and Collocational Clash may adequately compensate for the paucity of learning the rules and intricacies of grammar. The term Collocation is a noun, by inflectional morphing of the prefix-compounded lexical stem verb, 'locate' [co + locate]: collocate, meaning 'go together' or 'co- occur'. In all Collocations cutting across its several types there has to be at least two parts: The syntax of a given sentence determines the positioning of the collocation in spoken part or in a grammatically complete written sentence. Lewis (1993) coined the term 'collocation' as the key focus of lexical approach to a second/foreign language teaching/learning while emphasizing the fact that vocabulary should be the centre of any language teaching because every language should focus primarily on lexis, instead of grammar. He states that vocabulary should be the key feature in teaching English. The lexical approach is based on the assumption that "an important part of language acquisition is the ability to produce lexical phrases as chunks and that these chunks become the raw data by which learners perceive patterns of language traditionally thought of as grammar" (Lewis, 1993, p.1). Lexical word combinations or chunks contribute significantly to L2 vocabulary development. The teaching of vocabulary is usually confined to learning a unique word and its usage. Axiomatically, knowledge of collocations should develop in tandem with their knowledge of single items in their vocabulary. Achieving proficiency

122 NSOU ?PGEL 5 & 6 in SLA is more complex than simply learning individual words and their literal meanings. Knowing the rules of grammar is not adequate enough as 'guidance for acceptable combinations of words (O'Dell & McCarthy, 2008)'. Teaching collocations, however, provides a rationale for focusing on chunks and their applications (Lewis and Conzett, 2000) as an easy pathway to SLA or Second Language Acquisition. The collocations presented in this Unit throughout are largely selected from the CANCODE corpus of spoken English, developed at the University of Nottingham in association with Cambridge University Press, and the Cambridge International Corpus of written and spoken English (now known as the Cambridge English Corpus). A collocation is "usually described as the tendency of certain linguistic items to habitually co-occur with certain others" (Firth, 1957). The level of occurrence of phrases and words is high and sounds correct for native speakers, for example, rather than . A collocate/collocator is a word which usually occurs with a specific word. For example, and Here and are collocates/ collocators. A base/node refers to a specific word or phrase. Most of the time the node is generally introduced with another word, for instance in or , food is a node(O'Dell & McCarthy, 2008). Linguists by and large come to the conceptual consensus that the term 'collocation' means established by the use of native speakers. Collocation has its roots in the Latin verb which means to place together (Deignan, 1999). Léon (2007) defines collocations as an abstraction at the syntagmatic level. For instance, one of the meanings of constitutes its collocability with and of with In fact, appropriacy and reciprocity are two aspects of collocation. Nesselhauf (2004) defines a collocation as a regular arrangement between/among lexical items, and their intrinsic tendency to closely associate or co-occur in speech and text. Celce-Murcia (cited in Mongkolchai, 2008) defines collocations as the co-occurrence of lexical units in a fixed, strong or weak combination, with variations in frequency or acceptability.Words that collocate with each other are generally habitual and popular irrespective of any :

123 NSOU ? PGEL 5 & 6 For instances, ... and so on. Incidentally Shakespeare's works are a rich source of collocations which have passed into popular usage, and a native English speaker may frequently use a Shakespearean collocation with a (another collocation) of its root in a play or a sonnet of Shakespeare. The character, Jacques alone in Shakespeare's romantic comedy, is springing a fusillade of beautiful collocations that are now established in native and fluent English. Smadja and McKeown (1990) define collocations as a marked tendency of certain words to co-occur with frequent regularity in a specific language. Lewis (1993) defines collocations as a subcategory of multi-word chunk comprising individual words which tend to go together in speaking and writing acts.Therefore, the term 'collocation' signifies a predictable combination of words e.g. , , , so on and so forth. Woolard (cited by in Mongkolchai, 2008) defines collocations as "the co-occurrence of words which are statistically much more likely to appear together than random chance suggests" (p. 29). McCarthy and O'Dell (2006), state that a collocation is used to refer to several words that appear together, either because they always occur together like "run a risk" or because the group meaning is far too obvious from the meaning of its parts, as in 'by the way'. According to the Oxford Collocations Dictionary (2002), collocation is a way of combining words within a language in order to produce natural-sounding speaking and writing. Inappropriate combinations like or do not sound natural in the English language. Benson and Ilson (cited by in Bahns and Eldaw, 1993) point out the inherent incapacity of an L2 learner or the learner of English as a Second/Foreign Language to cope at par with the fluency of collocations that naturally goes with the native speaker of English:

124 NSOU ?PGEL 5 & 6 To sum up, 'collocation' as viewed and defined by linguists and ELT scholars funnel to a focal point that 'collocation' signifies a pair or group of words that normally appear proximate or close to , when in a or when in a in a way that sounds natural to native speakers of the given language. [As Grammatical collocation applies to a pair, but applies a group more than two.] There are several ways to identify the attributes of and categorize collocations, which is often confusing among the learners and teachers as well, of ELT(Lopez, 2016). Bahns (1993) pinpoints the keytraits of collocations as follows: i) Collocations retain the meanings of their constituent parts (unlike idioms) ii) They are spoken and written frequently and with fluency, springing to mind readily, iii) They are psychologically salient (unlike free combinations). There are, however, 'transitional areas' (Cruse, 2000: 41) between free collocational combinations and collocational idioms. : Identify the traits of the Collocations from the following: while I get you something to drink. b) I and smiled. c) We came to as we were passing through d) I'll at the website and let you know what I think. e) You must learn to in skating. Your answer: Boonyasaquan (cited by in Mongkolchai, 2008) clusters the characteristics of collocations as follows: They are co-occurrences of terms allowing no space for an additional word to come in between them. For instance, in there is no provision for a new word to settle between them, even though it is syntactically possible to insert words between them. For example, . Here the insertion of is normally a misfit Interestingly, is a valid collocation. The rationale for collocation in terms of the rules of grammar is blurred. Their components are not replaceable by a synonym. For instance, but not It is , but not, . In both

125 NSOU ? PGEL 5 & 6 the cases, the replaced order will be treated as unique, pejoratively a deviation from the normative language. It may be noted this kind of collocational deviations may be pampered by a poet or creative writer for special figurative effect left willingly to the inference or interpretation of the listener or reader. They are no-interchangeable binomials. The order of the collocation's terms is fixed, for example, but not but not but not but not . Generally collocations are predictable chunks of lexemes, handed down to their users. Factors that generate the range of collocations are as follows (Callow and Kopesec,1981) : A certain level of specificity vis-à-vis generality: "the more general a word is, the broader is its collocational range, the more specific it is, the more restricted is its collocational range" (p. 50). For example, the verb has a wider collocational range than . The word has a wider range of collocation than For instance, in the collocation, 'go' means 'vogue' or fashion. This colour of the shirt will not my blue trouser: here signifies 'match'. Like 'do', 'go' enjoys a wider generality in collocational forms, often with idiomatic overtones. The senses a particular word evokes, are multiple and variable. The Structuralists like Ferdinand de Saussure points out that a word has, even literally, no unalterable, intrinsic authority of meaning. Most words lend themselves to a contextual reformulation of signification, in a changed set of relationships. In this sense collocation is downscaled to free and open combinations. For example the word can make a [but not] of free collocations, each with a different sense or meaning, such as Words like this goes with other words in yielding a [but not] of meanings. For example, collocates with different adverbial particles to produce a variety of meanings. If it is possible to say ' goes with words like ' . However, in the sense of , it goes with words like . Collocations generally have specific characteristics and their recurrent co-occurrences are perceived as constant and, therefore, cannot change, with the exceptions of transformational collocation where collocation spills itself to be transfigured into idiomatic, metaphoric and figural collocations, in transitional areas of lexical collocations. 126 NSOU ?PGEL 5 & 6 : Discuss the characteristics of the following collocation a. I can't with it any longer To write any valuable or breakable objects To apply for something c. He was trying to a serious point To tolerate d. Try to a little bit each week To clean up, to tidy e. Never until tomorrow what you can do today To explain something clearly f. She a new pair of cotton socks To delay your name in capitals To save money h. It took two hours to the fire To wear i. I decided to for a job as a manager To connect with the phone j. He asked to be to the front office To stop burning Your answer: Herbst (1996) explains that there are as given in the figure below: Open collocations deal with nodes capable to cluster with a wide variety of words e.g. a , an , a , etc. On the other hand, restricted collocations deal with clusters already fixed like idioms e.g. rain . Further, Fan (2009) focuses on lexical collocations and adopts Herbst's (1996) categorizations as follows:

127 NSOU ? PGEL 5 & 6 Free combinations, which refer to a combination where the meaning comes from the literal meaning of each element, for example, . Restricted combinations, which is used in a specific context, and the number of collocations is few, like . Figurative idiomatic collocations which refer to a metaphorical meaning that can somehow be derived from a literal interpretation, for instance, . Idioms, where there is a unitary meaning, totally unpredictable based on the literal meaning of its elements e.g. . Yet at another level Boriskina (2009) and Lewis (2000) categorize collocations in the following manner: Unique collocations which refer to fixed and irreplaceable collocations, such , among others. Strong collocations, which are very strong but not unique, such as among others. Another example of strong collocation is the participle ' '. It almost always collocates with or ; it rarely collocates with any other word. Although she was found guilty, the jury felt there were .(O'Dell & McCarthy, 2008) A few other examples: is very formal. (meaning: unpleasant weather) collocates almost exclusively with weather. She has auburn hair. Auburn collocates only with words connected with hair (e.g. curls, tresses, locks). I felt .(meaning: extremely happy) is strongly associated with , but not used with , etc. The chairperson .(meaning: is very strongly associated with and . (O'Dell & McCarthy, 2008) Fixed collocations: All are Fixed collocations are collocations so strong that they cannot be changed in any way. For example, we can say (meaning I was walking in one

128 NSOU ?PGEL 5 & 6 direction and then in the opposite direction, a repeated number of times). No other words can replace or in this collocation. It is completely fixed. The meaning of some fixed collocations cannot be guessed from the individual words. These collocations are called idioms. Elaborate lists of idioms are made available to the language users in Mobile downloadable applications. L2 learners can make use of these applications on their Mobile devices. Weak collocations, which comprise a number of co-occurrences that are descriptive and literally meaningful, and easily inferred, such as a etc. Medium-strength collocations, which can be weak, such as, or , Latinate Collocations:This subcategory of collocation is highly formal, and infuses a tone of gravity into the expression. For example: this is a problem- social, economic and political. This is a . This is . Milton spoke of writing his pastoral elegy with ' '. Poets like Milton and Wordsworth preferred this type of Latinate Collocations to add a note of poignancy or seriousness to their poetic texts: we find in both the poets' works a bristling use of with Noun as Base followed by adjectival collocates or in cases, placement of a Noun between two adjectives; for example, in Wordsworth's poem, The Solitary Reaper; in Milton's Lycidas, a pastoral elegy. In fine, Benson and Ilson (1986) separate collocations into two principal categories: grammatical collocations and lexical collocations. Grammatical collocations are content words, such as a noun, a verb or an adjective plus the infinitive or a preposition. Lexical collocations do not contain infinitives and prepositions : State whether the following collocations are restricted or open a. A brave soldier b. Pretty girl c. Job market d. Express admiration e. Close friends Your answer: The constituents of the two groups in their basic patterns- and are as follows:

129 NSOU ? PGEL 5 & 6 Grammatical Collocations Lexical Collocations Noun + Preposition Noun + Noun Adjective + Preposition Verb + Adverb Preposition + Noun Verb + Noun Grammatical Collocations Examples: Noun + Preposition: extend to, abide by, consultation with Adjective + Preposition: good at, Preposition + Noun: at night, by the morning, from dawn till dusk Lexical Collocations Examples: Noun + Noun: a bit of advice, a flock of sheep, a bouquet of flowers Verb + Adverb: Appreciate sincerely, participate whole heartedly Verb + Noun: reject an appeal, withdraw a plan : Say whether the following are Grammatical collocation or Lexical collocation? a) Chair a meeting b) Argue heartedly c) Close a deal d) Draw a conclusion e) In advance f) Come to the point g) By accident h) Dismiss an offer Your answer: : Identify the collocation from the following sentences and mention the type. They are angry at the children They are hungry for the news : Mention the patterns for the following lexical collocations a) Deeply absorbed b) An article of clothing c) Best regards d) Strong tea

130 NSOU ?PGEL 5 & 6 e) To be afraid that Your answer: To conclude, we have seen that there are several ways to classify collocations. Nevertheless, the most frequently applied classifications use the construct of lexical and grammatical collocations, followed by a taxonomy of unique, strong and weak collocations and their ramifications as set up by the linguists. 1. What is Collocation? 2. What are the varieties of Collocation? 3. Write a note on the significance of Collocation. 4. What is a lexical Collocation? 5. What is a grammatical collocation? 6. How are these two different? 7. Give two examples of strong collocations 8. Why do we call some collocations weak? 9. Can we call idioms as collocations? 10. What is the difference between a collocation and an idiom? 11. Collocation is important for L2 or FL learners (Second Language Learners or Foreign Language Learners). Give reasons to justify this statement. 12. All Idioms are Fixed Collocations. Explain with examples. 13. What are the differences between Lexical Collocation and Grammatical Collocation? 14. Compare and contrast 0pen and Restricted Collocation with suitable examples. 15. Collocations are arbitrary and non-predictable. How would you look at the statement. Do you support this view? 16. Write a note on Latinate Collocation. 17. Define the following terms and provide examples of their usages: a. Collocate or Collocators; b. Base or Node.

131 NSOU ? PGEL 5 & 6 Lee. (2002). Oxford: Oxford University Press Lewis. M, (1993). London: Cengage ELT. Mac Carthy, M and F. O'Dell, (2017). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press Oxford Collocations Dictionary 2002.
? We have already learnt that a collocation is a frequently occurring combination of two or more words which sounds natural and is tonally consonant with the native flair and competence of speaking and writing in English . If someone says, 'she's got yellow hair', they would probably be understood, but it is not what would ordinarily be said in English. We should rather say, 'She's got blond hair' or simply, 'She is a blond.' In other words, yellow does not collocate with hair in everyday English. Yellow collocates with, say, flowers or paint. Collocations are not just a matter of how adjectives combine with nouns. They can refer to any kind of typical word combinations, for example, verb + noun (e.g. arouse someone's interest, lead a seminar), adverb + adjective (e.g. fundamentally different), adverb + verb (e.g. flatly deny/contradict), noun + noun (e.g. a lick of paint, a team of experts, words of wisdom). There is much more about different grammatical types of collocation. Identify the V+ N structures from the following. a. Keep the change b. Keep clam c. Keep in touch d. Keep a secret e. Keep someone's place 132

133 NSOU ? PGEL 5 & 6 Your answer: At the end of the Unit, learners will be ? Familiar with different types of collocations, ? Able to use these collocations in their writing, ? Able to appreciate the aesthetic value of collocations in their speech. and learning, Collocations contribute to Collocations make the Second Language Learners [L2] aware of used by native speakers in speech and writing. An English teacher's common experience is that learners have difficulties with both lexical and grammatical collocations in their speaking and writing. In language courses, if teaching the collocations is underplayed, what is most likely to happen is: 1. Complex ideas will take long involute expressions rather than being put simply and precisely. 2. The fewer are the collocations made known to the L2 learners, the more are they compelled to use longer expressions and run into the pitfalls of grammatical errors and unusual phrasing [to communicate responses and information that a native speaker would have expressed with a felicity of precise lexical phrase and correspondingly little grammatical mistakes. Collocation errors abound in the writings and utterances of English language learners. Two major factors that contribute to miscollocations are learners' lack of exposure to the English language and the interference of their mother tongue (such as subject verb agreement with number and person). Collocation errors are of different types, with Lexical miscollocation and prepositional miscollocation being the two common types. The term 'lexicon' refers to the words used in a language. A collocation, by definition, is the co-occurrence of lexical items, the base and the collocate. In the case of , food is the base and fast is the collocate. Similarly, in , rain is the base and heavy is the collocate. The use of the collocate in a collocation

134 NSOU ?PGEL 5 & 6 is restricted by the base. Here are some common lexical collocation errors: In British English, some verbs that collocate with the base are and in American English, the verbs that collocate with the base are It is said that mastering prepositions is a challenge for the non-native speakers of English. In traditional approaches to grammar the appropriacy of prepositions to the base word is grouped under the title: APPROPRIATE PREPOSITIONS. O'Dell and McCarthy refer to certain examples given below: Evelyn Waugh(O'Dell & McCarthy, 2008). This is presented in the tabular form; Acceptable Not acceptable Deprived of: Denied from: The employees are deprived of their freedom Denied of: Deprived from: Prisoners were denied of their rights by the jail warden Suffer from: Suffer with: The Cambridge Learner Corpus, a corpus of language for students shows which kinds of collocation errors learners, especially L2 learners tend to make. These corpora show that there are many thousands of collocations in English, and many more miscollocations in speech and writing of the L2 learners.

135 NSOU ? PGEL 5 & 6 Error analysis in collocation may serve as an effective tool to improve L2 writing proficiency. Recent studies indicate that the sense of as well as its implications for teaching strategies for the L2 learners can be a compensating and moderating factor in SLA. For example, Richards (1971) claims that error analysis is a technique to identify the sources and causes of the learners' errors and to access information on general problems in language learning as an aid to language teaching. Lewis does not entirely reject grammar. He offers the importance of vocabulary in Lexical Approach. In his view, grammar is important in so far as it consolidates the lexical approach in teaching. Therefore, it is not the case to substitute grammar teaching with vocabulary teaching, but that both should be present in teaching a foreign language. A proper synthesis of lexical and grammatical approaches is conducive to learning English for the L2 learners or for SLA. Lewis (1997) holds that lexical approach is not simply a shift of emphasis from grammar to vocabulary teaching, as 'language consists not of traditional grammar and vocabulary, but often of multi-word prefabricated chunks'. Chunks include collocations, fixed and semi-fixed expressions and idioms, which in his view, occupy a crucial role in facilitating language production, being the key to fluency. Smith (2007) contends that remembering and using vocabulary is easier in the form of collocations. As Lewis (2000) points out, knowing a word is much more a case of knowing and than He exemplifies ' ' and ' ', the difference being only their collocational range, for example ' ' but not . Gitsaki (1996) underscores the importance of the study of collocation in tandem with grammar. At a deeper level of language lexis and grammar cannot be separated. They are intertwined.Consequently, the two categories - lexical and grammatical collocations - represent two distinctive but related aspects of one phenomenon. Grammatical collocations usually consist of a noun, an adjective or a verb plus a preposition or a grammatical structure such as 'to+infinitive' or 'that-clause', e.g etc. Lexical collocations do not contain grammatical elements, but are combinations of nouns, adjectives, verbs, adverbs such as (Bahns, 1993). A grammatical collocation, in contrast to a lexical collocation, is a phrase that consists of a noun, an adjective, or a verb plus a preposition or grammatical structure such as an infinitive or clause (Benson et al., 1986). Generally, , collocations that do not have translation equivalents in L1 have been demonstrated to present more difficulty for learners than which have L1 equivalents. Kaur and Hegelheimer (2005)

136 NSOU ?PGEL 5 & 6 examine whether the use of an online together with an by the advanced second language learners is useful in the transfer of word knowledge to an academic writing task. Their experiments and results indicate that there is statistically a significant transfer of vocabulary knowledge to the writing task. They state that formal writing in an academic setting required by the L2 learners to have a strong linguistic foundation, including a vast range of lexical skills. They call attention to the fact that the L2 learners do not have as much exposure to the target language as native speakers do. So they have a more limited command of the language as well as of vocabulary. Native speakers of English learn new words all their lives through interactions with other speakers and exposure to the language in formal and informal situations, but the L2 learners' exposure to and use of the target language is often limited. Miscollocation It is [shit] 1. It is . [dung] 2. Our company registered a in profit [steep/sharp/ high; last] 3. You will face a there. 4. Market leaders hope the new policies will .[stimulate/ promote] 5. He loves me . [deeply/passionately] 6. It is a in temperature. [marginal/slight] 7. Exports are now four times imports. [higher/greater] 8. We are gradually of the negative effects of climate change. [becoming] 9. My friend takes of the matter. [view] In the examples given above, grammar in terms of syntax and morphology, except in example 5, has not been sacrificed. Yet they are Miscollocation as they do not meet the native speaker/writer's usage and style. They sound awkward or unnatural or even amusing to the native speaker, although they may be understood. and provide the meanings of stem/entry words alongside illustrating each word'susage and collocations. Databases of language, known as , are used to correlate speech and text to identification of the most frequent collocations. It is a prudent approach to pick collocations from looking up word-entries in these dictionaries for a L2 or Second Language Learner.

137 NSOU ? PGEL 5 & 6 So, an awareness of collocation is if we intend to impress people with our natural and competent use of language and to score more credits in English examinations. [Following the standard collocation pattern, it is or not 'severely recommended'.] Collocational errors that the L2 learners are likely to commit are the transferences of L1 elements in their native language combinations which unfortunately are not always acceptable collocations in the target language. The L2 learners' lack of knowledge of collocational patterns of lexical items makes them prone to all sorts of collocational errors, which can be more disruptive in communication than grammatical errors From the traditional points of view of psychologists, linguists, and language teachers, in importance for successful language learning and treated as separate from grammar. While vocabulary studies are often back-seated, the value of vocabulary acquisition has been recently recognized (Allen, 1983;Laufer, 1986; Coady, 1997; Zimmerman, 1997, &Shand, 1999, Lewis (1993), as of prime importance in second language acquisition. Lewis (1993), one of the foremost scholars of ELT, shook the entire ELT world by stressing the importance of vocabulary in a broader area called . According to this approach, an essential part of language acquisition is the ability to comprehend and produce lexical patterns and phrases as chunks; these chunks become the raw data by which learners perceive patterns of language traditionally thought of as grammar (Lewis, 1993). Certainly, this approach distinguishes between groups of individual words with fixed meanings and lexis which refer to word combinations that are stored in our mental lexicon. Accordingly, the lexical approach has redirected our attention to institutionalized utterances and expressions including collocations which are necessary to acquire native-like competence in the second language. Identify wrongly used Collocations and mention the correct forms a) She insisted me that I take a few days off from my work. b) We explained the client the situation. c) The interview was broadcasted live over the internet. d) Never before had I seen something quite like that. e) She is trying to concentrate herself on finishing her degree. Identify common mistakes in emails and correct them. a) Thank you for bringing this to our notice. b) As asked for, I have added a purchase order. c) Please let me know if you require any extra assistance.

138 NSOU ?PGEL 5 & 6 d) Thank you for your fast response. Your answer: Answers for Task 2 a. She insisted that I take a few days off from my work. b. We explained the situation to the client. c. The interview was broadcast live over the internet. d. Never before I had seen something quite like that. e. She is trying to concentrate on finishing her degree. Answers for Task 3 a. Thank you for bring this to our attention. b. As requested I have added a purchase order. c. Please let me know if you require any additional assistance. d. Thank you for your prompt response. It is a synthetic approach to viewing collocations without any bias to their grammatical and lexical configurations. Studying different types of grammatical and lexical collocations provide insight into the order and pattern of their development in second language learning. By doing a systematic study and analysis of grammatical and lexical collocations, a second language learner can comprehend how collocations form an essential part of language as spoken and written. The following tables include all possible variations of collocations (O'Dell & McCarthy, 2008) Noun + noun collocations are descriptive Noun Phrases usually signifying a group or set or cluster of something. It may also refer to quantity, as Examples: from the angry audience • Noun + noun collocations are also used with uncountable nouns:

139 NSOU ? PGEL 5 & 6 drew up a contract Our agent drew up a contract for us pass up chance She does not want to pass up the chance of take advantage I failed to of works medicine No medicine works to arrest the growth of the tumor. arrest growth opportunity arose An opportunity arose for me to Ph. D courses at IIT feel; have fallen/slipped People feel educational have fallen/slipped OTHER EXAMPLES: hardboiled egg Hardboiled egg is not little girl This little girl is small machine This small machine will not / OTHER EXAMPLES: etc. vale profound "O listen! for the Vale profound Is overflowing with the sound"[Wordsworth: The Solitary Reaper] meadows trim with daisies pied" [Milton: L'Allegro]

140 NSOU ?PGEL 5 & 6 Intensely; personal;attractive; Lyric proper is an intensely personal stunningly; highly; inflammable; sick; account of the writer's severely; improved [past relationship with his sons.She is a technologically. participle form] stunningly attractive . highly inflammable; severely sick; technologically improved etc. miserably Whenever I tried to recklessly write a poem, I failed into singing/into a song miserably. into an accident Never drive recklessly, if you don't want to run into an accident. Looking at the moon-blanched seashore, she burst into singing/a song The dog is foaming at the mouth; I apprehend [not expect] that it will not survive.

141 NSOU ? PGEL 5 & 6 forced Fingers rude I come to pluck your ,And with forc'd fingers rude [Milton:] sad Occasion Dear Bitter constraint and sad occasion dear Compels me to disturb your [Milton:] : Don't be upset over what has happened; . It's time you and look to the future. Identify the adjective noun collocations from the following: a) The names are listed in alphabetical order. b) Success depends on a clear understanding of the problem. c) Beyond this close circle are more distant relatives and casual friends. d) I couldn't see familiar faces in the room. e) For the spoken language, students are taught by the native speakers. Your answer: [Except the simple present and simple past all collocating verbs are of the tenses] : Do-Verb

142 NSOU ?PGEL 5 & 6 Is done Have done Will do Should do Are done Has done Should be done Is being done Has been done Shall do Should have done Are being done Have to do Will be done Should have been Is to be done Has to do Shall be done done Have to be done Would do Has to be done Would have done Will be doing Would have been Shall be doing done Had done Will have to do Could do Had been done Shall have to do Could be done [italicized verb- Could have done collocations in this Could have been group are obsolete] done Might do Might be done Might have done Might have been done Identify the verb collocations a) 'You and me, today we are going to break a record,' he said. b) The committee had made serious objections to that plan. c) It is easy to make a mistake. d) The old man is going to go crazy. e) You get wet in the rain. Your answer: It is not easy to separate from Both items form an important part of the vocabulary studies. Logically compounds are to be considered a type of collocation which is fixed and hyphenated in case of repeated letters in the coalescing two parts of a compound, that is, the last letter of

143 NSOU ? PGEL 5 & 6 the constituent first part and the initial letter of the second part. For example, the word co-occurrence is a compound,with a hyphen between co and occurrence. If it is , the same rule applies to it. but if it is , no hyphen comes between co and existence. In the US variant of English compound as an extension of collocation, this law of hyphenation in compound is not followed. We have to keep it in mind that natural lexical collocations are not always logical. They have taken shape through popular native use. (O'Dell & McCarthy, 2008) Questions are a galore in any incisive and comprehensive study of vocabulary in terms of the parentheses of Collocation, Idiom and Phrase. In the next two units will unfold the myriad facets of these Lexi-grammatical categories of collocations. The collocations presented in this Module are selected largely from those identified as significant by the CANCODE corpus of spoken English, developed at the University of Nottingham in association with Cambridge University Press, and the Cambridge International Corpus of written and spoken English (now known as the Cambridge English Corpus). In discussing the problems and aspects of collocations, idioms and phrases in a continuum, we have to take into consideration the following questions: ? ? We need to be familiar with collocations because, 1. They help us speak and write English in a natural and appropriate way. We are not supposed to use,"I was held up or stranded in this morning, although it communicates in some way the intended meaning but our language sounds unnatural to the point of confusing the listener. 2. Learning collocations will also help us increase our range of English vocabulary.

144 NSOU ?PGEL 5 & 6 For example, we will come up with a set of vocabulary to avoid words like or or or , and pick a word that fits the context better and has a more precise meaning. 3. This is particularly useful if we go in for a written examination in English and want to make a good impression on the examiners. In advanced level examinations, marks are often specifically awarded for the appropriate handling of collocations. 4. Skilled users of the language may choose to create effects by varying the normal patterns of collocation, with the aim of either startling or amusing their audience. This technique is particularly popular with poets, journalists and advertisers. From an appreciation of the way in which creative writers play with language, we may then even want to move on to use words in more original and creative ways ourselves. We are more likely to be able to do this effectively if we have assimilated the standard patterns of language use. In this unit we have looked at collocations and their place in language use. We have shown how collocations add to the flavour of the language we use. However, learning collocations is a conscious effort and this is demonstrated by illustrating a few miscollocations that we often slip upon. Collocations are words that bind together and their relationship cannot be ignored. Further, we have classified the collocations into various groups based on their composition and stability. Based on stability, we have two types: strong and weak collocations. These help us in honing our ability to write and speak better. 1. Collocations play a centrally important role in second language acquisition: Justify. 2. What are the metaphoric, symbolic and transfigural overtones of collocation? 3. What are the difficulties faced by the second language learners in choosing the right and appropriate collocations? 4. Distinguish between lexical miscollocations and grammatical miscollocations. . Complete the collocations using the words in the box. Adjourn | auburn| broad| deliriously | inclement | mitigating | picturesque [some words may be used more than once]

145 NSOU ? PGEL 5 & 6 a. an.......accent b. in........agreement c. ....circumstances d. ....factors e. ....hair f. ....happy g. ....a smile h. ....a location i. ....a meeting j. ....a town k. ....a trial l. ....weather 6. Rewrite each sentence using a collocation from 1. a. Melissa has quite a strong . b. led to the cancellation of the President's garden party. c. We were all very happy when we heard we'd . d. Their new home was in a very . e. Because there were that made the theft less serious, the judge let him off with a warning. f. I think we should now and continue it tomorrow. g. She had a on her face when she arrived. h. She has lovely . i. I think we're generally as to what should be done. Think of as many collocations as you can for each word. 7. Choose an English-language text that you have worked on recently. Underline five collocations in it. Are these collocations weak, strong or fixed? 8. Choose any ten collocations that are most important to you and make sentences with them. 9. Choose from the given text and underline five collocations in it. Are these collocations weak, strong or fixed? 'There is, for example, no obvious reason why we say making friends rather than getting friends or heavy rain, not strong rain. Learners also need to know when specific collocations are appropriate. This is usually referred to by linguists as knowing which register to use. Alight from a bus is a formal collocation used in notices and other official contexts. In everyday situations we would, of course, always talk about getting off a bus.' 10. How would you distinguish between and ? Vocabulary as part of a content is considered a critical aspect of foreign language learners. A limited range of vocabulary in a second language impedes the flow of communication. Lexical knowledge is central to communicative competence and to the acquisition of a second language. The correlation between vocabulary knowledge and language practice is complementary. Knowledge of vocabulary enables [ALC] and the use of language expands the horizon of vocabulary stock. Therefore, there is a symbiotic relationship between possessing good vocabulary and language competence. At the end of this unit, the learners will: a. Understand the importance of learning vocabulary, b. Become familiar with some strategies to learn vocabulary, c. Understand the differences between collocations, idioms and phrases, d. Understand the importance of collocations, idioms and phrases in learning vocabulary. 146

147 NSOU ? PGEL 5 & 6 In classroom, the gifted learners possess both the appropriacy and the sufficiency of vocabulary. Researchers such as Laufer and Nation (1997); Maximo (2000); Read (2000; 2004); Marion (2008); Susanto (2016); and Nation (2001) among others hold that the acquisition of vocabulary is more essential than grammar learning for achieving competence in the use of foreign language as spoken and written by the native users. Learning vocabulary plays a crucial role in all language skills, e.g. listening, speaking, reading, and writing. The acquisition of an adequate vocabulary is essential for successful foreign language use because without an extensive vocabulary, a language learner will be unable to use the structures and functions that go into the production of intelligible communication. The lack of vocabulary knowledge is the largest barrier to readers to manage the production and comprehension of English as a second/foreign language. When language learners travel, they do not carry grammar books, but dictionaries. Many researchers argue that vocabulary is one of the most important components in learning a foreign language. A second language curriculum should necessarily reflect a due weight on vocabulary studies. There is not much value in being able to produce grammatical sentences if one runs short of expressive vocabulary needed to convey what one wishes to say. Without grammar very little can be conveyed, without vocabulary nothing can be conveyed. Maximo (2000) states a number of reasons for directing our attention to vocabulary. ? First, a large vocabulary is, of course, essential for masteryof a language. ? Secondly, language acquirers know this; they carry dictionaries with them, not grammar books, and regularly report that the lack of vocabulary is a major problem. ? Thirdly, vocabulary has been acknowledged as the language learners' greatest single cause of problems (Meara, 1980). An open-endedness of is a necessity in teaching and learning the second/foreign language. Vocabulary is by far the most sizeable segment of SLA to cope with in examinations as well as in everyday communications across the borders. ? Fourthly, unlike syntax or phonology, vocabulary does not have a set of rules for the language learners to follow in order to acquire and develop their knowledge. In other words, it is not clear in vocabulary learning which rules apply or which vocabulary items should be learned first. Although, many

148 NSOU ?PGEL 5 & 6 experiments have been conducted to select and grade vocabulary to be learnt, since 1905. Vocabulary learning management [VLM] also poses a challenge to the L2 learners of any language, because of different and diverse meanings that may go with a single word-item. Despite these difficulties, vocabulary has traditionally been one of the language components measured in language tests. Furthermore, many learners see second language acquisition [SLA] as essentially a matter of learning vocabulary and therefore the second language learners spend a great deal of time on memorizing lists of words and rely on their bilingual dictionaries as a basic communicative resource. It may be safely concluded that language teachers and applied linguists now generally recognize the importance of vocabulary learning and are exploring ways of promoting it more effectively. - There are two types of contexts. The first type is the , which includes morphological, semantic and syntactic information in a specific text. The second one is the , or , which is the background knowledge the reader has about the subjects being studied. Learning from context not only includes learning from extensive reading, but also learning from taking part in a conversation, and learning from listening to stories, films, television or the radio. In order to activate guessing in a written or spoken text, there should be available:

149 NSOU ? PGEL 5 & 6 The absence of word annotations or glossaries appended to the given text is of one of these elements that may adversely affect the learner's ability to guess. Moreover, this technique encourages learners to take risks and guess the meanings of words they do not know as much as possible. This helps them build up their self-confidence so that they can work out the meanings of words when they are on their own. There are many clues learners can use to establish meanings for themselves, such as contextuality, illustrations, similarity of spelling or sound in the mother tongue, and general knowledge. :State the type of context clues from the following: a) Is/ are known as/ are called/ are defined as Restatement b) In other words, that is to say Definition c) For instance, like, especially, such as Contrast d) Yet, however, whereas, but Cause and effect e) Because, therefore, so, because, Example f) My neighbour is so affluent that he can afford Inference expensive sports car each year. Your answer: : Name the content clues from the examples: a. After a year in India, she ran out of money. So she had to look for a job. b. Hari loves reading fiction but Manish despises it. c. She was bored of the vapid discussions. d. During the day, we sometimes saw animals such as elephants and foxes. e. A pseudonym or penname is used to hide the identity of the writer. f. Pragmatics is the study of how people use language in social situations. Your answer: Answers for Task 1: a-definition, b-restatement, c-example, d-contrast, e-cause effect, f-inference. Answers for Task 2: a-cause effect, b-contrast, c-inference, d-example, e-restatement, f-definition Strategies are communicative procedures that learners use in order to learn and use language. Strategies also involve mental reactions and assumptions in the learning process. Learning strategies are the thoughts and actions that individuals use to accomplish a Subekti and Lawson (2007) plead for the effectiveness

150 NSOU ?PGEL 5 & 6 of the application of certain vocabulary learning strategies that provide empirical evidence of the role of AAVin mastering new words by a second language learner. Oxford (2003) more specifically states that learning strategies are tools for active, self-directed involvement, which is essential for developing communicative competence. An appropriate language learning strategy should result in a greater self-confidence of the second language learner. Producing academic essays is different from writing personal accounts because the former requires transforming knowledge. The L2 learners have to be aware of how to process information and transfer it by using effective vocabulary. Therefore, if the learners do not have a broad range of productive and academic vocabulary knowledge, they are not expected to produce the types of writings required from them in an academic set-up.Granger (1998), Howarth (1998), and Nesselhauf (2003) also conducted studies in which they analysed the writings of the advanced L2 learners. They identified deficiencies in learners' writing production. It is noteworthy that only Howarth was dealing specifically with academic vocabulary collocations. However, researchers and scholars in the field of ELT conclude that the learners' lack of knowledge of collocations affect the learners' writing competence. These scholars' researches funnel to the point that learners across all levels of L2 face difficulty in collocating words. Indeed, there exists a strong linear correlation between writing proficiency and using collocations.The development of the L2 learners' collocational competence contributes to the improvement not only of communicative competence but also of their writing abilities. : Select the verbs that collocate with the following paradigms: Clue- come, take, make, break, keep, and have. A promise A mistake An exam A promise Prepared A lecture A record An offer A vacation In touch On time A dream Someone's A decision A decision A journal To power A discussion heart Up An effort A chance In mind Early In mind Down Payment Care Safe To a stop A break Even A choice Advice Away To an end A party A leg Clear A picture Records close A meeting Your answer:

151 NSOU ? PGEL 5 & 6 We need a notebook or file to write down the collocations that we find or hear from all possible sources that include prescribed texts, web-resources, tutors, audio- visual aids, books and journal articles alongside a good usage-illustrative dictionary like the or or At the level of grammar and lexis, are also types within the ambit of collocation. As mentioned earlier, when a particular collocation generates meaning beyond the literal frame, it becomes an idiom or phrase with extra-literal, metaphoric or figural meaning. There is only a semantic difference of meaning between collocation and idiom or phrase. In other words, when Collocation eclipses its literal frame of meaning to take on extra-literal idiomatic, metaphoric and figural charges, we enter the transformational arena of collocation in terms of idiom and verbal phrase. To begin with, we may refer to Wordsworth's use of 'see into' in one of the very suggestive lines in his poem, . He says: With an eye made quiet by the power of harmony/ we the life of things. At the level of grammar, placement of after the transitive verb 'see' is not permissible. Seeing is done by the eye. So addition of 'an eye' to is apparently a flaw of redundancy. Yet Wordsworth makes an excellent innovative, poetic and figural use of SEE INTO in the context this collocation appears breaking the established and antecedent rules of grammar. Wordsworth collocates in order to signify the pantheist vision of or insight into the spirit of a trans-singular, absolute oneness that permeates the contraries and diversities of the universe. This Wordsworthian collocation is not necessarily a poet's exclusive prerogative while it may coextend to any creative user of language without affecting the of language. Let us review a few phrasal verbs and compound nouns as types of collocation. O'Dell and McCarthy provide some very apposite examples we cite here. They are: Phrasal verbs such as and compound nouns such as . As to the formation of these types of phrasal verbs and compounds there is no rationale as admitted by the foremost scholars and linguists.

152 NSOU ?PGEL 5 & 6 (O'Dell & McCarthy, 2008) : Give the meanings for the following idioms: a. Hit the sack b. Buy a lemon c. Eat crow d. Down-to-earth e. Pull yourself together Your answer: Task 5: Identify- noun+ noun combination or compound noun? a. Homework b. Password c. Air conditioner d. Orange juice e. Cheese burger f. Runner-up Your answer: Answer for Task 4: a) go to bed. b) to buy something that doesn't work well, c) to have to admit that you made a mistake, d) sensible and realistic, e) clam down This unit focuses on developing the vocabulary skills of L2 learners, that is, the learners of English as the second language. It also introduces you to the lexical orientation of language learning for the L2 learners rather than the traditional grammatical tilt.

153 NSOU ? PGEL 5 & 6 (O'Dell & McCarthy, 2008) 1. Match the two parts: BASE and COLLOCATE of the following. (O'Dell & McCarthy, 2008) 1. adhere to.......................................rain 2. arouse..different 3. blond... of wisdom 4. come up with...............................your principles 5. flatly... an economy drive 6. fundamentally...............................a seminar 7. go on ....someone's interest 8. heavy... contradict 9. lead... hair 10. a lick... the stock market 11. play... of paint 12. words....................................... a suggestion 2. Write F (formal), I (informal) or N (neutral) in the brackets at the end of each sentence. In each pair of sentences, there is one neutral sentence and one formal / informal sentence. Underline the collocations that are noticeably formal or informal. 1. a. Passengers must not alight from the bus while it is in motion. (¨formal/¨ informal) b. Passengers must not get off the bus while it is moving. (¨formal/¨ informal) 2. a. Let's grab a bite before we get down to work. (¨ formal/¨ informal) b. Let's have something to eat before we start work. (¨ formal/ ¨ informal) 3. a. SFTS has the right to bring the agreement to an end with three months' notice. (¨formal/ ¨ informal)

154 NSOU ?PGEL 5 & 6 b. SFTS reserves the right to terminate the agreement with three months' notice. (¨formal/ ¨ informal) 4. a. She thinks her boyfriend is planning to pop the question tonight. (¨formal/¨ informal) b. She thinks her boyfriend is planning to ask her to marry him tonight. (¨formal/¨ informal) 3. Choose which collocations are most important to you and make sentences with them. Choose an English-language text that you have worked on recently. Underline five collocations in it. Are these collocations weak, strong or fixed? 4. How would you justify that idioms, phrasal verbs and compound nouns are also subtypes within the ambit of Collocation. 5. 'There exists a strong linear correlation between writing proficiency and using collocations.' Discuss. 6. Discuss the difference between and . 7. Write a note on . 8. What are the factors that may adversely affect the learner's ability to guess or effectively assume meaning from a given text? 9. In vocabulary study how effective is the Assumptive Acquirement of Vocabulary [AAV]- teaching vocabulary through guessing from context? 10.List down a number of reasons for directing our attention to vocabulary study. 11.Do you think that the lexical orientation of language learning for the L2 learners rather than the traditional grammatical tilt is more important? If so, state the reasons. 1. Felicity O'Dell &Michael McCarthy, 2008. : . Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. 2. Thornbury Scott. – London: Pearson Longman. 2002 3. Nation I S P (2005). In Hinkel, E Abingdon; Routledge ? Goose Egg Idioms Both idioms and phrasal verbs are collocational transfiguration/ displaced duplication of the constituent words from their literal or dictionary meanings to non-literal signification. In other words, idioms and phrasal verbs are figurative word combinations. Therefore the range of idioms and phrasal verbs are enormous. It is advisable to directly access the rich store of idioms and phrasal verbs though several mobile applications. The objective of unit 16 is to introduce the learner to: ? review idioms and verbal phrases in the backdrop of Collocations, 155

156 NSOU ?PGEL 5 & 6 ? MWEs ( ), ? the terms of references to idioms, ? the terms of references to verbal phrase. Language as we experience on a daily basis is largely 'formulaic', or 'prefabricated', rather than completely or , word-by- word. In English, we tend to wish someone a , rather than other plausible possibilities, such as a . Despite the potentially infinite creativity of language, a large number of words tend to co- occur with some particular words more often than with other words, seemingly synonymous ones, and those combinations and re-combinations often appear to be in the native speaker's mental lexicon. These recurrent and preponderant word combinations – which we usually call Collocations – are essentially multi-word expressions (MWEs). MWEs can be defined as semi-fixed, recurrent phrases, such as collocations (strong tea), binomials (black and white), multi-word verbs (put up with), idioms (spill the beans), proverbs (better late than never), speech formulae (What's up), lexical bundles (in the middle of), and other types. MWEs are combinations of words that co-occur more often than would be expected by chance alone (Manning and Schutze 1999).Crucially, MWEs are pervasive in language. Identify the multiword expressions 1. Safe and sound 2. In the context of 3. Sick and tired 4. A number of studies 5. Wait and see 6. All's well that ends well 7. Pros and Cons Your answer:

157 NSOU ? PGEL 5 & 6 There are many dimensions of idiomaticity. Attempts to provide categorical, single- criterion definitions of idioms are always to some degree misleading. In linguistic discourses and lexicographical practices, 'idiom' is applied to a category defined on the one hand by the prototypical examples like , and on the other by implicit opposition to related categories like formulae, fixed phrases, collocations, clichés, sayings, proverbs, and allusions— terms which, like 'idiom' itself, inhabit the intermediate realm between meta-language and the theoretical terminology of linguistics. By virtue of these oppositions, idioms occupy a region in a multidimensional lexical space, characterized by a number of distinct properties: semantic, syntactic, discursive, and rhetorical. When we say that an expression like or is a prototypical idiom, for example, we are probably making that judgment on the basis of a number of more-or-less of the phrase. Among them more remarkable are these: : Idioms are conventionalized: their meaning or use cannot be predicted, or at least entirely predicted, on the basis of knowledge of the independent conventions that determine the use of their constituents when they appear in isolation from one another. : Idioms typically appear only in a limited number of syntactic frames or constructions, unlike freely composed expressions (e.g. *the breeze was shot, *the breeze is hard to shoot, etc.). : Idioms typically involve metaphors (, metonymies ( ), hyperboles ( ), or other kinds of figuration. Of course speakers may not always perceive the precise motive for the figure involved—why should be used to mean 'chat', for example, or to mean 'die'—but they generally perceive that some form of figuration is involved, at least to the extent of being able to assign to the idiom a ' meaning'. C.F. Hockett explains, Every language retains idioms with the specialized features in linguistic forms. Idiom is functional and is one of the manifold figurative speeches in linguistics. It is commonly being used by the people of a particular region or country for informal and formal, spoken and written purposes. And yet, while trying to define the idiom, it still remains to be complicated and tough to debate upon a precise scope or limitation of it even today.

158 NSOU ?PGEL 5 & 6 According to Hockett, " ". Interestingly, all idioms dislocate the constituent words from their localized literal meaning. Given any such novelty, either of expression or of circumstances or of both, the event or context of their origin " ." : Analyse the following idioms according to their characteristics: a. Up in the air b. Break a leg c. Kill two birds with one stone d. Two to tango e. On cloud nine Your answer: a. The meaning of the idiom is partly reflected from its constituents. This idiom means that the situation being planned is still undecided, and that everything is still uncertain or unsure. This has rhetoric features. b. This is an idiom that can freely occur with expressions. Break a leg is a wish of good luck to theatre performers before going on stage, due to the belief amongst those in theatre that being wished "good luck" is a curse. The meaning is total opposite for what it seems to mean. This has discursive characteristics. c. When you kill two birds with one stone, a single action knocks out two tasks or responsibilities— accomplish two different things at the same time. The meaning is flexible as it can occur with unlimited expressions. d. The idiom is a figuration, where the meaning is predicted from its constituents. It literally does take two to tango. You can't dance the tango unless you have a partner. But this idiom means that if there's a suspicious situation, then there's more than one culprit. e. If you are in cloud nine you are very happy. For example, I was in cloud nine after receiving the news of my promotion. This is a conventional idiom as the meaning is derived from the individual words.

159 NSOU ? PGEL 5 & 6 Idiom is the transfiguration of Collocation — words commonly used in a group — that through usage changes the literal and semantic definition of each of the words that exists within its lexical parenthesis. The collocated/collocating words develop an accepted socialized meaning as a whole and an idiom is born. John Saeed defines " ." (Saeed, 2003). According to the detailed introduction of the (the rest: ODEI), " pure idioms word-combinations ." Idiom is generally known by the common specialized form which is different from the literal meaning in a sentence. However, an etymological analysis is preferable to begin with the definition of idioms. Thus ' -' and '- ' are two parts of the word 'idiom'. The former denotes one's own, separate, or distinct ENTITY; the latterforming a noun is a substantive suffix indicating the result of verbal action. The term IDIOM, therefore, denotes 'peculiarity', especially 'peculiarity in language'. It was originally derived from Greek ' -' and ' ' and then Latin word ' '. At last it was derived directly from the French word ' ' in late 16th century. Roodbergen defines "idioms as a technical term for any complex formation, word, phrase or sentence whose meaning cannot be explained on the basis of its constituents." The introduction in ODEI sheds light on this issue, "The best known approach to the definition of idiomaticity, and one which linguists as well as dictionary-makers have helped to popularize, fastens on the difficulty of interpreting idioms in terms of the meanings of their constituent words. Definitions such as the following are representative of this approach: ? Groups of words with set meaning that cannot be calculated by adding up the separate meanings of the parts. ? Peculiarity of phraseology having meaning not deducible from those of the separate words. In addition, Radha Madhab states "idioms-formation in a spoken language indicates a lively way of expressing the specific ideas under specific environs. And these idiomatic expressions, be they semantically excellent or structurally peculiar ones with inordinate audio-effect on the hearers, constitute the idiomatic character of a given expression." In the parallel manner, Ramachandrudu comments, "an idiom is defined as a form of

160 NSOU ?PGEL 5 & 6 expression, construction, phrase etc., peculiar to a language, a peculiarity of phraseology approved by usage and often having a meaning other than its grammatical or logical one." The following Five significant definitions more or less cover different views on the definition of idioms: 1. The language or dialect of a people, region, and class are indicative of culture and local colour etc. 2. The usual way in which the words of a language are joined to gether toexpress thought. 3. An accepted phrase, construction or expression contrary to the usual patterns of the language or having a meaning different from the literal. 4. The style of expression that is characteristic of an individual; such as the idiom of Carlyle. 5. A characteristic style as in art or music. 1. Corpus linguistics 2. Usage-illustrative dictionaries like The Cambridge International Dictionary; Advanced learners Dictionary; Mobile Apps of Vocabulary, Idioms and Phrases. A phrasal verb is a verb that is made up of a together with an adverbial or a preposition, or both. Typically, their meaning is not obvious from the meanings of the individual words themselves. For example: looked down on broke out see to put off spelled out For instance, in the first example, the phrasal verb 'to look down on someone' doesn't mean that you are looking down from a higher place at someone who is below you; it means that you think that you are better than someone. : Identify the Phrasal Verb and its constituents a. They had to Account For all the money that had gone missing. b. The rest of the staff Backed her Up when she complained about working conditions.

161 NSOU ? PGEL 5 & 6 c. She Breezed Through her exams. d. I'm going home to Catch Up On my sleep. e. I really Dropped him In It when I told them what he'd done. Your answer: Phrasal verbs can be of two types as showed in the figure below: Examples of intransitive verbs (verbs with no object): broke up . set off . pulled up . Examples of transitive verbs (verbs which can have an object): break up sets off pulled down The verb and adverb elements/ particles which make up intransitive phrasal verbs are never separated: ? broke up . ? broke up. The consecutive placement of the constituentsis different with transitive verbs,

162 NSOU ?PGEL 5 & 6 however. If the direct object is a noun, you may say: ? pulled down. [direct object] ? pulled down But there is a difference between two uses. When the object is sandwiched between the verb and the particle/adverbial, the effect of the expression is emphatic. This is technically called . We often prefer split phrasal verb for emphasis of meaning. If the object is a (such), grammatically the object always comes between the verb and the adverb: ? pulled down. [direct object] ? pulled down As said earlier, a phrasal verb is a verb that comprises together with . Typically, their meanings do not conform to the literal meaning from meanings of the constituent individual words themselves. looked down on broke out see to put off spelled out In the first example, the phrasal verb 'turn off' means 'switch off'. 'to look down on someone' does not mean that we look down from a higher place at someone who is below ; it means that we feel that we are better than someone, or rather we despise someone. We can hone almost an inexhaustible store of idioms and phrases from Internet sources to enrich ourselves with exposure to idioms and phrasal verbs. : Transitive or Intransitive?

163 NSOU ? PGEL 5 & 6 What a pretty dress! Why don't you try it on? You're doing really well, so carry on like this. (continue) He started a university course but dropped out after one year. (left/stop participating) If you've got a good idea, bring it up at the meeting. My colleague and I get on really well. (have a good relationship) Pete and Sue had an argument but they've made up now. (reconcile) Did you get the tickets? No, they'd sold out. (sell all those available) Your Answer: two peas in a pod Practically identical in appearance. Those boys could be twins; they are like two peas in a pod. fan the flames Make a bad situation even worse. The president's racist comments are really going to fan the flames of hatred among the crowd. a hard nut to crack A problem that is difficult to solve. She's such a tough nut to crack. Nobody seems to be able to get through to her. turn against To change from supporting something to opposing it. A section of his supporters turned against him when they heard his latest speech on immigration.

164 NSOU ?PGEL 5 & 6 fight tooth and nail To fight very fiercely. I want this job so I'm going to fight tooth and nail for it. herculean task A task requiring huge amounts of physical strength. It will be a herculean task to get through to the quarter-finals, but this untested team is up for the challenge. call of duty Something you must do or feel compelled to do. Both of my grandfathers felt it was their call of duty to enlist immediately for active service when the war broke out. knotty problem Difficult or complex problem. The accountant always found the end of the tax year to be a knotty problem. when life gives you lemons Make the best out of a difficult situation. She tried to live by the motto 'when life gives you lemons, make lemonade.' topsy-turvy With the top at the bottom. Everything has been topsy-turvy since we moved in. I can't find anything until I unpack properly. ? zero ? nothing

165 NSOU ? PGEL 5 & 6 ? no score in a game ? lump appearing after a blow (usually on the head) ? swelling from being struck ? lay an egg ? We had a good game, but the score was goose egg. ? He answered every question wrong in the quiz and got a goose egg. ? The cricket ball hit him in the back of the head and an egg popped up immediately. ? The crowd were devastated that the game was a goose egg after 90 minutes. ? He could still see the egg on his forehead even though he'd brushed his hair over it. ? Last month's revenue for the company was a big goose egg. ? She was crying and replied that we had a goose egg in the project. ? Lots of companies laid goose eggs in 2020 due to the pandemic. ? My son scored 5 out of 10. Well, it's better than a goose egg. ? The teacher has given a big goose egg to Mathew in the test result. ? Is there anything you know when we search, and google returns Goose Egg Idioms The phrase is an American version of a British saying "duck egg" and it is widely used in the sports world. the earliest record of the phrase was most likely to be in the period between 1350 to 1400. In the US (American English) this is a late 19 th century, slang term for zero score in a sporting event or game. A is the failure of a team to score any points or goals. The phrase is derived from the shape of a goose egg looking like a zero. In a sentence it replaces the word zero. Before that, the British used or just to describe a lump or swelling that appears after a blow or hit, most often to the head. any large lump that has this shape is called an egg.

166 NSOU ?PGEL 5 & 6 In this unit we have looked at a variety of idioms and multi word expressions. The difference that exists between the two is clearly explained with examples. Further we have looked at idioms where the meaning of the component words changes sharply and a new meaning gets generated. Finally, we have examined a few phrasal verbs both in their transitive and intransitive forms. The unit concludes with a list of rich examples of some the idioms. 1. What are idioms? 2. How are idioms different from multi-word-expressions? 3. Give examples of some commonly used multi-word-expression. 4. Are there idioms in your language? 5. Compare five idioms from Bangla with their possible equivalents in English 6. What are collocations? 7. Do collocations offer special meaning like the idioms? 8. What strategies can we adopt to learn idioms, and collocations? 9. What are phrases? How many types of phrases do we have? 10. Give five examples of each type of phrase? 11. Can we split all the phrases? Give examples of phrases that can be split. Aghbar, A., 1990. s.l., s.n. Bahardoust, M. & Moeini, M. R., 2012. Lexical and grammatical collocations in writing production of EFL learners. 5(1), pp. 61-86. Bahns, J., 1993. Lexical collocations: A contrastive view. 47(1), pp. 56- 63. Bahns, J., 1993. Thessaloniki-Halkidiki, Greece, s.n., pp. 101-114. Benson, M. & Benson, E. e. a., 1986.

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Errors McArthur, T., 1992. Corpus. In: T. McArthur, ed. s.l.:Oxford, pp. 265-266. McKeown, K. R. & Radev, D. R., 1997. s.l.: Department of Computer Science, Columbia University. Nunberg, G., Sag, I. A. & Wasow, T., 1994. Idioms. 70(3), pp. 491-538. O'Dell, F. & McCarthy, M., 2008. Second Edition ed. s.l.:Cambridge University Press. Rayan, B. D. A. P., 2016. Common collocation errors: Collocation errors abound in the writings and utterances of English language learners. , 22 August. Saeed, J. I., 2003. Oxford: Blackwell.

168 NSOU ?PGEL 5 & 6 Siyanova-Chanturia, A. & Martinez, R., 2014. The idiom principle revisited. pp. 1-22. Tapanainen, P., Piitulainen, J. & Jairvinen, T., 1998. Helsinki, Finland, s.n., pp. 1289-1293. Here is a list of some useful books that will help you understand different aspects of vocabulary learning. 1. by Gillian Lazar; 2. by Rawdon Wyatt; 3. by Graham Workman et al.

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? Morphology in English will primarily focus on the basic norms and strategies of English word formation. Like all other modern languages English language is shown as a dynamic process of morphological construction, combination and linguistic mutation and permutation. This module will also focus upon the English words and their relationship with other foreign words and the words of the same language across the chronological paradigm. The central focus of the Module is upon the English word structures. The words have been analysed into parts and particles as different morphemes in contrast to the formation and functional aspects of the majority of English words. Subsequently, English word structures are demonstrated as word stems, root words, prefixes, infixes and suffixes so that ELT experts and trainees can easily solve linguistic problems associated with English morphology. English Language Teaching reached its watershed during the twentieth century with the impetus it got from the study of Applied Linguistics 1 . It has been observed that recent experiments and changes in teaching methods of ELT have contributed to the growing importance of 'Morphology' and 'Phonology' in ELT classroom. You know that morphology (mɔ:r 1 fɑled3i)/ is the scientific study of formation of words. The study of 'morphology' emphasizes on the following paradigms of of English Language: i. How the English words are formed; 173 MODULE - 1 : MORPHOLOGY

174 NSOU ?PGEL 5 & 6 ii. How the English words are related to other words of the same language. iii. How the English word structures are analysed in parts and particles of different English words, iv. How the English word structures are re-structured such as word stems, root words, prefixes, and suffixes. The study of 'morphology' emphasizes on the following paradigms of of English Language: i. How the parts of a sentence / speech are arranged in English Language. ii. How the intonation and stress patterns are maintained in English Language. iii. How a different context can change the pronunciation and meaning of English words. In this unit we shall discuss its relevance in English vocabulary level and in English sentence level. At the end of this Module you should be able to: • identify those features of English words that account for special status in

175 NSOU ? PGEL 5 & 6 English Language; • distinguish Phonological and morphological ways in which ' English words' can be analyzed; • understand the nature of English words; • make a critical evaluation of the existing linguistic definitions of 'word'; • understand the notion of 'morpheme' 'and the 'phoneme'; • distinguish between word and morpheme and • appreciate the nature of the relationship between 'morpheme' and other particles of a word. You might have noticed how a which you have always taken for granted and whose meaning you are quite confident you know very well turns out on closer scrutiny to be something else. One such word is the English word itself. If you look up 'word' (N) in the O E D 2 you will first be surprised to see its meaning and usage taking up two large columns, very closely printed in very fine print. You will notice that the meanings and usage are classified into two major categories. In the first category are those uses of this word in which it stands for verbal expression in general and is by extension used for such meanings as ' ', ' , ' of a song', ', 'a tion' 'a ', and so on. In the second category are included its uses as 'an , a , or one such , used to express , 'a character or set and so on. In this sense, 'word' can refer to a , , idea, , a , and so on. You will find these and many more senses of the word ' ' listed and exemplified in detail, altogether eleven sense-groups in the first category and seven in the second. In this course, our aim is to study words in the sense in which they represent 'elements of speech', i.e. in the second, and the technical, sense of the word. In fact, more recent dictionaries, which are not written on historical principles (unlike the OED is), place this definition first. Let us look at and compare a select few of such definitions, beginning with the Oxford definition in full: '

A combination of vocal sounds, or one such sound, used in a language to express an idea (e.g., to denote a thing, attribute, or relation), and constituting an ultimate minimal element of speech having a meaning as such.' (1989) 176 NSOU ?PGEL 5 & 6 'One of the units of speech or writing that native speakers of a language usually regard as the smallest isolable meaningful element of the language, although linguists would analyze these farther into morphemes,' (1986) '

A sound or a combination of sounds, or its representation in writing or printing, that symbolizes or communicates a meaning and may consist

of a single morpheme or of a'combination of morphemes' (1985) '

A speech sound or series of speech sounds that symbolizes and communicates a meaning without being divisible into smaller units, capable of independent use' (1984) Let us now try to set up a critical understanding of the English word 'WORD' by analyzing and extracting various features from the above definitions. It would appear from these definitions that we can apply the word 'word' to an entity' that possesses the following characteristics: a) A word is made of a sound, or a series of speech sounds 3 . We may also apply it to describe representations 4 of these in writing. b) A word is a unit of speech (presumably when it is a sound or a series of sounds) or writing (presumably when it is a representation of the sound/series of sounds in writing). c) The above definitions do not seem to agree on whether or not the word is the of speech/writing. Definition 4 5 implies that it is, since it says that it is not 'divisible into smaller units capable of independent use'. d) Definition 3 6 states that a word may consist of a single or a combination of , thereby implying that the smallest unit is . e) Definition 2 7 makes a further refinement by saying that native speakers of a language regard it as the smallest element but linguists do not comply to this narrow understanding. f) The linguists analyze it further into morphemes and define as the smallest unit. Another kind of refinement is made in definition1. It states that it is the ultimate minimal element having a meaning. This would allow the possibility of there being smaller elements, or units, but they would not bear meaning. If morphemes are smaller than word, then they are presumably not meaning-bearing elements. g) All the above-mentioned definitions seem to agree on the point that words are meaningful elements. Definitions 1 and 2 8 above in addition also suggest that they may be the smallest elements having meaning.

177 NSOU ? PGEL 5 & 6 h) Definition4 above puts forward an additional idea that a word cannot be broken down into smaller units 'capable of independent use'. Here 'use' must be taken to be different from 'meaning'. While there may be some common sense support for the idea that a word cannot be broken down into smaller units with independent meaning. 9 i) The idea that the smaller units also lack independent use may be difficult to sustain, as we shall see under the Advent of English vocabulary 10 . You must have found from the above discussion that the English word ' ' has historically not always been comprehended in this way. In fact, according to one linguistic school of thought there was no notion of the word at all till writing systems emerged. Earlier 'word' was taken to be synonymous with a written word, or verbal expression in general, which may account for the first category of meaning ascribed to 'word' by the Oxford English Dictionary. According to this school of thought even today a word is not distinguished from an utterance when a language is in dialect

178 NSOU ?PGEL 5 & 6 form. Just as a child who has not yet learned to read is unable to distinguish between word boundaries it is argued that when alphabetic writing first started, it also had to face the question of where to draw word boundaries. In some cases the indeterminacy regarding word boundaries continued till a very late stage. For example, the English word ' is originated from a proto form which is reflected in the Arabic or the Persian 11 When the word was absorbed into Middle English (ME), it occurred with the indefinite article , but soon the word boundary came to be drawn after 'n' rather than before it, and gave us rather . In this case, the boundary line was clearly dictated, by the 'an before a noun beginning with a vowel' analogy. Other similar factors must also have decided where the line was drawn. What this school regards as certain is that words came to be established after the advent of literacy', when the need arose to write in units separated by spaces. This view is disputed by other schools of thought. Lyons (1968:199) has correctly commented 12 : words often include multiple As we stated earlier, in the majority of cases of complex and compound words 13 that are realized as words can be identified as separate elements called in the phonological and orthographic representations. This makes it easier to refer to the morphemes when talking about the rules which govern their occurrence. are building blocks of extensive English vocabulary and are basic elements of word formation. can take the form of a when it is used before a . Common prefixes include un-, dis- and ex-. . can be used as when it is attached after the . Example: –ish; –ity; –ize and so on. can be used as when it is attached and . There are two sub types of infix:

179 NSOU ? PGEL 5 & 6 ? ? Let us introduce the distinctive characteristics of Derivational affixes and Inflectional affixes 16 that serve as key components of English word formation. a. Free morphemes may emerge as English words. Examples: toe; teach; learn; b. Most of the English words have foreign roots, foreign prefixes and foreign suffixes or root and affixes. Example: technai (Latin Root) + -logy (Latin Suffix) ? technology. c. Affixations are very important in English word formation. Affixes include and infix. See above for examples of English affixes. in English are all suffixes, but derivational affixes come both as prefixes and suffixes. are attached to lexical words to create new lexical words. As lexical words, these new words are also subject to the same kind of treatment in the language as all lexical words, e.g., they make their grammatical paradigms like other words. In their grammatical category, they can serve as stems for other derivational affixes, and so on.

180 NSOU ?PGEL 5 & 6 modify the meanings of the stems but not in a regular and fixed way as do inflectional affixes. The effect a derivational affix will have on the meaning of the stem cannot be predicted with exceptional regularity, though subsets of stems may show partial regularities. g. In a complex word containing both derivational and inflectional affixes, derivational affixes are attached first, inflectional affixes last. Once an inflectional affix has been attached to a stem, no derivational affixes can be attached to it. h. Unlike , often change the grammatical category of the stem to which they are attached. Thus the addition of a derivational suffix may turn a verb into a noun, a noun into an adjective, an adjective into a verb, and so on. This cannot happen with inflectional affixes. When we pay closer attention to the English derivational affixes, we find a few more characteristics worth mentioning. They are: i. As compared to , the number of derivational affixes is quite large. j. While a bound grammatical morpheme (or, loosely, an) occurs with all the members of a grammatical class, or subclass, without exception, a bound lexical morpheme (loosely, a derivational affix) may occur with only a few members of a class and not with others. k. As we need to point out the occurrence of bound grammatical morphemes is determined by grammatical rules, which apply without exception, whereas the occurrence of bound lexical morphemes is not so determined. For example, the bound grammatical morpheme occurs with all the members of the Count subclass of the class of Common Nouns, but the bound lexical morpheme , though it occurs with adjectives, cannot occur with all the adjectives. l. An does not occur with all the members of a given class, it occurs only with specific members of that class and not with the members of any other class. Derivational affixes, on the other hand, can sometimes occur with members of more than one class. In the context of the relationship between the word, and English language literacy, it remains a fact that in all literate language communities there exists a notion of 'word', even if the way its nature is apprehended is not the same. For example, there are languages in which the entire English utterance consisting of three words ' may be expressed, by a single 'word'. In Bengali, expressions like 'kheycho and are apprehended as single words but their English equivalents require three words each: Have you eaten?/ I have eaten. Languages may differ in the amounts of meaning they pour into individual words, but that does not effect the fundamental nature of words.

181 NSOU ? PGEL 5 & 6 Every speaker of a language has an intuitive apprehension of 'word'. If asked, a native speaker is able to identify the stretch of sound which constitutes one word. This ability is strengthened by literacy since in writing words have to be separated by spaces. Linguists have defined 'word' as 'a minimum free form'. The definition identifies word as the unit which cannot be broken down further into independently occurring units. The word is thus identified as the smallest 'positionally mobile' and 'internally stable' unit of language. This traditional definition faces difficulty with compound words and applies only to the phonological word. Though languages differ in the way they codify meanings into words, every language does have the unit 'word'. The notion of word can be analysed into four types depending on the way it is apprehended on different occasions: phonological, orthographic, lexical and grammatical. When we use 'word' to refer to a stretch of spoken speech, the reference is to the phonological word. When we use 'word' to refer to a stretch of written or printed symbols, we refer to the orthographic word. An inflectional affix does not occur with all the members of a given class, it occurs only with specific members of that class and not with the members of any other class. Derivational affixes, on the other hand, can sometimes occur with members of more than one class. a What does the field of morphology deal with? b Is there much truth when we say 'word' is a minimal unit? c. How can we divide a word into smaller parts? d. What are morphemes? e. How many types of affixes do we have? f. Do the affixes change the meaning of the word? g. Do the affixes change the grammar of the word? h. What is an inflexion? i. Can we see words as distinct units in an utterance or speech? j. When was word recognised as a unit? What were the reasons for it?

182 NSOU ?PGEL 5 & 6 Bloomfield. L(1933). London: Allen &Unwin. Carter, R (1987) . London: Allen &Unwin. Dey, S.K. (2014). , New Delhi, Pearson Education. Hocket. C.F. (1958). New York; The Macmillan Company. Katamba. F. (1994), London: Routledge. Lyons, J. (1968). Cambridge: The University' Press Lyons, J. (1977). Vols. I & 2, Cambridge; Cambridge University Press. Bloomfield. L(1933). London: Allen &Unwin. Carter, R. (1987). , Applied Linguiste Perspective. London: Allen &Unwin. Hocket. C.F. (1958). New York; The Macmillan Company. Katamba. F. (1994). , London: Routledge. Lyons, J. (1968). Cambridge: The University' Press. 1 The branch of linguistics concerned with practical applications of language studies, for example English language teaching, English translation, and speech therapy for English language. 2 Oxford English Dictionary 3 Called phonemes 4 Called morphemes 5 A speech sound or series of speech sounds that symbolizes and communicates a meaning without being divisible into smaller units, capable of independent use (1984) 6 A sound or a combination of sounds, or its representation in writing or printing, that symbolizes or communicates a meaning and may consist

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of a single morpheme or of a 'combination of morphemes' (1985) 7 '

| 100% | **MATCHING BLOCK 7/46** | W | |

One of the units of speech or writing that native speakers of a language usually regard 183

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| 91% | **MATCHING BLOCK 8/46** | W | |

as the smallest isolable meaningful element of the language, although linguists would analyze these farther into morphemes. 8

Vocabulary is all about words i.e. the words in a language or a special set of words people are trying to learn. The term was first used in the 1500s to mean a list of words with explanations. The noun vocabulary came to refer to the "range of language of a person or group" from the seventeenth century. 11 From which the Hindi word 12 "...the ability to break utterances up in words is not only characteristic of educated and literate speakers of a language. Sapir tells us that uneducated American-Indian speakers, with no experience of writing any language at all, when asked to do so, were perfectly capable of dictating to him texts in their own language 'word by word', and had little difficulty in isolating words from utterances and repeating them to him as units. Whatever else we may say about the word as a linguistic unit, we must reject the view ... that 'primitive languages' do not have words. The habit of reading and writing ... may well reinforce the native speaker's consciousness of the word as an element of his language ... but it certainly does not create his ability to break utterances up into words in the first place." 13 i.e. the free and bound morphemes in combination 14 (o) got deleted by the effect of the Doctrine of Apocope. 15 (ai) got deleted by the effect of the Doctrine of Apocope. 16 See unit 5 under Paper 6 Module 2 for details.

? The words still remain a potent means of expression in English. Whatever can be expressed in a language using a set of words can more or less be expressed in another language using another set of words. It could be possible that some languages use more words to express an idea that can expressed by just one word in some other languages. This need not be consistent with all concepts and reversal are also possible. All languages have simple words and complex words. Formal and informal words, new and old words and all languages have similar or near-similar processes of . And this is what is more important than the fact that the sets and processes are not the same. In this unit, let us try to understand the fundamental nature of the English word before turning to the specific manifestations of word-classes and word- formation processes. After going through this unit, you will be able to: a. Understand what a morpheme is, b. See how morphemes are closely associated with meaning, c. Identify the changes in morphemes (allomorphs), d. Analyse a word for its morphemes and see how it is formed. 184

185 NSOU ? PGEL 5 & 6 From the above discussion you have understood that there may be different types of English words. The most prominent types are: • Lexeme (Semantic words) • Grammareme (Functional/ grammatical words) • Phoneme 1 (phonological words) • Morpheme (orthographic words) If you look for Definition 1 and 2 above 2 you will observe that these are captured by the notions of phonological and orthographic words. Definition 4 3 says that words are meaningful elements and it is captured by the notion of the lexical word, or . The status of Definitions 3 and 4, which are about the 'analyzability' of the word into smaller units, remains unclear. The questions remain: A. Is the word the smallest unit? B. Can a word be further broken down into smaller units? C. D. E. These are the kinds of questions that arise when we probe Definitions 3 and 4 further. These questions actually arise from the linguists' attempts to define a word scientifically. Linguistics claims to be a science and since the word is one of the basic units of language, a scientific definition of 'word' is a prerequisite for this science of language. Several attempts have been made to define ' ' in Linguistics. The dictionary definitions given above are actually derived from these definitions. The most well- known of these definitions is the one by Bloomfield who defined the word as ' . The two crucial words here are 'free' and 'minimum'. 'Free' means 'those which can occur alone as whole utterances'. For example, are free forms since they can occur as whole utterances in response to questions like: Q1 :'Was the visitor young or old? Q 2: 'Do you consider use of force to settle disputes right or wrong?'

186 NSOU ?PGEL 5 & 6 'Minimum' of course means 'the smallest' or 'that which cannot be broken down further into smaller parts'. None of the forms cited above can be broken down into smaller parts. Thus they meet both conditions set out by Bloomfield and are words according to his definition. So are the forms like etc., since they too are minimum free forms. We can break them down into parts like and and etc., but and are morphemes, not free forms; they cannot occur as utterances alone. Bloomfield's definition faces problems with forms like 'a', 'the', 'because' which are traditionally regarded as words but cannot occur alone as utterances, and linguists have tried to extend and elaborate the meaning of 'free' to take care of this problem. These linguists argue that 'linguistic freedom' or free flow 4 here means: . The term refers to the fact that the word is the smallest unit which can be moved around in the sentence. For example, look at the following sentences where the form 'surely' has been moved around; a) Alice does not deny that . Alice does not deny that. c) Alice does not deny that

187 NSOU ? PGEL 5 & 6 Here we cannot move around 'sure' by itself, or '-ly' by itself, the way we can move around 'surely'. Sometimes longer forms can be moved around. Example: a) People were all keen to see . , people were all keen to see. In the above example 'the young Indian back from Chicago' shows the same kind of positional mobility as the word 'surely'in the earlier example. But 'the young Indian back from Chicago' is not a minimum form as it contains smaller forms (words) capable of occurring independently. In earlier words, this form is a free form but it consists of more free forms and is therefore not a minimum form. Therefore it does not qualify as a word. Such forms are actually called (group of words). The term refers to the internal cohesion of the word. As we have seen, a word can also be broken down into smaller (bound) elements (e.g., surely = sure + ly), but the order of these elements in a word is strictly fixed and cannot be changed. In other words, while a word has so far its elements are kept intact. Despite this additional support, the definition of word as a minimum free form is not quite free from trouble. Another difficulty is observed with word compounds. Compounds are words like which are made up of two smaller words. By this definition, they would not be called words as they are not minimum forms, even though they are free. However experts agree to the fact that compounds are indeed the result of Even if we were to accept Bloomfield's definition of 'word' despite all these problems the question remains: What kind of 'word', among the four kinds that we have identified above, would it apply to? It is obvious that it could not apply to either the kind of word. Why? These kinds of words are mere abstractions not physical shapes. Bloomfield's definition attributes to words qualities like 'size' and 'occurrence as an utterances'. Lexical and grammatical words do not have size and they do not occur as utterances, since they are abstract entities. The orthographic word, though it can be said to have measurable size, also cannot occur as an utterance. Hence, Bloomfield's definition can apply only to the , and is therefore of limited use in our attempt to understand the morphological / orthographic nature of the word. Bloomfield's definition of the word as 'a minimum free form' addresses only the formal properties of the word i.e. It makes no reference to meaning. Yet the entire dictionary definitions of 'word' given at the beginning of this unit make reference to

188 NSOU ?PGEL 5 & 6 meaning. Perhaps a definition of the word based on meaning may work where one based on formal properties alone doesn't. The problem is not with forms like these but with word forms like and Let us start with the phrase 'the smallest isolable meaningful element' which, in the opinion of Collins English Dictionary, is the way in which native speakers apprehend a word, though linguists do not agree with this. Why do the linguists disagree? After all, forms like and are all meaningful elements and they are also all unbreakable into smaller parts. We know that in each of the above cases the first element is a meaningful one i.e. lexical word. If the second one can also be shown to be meaningful, then the definition of 'word' as 'the smallest isolable meaningful element' will have to be revised. Otherwise these forms ( ), not being the smallest meaningful elements, would not be regarded as words. forms can be broken into smaller parts, as we saw earlier. In each of these forms we can isolate smaller elements as shown in the diagram below:

189 NSOU ? PGEL 5 & 6 There cannot be any doubt that elements like and are meaningful suffixes 8 : added to certain word root as shown above, produces the meaning 'more , while Adj. + produces the meaning 'most '; , added to a noun (, produces the meaning 'of, concerning, pertaining to that . As these elements have fixed meanings that we are able to add them to other forms to derive precisely the meanings we want. It must be quite clear by now that what we are looking for is a definition of 'word' that will agree with the native speaker's intuitive understanding of this concept. Since Bloomfield's definition does not, it will not do, There are elements which are isolable, and which are meaningful, but which the native speaker does not intuitively recognize as words (e.g.). We must find a definition which will conform to the native speaker's intuition about words. Can we revise the definition so that it takes care of these possible problems? Perhaps we can, but we must first do something about the smallest meaningful elements which are not words, which we have just discovered. We must recognize them, give them some status and define their relationship with words. When we analyze the form national into the elements nation and , we have a feeling that we have now two elements one of which is a bound form and cannot occur independently. We have a similar kind of feeling about forms like and which we can respectively analyze into and . There is, however, a difference between suffix forms like on the one hand, and , and on the other. You can associate some kind of meaning with affixes like as we did above, but it is difficult to associate such meanings with affixes 9 of the latter set. For example, there is no specific way in which the meaning of the word 'run' in the sentence 'I ran' can be said to be different from the meaning of 'runs' in the sentence 'He runs'. It is the third person subject that requires the presence of the suffix in the verb in the latter sentence. In other words, the suffix , here signifies the presence of a third person singular subject, in addition to signaling, in common with the word 'ran' of the former sentence, the presence of the simple present tense. Affixes like and derive their significance not from meaning but from use, or from the functions they perform. As we have stated earlier, the suffix performs the function of signaling , that of signaling the continuous tense, and so on. In other words, such affixes perform . In this respect, they are rather like articles ( ) or auxiliaries (which also have no dictionary-based lexical type meanings but certain types of grammatical functions.

190 NSOU ?PGEL 5 & 6 Let us ask the following question: a) Whether the affixes 10 are meaning-bearing affixes like - , , or affixes with grammatical functions like as the latter elements cannot occur indepen dently? The Webster's definition quoted above expresses this fact by excluding from the definition of 'word' forms 'divisible into smaller units capable of independent use.' In other words, word forms like are included in the definition of words, because, though they are divisible into two smaller parts, the second parts are not capable of use. Only the first part is capable of use. You must have observed that word forms like are indeed words as they are 'the smallest isolable meaningful elements' that are '(in) divisible into smaller units capable of independent use'. We must remember that this definition still excludes word compounds 11 from the definition of the word. Now the questions remain: i. What is the status of the smaller elements into which the above words can be broken down? ii. What is the status of the meaningful elements like and that are excluded, from the status of being recognized as word for their inability of being used independently? Linguists set up the category of "morpheme" to solve the problem of basic understanding of word in general and English word in particular. Morphemes are defined as the smallest elements that have meaning, or that perform a grammatical function. It is now clear that this definition will include a large number of forms so far defined as words like 'old', 'young', 'sweet', ' 'the', 'was', 'can', 'may' and so on. Though the category 'morpheme' was obviously not necessitated by and affixes like which are the smallest elements 12 that have meaning (-al) or perform a grammatical function (the rest).

191 NSOU ? PGEL 5 & 6 You must have noted the definiton of morpheme that morpheme is free from the condition, that the words be able to occur independently. It was this condition that has disqualified elements like and from being called words. So these forms are automatically included in the category of morphemes. But so also are all independent—ly occurring forms which are not made up of smaller independently occurring forms. This is because the definition of morpheme includes all 'smallest' elements, irrespective of whether they can occur independently or not. With a morpheme defined in this way, words and morphemes necessarily enter into a particular kind of relationship. Let us define this relationship as that of 'composition': i. e., a word is 'composed' of one or more than one morpheme. Words like are called mono morphemic 13 whereas dimorphic 14 words like are composed of two morphemes each. Of the two morphemes that make up each of the words in the second list, the first one is a free morpheme 15 , and the second one is a bound morpheme 16 . You can easily guess what the free morphemes are. As they also occur as mono- morphemic words (viz.); the suffixes) are all bound morphemes in the list of words, mentioned above. However, it is also possible for a word to be composed of two free morphemes, e.g., postman, blackboard, and goalkeeper. In other words, by setting up the category of 'morpheme' we are able to solve the problem the Bloomfield's definition of word as 'minimum free form' faced with compounds. You will recall that compound words were excluded from the category words by the Bloomfieldian definition as they were not minimum free forms: they were free but not minimum, as they consisted of

192 NSOU ?PGEL 5 & 6 smaller forms (like post, man, black, board, etc,). With the setting up of the morpheme category, this problem no longer exists, as the smaller forms are now labelled as'morphemes'. They can either occur as mono-morphemic words, or can combine as free morphemes to form a compound.

100%	**MATCHING BLOCK 12/46**	**SA**	Aspects of Language for plagiarism check (1).docx (D117827147)

In phonology, an allomorph is a variant form of a morpheme.

You know that morpheme is the smallest unit of a language.

95%	**MATCHING BLOCK 14/46**	**SA**	FINAL DRAFT LEXIS - after CE - with Technical ... (D13185652)

A 'morph 17 ' is a morphological string (of phonemes) that cannot be broken down into smaller constituents that have a lexico-grammatical function. In some sense it corresponds to a word-form. An is a morph that has a unique set of grammatical or lexical features.

100%	**MATCHING BLOCK 15/46**	**SA**	Aspects of Language for plagiarism check (1).docx (D117827147)

For example, the plural in English has three different morphs, making plural an allomorph, because there are alternatives.

Other Examples are: Any of the phonological representations of a single morpheme: For , the final /s/ and / z/ sounds of bets and beds are of the English noun-plural morpheme. While orthography preserves the differences in written letters it fails to show the difference of utterances of the same in different phonological environment, phonology preserves them. The plural suffix is written as '-s' in the case of all the three words , and , the suffix is pronounced as in 'cats'; in 'dogs', it is pronounced ; and 'horses' it is pronounced / Let us discuss why this is so. But this has nothing to do with syncretism 18 as these differences (and the parallel similarity in the orthographic shapes) occur within each grammatical category and not across categories. Despite tine phonological difference, each shape still realizes the same bound grammatical morpheme, the plural number bound morpheme. To deal with this situation, where the same grammatical morpheme may be realized by two or more different phonological shapes, morphology has set up the concept of the . As mentioned above, any physical shape that realizes a morpheme (grammatical or lexical) is called a . If two or more morphs realize the same morpheme they are said to be of that morpheme. Thus, and are all of the plural morpheme in the number paradigm of the English count noun. The allomorphs of a morpheme are mostly phonetically conditioned. In other words the reason for the existence of the different phonological realizations of the same morpheme lies in the phonetic context of the given word. In our example, the reason why the plural morpheme is realized as the with is the voicelessness of the immediately preceding sound. In dog, the immediately preceding sound /g/ is , so the suffix too becomes the voiced counterpart of and becomes With the word, , the phonetic environment is different. The word, 'horse' ends in a sibilant or a hissing

193 NSOU ? PGEL 5 & 6 sound. The plural suffixes and are also sibilants and two sibilant sounds cannot be pronounced together in close succession. Therefore, a vowel sound is inserted between them to make the suffix pronounceable. As is a voiced sound, the voiced suffix is the natural choice. Therefore the suffix /iz/ and /iz/ are not only of the plural morpheme but also of the Possessive morpheme. In fact, as we will see below, they are also the allomorphs of the Third Person Singular morpheme which combines with a verb when its subject is a third person singular subject. In a similar way, the verb takes a past tense by addition of −ed. This is realised as /t/ or /d/ or /id/ in different contexts. Any verb that ends with a voiceless consonant takes /t/. For example, checked, missed, brushed, etc. are verbs that end with a voiceless consonant /k/ /s/ and /ʃ/ and hence −ed is pronounced as /t/. When we have verbs that end with a voiced consonant, the −ed is realised as /d/ in words like bagged, saddled, groomed etc. These words end with voiced consonants /g/ /l/ and /m/ and hence the −ed is realised as /d/. When verbs end with either /t/ or /d/ sound the −ed is realised as /id/. Take a look at words like padded, batted, etc. These words end with /d/ and /t/ respectively and the final −ed is realised as /id/. Another good example of can be given by referring to the indefinite article morpheme in English. This has two allomorphs: 'a' ∂ and 'an', /∂n/. Their phonetic conditioning is known to every English student: 'a' occurs before words beginning with a consonant, 'an' before words beginning with a vowel. It should be noted that, being phonetically conditioned, the of a morpheme are always in . This means that no two allomorphs can occur in the same context: where one occurs, the other cannot, obviously because they are conditioned to occur in mutually exclusive contexts. The relationship between the phonological and the orthographic word may be one- to-one, one-to-many or many- to- one. When the relationship is one-to-many (/mi:t/ ? meet\meat) we have a case of homophony: when it is many-to one (/li:d/, /led/? 'lead), we call it'homoghraphy'.) The abstract word which is realised in different grammatical forms is called the lexical word or the lexeme. In this sense, the word focuses on meaning. The headwords in a dictionary; represent lexemes. Though most lexemes are realized by single words, some lexemes can be realized by a sequence of words (e.g., idioms). If the same word-shape belongs to two different lexemes (i.e. it has two unrelated meanings) we have a case of homonymy. If the meanings are

194 NSOU ?PGEL 5 & 6 related, i.e. if one meaning can be derived from another by metaphorical or figurative extension, we get the case of polysemy. When a grammatical rule is applied to a lexical word, we get a grammatical word. Like the lexical word, the grammatical word too is abstract. To get a physical shape, the word has to be realized as a phonological or an orthographic word. The grammatical word or grammareme represents the grammatical properties of a word. 1. What is a morpheme? 2. Can we have a single morpheme as a word? 3. How many types of morphemes do we have? 4. What is the characteristic feature of bound morphemes? 5. What do we mean positional mobility and positional stability? 6. Can a single morpheme have both these features? 7. What are allomorphs? 8. How many allomorphs have been discussed here? 9. What are some of the features of allomorphs? 10.Are morphemes grammatical units? Give reasons. 1. Bloomfield. L.(1933). London: Allen &Unwin 2. Hocket. C.F. (1958). New York; The Macmillan Company. 3. Katamba. F. (1994). London: Routledge. 4. Lyons, J. (1968). Cambridge: The University' Press. 7. Lyons, J. (1977). Vols. I & 2, Cambridge; The university Press. 1 See Unit 8 under Paper 6 Module 2 for details. 2 See Unit 1 under Paper 6 Module 1 for details. 3 A speech sound or series of speech sounds that symbolizes and communicates a meaning without being divisible into smaller units, capable of independent use.

195 NSOU ? PGEL 5 & 6 4 Derridian concept as revealed in " " (1967:10). 5 Swami Vivekananda (January 12,1863- July 4, 1902). 6 Like 'Word Clipping', 'Word blending' and 'word compounding' and back formation 7 The last vowel has been deleted under the theory of Apocope in both the highlighted words. 8 Bound morphemes that are addable only after the root word or word root. 9 See Paper 6 Module 2 Unit 5 for details. 10 Word particles or bound morphemes attachable before or after the root words. 11 Compound words in English. 12 They cannot be broken down farther. 13 i.e. composed of one morpheme only. 14 i.e. composed of two morphemes only. 15 i.e. capable of occurring independently. 16 i.e. incapable of occurring independently. 17 The root of the English word, 'morphology'. 18 i.e. the merging of different inflectional varieties of a word during the development of English language.

? The characteristics of English word ' extracted from dictionary definitions, seem to indicate that there are actually more than one kind of 'word'. Since a word can either be a or a that makes one kind of word: let us call it the The moment you represent a by writing it in orthographic form or in phonetic transcription you get . You may also use 'word' to refer to the written, or orthographic, representation of the phonological word, so that you obtain orthographic word. We shall represent orthographic word by writing it in small letters. We can try and explore the relationships between these two kinds of words. The orthographic representation of a phonological word is never a straightforward, one-to-one, representation. Sometimes two or more phonological words are represented by the same orthographic word, For example, the orthographic English word ' ' represents the two phonological words /ri:d/ (v. present) and /red/(v. past and v. past participle). Again, the orthographic English word, ' represents /li:d/(v. present) and /led//(v. past and v. past participle). Such cases are known as . After going through this unit, you will be able to: a. Define a word in its various ramifications, 196

197 NSOU ? PGEL 5 & 6 b. Distinguish between the term phonological and morphological forms of a word, c. Understand the difference between a lexeme, grammareme and a morpheme, d. Understand how homonyms can be understood based on contexts. Sometimes one phonological word (e.g., ⊃ may be represented by two or more orthographic words: (and ; and . Such cases are called . An exploration of these relationships for languages will help us to banish such popular myths as the following one: *Certain Indian languages (e.g., Hindi and Bengali) have 'phonetic' writing systems while others (e.g., English) have unphonetic, and therefore 'unscientific', systems of writing. Phonological and morphological or orthographic words are thus regarded as purely physical shapes made up of and respectively. When words are regarded as purely physical shapes, two shapes differing even slightly are treated as two different words. For example, the five words contained in the following box, when seen as phonological or orthographic shapes, will be regarded as five different words: Eat eats ate eaten eating

198 NSOU ?PGEL 5 & 6 Grammatically speaking, these five words are said to be of the 'same' root word 'eat' (v. present). In fact, that is how traditional grammarians treat them. They claim that there is an abstract word 'eat' which is 'realized' by these five forms in the grammatical paradigm of English language. By a 'grammatical paradigm' we mean a set of forms derived by the application of a particular rule of grammar. The above set of forms is derived by the application of the of English language as shown below: Let us demonstrate the usage of this common with reference to Tense- specific use. When the is applied to the abstract word we get 'eat' in the first and second persons singular and plural and in the third person plural, ' ' in the third person singular, when the is applied we get ' in all persons and numbers; when we apply that we get ' , and when we apply the we get ' . But the underlying word is the same as shown by the fact that the basic meaning of all the four forms is identical. It is only modified in certain fixed ways to refer to different points of time, or to duration. In this abstract sense, a word is different from a or an word which is its concrete form. For one thing, the word in this sense has meaning, i.e. it denotes something in the external world, an idea, or object, or action or state. This time the word is an abstract entity as it is not merely a physical shape at all. The abstract idea of ' that occurs in all the five forms as shown above is actually a , a name of an action. There is an orthographic shape 'eat' and a phonological shape /i:t/ which 'realize' or 'represent' Tense in Use Person Number Form 1. Simple Present Ist Singular\Plural 'eat' Tense Formation 2nd Singular\ Plural 'eat' 3rd Singular 'eats' Tense in Use Person Number Form 1. Simple Present 3 rd Plural 'eat' 2. Simple Past Tense Formation Ist/ 2nd, 3rd Singular\ Plural 'ate' 3. Past Participle Formation Ist/ 2nd, 3rd Singular\ Plural 'eaten' 4. Present Participle Formation Ist/ 2nd, 3rd Singular\ Plural 'eating'

199 NSOU ? PGEL 5 & 6 this idea. When the grammatical paradigm of the abstract word is to be constructed, grammatical rules appropriate to the category of the word are applied, producing grammatical words, which we discuss below. These grammatical words are in turn realized by phonological and orthographic words (also collectively called word-shapes). In this first of the two abstract senses in which it is used, in which we focus on its meaning, the word is called by different names, the most common one being . Other names are ' , ' and ' ' item. We will use the terms and and interchange them freely. We will differentiate the lexeme from word in the other senses by writing it in capital letters. Here are the characteristics that distinguish a lexeme from the other kinds of word discussed so far: A. A is viewed in relation to its meaning, i.e. in relation to things, actions, states, etc. in the world. Accordingly, lexemes fall into grammatical categories like noun, verb, adjective and adverb. B. Depending on its grammatical category, each lexeme may be realized by a set of forms in its grammatical paradigm, e.g., a noun may have singular, plural and possessive forms (e.g., boy, boys, boy's), an adjective may have positive, compar ative and superlative forms (e.g. nice, nicer, nicest), a verb may have present, past, and participle forms, as exemplified in the Table above. These forms are given physical realizations by linguistic processes like , , , acting upon the and words which represent the . C. Words occurring as in a dictionary are lexemes. For example, a dictionary' does not list eat, ate, eaten and eating as four separate words: eat alone is listed once. D. The term lexeme also includes items which consist of more than one word shape, e.g., multi word verbs like 'to catch up on', phrasal verbs like 'to drop in', and idioms like 'to kick the bucket'. Accordingly, they also find separate entries in the dictionary, though for ease of reference they are included under the entry for a key word occurring in them (e.g., kick the bucket will be found under the entry for kick). The relationship between lexemes or lexical words on the one hand, and phonological or orthographic word shapes on the other, is quite complex but it also accounts for a lot of creative uses to which English language is put in literature, advertising and

200 NSOU ?PGEL 5 & 6 in mass communication. Let us first look at those cases where the same word-shape (i.e. phonological or orthographic word) belongs to two or more different lexemes. Some of the simplest examples of this kind are word forms like bank, bat, ear, and port. Each of these word forms belongs to two lexemes. Examples: The word, 'bank' may mean 5 ' or 6 ; The word, 'bat 'may mean 7 or 8 ; The word, 'ear' may mean 9 or 10 . These cases, are known as that show a one-to-many relationship between and the . Cases of must be distinguished from cases of . In homonymy two or more lexemes are involved; as a result, the to each other. In polysemy, on the other hand, the meanings are closely related: there is only one lexeme that is involved but its meaning is figuratively extended. Thus, for example, the word is related to the same lexeme ' in both the following uses: i) 'the child's mouth' and ii) 'the mouth of the river' Dictionaries usually reflect this distinction by having separate entries for the lexemes involved in cases of homonymy. A lot of word-play in literature and more recently, in the language of advertising and jokes exploits , or . For example, Siegfried Sassoon, a famous War poet, exploits the homonymy of base (noun meaning) and base (adjective meaning 'reprehensible''cowardly', etc.) in his poem ' to parody cowardly generals who themselves stay at the base while sending young soldiers to their deaths at the front. An Advertisement Hoarding of , Kolkata reads thus: sound sound This is needless to say that the above piece of advertisement has explored the of (Adjective) meaning ' and and (Noun)

201 NSOU ? PGEL 5 & 6 and (Verb) as in 'the sound of music') refers to homophones, which are cases of homonymy with respect to the only. Thus Belloc's epigram on his Books exploits the homophony of (past tense of the verb ') and the adjective : "When I am dead, I hope it may be said: 'His sins 11 were red 12 but his books were read." We have now distinguished three kinds of word: phonological, orthographic and lexical. It will be apparent that the three kinds are not distinguished by a common criterion: the first two are distinguished from each other by the criterion of the (or substance) in which the Sounds or spellings- or through spoken (oral) channel or written channel — but the last kind is identified on the basis of meaning or content. is usually contrasted with form, where 'form' refers not only to the but to . For example, a sentence has a meaning and it has an outer form, or or the . Now the questions remain: content/meaning sense Perhaps you have observed that the 13 of a lexical word may remain the same but you find different packed in the deep structure of the same lexeme. For example let us try to interpret the following excerpt from Julius Caesar Act 1 Scene 1: cobbler, cobbler awl

202 NSOU ?PGEL 5 & 6 The and the words represent, as we have observed earlier, not only the 'physical ' of the words but refer to the or the in which they are realized. In this sense form, like meaning, appears to be an abstract entity: it is not to be confused with substance; or . In order to give recognition to this criterion of vs. , we must recognize another kind of word which underlies both the as well as structure but is meta-lingual in application. We can call it the 14 or grammatical lexeme. Grammatical words are words that occur in a grammatical paradigm, e.g., the forms of eat cited above: eat, eats, ate, eaten, eating. Each of these words has a phonological form, an orthographic form, and a grammatical form which underlies both. Thus eating is the phonological word /i:tiŋ/), the orthographic word , and corresponds to the grammatical word 'present participle form of eat'. The grammatical word represents the grammatical properties of the word i.e. the properties which determine how it is to be used in a sentence. For example, the form eating has certain properties which determine its use in a sentence which are different from the properties (which determine the use) of eat, eats, ate and eaten. To cite just one property, for eating to occur in a sentence it must be preceded by a form of the verb be; is, am, was, are, were or be; it may not be preceded by a form of have, which is necessary if eaten is to occur in a sentence. Properties of this kind, which determine how a word combines with other words in a sentence, are called the grammatical properties of a word, and when we conceive of the word as embodying these properties we call it the grammatical

203 NSOU ? PGEL 5 & 6 word. Actually it is quite important that we set up a category of grammatical word, because the grammatical word is quite distinct from both the lexical word (which focuses on meaning) and the phonological\orthographic word (which focus on substance), and because the relationships between them can be quite complex. We saw above that eat, ate and eaten are three different grammatical words, though they are the same lexical word. This is because their grammatical properties are different. In traditional grammar, these forms are called the present, past and past participle forms of the lexical word' respectively. Let us now look at the corresponding forms of some other verbs: ate /et/ ŋ ŋ ∧ ∧ ∧ You have noticed that there is a one-to-one correspondence between the grammatical forms on the one hand and the phonological and orthographic words on the other in the case of and ; no two grammatical words are realized by the same phonological or orthographic word. In the case of , there is a many-one relationship between the grammatical words and the orthographic word, as all the three grammatical words (for now, we refer to them as the present tense

respectively) share the same orthographic form 'read'. All the three words form the grammatical paradigm of an English lexical verb, which in the case of and have different orthographic realizations, have a common orthographic realization 15 in this case. The relationship between the grammatical words and the phonological words is also many to one in the case of the past and past participle forms: both forms are realized as \red\, In the case of , the grammatical forms for past and past participle are in many-to-one relationship with both the phonological and the orthographic forms i.e. both grammatical forms correspond to a single orthographic and a single phonological word-shape (and respectively). In the case of this situation obtains with regard to all the three grammatical forms. The phenomenon of the realization of distinct grammatical words by the same

204 NSOU ?PGEL 5 & 6 word-shape is known in linguistics as syncretism. Syncretism is the evidence that we need to make a distinction between the word as a grammatical unit and the word as a lexical phonological or orthographic unit. In English, syncretism occurs widely, and not with verbs alone. Here are some examples which will farther clarify the notion of syncretism 16 . I a song. I a song. I have a song. I Samba 17 . I Samba. 1 have Samba. I my finger. I my finger. I have my finger. The tiger killed a . The tiger killed three cows. The tiger killed a . The tiger killed three deer. This is the man's room. This is the men's/menz/room. This is the boy's school. This is the boys' /boiz/school The reverse case of a one-to-many relationship between the grammatical word and the phonological or orthographic word, though less common, is not entirely absent. For example, the grammatical word 'past participle, of ' is realized either by or by . In American English, the grammatical word 'past tense of 'dive' corresponds to two phonological and orthographic words each: and ∂ . Also included in the category of grammatical words are classes of words like , , , conjunctions and prepositions. These words are also sometimes called ' . If at all listed in a dictionary they are defined in terms of the grammatical functions they perform rather than in terms of their meanings as they do not carry lexical meanings in the sense in which a l does, therefore, they do not correspond to lexical words 18 .

205 NSOU ? PGEL 5 & 6 As grammatical words, however, they are all capable of abstract characterization and also display syncretism. For example, the two pronouns, second person singular and plural, correspond to the same phonological and orthographic word-shape 'you' and thus display syncretism. Similarly, four present tense auxiliary' forms, and the four corresponding past tense forms; the first person plural, the second person singular and plural, and the third person plural, are all syncretized to single phonological/orthographic forms 'are' and 'were' respectively. Function words (articles, pronouns, auxiliaries, prepositions) occur only as grammatical words. The relationship between a grammatical word and a phonological word may be one-to-one, one-to-many or many-to-one. The same relationship is true of the relationship between a grammatical word and an orthographic word. When two or more distinct grammatical words are realized by the same phonological\orthographic word, we have the syncretism. The grammaremes do not correspond to any lexical words.

1. How is a word defined? 2. How many concrete forms of words can exist? 3. What is a lexeme? 4. What is a head-word in a dictionary? Can you call this a lexeme? 5. How is grammareme different from lexeme? 6. Is a phonological form of the word same as the morphological form? 7. What are homonyms? 8. How many types of homonymy can you find in English? 9. Can we have functional words exhibiting homonymy? 10. What is syncretism? 1. Carter, R. (1987) : . London: Allen Unwin 2. Dey, S.K. (2014). , New Delhi, Pearson Education. 3. Hocket. C.F. (1958). New York; The Macmillan Company. 4. Katamba. F. (1994). London: Routledge. 5. Lyons, J. (1968). Cambridge: The University' Press. 6. Lyons, J. (1977). Vols. I & 2, Cambridge; The university Press. 1 Phonological word is used in spoken variety of English. 2 Morphological word is used in written variety of English. 3 A has a morphological form, semantic content (or) and a syntactic category. is basically an abstract notion used in linguistic morphology, the concrete realization of which is a word. 4 Word that has already been listed in a dictionary or lexicography. 5 i.e. the financial institution 6 sloping river side 7 the bird known for its shrill sound

8 the cricketing bat 9 the body part 10 part of a cereal plant 11 Pun effect of the word, 'scenes' a metonym of dramas or plays. 12 Scarlet red i.e. highly offensive and Pun of the past participle of the word 'read'; understood as well.... 13 Structure of word and or sentence which is available on the surface. 14 Lexeme sub type that serves grammatical functions based on inflections and conversions. 15 The word, ' ' is written as ' ' in Verb Present, Verb Past as well as in Past Participle application. 16 Phenomenon of the realization of distinct grammaremes without any change in the surface structure of a word. 17 Brazilian lively and rhythmical Dance Style. 18 Words that are semantically processed and compiled for the sake of meaningful communication.

? In Unit 2 and 3 you have noticed that you might have had some confusion with, in understanding the differences. The lower level is known as the which consists of the smallest meaningful elements. The elements of this level i.e. morphemes make up the word forms at the next higher level i.e. the level of English word. This relation of 'making up', or 'composition' is obvious only in those cases where two or more morphemes are combined together to form a word. It is not so obvious in the case of words, where one morpheme makes up one word. In such cases, it appears that it would be more appropriate to speak of phonemic or morphophonemic ' rather than ' . We could thus say that the form 'young' at the level of morpheme is 'realized' as the form 'young' at the level of word; though at first this appears to be a vacuous thing to say. In other words, the relationship of 'realization' appears to be empty of any substance. But a linguistic consideration shows that it is essential to postulate this relationship between the two levels, even for those cases where words are made up of balanced combination of two or more morphemes. In morphological studies it is not enough to posit a relationship of 'combination' between the two levels but to go beyond the physical combination and to search for meaningful combination of . 208

After going through this unit you will be able to: a. Understand the difference between a morpheme and phoneme, b. Define a morpheme appropriately, c. Divide the words into morphemes, d. Show the relationship as it exists among different morphemes in a word. You have already noted that ' and ' are now theoretically two different levels. Elements of two theoretically different levels cannot be joined together by the relationship of composition only. A combination of morphemes remains a combination of morphemes till it is, by some process, transformed into a word and acquires all the properties of a word as described in earlier units of Paper 6 Module 1 Unit 1. To give an analogous example, it may be possible to analyze morphemes into phonemes, or sounds, but it is not possible to say that morphemes are 'made up of phonemes and the relationship between 1 and 2 is one of composition only. Then, the following questions remain unanswered: It would be safe to say that a combination of phonemes may be ' as a morpheme, which is a preexisting meaningful unit represented in written form. Therefore, when a combination of phonemes is realized as a morpheme, it automatically acquires meaning. We must remember that not all combinations of phonemes are realized as only those which acquire meaning are realized as 3 . Similarly not all combinations of morphemes are realized as words; only those morphemes which acquire the properties of a word, are realized as words. Another reason for postulating the relationship of realization between the levels of morpheme and word is that this enables us to account for those cases in which the morpheme, a meaningful element, has no phonological or orthographic 4 manifestation. To illustrate, in the following words we are able to associate distinct phonological and orthographic fragments with the two morphemes that make up each word.

Orthographic Phonological ∂ The morphemic analysis of these words will yield the following morphemes: Orthographic Phonological /kil/, /-d/; /teik/ /-n/; /h∂:s/, /iz/ This morphemic analysis is based on the assumption that specific meanings or grammatical functions are associated with each of the forms. The meanings associated with the free morphemes kill, take and horse are specified in the dictionary, while the grammar of English assigns the past tense formation function, the past participle formation function and the plural noun formation function to the bound morphemes are -ed, -en and -s respectively. Thus, each of the morphemes (the smallest meaningful elements) has a clearly identifiable phonological and orthographic representation. This makes it possible for us to say that the word killed is 'made up' of the morphemes or / , the word taken is made up of the morphemes or and so on. However, this situation does not occur in the following forms: Orthographic Phonological ʌŋ ò Here we do not have clearly identifiable orthographic and phonological segments to represent the morphemes, though we know that the same bound morphemes (past tense, past participle tense, plural number) are also present here. We cannot say that • the word 'took' is made up of * • the word ' is made up of * • the word ' is made up * • We find in the first two cases and in the last case.

211 NSOU ? PGEL 5 & 6 It now appears that it was a mistake to identify a morpheme with its phonological or orthographic representation. In order to take advantage of the notion of morpheme to bring on par regular and irregular verbs, regular and irregular nouns, and regular and irregular forms of a language in general, we should perhaps treat a morpheme as an abstract entity, just as we treated lexical and grammatical words as abstract entities. We could now say that the word 'took' has the morpheme combination where and are abstract morphemes representing meanings and not any phonological or orthographic entities. Similarly, the word ' would be said to have the morphemes and the word ' (plural) is the combination of known as However, in order to specify the relationship more accurately, we would have to resort to the relationship of realization, as the relationship of composition ('made up of') implies a more physical relationship. We can now say that the combination at the morpheme level the form ' at the word level, the combination is realized as ' , and so on. By doing this, we free the morpheme from the constraint of a compulsory physical manifestation and thus Increase the utility of this concept considerably. We are now able to show that, despite the lack of any phonological and orthographic indication, forms have the morpheme in them in common with the forms etc. The relationship of realization also allows for the same phonological or orthographic shape to realize different morphemic combinations, or a many-one relationship between orthographic- phonological words on the one hand and the grammatical word on the other. Thus, the phonological form /hit/ and the orthographic form realize the three morpheme combinations , and . In other words, with this concept of a morpheme as art abstract entity, with 'realization' replacing 'composition' as the relationship between morphemes and words, we can expand the definition of the word to include the grammatical word, Bloomfield's definition of word as the minimum free form, as we saw, applied only to the phonological word. This was because the minimum free forms were seen to be 'made up of' other forms which included some bound forms. When we redefine the grammatical word as an abstract realization of a combination of morphemes 5 , we are not obliged to look for stretches of sounds corresponding to the morphemes, but only for such morphophonemic 6 combinations as might be possibly realizable in the language as words. For example while combinations like and may be realized by words, combinations like are never realizable in English. What combinations of morphemes are or are not realizable as words, is

212 NSOU ?PGEL 5 & 6 established by the full grammar of English language. The grammar specifies which combinations are possible and, using the criteria of positional mobility and positional stability described in Unit 1 above goes on to describe which combinations are actually realized. This distinction between realizable vs. non-realizable on the one hand, and between realizable vs. actually realized on the other is an important one. The morpheme combination is an illegitimate combination, and is therefore unrealizable as a word. Such a combination will not be produced by the rules of the grammar. On the other hand, is a possible morphemic combination but one that is not realized in the form of a grammatical word in English. This can be seen from the fact that is a possible and realized morphemic combination in English. In the sentence, " (The word, 'run' realizes . .

213 NSOU ? PGEL 5 & 6 The framework for the study of words that we have developed in this unit can now be diagrammatically shown as follows: The smallest meaningful units are morphemes. Morphemes combine to make higher meaningful units. Some of these combinations may be realized as grammatical words. These grammatical words are then represented or manifested by phonological and orthographic words. This diagram show's only the formal aspect of the study of words, which is what we shall be concerned with in the following units. The aspect of meaning does not concern us in these units. That is the reason why the lexeme does not find a place in the above diagram. Commonly a word is identified as the smallest meaningful unit of language, but linguists believe that the word can be divided into smaller meaningful parts called morphemes. Some of these smaller units can also occur by themselves as words, others can never do that. The former type is called free morpheme and the latter type is called bound morpheme. Some morphemes signal a grammatical function rather

214 NSOU ?PGEL 5 & 6 than meaning. Such grammatical morphemes can also be free or bound. Morphemes are often, but not always, represented by clearly identifiable phonological or orthographic representations. Hence they are best treated as abstract rather than concrete entities. The relationship between morphemes and words is therefore seen as one of realization and not composition. Combinations of two or more morphemes may be realized as a single word. 1. An Introduction to Language and Communication, Cambridge, Mass,:MIT PressPrentice- Hall of India 1996. 2. Bloomfield. L. (1933). London: Allen &Unwin. 3. Carter, R (1987). London: Allen Unwin. 4. Dey, S.K. (2014). New Delhi, Pearson Education. 5. Hocket. C.F. (1958). New York; The Macmillan Company. 6. Lyons, J. (1968). Cambridge: The University' Press. 7. Lyons, J. (1977). Vols. I & 2, Cambridge; The university Press. A morpheme which must combine with a free morpheme to be realized as a word (cf.). A relationship between the units of two levels of structure in which the units of the higher level are made up of, and analyzable into, clearly identifiable units of the lower level. A morpheme which can be realized as a word by itself (cf.). Words belonging to the categories of articles, pronouns, auxiliaries, conjunctions and prepositions, which have no lexical meaning but can only perform grammatical functions. They are included in the category of grammatical words. When two or more phonological words are represented by the same orthographic word (= same spelling, different pronunciation), we get homographs.

A word apprehended as a grammatical unit, i.e., as a unit resulting from the application of some grammatical rule to a lexical word. The term also covers function words. When two or same or orthographic word (= same pronunciation, same spelling but quite different meanings), we get homonyms. When two or more orthographic words are represented by the same phonological word (different spelling, same pronunciation), we get homophones. Signifies a characteristic of the unit word: the internal elements of a word are in a stable arrangement and cannot be moved around. The word considered as an abstract meaning-bearing unit, independent of the various grammatical forms it acquires when subjected to the rules of grammar. Bloomfield's definition of the word as the smallest independently occurring unit of language. Freedom includes positional mobility and internal stability. The smallest meaningful or grammatically functional unit of a language. The word conceived as a stretch of written or printed signs. The word conceived as stretch of spoken speech sounds. A lexical word is seen to have more than one meaning, and the additional meanings are seen as derived from the basic meaning of the word through metaphorical or figurative extension.We get words that are conditioned by the application of figure of speech in polysemy. The property that belongs to a word, and sometimes to a phrase, but never to a unit smaller than a word, of being moved around in a sentence. The relationship between the units of two levels of structure where the higher level unit, though it is seen to be related to the lower level units in a hierarchy, is independent of the lower level units and has properties of its own, not derivable from the lower level units. Cf. . When the same phonological\orthographic word realizes two or more distinct grammatical words, we have syncretism. 1. Have you come across expressions like - 'wanna', 'gonna', and 'wannabe, Howdy?'

2. In informal spoken American English what are these four expressions supposed to be contractions of? 3. In terms of word-types, how many Phonological Word (PW), Orthographic Word (OW), Grammatical Word (GW) and Lexical Word(LW) can you identify in these four expressions? 4. You know that compounds in English are written in three ways: as (e.g., bedroom, bulldog), as (e.g., red tape, money order) and (e.g. swim-suit kick-start). Look up a dictionary and find out ten compounds of each type. 5. Study any ten word compounds closely. Can you figure out any rational basis for the decision to write them the way they are written? 6. What consideration seems to guide the decision to write some compounds as one word and some as two words? 7. Identify and comment on the homonyms and homophones in the following passage from : Here the Red Queen began again. 'Can you answer useful questions?' she said. 'How is bread made?' 'I know that!' Alice cried eagerly. 'You take some flour…' 'Where do you pick the flower?' the White Queen asked, 'in a garden or in the hedges?' 'Well, it isn't picked at all,' Alice explained, 'It's ground…' 8. What kind of relationship between the phonological word and the lexical word is responsible for the humour in the following dialogue? serve shrimps serve size 9. Comment on the homonymy and the polysemy that makes the above joke possible. 10. Which of the following forms listed below are words according to the theory of word as 'a minimum free form' and why? boy's; boy; 's; girls; girl; s; cornflakes; footpath; taller; fall;er; Red Indian; childlike; I'm; its; it's. 11. Why the others are not words by this theory? 12. What difficulties do we face if we posit a composition relationship between

morphemes and words, i. e, if we say that words are made up of morphemes? 1 1 2 1 (want) 1 1 2 1(go) ((GOING) 1 1 3 1 (want) 1 1 4 1 (do:2nd) nd) .:Find more examples of English Compound words and make a tabular presentation. : Do yourself : Homophones and near-homonyms: 'flower' & 'flour' \flau \:one - many relationship between the phonological word \flau\ and the orthographic words 'flower' and 'flour'. Hence homophones. The same phonological word \flau∂\, but not the same orthographic word, belongs to two different lexemes, hence near-homonyms. 'ground' (noun) and 'ground' (past participle of 'grind'). One phonological and orthographic word belongs to two different lexemes: Ground and 'Grind'. The single phonological and orthographic word ' belongs to two different lexemes: a. The word 'shrimp' means 'small shellfish used for food.' And b. The word 'shrimp' means ' . There is a one-to-many relationship between the phonological word \ ò rimps \ and the lexical words that are inter-related. is involved in the use of the verb 'serve'. The two related meanings are: (I) 'to dish up food.' (2) 'to wait upon a person at table'. The joke partially depends upon the fact that the customer uses 'serve' in the first sense while the waiter uses it in the second sense. Partially, the joke depends on the two senses of the word, 'shrimps'. Words are;

These are words because they cannot be broken down into smaller free forms: they themselves are the minimum free forms. Some of them can be broken down into two smaller forms, e.g. the word { and ('s). As (is not a free form by itself, boy's stay the minimum form, though 'boy' is also a free form. Others are not words for different reasons: • are not words as they are not free forms. • are not minimum forms; each of them can be broken down into two smaller forms which occur freely. • 'I'm' and it's are not words because they are made up of two words each: • 'I and " here are not like ; in boy's; stands for 'I am'and " for is. The test of positional mobility shows that 'am' is not tied after I, though at first that is how it looks. We can also say ' We face two major problems: First, this means we treat both morphemes and words as physical entities and be able to demonstrate that every word is physically (i.e. phonologically and orthographically) composed of smaller physical units called morphemes. This is not possible as morphemes which are physically identifiable in many words are identifiable only by meaning in context in many others (e.g., the plural morpheme in plural nouns). Secondly, words have a number of 'emergent' properties or properties which are not derivable from their constituent morphemes. For example, words belong to grammatical classes like nouns and verbs and morphemes do not require categorical status. The grammatical class of a word cannot be predicted from knowledge of its 'constituent' morphemes 'Breakable' (adjective and 'breakage' (noun) both contain the morpheme break which is a verb as a word, while the morphemes -able and -age have no class properties by themselves. This shows that the property of belonging to a grammatical class is not derived from morphemes as morphemes are never judged by this property. 1 Written representations of phonemes. 2 Spoken representations of human speech sounds. 3 Phonemes that have acquired currency as onthographially available lexemes or grammareres. 4 Related representations of speech or narrative through written scripts. 5 Minimal minimum units of a word of English Language. 6 Related to combination of written morphemes and Speech Sounds of English. 7 Combined approach of considering phonological representation of a morpheme or morphological representation of a phonological utterance.

? The present Module will depend upon the basic understanding of the concepts already introduced in the previous Module. This Module will focus on improving Practical skills in linguistic and morphological analysis of English Lexical words and Functional words. It will emphasize on the Practical aspect of Inflectional and Derivational morphology of English words. This Module will analyze Semantico– syntactic structures of English morphology and deal with all the major and minor processes of Morphophonemic improvement of English Morphology and Phonology as well. In the previous Module we established certain basic principles of the formal study ofwords. The principles are: 1. Words are not the smallest units of language either in terms of meaning or form. 2. The smallest unit of language is the morpheme. It is the smallest unit of meaning as well as grammatical function. 3. Word and morpheme are the two lowest levels of structure in the grammar of English language. 4. The relationship between the levels in one of realization. Morpheme and morpheme combinations are realized as words. 219 MODULE - 2: AFFIXATION AND PHONOLOGICAL PROCESSES 220 NSOU ?PGEL 5 & 6 In this unit, we will look at mainly one class of morphemes, the bound grammatical morphemes, and see why it is desirable to analyze the grammatical word into constituent elements which include bound grammatical morphemes. We will then go on to describe the main types of bound grammatical morphemes in English and shall see the role they play in the formation, and the role of words belonging to the different parts of speech in English through the process of affixation 1 . After successful completion of this unit you would be able to: • distinguish between the inflectional and the derivational morphology of English, • to operate with concepts relevant to the morphology of English, e.g., stems, roots, affixes, etc., • see how the application of the principles of inflectional morphology to English words yields the paradigms of nouns, pronouns, adjectives, adverbs and verbs, and • make a distinction between regular and irregular forms in the paradigms. Among the distinctions we made in the previous module, these will be particularly relevant to the present and the following units. We shall therefore list and describe them in the context of as a process of word formation in English: A. Certain morphemes in English are such that they are realized at the word level into independently occurring word forms, while others are realized, only in combination with other morphemes into merged forms where their separate identity may not always be represented by phonological or orthographic means. In that case morphemes are realized as in the course of English word formation. B. The free morphemes like and occur at the level free morpheme 2 . The words, "boyish, bookish and reading" do enjoy the same status as English words.

221 NSOU ? PGEL 5 & 6 C. The last three words mentioned above (boyish, bookish, reading) are however and they contain two morphemes in each. The first two words contain the morpheme - while the last word contains ' . These morphemes occur only in combination with other free morphemes like and and are not realized as independent word forms. ' is actually the morpheme . It's convenient representation as here is based on the fact that it is orthographically realized as the , but this kind of opportunity is not available to us in all cases. For example, the morpheme , when combined with the morpheme , gives us the 'read' and the phonological form /red/, neither of which presents us with a convenient grasp on the morpheme. Therefore, morphemes like or of a verbal paradigm can only be treated as abstract entities. D. As we cannot regard some morphemes as abstract and others as concrete, all morphemes are treated as abstract. This, however, does not affect the division of morphemes into free and bound. Morphemes like , which are not realized as independently occurring words, are bound morphemes that are addable as . E. Lexemes were defined in the previous units as abstract entities which represent meanings. Meanings are based on references to external objects or concepts associated with external objects. However, not all language units we identify as words have meanings in this sense. For example, function words 3 do not refer to anything outside the language. They only help to relate words, or units

222 NSOU ?PGEL 5 & 6 made up of different combinations of morphemes to one another. In other words, they only have grammatical functions. F. Grammar is a collective name for the set of rules that describe how words in a language are combined together to produce well-formed sentences. As function words only play a role in producing grammatical combinations without contributing any meaning of their own, they are said to belong only to the category of grammatical words or grammaremes and never considered for their lexical properties. G. Forms of lexical words are derived by prior application of linguistic rules of morphology. H. As all English words are either or morpheme compounds before they are recognized as words, function words too can be seen as abstract grammatical morphemes before they are realized as words. I. Thus, the orthographic word ' ' can be seen as corresponding to the abstract grammatical morpheme . J. As opposed to grammatical morphemes, lexical morphemes are those morphemes which (individually or in combination with other lexical morphemes) are realized by lexical words at the word level. These include words belonging to the categories of nouns, adjectives, verbs and adverbs that are considered as in traditional School Grammar. K. Both grammatical and lexical morphemes can be free or bound. Articles, Pronouns and other Determiners 4 are examples of free grammatical morphemes as they are realized as freely occurring word forms. L. But morphemes like are not realized as freely occurring word forms but as modifications on other freely occurring lexical word forms. This is why they are called bound morphemes that can be added as in English. It is quite possible for some of these morphemes, if they occur in another language, to occur as free morphemes. M. Similarly, nouns, adjectives, verbs and adverbs, which are all realized as free- occurring lexical words, are free morphemes, while morphemes like , and are considered as suitable bound morphemes, to be used as in English. N. Unlike lexical morphemes, grammatical morphemes are never considered for content meaning. But it would be wrong to conclude that they make no contribution to the meaning of the sentence. However, their contribution to meaning is made not by adding their own independent meaning to the aggregate but by modifying the meanings of the lexical words in the sentence in certain fixed ways.

223 NSOU ? PGEL 5 & 6 O. Bound lexical morphemes) also make their contribution to meaning by modifying the meanings of the lexical morphemes with which they are combined, but there is an important difference there from the way in which bound grammatical morphemes make their contribution to meaning. P. Bound grammatical morphemes, usually realized as in the phonological forms, modify the meanings of the lexical morphemes to which they are joined in fixed and regular ways, e.g., the addition of the bound morpheme Plural always adds the meaning 'more than one.' Q. Bound lexical morphemes, on the other hand, may modify the meanings of different lexical morphemes in different ways. For example, the addition of the morpheme-suffix '-ize' to the noun symbol adds the meaning 'to act as a ... of; its addition to the noun 'hospital' contributes the meaning 'to put in a hospital for treatment'. Added to the noun 'diesel', the same suffix '-ize' contributes the meaning 'to convert to diesel engine power' and so on. In other words, while the morphological effects on meaning of the bound grammatical morphemes are predictable, those of bound lexical morphemes are not predictable semantically. We can present the information diagrammatically that emerges from the description made so far as follows: Much of what we have to say in this and the following unit has to do with the two classes of bound morphemes we have labelled as X Type and Y Type respectively in the diagram. As you can see, X Type is the class of bound lexical morphemes and Y Type is the class of bound grammatical morphemes. The question we will be dealing with is: Morphemes and Affixes 5 Lexical Grammatical Free Bound Free Bound Noun pre-; -ish Articles Tense Particles Adjectives un-; -al Pronouns Degree Particle Verbs en-; -ize Determiners Plural Particles Adverbs -ly conjunctions Category of X Type 6 Class of Y Type 7 Content Words Function Words

224 NSOU ?PGEL 5 & 6 Later on we shall be concerned with certain other processes of word formation, the processes which do not involve bound morphemes. One of the major characteristics of any human language is that one can always produce and understand new words. In fact, one of the reasons English vocabulary has got richer and richer is that English allows the manufacture of new words almost as a routine matter. Even a cursory look at a newspaper reveals many words which would not be found in a dictionary published only fifty years ago. Words like and were coined in the recent past, and one can now read words like and or too for that matter. Such words are coined according to certain fixed patterns and not at will. For example while one can produce and understand words like the ones just mentioned the new words like have yet to get currency Similarly, one can use a very recently coined noun, , as a verb and say I emailed a reminder to him, but one cannot do that with the quite old noun message to say . In other words, though word formation is a productive process, like all productive processes, it is governed by certain rules. It is our aim in this and the following units, to give you a brief account of the rules that account for the productive processes of word-formation in English. Words can be divided into simple, complex, compound and compound-complex types depending on whether they realize a single free morpheme, a free morpheme plus one or more bound morphemes, two or more free morphemes, or two or more free morphemes plus one or more bound morphemes respectively. See the table below for examples: Boy; sing; kind; write Boys; singing; kindness; writers Playboy; singsong; wannabe; gonna; howdy hot-bloodedness; writer-producer

225 NSOU ? PGEL 5 & 6 This neat picture is disturbed by a relatively small set of complex words which seem to realize as a combination of bound morphemes only. Consider, for example, the set of words . Because of the constancy of the root element 'loc' in all these forms, accompanied by a constancy of meaning (place), some linguists argue that 'loc' be recognized as a morpheme. However, since loc does not appear independently as a word, it must be recognized, as the realization of a bound morpheme. This further leads us to conclude that complex words could also be realizations of combinations of bound morphemes only, since all other morphemes in these words are bound too. Other candidates for complex words of this type could be words containing elements like – (as in); (as in); (as in sanctify, sanctum, sanctuary, sanctity); ' (as in and). The most productive processes of word-formation are seen to be in operation in the making of complex and compound words. The store of simple words, though it is by no means fixed for ever, enlarges by processes which are not always linguistically approved. When ever a new object, or process, or concept is discovered a word has to be found for it. The word can come from anywhere or from different foreign sources e.g. from an ancient language, from a foreign language, from the discoverer's imagination, and so on. Examples of recently invented words are , in Jack Kerouac's "I come splooshing to a no-good end" and googol, adapted from an infant's cooing noise by a mathematician at a loss for a word to describe the number ten raised to the power hundred. Sometimes the new word may be recycled from morphemes already existing in the language. If the new word is a simple one, i. e. if it is not a complex or compound word created from already existing morphemes, the store of simple words of the language is increased. Such words are always content words, as the store of function words is fixed forever. The new word will of course have a corresponding morpheme and this morpheme will then be subject to the same rules of combination and realization that apply to other morphemes of its class. Complex words are words that include multiple As we stated earlier, in the majority of cases of complex and compound words 9 that are realized as words can

226 NSOU ?PGEL 5 & 6 be identified as separate elements (called morphs) in the phonological and orthographic representations. This makes it easier to refer to the morphemes when talking about the rules which govern their occurrence. are building blocks of extensive English vocabulary and are basic elements of word formation. can take the form of a when it is used before a . Common prefixes include un-, dis- and ex-. . can be used as when it is attached after the . Example: -ish; -ity; -ize and so on. can be used as when it is attached and . There are two sub types of infix: ? Morphology is the branch of Linguistics that deals with the internal structure 11 of words. It has a set of terms to describe the various categories into which these morpheme elements 12 can be separated. The basic category-terms are The major affixes are of two types that are better known as and . Infix is an exceptional affix in English. As stated above can also be used as when it is attached and . There are two sub types of infix. See above for examples. A complex word, as stated above, realizes the combination of : i. One free morpheme and one or more than one bound morphemes; or ii. Two or more bound morphemes. Some examples of such combinations are as described below:

impenetrably im- Penetr(e) — - able -y declassifying de- class -i- -fy -ing rechargedly re- charg(e) — -ed -ly hopelessly —- hope — -less -ly hopefully —- hope — -ful(l) -ly deindustrializing de- industrial — -iz (e) -ing Most of these complex words have one free morpheme (e.g.,) and one or more than one bound morphemes (e.g., im-, de-, -able, -fy, etc.). We can call the element that represents the free morpheme in these words the of the complex word. The elements representing the bound morphemes are attached to this base, either at the front or at the end. This base is of course not always a free morpheme: in the case of a complex word it is made up of two or more bound morphemes, i.e. in words containing elements like and cited above, the base is a bound morpheme. In the first word in the above list, the base is ' ' a bound morpheme. Such bases are called bound bases. The bound morphemes that attach themselves to the beginning or to the end of the base are called . The most common

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are of two types in English: that are attached at the beginning of the are called . that are attached to the end of the base are called .

Thus, and are prefixes while and are suffixes. When the affixes are thus factored out, in words containing elements like and these elements will turn out to be the bound bases. do not always attach themselves to bases realizing a single free or bound morpheme: often they attach themselves to bases which are combinations of free and bound morphemes. For example, in the word 'hopelessly', '-ly' is not attached to the free morpheme base 'hope' but to the combination 'hopeless' in which the bound morpheme '-less' is already attached to 'hope'. Similarly, in the word 'impenetrable', the prefix 'im-' is attached not to the bound base ' -' but to the adjective word 'penetrable' which realizes the combination, penetr + able of a free and a bound morpheme respectively. How do we know this? We know this because prefixing 'im-' to the bound base penetr- would give us a nonexistent from *'impenetr'. On the other hand, attaching the element '-able' to the

228 NSOU ?PGEL 5 & 6 base 'penetr-' gives us the form 'penetrable' which is a well-formed adjective to which the prefix 'im-' can now be attached to get the word 'impenetrable'. The steps in the formation of this word are therefore as detailed in and not as in : Serial Serial Number Number 1 *im + penetr 2 (*im + penetr) + able The bound morpheme element 'im-' is here attached not to the single morpheme base 'penetr(e)' but to the combination of a bound base with a bound morpheme which is realized as a suffix-. Im- is thus prefixed to a 'complex base'. Etymologically speaking, most of the English words have got foreign roots (free morphemes) that constitute the base of the word. For example ' ' (Latin) is the in the word 'technology'. The moment we want to understand the etymological construction of a bigger word we have to understand the function of a root. For example if we like to analyse the word 'technological' we must bring the concept of stem root. At first we have to break the word into two parts as shown below: ? ? ? ? ? ? ? ? The term is used in morphology to describe any element, or combination of elements, to which an affix is attached. It is thus synonymous with the term 'base'. In our first example above, 'hope' is the stem to which the suffix '-less' is attached, and 'hopeless, is the stem to which suffix 2 '-ly' is attached. In the second example, the suffix '-able' is attached to the stem'penetr(e)' and not to the stem 'impenetr(e)'; the prefix 'im-' is attached to the stem 'penetrable' and not to the stem 'penetr'. A can therefore consist of :

229 NSOU ? PGEL 5 & 6 i only a free morpheme base, as in 'hopeless', ii a bound morpheme base, as in 'penetrable', iii a base consisting of a free morpheme and one or more than one bound morphemes, as in 'deindustrialize' or 'anti- humanitarianism', iv a 'compound base' consisting of two or more free morphemes, as in 'flowerpots'. A (e,g 'human' in 'anti- humanitarianism'); one consisting of two free morphemes is said to have a compound root (e.g. 'flower + pot' in the word, 'flowerpots'). John Lyons 15 (1968) remarks that grammars written in the classical tradition of Greek and Latin were generally divided into three sections: these sections were respectively Accidence, Word-formation and Syntax. 'Accidence' was also called 'inflection' and 'word-formation'. Lyons also tells us that while these grammars devoted hundreds of pages to inflection and syntax, they devoted only half a dozen or so pages to derivation. The reason for this was that the classical grammarians did not really consider derivation to be a part of grammar. For them grammar was mainly inflection and syntax. Inflection refers to the changes made in the sentence. In classical grammar, this section included topics like the 'declensions' of nouns, adjectives and pronouns and the 'conjugation' of verbs. The section on derivation listed various processes

230 NSOU ?PGEL 5 & 6 whereby new words were formed from existing words, or 'roots', for example, adjectives from nouns, nouns from verbs, etc. The fact that these grammars never completely excluded this section from their grammars shows that they were aware of the regularities involved in derivation, yet they did not give the topic full treatment because they thought derivational forms belonged to dictionary and not to grammar. So the derivational forms were listed as distinct forms in the dictionary, but the inflectional forms 16 were not. They had to be derived by applying the rules given in the grammar. We can restate the inflection derivation distinction in terms of the three distinctions we have made in the discussion above refers to the ways in which bound grammatical morphemes (morphemes of Type)

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combine with stems to be realized as grammatical words. Derivation, on the other hand, describes the ways in which bound lexical morphemes 17 combine with stems to be realized as lexical words.

As we know, both lexical and grammatical words eventually surface as phonological and orthographic words, where these bound morphemes can be identified in most (though not all) cases as affixes. Accordingly, affixes which realize bound grammatical morphemes, and therefore perform only grammatical functions are called . Correspondingly, affixes which realize bound lexical morphemes and help to create new lexical words with distinct meanings are called .

Examples of inflectional affixes in English are the suffix on plural nouns, the suffix on third person, singular number verbs, the suffix "s" on possessive nouns, the suffix on past participle forms of verbs, and so on. In describing the inflectional morphology of English, we will need to describe the various bound grammatical morphemes these and other inflectional affixes of English realize, and various kinds of grammatical functions they perform.

We will also need to describe the forms these affixes take in the corresponding phonological and orthograpic words and any other irregularities that we may notice in this correspondence.

Examples of derivational affixes in English include all those prefixes and suffixes we have called bound lexical morphemes, e.g. and As these bound morphemes combine with other free lexical morphemes, or stems containing them, the derivational morphology of English will need to describe the grammatical category of the morphemes (

or morpheme combinations) to which each derivational affix morpheme can be attached. The grammatical category of the resulting word may cause the change of meaning often brought about by the affix. The affixes often cause any noticeable irregularity in the meaning level of a word and the grammatical regularities or irregularities in the corresponding phonological and orthographic representations are adjusted accordingly. Before proceeding further, it would be useful to summarize the characteristics that 231 NSOU ? PGEL 5 & 6 distinguish the inflectional morphology of English from its derivational morphology. As you will notice, some of these points are restatements of the points already made above: never change the grammatical category (part of speech) of the stem: a noun remains a noun, a verb a verb, an adjective an adjective even after an affix has been added to it. 2. Derivational affixes may or may not change the grammatical category of the stem: Examples: i. ? ii. ? iii. ? . Derivational prefixes in particular do not seem to affect the category of the stem. ? ? ? : en-+ circle (N.) ?encircle (V.) in English are all derivational affixes may be prefixes or suffixes.

Both derivational and inflectional morphemes may occur in the same word, but when that happens derivational morphemes are attached first and inflectional morphemes

last, i.e. derivation creates the input to inflection but not vice versa. Once an inflectional affix has been attached to a form, no other affixes can be added to it. As a result, in a complex word the inflectional affixes mark the outer layer and the derivational affixes the inner layer. Note how the formation of the word illustrates this point: industry industr (i) + (industr (i) + al) + - + {(industr (i) + al) + ize} {de+ {(industr (i) + al) + ize}) +ing}
232 NSOU ?PGEL 5 & 6 The addition of a bound lexical morpheme (a derivational affix) creates a new lexeme (a lexical word) which can independently convert to a grammatical word through the application of appropriate grammatical rules. If both compounding 18 and inflection take place, inflection follows compounding. If compounding, derivation and inflection all three occur, they follow the stated order, e.g., Inflectional affixes modify the meanings of the stem in a regular and predictable way, e.g. the plural affix, the past affix, etc. The meaning change affected by derivational affixes is unpredictable. The definite article morpheme modifies the meaning of the noun it occurs with by making its reference definite; the plural morpheme added to a countable lexical noun makes its reference plural; the past tense morpheme added to a lexical verb changes its time reference to past. The addition of a continuous aspect morpheme to a verb adds the meaning 'action taking place at the point of time being spoken of', and so on. Grammatical function, though distinguishable from lexical meaning, makes its own contribution to the total meaning of the sentence by carrying out certain standard modifications to the meanings of the lexical words occurring in it. Affixes which realize bound grammatical morphemes, and therefore perform only grammatical functions are called . Correspondingly, affixes which realize bound lexical morphemes and help to create new lexical words with distinct meanings are called . a. How are words classified? b. Do all the words have meaning? c. Is it appropriate to call morpheme as a minimal unit of meaning? d. What does morpheme as an abstract entity mean? e. How do we divide a word into morphemes? f. What are the types of words formed with the addition of morphemes? g. How are derivational and inflectional morphemes different? h. Is there an order in which suffixes can be added?
233 NSOU ? PGEL 5 & 6 i. give some examples of infixes in English? j. Can a prefix change the meaning of a word? k. Can the prefix change the grammar of a word? l. Does your language have affixes? 1. Carter, R (1987). , London: Allen Unwin 2. Dey, S.K. (2014). Teaching of English, New Delhi, Pearson Education. 3. Hockett C.F. (1958). New York; The Macmillan Company. 4. Katamba. F. (1994). London: Rutledge. 5. Lyons, J. (1968). Cambridge: The University' Press. 6. Lyons, J. (1977). Vols. I & 2, Cambridge; The University Press. 1 Affixation is a consistent linguistic process of adding bound morphemes with the free morphemes of English Language to coin new words. 2 i.e. independently occurring forms 3 Like modal auxiliaries, prepositions and conjunctions 4 Better –known as Function Words or Functional Words 5 Bound Morphemes are used as Affixes 6 Semantically bound and combined in morpheme 7 Grammatically bound and realized in morpheme 8 the *mark indicates that the form is yet to get grammatical acceptance 9 i.e. the free and bound morphemes in combination 10 Deleted by the effect of Apocope 11 or'morphic setting' 12 or morphs 13 Examples that are never recommended 14 15 i.e. words with bound grammatical morphemes in them 16 i.e. morphemes of the as displayed in above 17 Process of combining two or more free morphemes as words and targeting a singular meaning through such word compounding.

? The inflectional morphology of a language is usually discussed in terms of paradigms. As we have stated in the previous unit, a paradigm refers to a set of forms derived by the application of certain grammatical rules to a lexical, or, in the case of pronouns and auxiliaries, to a function word. Thus the English verb has a paradigm called the ' which consists of the grammatical words derived by the application of those grammar rules which are pertinent to the English lexical verb. For example, the paradigm of the verb ' contains the following forms: Each of these forms is derived by the application of separate grammar rules like formation, (Third Person), formation and formation. 234

235 NSOU ? PGEL 5 & 6 • Describe the and morphology of English, • Learn about the categories which can take inflectional affixes, • Describe the sets of 'grammatical rules' that apply to words of a given category, • Understand the morphological process of Word C nd word C The morphology of English describes the paradigms of all the major grammatical categories of words, namely Nouns (including Pronouns), Adjectives, Verbs (including Auxiliaries), and Adverbs. Only words belonging to these categories take , or are affected otherwise by the rules of grammar. Prepositions, Conjunctions, and Articles do not change their forms at all, and therefore have no paradigms. English nouns fall into two major subcategories: proper and common. The basis of this sub categorization is supposed to be semantic (i.e. meaning based): Proper nouns denote unique identities whereas common nouns denote persons, objects, etc. which are members of a class. Thus, despite the fact that hundreds of males may share the name 'Sachin', each occurrence of this noun refers to one and only one person; on the contrary, no occurrence of the noun 'cat' can refer to only one animal; it must always refer to any member, of the class of cats. But proper and common nouns could also be differentiated solely on the basis of their paradigms. How? To answer this question we must first describe the grammatical rules that apply to nouns. As stated earlier, grammatical rules are rules which state how words can combine with each other to form clauses and sentences. They describe which categories of words can combine with which other categories of words, in what order, with what changes of form, with what signification, and so on. Considered in this way, the rules that apply to nouns can be said to be the following: This rule allows you to choose singular or plural reference. If we want the reference to be singular, we choose the Free morpheme SINGULAR; if we want it to be plural, we choose the bound morpheme PLURAL. This rule states that one noun can combine with another noun to signify possession. This rule applies if we wish to express the meaning ' belongs to '. If we want the rule to apply, we choose the bound morpheme, POSSESSIVE with N1.

236 NSOU ?PGEL 5 & 6 These are the only two rules that apply to the English noun so far as paradigm formation is concerned. Infact, only the second rule applies to the class of proper nouns. This is because there is no choice of number with, proper nouns. Being a uniqueness identifier, a proper noun always has singular reference even when it happens to be plural in form. For example: refers to a group of singers. refers to a country and so on. The only time proper nouns show plural reference is when they are used as common nouns. Hence the paradigm of the Proper nouns contains only two forms, as follows: ? ? ? ? ? ∂ ? ∂ The variation to be seen in the phonological representations is discussed below. The paradigm of the common noun is a little more complicated. Common nouns are further subcategorized into Count and Mass nouns. The formal basis of this subcategorization is that their paradigms are different, but the subcategorization also has a basis in meaning. Count nouns denote objects which can be counted (e.g., cat boy, house, speaker, etc.); Mass nouns denote objects which cannot be counted (e.g., water, milk, silver, advice, and peace). is formed by the application of both number and case rules. The following forms result: cat + singular = 'cat' /kæt/ cat + plural = 'cats' /kæts/ dog + singular - 'dog' /d∂g/ dog + sing+poss = 'dogs' /dogz/ ∂ horse + plural = 'horse' /h∂:siz/

237 NSOU ? PGEL 5 & 6 cat + common = 'cat' /kæt/ cat + possessive = 'cat's' /kæts/ dog + common= 'dog' /d g/ dog + possessive = 'dog's' /d gz/ common horse + possessive = 'horse' /hY:siz/ cat + sing + common = 'cat' /kæt/ cat + possessive = 'cat's' /kæts/ dog + sing + common = 'dog' /'də g'/ dog + sing + poss = 'də g's /də gz/ sing + common ə horse = sing + poss = 'horse's /hə :s/ cat + plu + common = 'cats' /kæts/ cat + plu + pos = 'cats' /kæts/ dog + sing + common = 'dogs' /də gz/ dogplu + poss = 'dogs' /də gz/ plu + common ə horse +plu + poss = 'horses' /hə :siz/ This detailed presentation of the paradigm 2 of the regular count nouns is intended to assist you make out the following points: a. Paradigmatic contrast is shown by means of a regular change in the form (phonological\ orthographic) of the majority of words belonging to the class. b. The number of contrasts in paradigm is determined by the number of such regular formal changes. It is however not necessary for every word of that class to show all the changes. For example, most count nouns in English show the number contrast shown above, but some count nouns don't e.g. sheep and deer. which retain the same form in both singular and plural. This does not affect the existence of the paradigm, but creates syncretic forms. c. Some forms are syncretic with respect to both orthographic and phonological realizations but some others are syncretic with respect to only one of them, e.g., the Plural Number, Common Case, the Singular Number, Possessive Case and the Plural Number, Possessive Case are syncretism with respect to the corresponding phonological word since they all have the phonological shape /kæts/. d. But they are not syncretic with respect to. the orthographic shape which is different in each case, viz, 'cats', 'cats's' and 'cats' respectively. This means that if we were to go by the phonological shape only, we would not be justified in setting up a case paradigm in the plural for the count noun. However,

the existence of the differences in the orthographic representation, and a variety of other factors justify setting up the case paradigm. e. Some English words do not form their paradigms in the regular way. For example, some Common Nouns form their plurals not by taking on a suffix but by changing the vowel sound in the word as shown below: • ? • ? • ? f. Some Common Nouns take the regular suffix but change the final consonant before adding the suffix, e.g., ? g. Some Common Nouns take the irregular suffixes, e.g., ? ? . However, since these nouns show the formal change in one way or another, they still fall in the paradigm. h. Note that when both number and case rules apply to forms like man, child, etc., we get forms like and ə These unsyncretized forms clearly show the phonological shape of the case suffix in the plural which is not seen in the paradigm of the regular count nouns. i. These irregular forms are somewhat more difficult to account for in terms of allomorphic variation. However, an attempt has been made to set up a special kind of allomorph called 'the replaced allomorph' to accommodate irregular forms of this kind. A replaced allomorph is shown as process of change, e. g., . j. A replaced allomorph of the plural morpheme is used in case of . Replaced allomorphs are said to be morphologically conditioned as they occur with certain fixed morphs only. The account is obviously not satisfactory, and does not cover cases like . k. Common Nouns which do not show any changes of form for the plural (e.g. deer + plural ? deer; and sheep + plural ? sheep; dish + plural? fish) are said to have of the plural morpheme in this account. As 'Mass Nouns' denote objects which cannot be counted, the number contrast is irrelevant to them. This is why they have plural inflection. We cannot normally speak of *advices, *informations, *milks, etc. For purposes of verb agreement, mass nouns are treated as singular (i.e. they take singular verbs), but this is not reflected in any way in the morphology of the mass noun. should not be confused with count nouns with zero plurals. Count nouns, even if they do not show the plural number by change of form, can still be

counted: we can say and , but we cannot say or . We must add a countable noun to be able to slice up the mass nouns into countable bits: e.g., or a leg of mutton. Mass nouns do not inflect for case either, instead they occur in the of construction after the noun they modify. We do not say power's love or courage's man but the love of power and a matt of courage respectively. In short, mass nouns do not have number and case paradigms. Now that we have the necessary framework for the description of the inflectional morphology of English, we can state the paradigms of the other parts of speech in a summary, tabulated style. You can expand the statement using the framework outlined above. A pronoun, as we know, is a word that is used in place of a noun when we do not want to repeat the noun again and again. These are words like I, me, us, you, he, she, her, it, them, his, your, yours, etc. These are called . The category of pronouns also covers words like someone, somebody, everyone, everybody, etc. They are called Indefinite Pronouns. The grammatical rules applicable to are: This rule puts the pronoun in nominative, objective or possessive case forms depending on whether the noun is to function as the subject of the verb, the object of the verb or is to be combined with a noun to show 'NP 5 2' belongs to 'NP' 1 relationship where NP1 = the pronoun and NP2 = the noun. With personal pronouns the possessive case produces two different forms which we call here the First Possessive and the Second Possessive form respectively. The difference is between the ways they combine with other words in a sentence: • The First Possessive form occurs before a noun as in the NP 'my • he Second Possessive form occurs after the verb (as in the sentence: The bicycle mine. This rule puts the pronoun in three different forms depending on whether the reference is to the speaker (First Person), to the addressee (Second Person), or to a 'third party 6 '. This rule puts some of the pronouns in three different forms depending on whether the reference is to the male of the species (Masculine), the female of the species (Feminine), or to nonliving objects (Neuter). This rule puts some of the pronouns into different forms

depending on whether the reference is to one (Singular) or to more than one (Plural) person or object. Two essential points are to be noted about the application of these rules: i. The rules apply in an integrated fashion to produce a form, ie., a particular form is the result of the application of all the rules together. Thus the form shows the nominative case, the third person, the masculine gender, and the singular number. ii. The application of the rules produces different forms which cannot be analysed into stem and affix, as in the case of nouns. This does not matter much as purpose of signalling contrast is achieved anyway. can therefore be presented as follows in an integrated presentation: The indefinite pronouns someone, somebody etc.) form their paradigms like proper nouns; they show only case contrast ( ) but no number contrast. Unlike personal pronouns, but like proper nouns, they show contrast by taking on the suffix with parallel phonological shapes. The only grammatical rule with morphological consequences that applies to English adjectives is the . This rule states that most base adjective morphemes can combine with the bound degree morphemes, Comparative and Superlative, to yield inflected forms, while a smaller class of base adjectives yield irregular degree forms. There is another set of adjectives which do not express the degrees morphologically at all, but do it through of the degree words more and most Person Number Gender Case Nominative Objective First & 2 nd Possessive First Singular I me my mine Plural

60%	MATCHING BLOCK 21/46	W

we us our ours Second you you your yours Masculine he him his Third Singular Feminine she her her hers Neuter it its

Plural. they them their theirs

for Comparative and Superlative degree respectively, A few cannot be combined with these bound morphemes at all. For the regular cases the inflection for the Comparative degree is the orthographic form and the phonological form / ə /; for the Superlative, they are '-est' and /ist/ respectively. Thus, the rule yields the forms 'sweeter'/swi:tə / and 'sweetest' /swi:tist/ respectively, from the base 'sweet' / swi:t/. Most monosyllabic 7 adjectives and a large number of disyllabic 8 ones fall in this category. Nearly all adjectives of three or more syllables fall outside this category.Instead of taking on affixes, they use more and most e.g., beautiful, interesting and so on. Also outside this category are adjectives like and which cannot; be compared at all. Those adjectives whose comparative forms are quite unrelated to their base forms are also outside this category. The number adjectives small but they are used very frequently as shown below: good better best well better best bad worse worst far farther farthest far further furthest little less lest little lesser least The inflectional paradigm of the English adjective is thus easily presented : sweet sweet sweeter sweetest /swi:t/ /swi:t/ /swi:tə / /swtist/ Adverbs are words that qualify verbs just as adjectives are words that qualify nouns. Adverbs qualify verbs by describing the place where, the time when, and the manner in which the action denoted by the verb takes place. As with adjectives, the only rule that has any morphological consequences with adverbs is the Degree Rule. The inflectional paradigm is also the same. In fact, a large number of adjectives also function as adverbs and also inflect for degree in the same way as shown below:

Adjective: Did you have to wait a time? Adverb: Did you have to ? Adjective: You can expect a wait this time. Adjective: This was my wait ever. Adverb: I had to wait the this time. Some other adjectives of this kind are etc. They also function as adverbs without any change of form and inflect in the same way for degree. and are two adverbs that inflect for degree but have no corresponding adjective forms. occur only as adverbs. Irregular adverbs are also identical with irregular adjectives, the only difference being sometimes in the positive form. Note the equivalence: Adjective: Alice is a painter. Adverb: Alice paints . Adjective: Alice is a painter. Adverb: Alice paints . Adjective: Alice is the painter. Adverb: Alice paints the T We thus conclude that the inflectional paradigm of the adverb is identical to that of the adjective. Manner adverbs, which take the suffix (e.g., etc.) are not cases of inflectional morphology and will be discussed in the next unit with cases of derivational morphology. The distinction between lexical vs. function words made above, is reflected in the class of verbs in the division between the large subclass of lexical verbs, and a small subclass of auxiliary verbs. Lexical verbs are verbs with meaning content that occur in sentences as main verbs (e.g., 'dismiss' in the sentence 'He the class');

auxiliaries are helping verbs that help the main verb of the sentence to form its tense, voice, etc. (e.g., 'was' in 'The class was dismissed'). Verbs in English are actually of three types: are those verbs which function only as in a sentence, e.g., etc. They form a large and open class into which new members are regularly making entry. are those verbs which function only as auxiliaries. They are a small and closed class with no entry for new members. Verbs like some examples. are verbs which function both as Main verbs and as auxiliaries. There are only three verbs in this class. They are and In describing the inflectional morphology of the English verb, each of the above types must be dealt with separately. The grammatical rules that apply to the English verb are as follows: Full and primary verbs show a change of form depending on the number (singular or plural) and person (first, second or third) of the subject. Full verb take regular inflection for the third person singular number subject in the simple present tense, primary verbs change form completely in both present and past tenses, but modals are not affected at all. English verbs undergo change of form to show the contrast between the present and past tenses only; they do not change form for future reference. The tense rule expresses this by postulating just two bound morphemes, Present and Past. When the verb combines with Past, a change of form results in most cases. A combination with PRESENT leads to a change of form only if Third Person and Singular Number are also present. Compare: I/we/you(Sing.), you(Plu.) he/ she/ they looked very interesting. I/we/you (Sing.), you(Plu.)/they . look very interesting. He/she looks very interesting. T When we speak of the Continuous tense (or bound morpheme), or of the Perfect tense, we refer to an aspect of the action we are talking about which is not correctly captured by the term 'tense'. iv. 'Tense' refers to the time of action, present or past, but 'continuous' and 'perfect' refer to whether the action is in progress, or has been completed, at

the time of which the speaker is speaking. Thus, an action may be in progress in the present ('present continuous') or may have been in progress in tire past ('past continuous'); it may have been completed in the present ('present perfect') or in the past ('past perfect'). Tense continuity, or completion, of the action is what is referred to by the term Aspect. v. Aspect always occurs in combination with a Tense morpheme: Present or Past. Since Aspect has two modes, Continuous, and Perfect, altogether we get four possible combinations which we have just enumerated. These four combinations are realized as combinations of an auxiliary and an inflected form of the main Verb, as follows: is\am\are + verb + ing He is\I am\We, You / They are singing. was\were + verb + ing I/He was eating We/ You/ They were reading. have\has + (verb + en) I/You/They have changed. He has changed. had + (verb + en) I/ We/ You/ He/ They had changed. T refers to the past participle form of the verb e.g., (having syncretism with the Past Tense form). Active and passive voices of the verb have important implications for the sentence as a whole. In the active voice the 'subject' of the verb is the noun which denotes the agent, or doer, of action described by the verb; in the passive voice, the subject is the noun which denotes the 'affected' person and corresponds to the object of the verb in the active voice. Examples: • arrested • was arrested . (Passive) The same action can thus be viewed from the viewpoint of the agent or the affected. Since the presence of both agent and the affected is necessary for the active- passive contrast to obtain, the voice rule applies only to verbs with objects, i.e., to transitive verbs only. When Active Voice is chosen there is no change in the verb form for voice, but when Passive Voice is chosen the main verb is put in the -en form and is preceded by an appropriate form of the verb Be.

245 NSOU ? PGEL 5 & 6 Lexical verbs can be divided into two classes with respect to the morphological changes they undergo as mentioned below: : appear in all the four forms: the base form (work), the form , the form and the form They have no past participle form distinct from the past form. However, not all verbs which show four forms are regular; some of them form their past and past participle forms in irregular ways, e.g., and so on i. If we know the base form and the grammatical rules we can predict all the other forms, ii. Newly coined words follow their pattern, and iii. The vast majority of English Lexical Verbs follow the same pattern in this way. T fall into two sub types as mentioned below: Type 1:-Those verbs which have and Type B:-Those verbs which show only . The verbs belong to the first sub type. They have five forms because the past and the past participle 11 forms in their case do not show syncretism they show separate forms for these roles (e.g.,). Irregular verbs belonging to the second sub type show only three unchanged forms, e.g., . In their case, three different rules yield the same, syncretized, form: Present (Non-Third Person Singular), Past and Past Participle. The following table shows the forms of both regular and irregular verbs: work works working worked worked jump jumps jumping jumped jumped break breaks breaking broke broken cut cuts cutting cut cut We have shown the paradigm in orthographic 13 representation above but the distinctions are retained in the phonological representation too. The only differences that are noticed are allomorphic. As in the case of the plural morpheme of nouns, the orthographic, suffix is realized as three phonetically conditioned

246 NSOU ?PGEL 5 & 6 • ? ∂ • ? ʌ and • ? ò . In the case of the regular verbs, the past and the past participle morphemes, orthographically realized as , also have three phonetically conditioned : • /t/ after (as in ? ∂); • after (as in hugged ?/ hʌgd); and • after and (as in ? and ? ; The phonetic reason for the occurrence of the allomorph is similar to the reason for the occurrence of the allomorph; like two successive alveolar stops also make an unpronounceable sequence in English phonology. In the case of irregular verbs, there is considerable variability and unpredictability in the way the past and the past participle forms are phonologically realized. Some verbs (e.g., have two past (participle) forms some verbs end in \d\ but change it to \t\ in the past (participle) form (e.g.,). Some show no change from the base, and so on. However, they all form their and forms in the regular way. The modals do not change their forms for any of the four rules which cause morphological changes in the lexical verbs. This means that by just looking at the form of a modal verb you cannot predict the person and number of the subject, nor the tense, aspect. The only exception to this generalization that may be cited is the use of modals like in sentences where they might be seen as past tense forms of respectively, e.g., in the sentence. or in the sentence, . But in these instances and are best seen as sequence-of-tenses partners of the reporting verb and respectively. rather than as past forms of and . This is because, if we look forms like and as indicators of past tense we would either fail to give any interpretations or produce erroneous interpretations for sentences like in which the time reference, if it is relevant at all, is to the future. Primary verbs, as we stated above, are those verbs which occur both as main and auxiliary verbs. There are three of them in English: and .

247 NSOU ? PGEL 5 & 6 See the table below for examples of how the Primary Verb sare used as main and auxiliary Verbs in English: Alice (main verb)a popular writer, Ria (Aux.) leaving for London tomorrow. I (Main verb) panic for Corona Virus. I (Aux.) written a book on Corona Virus. (Aux. + Tense Past) (Main) in his first class? T The morphology 14 of these verbs, both as main and auxiliary verbs, is, however, the same. All the four rules given above apply to them to produce a varied of forms For example, in the First Person, Singular Number. Verb 'To Be'has the form am in the Present Tense, in the PAST TENSE; in the First Person Plural, Second Person Singular and Plural and the Third Person Plural, it has the form are in the Present Tense and were in the Past Tense; in the Third Person Singular, it has the form is in the Present Tense and was in the Past Tense. The Continuous Aspect and the Perfective Aspect forms are and respectively. The other primary verbs also show similar forms. The morphology of the English verb is too complicated to allow us to present all its paradigms in a single chart. The chart given below makes an attempt, but leaves out many details. An additional dimension of finite and nonfinite forms is however introduced. The inflected verb forms can be divided into two classes according to whether they can complete a sentence alone, providing all the necessary information about person, number, tense, etc., or whether they require the assistance of another verb. Thus, in the sentence, " t he form in is enough to complete the sentence, but in the sentence " cannot complete the sentence by itself. It needs the assistance of the verb , which shows the person and number of the subject and the tense, while only shows aspect. Therefore, we say that ' ' is a of the verb, while 'yelling' is a 15 one. Among the inflected forms, the Continuous and the Perfective forms are , others are finite. The modals are finite too.

248 NSOU ?PGEL 5 & 6 T Self Evaluation 11 Follow the Diagrammatic display of morphological analysis of the word, "realization' and complete such diagrammatic display of the words given below: [Abbreviations -used: W= Word;Pref. = Prefix; Inf. = Infix;Suf. = Suffix;] T a. centralization b. coordination c. running d. nominalization e. rationalize f. humanoid g. circumlocution h. technologically i. coronation j. scientifically Evaluate yourself in the scale 1-10: Your Grade: Type of Verb Finite Non-finite Base -s form Past Form -ing form -en form Regular Work works Worked working worked Irregular break sit quit breaks sits quits Broke sat quit breaking broken sitting quitting quit Primary have do be has does am, is, are Had did was, were having had doing done being been Modal will, would, shall should, can, could, may, might, must, ought, dare, need and used

249 NSOU ? PGEL 5 & 6 In discussing derivational morphology there is less reason to maintain a constant distinction between the affixes themselves and the bound morphemes they realize, since the two ultimately refer more or less to the same objects. This is unlike the case of inflectional morphology, where a bound morpheme is not always realized as an affix but sometimes as a modification inside the word and sometimes not even this. Still, in inflectional morphology, one can make a guess about the presence of the morpheme from the context and meaning. In derivational morphology, on the other hand, the bound morphemes are always realized as affixes; therefore we can make our description simpler and less cumbersome by talking of bound morphemes as if they referred directly to the affixes. But, for the purposes of theoretical justification, the relationship we have posited between the levels of the morpheme and the word is in Unit 5. There is a small set of affixes in English which are attached at the beginning of a stem to modify its meaning. Some well known examples are the negative prefixes un- , in-, and dis-. But negation is not the only modification of meaning the prefixes as there are a few other modifications too. The reason why we think of English prefixes readily in terms of their effect on the meaning of the stem is that, unlike most suffixes, the prefixes do not affect the grammatical category of the stem at all, so the grammar based system of classification described above is of no use to them. Having subclasses as shown below may best explain changing perspectives of , Generally derivational prefixes do not change the category of the stem and try to say something more useful about them. The change in meaning at least tells us exactly how the resulting word differs in meaning form the stem. Here are some of the ways in which the prefixes modify the meaning of the stem. Prefixes like and negate the meaning of the stem adding the meaning 'not', 'opposite of, 'lacking in', etc, e.g., etc. The prefix has four allomorphs: with stems beginning with /p/,/b/, and /m/; with stems beginning in /r/; with stems beginning in /l/, and elsewhere. is a typical reiterative and privative prefix. Prefixed, to a noun - or a verb, it produces the meaning 'reverse the action', e.g., (= lift the control), or the meaning 'deprive of (dethrone = deprive of the throne). The prefixes and are also used in this sense,

250 NSOU ?PGEL 5 & 6 e.g., . Prefixes like and are called because they add the meaning 'bad', 'badly', 'wrong', 'false' and other disparaging terms to the meaning of the stem, thus adding a disparaging shade to stems with a neutral meaning, e.g., . The prefixes express numbers; express degree; and express size; express rank, e.g., . None of these prefixes affect the category of the stem. There are some prefixes (e.g., as in as in) which do of the stem. The number of such prefixes, called , is however very small. The first classification of the suffixes is to be made on the basis of the grammatical category to which the word resulting from the suffixation belongs. On this basis the suffixes are classified as follows: Suffixes that produce Nouns: e.g., Suffixes that produce Adjectives: -e.g., Suffixes that produce words that can-be used either as Nouns or as Adjectives : e.g., Suffixes that produce verbs: e,g., . e.g.,

251 NSOU ? PGEL 5 & 6 In the second classification each of these types is sub-classified on the basis of the grammatical category of the stem to which the suffix is added. The first classification tells us the grammatical category of the word after the suffixation; the second classification takes as its basis the category of the original word, i.e. the stem. On this basis, we arrive at the following scheme of classification of suffixes: Suffixes forming Nouns from Noun stems: from Adjective stems: from Verb stems: Type bond + -age ? bondage King+ -dom ? kingdom; bag + -age? baggage star + -dom ? stardom engine + -eer? engineer profit + -eer ? profiteer teenage + -er ? teenager garden +-er ? gardener jewel + -ery ? jewelery slave 17 + -ery ? slavery boy + -hood ? boyhood widow +-hood ? widowhood farm + -ing < farming shirt + -ing ? shirting; book + -let ? booklet drop +-let ? droplet fellow + ship ? fellowship member +-ship ? membership; Type -dom : free (Adj) + -dom ? freedom (N,) -er : five (Adj) + -er ? fiver; six (Adj) + -er ? sixer (N,) -hood : false (Adj) + -hood ? falsehood (N) -ness : bitter (Adj)+ -ness ? bitterness; dark < darkness (N) -th : warm < warmth(N); with change of stem in broad (Adj) + -th ? breadth (N); -th < long (Adj)+-th ? length; deep (Adj)+-th ? depth (N)

252 NSOU ?PGEL 5 & 6 Type -age : Break (V.) + -age ?breakage (N.);cover (V.) + -age coverage (N.) -ant Inhabit (V.) + -ant ?inhabitant (N.); lubricate 17 (V.) + -ant ? lubricant (N.) -ation : alter(V.) + -ation ? alteration (N.); starve 18 (V.) + -ation ? starvation (N.) -ee : employ (V.) + -ee ? employee (N.); train(V.) + -ee ? trainee (N.) -er : write(V.) + -er ? writer (N.); dance (V.) + -er ? dancer (N.) -ment : appoint(V.) + -ment ?appointment (N.); equip (V.) + -ment ? equipment(N.) Suffixes forming adjectives from Noun stems: from Adjective stems: from Verb stems: Type -al : nature (N.)+ -al natural (Adj.); culture (N.)+ -al cultural (Adj.) -ial: prudent (N.)+ -ial? prudential(Adj.); president (N.)+ -ial? presidential(Adj.) -ical: zoology (N.)+ -ical?zoological(Adj.); philosophy (N.)+ -ical? philosophical(Adj.) -ful(l): beauty (N.)+ -ful? beautiful(Adj.); use (N.)+ -ful? useful(Adj.) -ish : child (N.)+ -ish? childish(Adj.); fool (N.)+ -ish ? foolish(Adj.) -less : cash(N.)+ -less? cashless(Adj.); pain (N.)+ -less? painless(Adj.) -ly : mother (N.)+ -ly? motherly(Adj.); woman (N.)+ -ly ? womanly(Adj.) -y : filth(N.)+ -y? filthy(Adj.); hair(N.)+ -y ? hairy(Adj.) Type) -ish : green (Adj)+ -ish ? greenish (Adj.); white(Adj)+ -ish ?whitish (Adj.)sweet (Adj)+ -ish ?sweetish (Adj.) Type

253 NSOU ? PGEL 5 & 6 -able : attain (V.) + -able ?attainable (Adj.); break (V.) + -able ? breakable (Adj.) -ant: depend (V.) + -ant ? dependant (Adj.-ent : differ (V.) + -ent ? different(Adj.); depend (V.) + -ent ? dependent(Adj.) -ful : forget (V.) + -ful ? forgetful (Adj.); resent(V.) + -ful ? resentful (Adj.) -ative : talk (V.) + -ative ? talkative (Adj.);represent (V.)+ -ative ?representative (Adj./N.) -ive : attract(V.) + -ive ? attractive (Adj.); distract(V.) + -ive ? distractive (Adj.) Suffixes forming words which can be used as nouns (N.) or as adjectives (Adj.) from Noun stems: from Adjective stems: Type Suffix -ese : China (N.) + -ese ? Chinese (N./Adj.);Japan (N.) + -ese ? Japanese(N./Adj.) -ian: Shakespeare (N.) + -ian ? Shakespearian(Adj.) -ist : violin (N.) + -ist ? violinist(N.); Marx(N.) + -ist ? Marxist(N./Adj.) -n : India (N.) + -n ? Indian(N./Adj.); Victoria (N.) + -n ? Victorian(Adj.) Type Suffixes forming verbs from Noun stems: from Adjective stems: Type

254 NSOU ?PGEL 5 & 6 -ify: Code (N.) + -ify ? codify (V.); sign(N.) + -ify ? signify (V.) -ize : terror(N.) + -ize ? terrorize (V.); criminal(N.) + -ize ? criminalize (V.) -fy : beauty (N.) + -fy ?beautify (V.) Type -en : short (Adj.) + -en ? shorten (V.); ripe (Adj.) + -en ? ripen -ify: false (Adj.) + -ify ? falsify (V.) : simple 19 (Adj.) + -ify ? simplify(V.) Suffixes forming adverbs from Noun stems: from Adjective stems: from Adverb stems: Type -ward: home (N.) + -ward ? homeward -wise : length (N.) + -wise ? lengthwise; clock (N.) + -wise ? clockwise Type -ly : quiet(Adj.) + -ly ? quietly (Adv.); silent (Adj.) + -ly ? silently (Adv.); angry (Adj.) + -ly ? angrily (Adv,); stealthy(Adj.) + -ly ? stealthily (Adv.) Type ? -wards up (Adv.) + -wards ? upwards (Adv.); down(Adv.) + -wards ?downwards (Adv,) We can carry the classification further as Type and Type can be further sub-classified into which form and those which form . Thus a fairly detailed description of the suffixes can be achieved. However, we will conclude our description by giving you examples of only the subtypes that have been listed above. No attempt has been made to give the meanings as the next unit will introduce you with the called semantic realization.

255 NSOU ? PGEL 5 & 6 Look at the following sentences; 1a. A stood outside the door. 1b. The scene of the sunset description. 2a. I want to buy a for my room. 2b. I want my drawing room . You will notice that the words beggar in and carpet in above are used as , as the use of the indefinite article with them would show; the same words are used as in 1b and 2b respectively, as their use in past tense forms indicates. i. The base / root form of the word . ii. No or is added to convert the Noun into a Verb or the Verb into a Noun. iii. There is a process of word creation involved here, in fact one which is quite popular in English. iv. The process creates a new lexical word, with sufficiently different meaning to merit a separate entry in the dictionary. v. At the same time, however, one can detect some relationship between the meanings of the word beggar in and , and of the word in and , and the relationship is sufficient indication that we have a case of derivation here, even if no affixes are in evidence. vi. Thus the word ' (Verb) may be paraphrased as 'to make into a beggar'; (verb) may be paraphrased as 'to cover with a carpet', and so on. vii. The relationship between the pair of word seems to be similar to the one that, exists in the following pairs: • en-+ ? (='to make a slave') • be-+ ? ('make into a friend'), • en-+ ? ('cover with crust') These are all cases of derivation with an affix. That is the reason why cases of conversion like the present ones are often described as

256 NSOU ?PGEL 5 & 6 Use the format given with two examples and find out the meanings of the following affixes: Affix-used - Derivational class − maintaining Suffix Derivational class − maintaining Suffix as in as in as in as in as in bliss as in as in as in as in as in Conversion cases also share the other features of cases of derivation : A word cannot undergo conversion after an inflectional affix has been added to it (e.g., the plural form of a noun cannot convert to a verb; the past tense of a verb cannot become a noun), but it can still undergo conversion if it has acquired a derivational affix: e.g., • ? ? • ? ? : beg ? beggar ? to beggar Historically the word beggar predates the word beg which was derived from the former by ; see the section on in the next unit. module In fact, compounds can also undergo conversion, e.g.,

257 NSOU ? PGEL 5 & 6 • ? • ? ; Secondly, conversion means a of the word, a feature we find only with cases of . Thirdly, like a case of derivation, a word derived by conversion forms its on the pattern of words belonging to the category to which it belongs after conversion\derivation. For example, when the noun is converted into a verb, the verb has all the four forms of a regular verb (e.g.); similarly when a verb like is converted into a noun, the noun has a plural form , and may also have the possessive form in Indian English as expressed in the term, ' , though the preferred expression is . How do we decide the direction of the conversion? Having stated that the Noun is converted into the Verb and the Verb is converted into the Noun you may farther ask: ? Why not the other way round? ? How do we decide? We use the following two criteria: If the English word denotes a person, or an object, it is first a Noun; if it denotes a quality, it is primarily an Adjective; if it denotes an action, it is primarily a Verb, and so on. By this criterion, is primarily a Noun and the Verb is a conversion. The word ' is primarily a Verb and the Noun ' a conversion. The word ' is primarily an Adjective and the Noun ' an example of . Some affixes are typical of Nouns (e.g.,), others of Adjectives (e.g.,), still others of Verbs (e.g.,). When we find a word with a typical noun affix used as a verb, we can conclude that the verb is a conversion from a noun, e.g., the word ' in the sentence:"My friends in Darjeeling." The same criterion applies to Nouns with typical Verb prefixes (e.g.,) or with typical Adjective suffixes (e.g.,) Since is very much , we can follow the same method of classification with cases of conversion that we followed with cases of derivation, viz. the method of double classification, first in terms of the category of the word

258 NSOU ?PGEL 5 & 6 resulting from conversion ( ) and then in terms of the category of the base word, or From Verb Base, From Adjective Base,). We can also use parallel terminology to describe the classes. ? The noun denotes:- a. the agent of the action (denoted by the verb): b. the object the action: c. a single instance of the, action: d. the instrument used for the: action: e. feeling, emotion, state of mind expressed f. place of the action: ? The following cases of adjective-noun conversion are however different: here the adjectives become full nouns, i.e. they have a : • these adjectives-turned-nouns inflect for number as well as case. • when referring to newspapers and magazines, these words also show the full of nouns. Almost any adjective can be made into a plural noun by putting the definite article before it, e.g., and , but these nouns are at best cases of , as the nouns thus produced cannot be used like full nouns. For example, they have no ; moreover, they must always occur with , and, finally, unlike they can inflect like adjectives: . (Auxiliaries / Conjunctions/ Particles /Affixes and Phrases ? Nouns) • This is a . • No please • .... of life • .... the various of the modern world •

259 NSOU ? PGEL 5 & 6 • • These too are cases of partial . ? We can describe these noun-based verbs on the basis of the kind of meanings they convey vis-a-vis the meaning of the noun, e.g., a. Perform an action which will result in the Noun: b. To put something in the Noun: c. To provide with, or apply, the Noun: d. To produce or make, to change into, to go or send by means of, the Noun: ? a. A To be or to become Adjective: b. To cause to become Adjective: From adverbs: From particles: (as in 'He upped and left.); to down (as in 'The writers downed their pens during the pen down strike.') A. From Noun Base to Functional Adjectives: Nouns are often used in a modifying function, i..e. like an adjective. ? a house chain ; University (BESU) B. From Verb Base to Adjective: Some adjectives are also derived from verbs but they are not cases of complete conversion. C. Verb ? Adjective: They usually require a 'conversion prefix' as shown in the following examples: • ? The baby has fallen

260 NSOU ?PGEL 5 & 6 • ? : The ship is still • ? He is not of kind English nouns fall into two major subcategories known as Proper Noun and Common Noun. Lexical Verbs are those verbs which function only as main verbs in a sentence, e.g., dismiss, jump, hit, eat, and so on. The form a large and open class into which new members are regularly making entry. are those verbs which function only as auxiliaries. They are a small and closed class with no entry for new members. Verbs like can, could, shall, should, will would, may, might are some examples. are verbs those which function both as Main verbs and as Auxiliaries. There are only three verbs in this class. They are be, have and do. As with Adjectives, the only rule that has any morphological consequences with adverbs is the Degree Rule. The inflectional paradigm is also the same. In fact, a large number of Adjectives also function as Adverbs and also inflect for degree in the same way. Derivation is a process by which new lexical words are created from old ones by adding affixes to them. Such affixes are called derivational affixes. Derivational affixes are different from inflectional affixes in a variety of ways. Basically, inflectional affixes do not create new words, only grammatical forms of the same lexical word. The addition of a derivational affix to a word modifies its meaning, end this modification has no predictable direction. Inflectional affixes

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do not change the category of the word to which they are

attached, derivational affixes often do. This makes the classification of derivational affixes more complicated. Derivational affixes cannot be classified on the basis of the category of the stem because the same affix can be attached to stems belonging to different categories. Moreover, no derivational affix can be attached to all the stems of given a category. Derivational affixes also cannot be classified on the basis of the category 1 of the word resulting from the affixation since the same affix produces words of different categories. Nor can derivational affixes be classified on the basis of the effect they have on the meaning of the stem because this effect is not constant (except with derivational prefixes). Another approach to the classification of derivational affixes relates the derived words to the underlying syntactic forms. But differences of meaning between the derived word and the underlying forms are not explained by this approach.

261 NSOU ? PGEL 5 & 6 1. How do you distinguish content words and structure words? 2. How many types of content words do we have? 3. Do all the content words take affixes? 4. What is the difference between a derivational affix and an inflectional affix? 5. What are the types of affixes nouns and pronouns have? 6. What is common to the affixes in Adjectives and Adverbs? 7. What are the affixes a verb can take? How does it make it complex? 8. What are zero affixes? Can we say that mass nouns take zero affixes? 9. Give five examples of Conversion. 10.Classify Derivational prefixes with illustrations. 1.

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262 NSOU ?PGEL 5 & 6 1 Taken from Latin nomen "name, noun" (from PIE root *no-men- "name"). Old English used name to mean "noun." 2 A set of linguistic items that form mutually exclusive choices in particular syntactic roles 3 The word 'fishes' is also used in the sense when fish of different varieties are referred to in context. 4 Known as Non count Noun also 5 Noun Phrase 6 Grammatically known as the Third Person 7 Containing one syllable 8 Containing two syllables 9 Related to verbs that have got full-fledged dictionary meanings and notes on their usage. 10 Better known as Modal Auxiliaries in Traditional Grammar. 11 It denotes perfect aspect of verb in English Language. 12 See unit 8 for details 13 Related to written scripts in English Language 14 The scientific study of English word structure and the constituent morphemes of English words. 15 Non-finite verbs require the assistance of Auxiliary verbs. 16 See Unit 8 under this Module for understanding use of English Suffixes. 17 The last vowel sound/script (e) is deleted by the Doctrine of Apocope. 18 The last sound '/t/ and letters 'te' js/are being omitted by applying the Doctrine of Apocope. 19 The last vowel is omitted under the Doctrine of Apocope.

? English Language like all other modern Languages of the world is highly semantic- bound language. Naturally 'Semantics 1 ' became a key issue in English Language Teaching. Let us introduce its meaning and scope at the outset. The meanings of words are constantly changing and we cannot say what the words we use today will come to mean the same in the future. Words are not exact signs for definite and unchanging conceptions as are the formulas of mathematics, Circumstances and the trend of a people's thought exercise decisive influence upon the signification of words. Moreover, the word-meanings are greatly modified by the adoption of foreign words bearing similar meanings. That the words have no essential meanings but are merely conventional signs is borne out by the semantic changes. Consider, for example, the sentence from If we take the words of the sentence in their signification they have today, the sentence will mean, "He was a very perfect gentle knight." Our meaning is, however, far from what Chaucer meant, because Chaucer meant, knight . In the days of Chaucer meant 'true' (not very), meant 'complete', (not perfect), meant 'noble' (not gentle). In their sense-development words are often seen to pursue some well-marked tendencies such as generalization and specialization. 263

After going through this unit, you will be able to: a. Understand how meanings are attached to a word b. See that meaning a word has is not constant, it changes across time and place c. Understand how some words can offer more than one meaning d. See the reasons for words acquiring special meaning. English words mean the same. It means that English words often target precise meaning. Sometimes words which are originally of wide reference are seen to have undergone specialization in meaning or to have become restricted in use. A classic example of this specialization of meaning is the word Formerly the word meant learned men in theology, law, and in many other fields besides medicine, but nowadays it is applied only to the practitioner of the healing art, whether having a University degree or not. In Old English (cognate with German) signified "time". But in Middle English its application was restricted, and came to mean chiefly the time of the periodical rise or fall of the sea; afterwards it was used to name these phenomena of the sea, the older sense being sufficiently expressed by the synonym time. Starve (O. E. 3 Steorfan), like its German cognate 4 s originally "to die". Now the meaning has been specialized in Standard English to signify "to die of hunger" while in many dialects it means "to die of cold". The word 'deer' (O. E. deor) meant 'animal' of any sort down to the sixteenth century, but is now applied to one particular kind of animal. The word 'cattle' formerly meant 'property' and it was used in this sense down to the sixteenth century. In an agricultural society living animals like cows, oxen, goats, hens, bees, lambs etc., are one of the chief forms of property and from the beginning of the fourteenth century the word (cattle) was specialized to mean 'live-stock', living creatures that could be kept or dealt in for profit or use. Afterwards the word has undergone another round of specialization, so that it now means bovine animals only. There are some words in English which were originally used to mean either good or bad things; but now they have been specialized to mean or the other. The word 'c originally meant 'opinion', favourable or unfavourable as found in the following Shakespearean lines: "And your name is great,

In mouths 5 of wisest " (Source:) The word has now come to mean 'unfavourable opinion.' The word 'retaliate' which was originally applied to benefits as well as to ill-treatment is now limited only to ill-treatment. When a word has acquired a restricted sense, it is not uncommon to find the older sense preserved in proverbial phrase, compounds etc. Thus the older sense of meat (O. E. mete), which originally meant 'food' is preserved in the compound sweetmeat, or in the proverb "One man's meat is another man's poison." The original signification of the word 'play' (O. E. plega), which was 'motion' of almost any kind is preserved in technical usage, as in "The piston rod does not play freely", "the play of the valve." When a word has been specialized in meaning, the restricted sense does not always drive out the other sense the two (or more) senses exist side by side for centuries. As Edgar says in Shakespearean play, (III, 4, 149): deer He is using in its original sense meaning any animal .The specialized and the wider sense of cousin existed side by side down to the 18th century when the wider sense "kinsman or kinswoman" became obsolete, except for special use. By extension of meaning is meant the widening of a word's signification until it covers much more than the idea originally conveyed. The word offers a good example of the extension of meaning. The word originally meant a small receptacle, furnished with a lid, and intended to contain drugs, ointment, jewels or money. Gradually the sense grew wider and the word came to denote other things resembling box in shape and use. Down to the end of the seventeenth century the word's signification was restricted to objects of comparatively small size. After 1700, this restriction disappeared so that a chest and the like for holding clothes could be called a box. The meaning of has now been so wide as to be equally applicable to what would formerly have been called a box, and to what would formerly have been called a chest. We now say a pill-box, a bandbox, a box for clothes, a box in a stable, a box in a theatre, a shooting box and box office. And to top it all, in the modern days, the human brain is also referred to as 'box'. The word (Latin 'river') meant originally "neighbours who used to get water from the same brook." Gradually it came to suggest the contest arising between neighbours respecting their riparian rights. But today we use the word to designate competitors in politics, or business or love.

The lexical verb ' which is an adaptation of an Old French word meant, etymologically, to . In English it was applied to signify other modes of conveyance, perhaps at first by joke, as when we speak of 'carting' some object from one room to another. "In the end, the verb became the most general expression", as Bradley says, "for the act of removing a thing from one place to another by lifting it from the ground." In this sense, the older verb has come to be superseded, to a great extent, by the verb to Take also the word which originally meant " ". But today its signification has become so general that a girl may be ; a box of chocolate may also be lovely; a dinner may be ; a chair may be ; a day may also be . In many words extension of meaning has gone so far that they mean nothing in particular. There are many English words which once had a precise and definite meaning; but now they can be applied to so many things that they mean really almost nothing, just as a man who is equally intimate with everybody has no real friends. The word 'circumstance' illustrates best this phenomenon of semantic change in English. It means literally "things that stand round one"; but it has now become so vague that we say without hesitation, "under the following circumstances". The phrase includes, as Greenough and Kittredge say, "three inconsistent expressions of direction or position: , and Yet we do not feel the inconsistency." The word 'presently' originally meant immediately; but since the seventeenth century it has passed to its rather vague and indefinite meaning of today. The word ' which originally meant 'discussion' and also 'legislative assembly' has now come to mean a variety of things with the result that it means nothing definitely. There are many words which once meant something rather definite, but have gradually faded into their present vague and shadowy condition. Such words are, in modern English . According to G. L. Brook, "Another extreme form of extension is the tendency, particularly noticeable in slang, for adjectives of the most varied origins to become either vague terms of approval or vague terms of disapproval. Standard English examples are , others." The tendency of a word to acquire a less favourable sense than it originally had is commonly known as (of meaning). The word ' meant the

desire to learn, a feeling of interest that led to inquiry. Dr. Johnson used the word ' in this sense when he wrote: " (Source: The English Dictionary: 1755) Recently the word has undergone degeneration in meaning and has come to mean "inquisitiveness with reference to trifles or matters which do not concern one". The word 'sensual' originally possessed no negative meaning and was used in the sense of sensuous or based on sense organs. In the sixteenth century the word came to imply some sort of vulgar or vicious meaning. So Milton was compelled to coin the word ' to fill up the gap caused by the degeneration of the word . It is interesting to note that John Keats, a famous poet of the Romantic period (CE 1770 – 1850) used the word with the old and innocent signification in his poem "Ode : "…….Ye, soft pipes, play on; Not to the ear ……." (Lines 12-13) The word 'ghost' once meant 'good and sweet spirit in general. With the introduction of the (Latin word ' ? Old English spirit) it deteriorated in meaning, and came to acquire the dishonorable sense of "the apparition of a dead person". The older sense of the word survives in religious phrases like "Holy Ghost". Coleridge, another notable poet of the Romantic period used the word 'ghost' with the original and honourable sense in his long poem " as quoted below: ghost (Lines 307-308) The word , in Old English and down to the mid part of the 14th century was used in the sense of 'enemy' i.e. opposite to the word 'friend'. But with the introduction of the French word ' its use in the sense of ' ' was usurped by the French intruder, except its use with reference to the unseen enemies of the souls of man. In the end the original meaning of was quite forgotten, and it became simply equivalent to devil. The word 'silly' (O. E. saelig) originally meant 'blessed' or 'happy' like its German cognate selig. "In the (ME) the word 'silly 7 ' was often used satirically in a tone of mockery, envy or admiration, and hence acquired the disparaging sense which it now has acquired".

The adjective word ' which now implies originally meant "of humble birth". In the sixteenth century playwright Marlowe used the word in the original sense in " . The character Younger Mortimer says in the play: "The glozing head of thy minion thrown" Edward II Obviously used the word 'base' in the sense of "of humble birth". also used it in the original sense in his play "Hamlet" (1603). When Hamlet says that he once regarded it as "baseness to write fair" (v, ii, 34) he means that he once thought that the ability to write fair belonged to those who were of humble birth, and not that it was morally unworthy. The semantic history of the word ' is also very interesting. (from French) was formerly used in a good sense of "darling", but now it has acquired the contemptuous sense of a base, unworthy favourite. used the word in the modern contemptuous sense, as in "The glozing head of thy base minion thrown." Shakespeare used it both in the good and bad senses. Sergeant's description of Macbeth as "valour's minion" contains the original (also good) sense while the line, "Go, rate thy minions, proud insulting boy" (Henry VI, Part 3, II, ii, L 84) contains the modern bad sense. According to A. C. Baugh 8 , the degeneration of meaning may take the form of the gradual extension to so many senses that any particular meaning which the word may have had is completely lost. In other words, degeneration results sometimes from generalization or widening of meaning. The word 'g originally meant large in size, the opposite of 'small'. But today anything from a ball game to the weather may be great. Other words which have suffered this type of degeneration are , , and so on. If words sometimes go downhill, they sometimes undergo the opposite process known as . The word ' (Latin) originally meant 'report, talk', but the word is now used in a good sense. The older sense is preserved in the phrase "a house of ill fame". Many words which were formerly slangs have now undergone elevation of meaning. Thus in the eighteenth century and were slangs, but in the nineteenth century they attained respectability, the former partly through the influence of Thackeray. The word which originally meant "harsh, rough or intractable" is now used in a wholly complimentary sense. Smock was applied to a woman's undergarment down to the 18th century and was an offensive in tone with

reference to the weaker sex. But now the word has been uplifted in its connotative meaning and has come to be applied to a woman's outer garment. Nowadays, we also speak of an artist's smock. "Extension of meaning", as G. L. Brook 9 says "has often led to elevation. A word which once had quite a precise meaning is liable to become a vague expression of approval if it describes a quality which many people regard as admirable". The word 'nice' best illustrates this semantic development. This French word found its way into English in the thirteenth century, and was used in derogatory senses. In the sixteenth century it was specialized in the sense of "fastidious, difficult to please". In the eighteenth century the word again underwent an extension of meaning and became a term of praise. Nowadays we use the word in many senses – The word has been raised in caste, but has become vague in signification. There are in English a large number of words which have undergone semantic change through the addition of emotional connotation to their primary meaning. Illustrative examples of this semantic process are the adjectives and In their etymological sense these words merely express the fact that something passes the ordinary or prescribed limits. Thus "an enormous appetite'' formerly meant what we now call an abnormal appetite; "an extraordinary event" was simply not an ordinary event; "extravagant conduct" was conduct which did not conform to the established rules of conduct. Nowadays the use of these adjectives not only indicates something that is unusual or abnormal, but also excites our wonder, indignation or contempt, while referring to the abnormal or unusual character of their respective nouns. The word ' rievous' has also undergone this kind of change. The word, nowadays, implies sympathy on the part of the person speaking, while formerly, it did not signify any such emotional association. The words g and mean very much the same thing, but the word ' has emotional implication which the word ' lacks in English. There are many English words which have undergone semantic changes because they have been popularly misunderstood. The use of the verb to in the sense of 'to happen' or 'to take place' is not uncommon nowadays, especially in newspapers.

270 NSOU ?PGEL 5 & 6 Literally means 'to emit or to be emitted through the pores of the skin' and a circumstance may be correctly said to have transpired in the sense of becoming known, becoming public gradually. But the use of in the sense of 'to happen' has arisen, Jespersen thinks, through a vulgar misunderstanding of the English signification of an English word. The word ' reposterous' is another such word which illustrates this process of semantic change through people's misunderstanding. Literally the word means only "placed in reversed order". If a letter written today is delivered (before the letter written) on yesterday, the delivery of the letter should be called in accordance with the original sense of the word. But from the use of the word in contexts in which its exact meaning was not obvious, the unlearned people wrongly took it to mean something like "outrageously absurd". This mistaken sense is now firmly established. Other words belonging to this class of semantic changes is emergency (as used in the sense of premises ingenuity. • Specialization is the restricted usage of wide referenced words. • Widening of a word's signification from its original idea is extension. • Addition of emotional connotation to the primary meaning of a word results in semantic change. • Misunderstood words undergo semantics changes. 1. How is meaning of a word established? 2. Is it appropriate to say the meaning of a word is static? (Give examples) 3. How do you understand the term 'extension of meaning'? Give some examples 4. How do you understand the term specialization? What are some unique examples? 5. Can a word which was respectable earlier lose its meaning? What is this phenomenon called? Discuss with the example of a word like 'curiosity'. 6. What does elevation of meaning refer to? How does this happen? 7. There is a phenomenon called semantic change? Do you experience it now? D:/CC-7/CC-7(1)p.6.5 [10th proof]

271 NSOU ? PGEL 5 & 6 8. What are the two types of semantic changes? 9. What was the original meaning of the word 'transpire'? What does it mean today? 10. Do you know the word 'transpiration' in plants? Which of the meanings of transpire does it convey? 1. Baugh, A. C. & Cable, Thomas. (2002) UK. Routledge. 2. Brook, G.L. (1958). USA. W. W. Norton Inc. 3. Carter, R. (1987). London: Allen Unwin. 4. Greenough, J. B., and G.L. Kittredge. (1935). London: The Macmillan Company. 5. Hockett C.F. (1958). New York; The Macmillan Company. 6. Katamba. F. (1994). London: Routledge. 7. Lyons, J. (1968), Cambridge: The University Press. 8. Lyons, J. (1977). Vols. I & 2, Cambridge; The university Press. 1 Scientific study of meaning of English words in context 2 Restricted usage of particular English word 3 Old English 4 (of a word) having the same linguistic derivation as another (e.g. English ? German ? Latin /French ?). 5 Phonological oral words -suggested 6 The semantic process by which a word loses its glorious position and means something mean or debased 7 Bradley Henry. The Making of English. Dover. Dover Press (Reprint, 2006) 8 A History of the English Language (Routledge: 2002) 9 A History of the English Language (W. W. Norton Inc. 1958)

? In the previous units of the module, you have learnt on affixes, and semantic changes. This unit is on Phonological process, where you will learn more on sound changes of a language. When we write we give spaces between the words. But when we speak, we do not give pauses. We speak continuously and in different paces. We speak slowly to enunciate words, at normal speech or at a fast pace and speak with intonations and other suprasegmentals features. The continuous spoken form of the language causes words to come in contact with each other and result is sound changes. This change is usually between

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the last sound of the pervious word and the first sound of the

following word or it can be within a word. In some places there is a partial change, while at other places there are total changes in the sound segments. The sound changes occur because of ease of utterances, from overlapping sounds and for speaking at different paces. After going through the unit, you will: • Learn on the concept of sound change, • Learn on partial and total sound changes, • Understand various kinds of phonological process, 272

273 NSOU ? PGEL 5 & 6 • Know about the application of sound changes in utterances. The features of sounds of the phonological system of a language are affected due to processes. These changes can be partial or total. The process which affect the sounds of the phonological system of a language are phonological processes. Sound changes are not arbitrary. Let us take few examples. The regular plural in English is (-s) as is book-s or it is uttered as (-z) as in bag-z or it is uttered as (-iz) as in rose- iz. The phonetic shape of the plural allophones changes due to a voice element. The plural suffix agrees with the voicing of the previous phoneme and becomes voiced as in 'bags'. This sound change or change of utterance is called assimilation, or specifically voice assimilation. Assimilation is the process whereby one sound becomes more like another sound which are adjacent or at a distance, by one or more phonetic features. It is the most common phonological process amongst the languages of the world. Assimilation can occur within the same word or between two words. Let us work on the following tasks to make this concept clear. Find the sound changes in the following plural forms and discuss the reasons. a. dog /dɑg/ ⇒ dogs /dɒgz/ b. love/lʌv/ ⇒loves /lʌvz/ c. dock ⇒docks d. giraffe ⇒giraffes e. moth ⇒moths f. badge ⇒badges g. nose ⇒noses h. bird ⇒birds i. sea ⇒seas Your answer: These are examples of . In dogs, loves, birds and seas, the plural morpheme ' −s' becomes /-z/ and for badges, noses it becomes /-iz/. For giraffes, moths and docks it is /-s/. The voiced feature of the last phoneme of the root word assimilates the plural marker as a voiced phoneme /z, iz/. Find out the sound changes for the following paradigms.

274 NSOU ?PGEL 5 & 6 a. /in+ possible/ impossible b. /in+ reclaimable/ irreclaimable c. /in+ balance/ imbalance d. /in+ logical/ illogical Your answer: You must have noticed that the nasal consonant /n/ in English negative prefix /in/ shows a change in its phonetic features when occurring as a word. The changes in the above paradigm are either partial assimilation (when /n/ changes into another nasal sound 'm') or total assimilation (when it becomes 'r' or 'l'). When the preceding sound is changed, or the following sound influences the preceding sound, the change is . In progressive assimilation, the direction is forward, while for regressive assimilation it is backward. Lets us work on the following tasks. Find out whether the following are progressive assimilation or regressive assimilation Wash-washed /d/⸱⸱➙/t/ nice shirt /naɪʃ ʃɜt/ Trick-tricks /z/⸱⸱➙/s/ in+pose = impose Tenth /n-dental/ handkerchief /hæŋkətʃiːf/ Your answer: When the changed sound retains one of its phonetic features, there is . For example incredible /iŋkedə bl/. When two sounds become identical (geminate, or double consonants), there is . Let us take a few examples. Account, Arrive, Aggressive, Abbreviate The prefix 'ad-', meaning to, towards, assimilates to the first consonant of the following morpheme. The organs of speech prepares for the following sound. . Find out the type of assimilation form the following word sets: A B Appeal indivisible / ɪndɪˈvɪzɪb(ə)l / Attend imbalance Affect inadmissible Appear incredible Your answer:

275 NSOU ? PGEL 5 & 6 . Study the following words. Each one is a kind of assimilation. Name them. a) Little (loss of plosion) b) Does she /dʌ ò iː/ c) Read this /riːd ðis/ → /riːddis/ d) Pen /p h ∈n/ (the vowel is nasalized) Your answer: Answer for Task 4 Set A is total assimilation as the prefix 'ad-' changes to 'ap-' in appeal and appear, changes to 'at-' in attend and to 'af- ' for affect. Set B is partial assimilation as the prefixes retain their nasal feature when occurring in the context of another morpheme. /in-/+balance becomes imbalance due to the influence of the following bilabial phoneme. Answer for Task 5 a. Partial, b. total, c. progressive, d. regressive Dissimilation is a phonological process where two nearby sounds become less similar or distinct from each other in one or more features. Dissimilation is less common in the languages of the world. Dissimilation occurs to make speech sounds distinct from each other. Along with overlap and ease of pronunciation, distinction is an important feature of the spoken language. Let us consider the following paradigm of nouns and adjectives from English. Noun Adjective Noun Adjective Mechanic mechanical module modular Nation national table tabular Orbit orbital circle circular Pasture pastoral angle angular In the first set of words, the adjective suffix / −al / is added to the noun without the /l/ phoneme. In the second set this suffix is /-ar/ as there is /l/ in the base form. These are examples of progressive dissimilation, where two distant sounds have become dissimilar. Regressive dissimilation is more common then progressive dissimilation in English. Let us work on the following tasks on dissimilation.

276 NSOU ?PGEL 5 & 6 . Discuss the sound changes in the following distant sounds and mention the direction of dissimilation. February /ˈfɛbruərɪ/⸱⸱➙/ˈ fɛbjʊərɪ/ Etcetera /etˈsɛtərə/ ⸱⸱➙/ekˈs ɛtərə/ Asymmetry /ˌeɪˈsɪmɪtri/ ⸱⸱➙/ ˌeɪˈsɪmətri/ Capitulate / kəˈpɪtjuleɪt/ ⸱⸱➙/ kəˈpɪtʃuleɪt/ Your answer: Insertion is a kind of sound change where one or more sounds are added to a word or in between words. This phonological process can come from historical or diachronic changes or as a cross linguistic features. In English, there are examples of an intrusive /r/. The word car is usually uttered as /cɑː/, but when this occurs in continuous speech, it occurs as in car /ka: (r)/ as in the utterance car and house /ka:(r) ə n haJ s/ The intrusive /r/ is found even if it is not there in the spelling. For example, law and order /ln ɔːr ə n n ɔːdə /. Many Indian languages have borrowed words from English and modified their utterances. English school /skuːl/ becomes /ɪskuːl/ and class / klɑːs/ ⸱⸱➙ /kɪlɑːs / in many Indian languages. These are all examples of epenthesis. Ep-en-thesis means Epi= on; en-in; thesis = putting. That is addition of a sound to a word. . Discuss intrusive / r/ from the following examples. You may need to transcribe the word first. Star-staring Draw-drawing Asia and Africa Fear-fear of it Your answer: . Find out the epenthetic vowel/consonant from the following. Balck-/blæk/ Train-/trein/ Change-/t ò eind3/ Bus+s-/bə zɛz/

277 NSOU ? PGEL 5 & 6 Your answer: Deletion is a phonological process where a sound is deleted, that is, it is no longer pronounced. Let us take a few examples to learn this process. a) Handbag - /hændbæg → hænbæg/ b) Family - /fæmili →fæmli/ For a) 'handbag', a medial consonant sound /d/ in between /n/ and /b/ is deleted in pronunciation. For b) 'family', the vowel /I/ in between /m/ and /l/ is deleted. is the loss of an initial vowel or syllable from words in speech. For example, 'bout' for about 'round' for around 'cause' for because In the first and second examples, the word initial short vowel /ə / is not pronounced and makes the word mono-syllabic. In the third example, the first syllable /bI/ is dropped. The phonological processes in the words lead to reduction in the number of syllables. is the loss of a medial vowel or syllable from a word while it is pronounced. For example, Choc'late for chocolate Ev'ning for evening Batt'ry for battery Camra for camera In choc'late, the medial vowel '-o-' is dropped, and the medial vowel 'e' is dropped in ev'ning, batt'ry and 'camra'. The reduced pronunciations results make the tri- syllabic words bi-syllabic. is the loss of a final vowel or syllable from a word during its utterance. For example: Ad for advertisement Demo for demonstration Bio for biology Can you add five more words to this list, where one or more than one syllable is deleted word finally?

278 NSOU ?PGEL 5 & 6 Your answer: Find out the kind of elision for the following examples: Surprise / səˈrprʌɪz/ ⸱⸱➙/ səˈprʌɪz / Broccoli / brɑklɪ / Restaurant / restrɒnt / Specs for Spectacles Maths for mathematics Sample for example Champ for champion Your answer: Metathesis is a process which occurs when two sounds interchange their positions in an utterance. That is they are transposed. Metathesis can occur between two adjacent sounds or between two distant sounds. The sounds involved can be two vowels or two consonants. For example, Ask⸱⸱➙/aks/ Asterisk ⸱⸱➙/astəɪks/ In the two examples, the sound segment /s/ and /k/ interchange their places during pronunciation. This is an example of contiguous metathesis word finally between two consonant sounds. Now let us look at some more examples: Comfortable ⸱⸱➙comftorble /ˈkʌftɔrbl/ Introduce ⸱⸱➙intorduce /intɔrˈdjuːs/ Here we find non-contiguous metathesis between vowel and consonant sounds word medially. For 'comfortable' the sound /t/ jumps ahead two sounds , /o/ and/r/ to occur in the second syllable of the word during pronunciation. In 'introduce', /r/ and /o/ interchange their places. This is also an example of contiguous metathesis word medially. In English, metathesis is diachronical. Sounds form Old English have changed in Modern English due to metathesis. Let us work on the following task. Discuss metathesis from the following:

279 NSOU ? PGEL 5 & 6 Prescription ⇝ prescription horse⇝ hros /Brid/ Old English ⇝/Bird/ Modern English /frist/ Old English ⇝ /first/ Modern English Your answer: Co-articulation is the spreading of phonetic features either in anticipation or in the preservation of the articulatory process. For example, it is easier to lower the velum while a vowel sound is uttered before a nasal sound than to wait for the vowel articulation to complete and then lower the velum for the nasal sound. As in the articulation of /comment/ or /langue/. Co-articulation is also found in word sequences. Let us look at the articulation of the following word sequences. this shop /ðɪs/ / ʃāp h / ⇒ this shop /ðɪʃ ʃāp h / this tree /ðɪs/ /tri:/ ⇒ this tree /ðɪs tri:/ this fast /ðɪs/ /fɑ:st/ ⇒this fast /ðɪs fɑ:st/ In the above co-articulations, the alveolar fricative 's' changes to palato-alveolar fricative ' ò ', when the initial sound segment of the word following it is a palate-alveolar sound. Let us work on few more examples to understand co-articulation in English. : Mention the sound changes from the following words Language /læŋgwɪdʒ/ Song /sɒŋ/ Length /leŋɵ/ Your answer: In the examples, the /ng/ is co-articulated as /ŋ/. This sound segment consists of the velar feature from /g/ and the nasal feature from /n/. Let us take another set of illustrations on co-articulation. Is there any difference in the articulation of the voiceless velar stop in the following sets of words? Pork peek Walk week Look leak

280 NSOU ?PGEL 5 & 6 You must have noticed that the velar sound after front vowels is fronted to palatal and are retracted after back vowels. Now examine the following sets of words. Key caw Kit caught Kid could Keep cook Discuss the changes in articulation of the velar sound from the above paradigm. Your answer: We have studied different kinds of phonological processes. There are certain statements that can be made on the processes that are covered in this unit. These statements are: • Due to sound change there exist multiple forms of utterances of a single word. • Metathesis and Epenthesis are examples of dissimilation. • Voicing is a kind of assimilation. • Assimilation rules reflect co-articulation. You have learnt on writing phonological rules in Paper 4 Module 4 Unit 14. There are ample instances of phonological rules from the phonological processes that we have learnt. From assimilation, write two rules for each of the phonological processes. There are few review questions to test your comprehension on the unit. Discuss the phonological changes for the following words/ word sequences:

281 NSOU ? PGEL 5 & 6 1. Integral ⇝ intregral, Disintegration ⇝ disintregration 2. Bank⇝ /baŋk/, sung ⇝/sʌŋ/, long ⇝ /lɒŋ/ 3. Every time she thought of the parrots /'ɛvrɪ 'taɪm ʃɪ 'ɵɔrəv ðɪ 'pærɔts/ 4. /Kæb/⇝/kæbz/, /kæp/⇝/kæps/, /mætʃ/⇝/mætʃəz/ 5. News /nju:z/ ⇝newspaper /nju:speɪpə/ 6. Used /ju:zd/ ⇝ used to /ju:st tu/ 7. Start ⇝ started /'stɑ:tɪd/, decide ⇝/dɪ'saɪdid/ 8. Christmas /krismas/, sandwich /sænwɪtʃ/, handsome /hænsəm/ 9. Lovely /lʌvlɪ/, secretary /sekr(ə)trɪ/, mustn't /mʌsnt/ 10. I don't know /ˌaɪ 'də nəu/, For the first time /fəðəˌ fɜ:s'taɪm/ Halle, Morris. (1983). . Cambridge, Massachusetts:MIT Press. McMohan, April. (2002). . Edinburgh: Edinburgh University Press http://staffnew.uny.ac.id/upload/132107096/pendidikan/ Book+one.pdf Odden, David. (2019). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

? The canonical linguistic process is the cycle of the speech-circuit (Saussure: 1915 1). A speaker expresses a psychological idea by means of a physiological articulation. The signal is transmitted through the medium by a physical process incident on a hearer who from the consequent physiological impression recovers the psychological idea. The hearer may then reply, swapping the roles of speaker and hearer, and so the circuit cycles. After going through the unit, you will be able to: • Learn on surface structures based on consonants and vowels of English, • Learn on Linguistic Processes, • Understand functions of Linguistic Proceses. For communication, successful speakers and hearers must have shared associations between forms ( ) and meanings ( ). De Saussure called such a pairing of signifier and signified a The relation is one-to-many (ambiguity) and many-to- one (paraphrase). Let us call a stable totality of such associations of a It would be arbitrary to propose that there is a longest expression (where would 282 MODULE - 3 : MORPHOLOGY ACROSS LANGUAGES

283 NSOU ? PGEL 5 & 6 we propose to cut off … ?) therefore language is an infinite abstraction over the finite number of acts of communication that can ever occur. The program of formal syntax (Chomsky: 1957 2) is to define the set of all and only the strings of words which are well-formed sentences of a natural language. Such a system would provide a map of the space of expression of linguistic cognition. The methodological idealisations the program requires are not unproblematic. How do we define 'words'? Speaker judgements of well-formededness vary. Nevertheless there are extensive domains of uncontroversial and robust data to work with. The greater scientific prize held out is to realize this program 'in the same way' that it is done psychologically, i.e., to discover principles and laws of the language faculty of the mind/brain. Awkwardly, Chomskyan linguistics has disowned formalisation as a means towards such higher goals. The program of formal semantics (Montague: 1979 3) is to associate the meaningful expressions of a natural language with their logical semantics. Such a system would be a characterisation of the range and means of expression of human communication. Again there are methodological difficulties. Where is the boundary between linguistic (dictionary) and world (encyclopedic) knowledge? Speaker's judgments based on precondition of reading experience and world view as well as entailments vary in different situations. The program holds out the promise of elucidating the mental domain of linguistic ideas, thoughts and concepts and relating it to the physical domain of linguistic articulation. That is, it addresses a massive, pervasive and ubiquitous mind/body phenomenon. Therefore, we need to see through the of a given linguistic structure and the under it. Linguistic process involves both the structures as reiterated below: that is better known as that is better known as In this unit our focus is on the surface layer or on the syntactic structure based on Vowel and Consonantal sounds of English language. Define "linguistic Process". Which linguistic process will you apply to understand the following figures of speech: i. Metaphor ii. Simile iii. Synecdoche

284 NSOU ?PGEL 5 & 6 iv. Assonance v. Alliteration The process of building of words from component morphemes that retain their form and meaning in the process of combination can easily be identified in the following phenomena where linguistic process concerns only with the surface layer. Based on the of a sentence we may get different figures of speech. We would keep our focus on three major figures in the forth coming discussion. is derived from Latin's " ". It means "letters of alphabet". It is a stylistic device in which a number of words, having the same first consonant sound, occur close together in a series. This device is used in Media and Advertisement Industry as well as in Marketing Industry and in Customer Management. Alliteration has a very vital role in poetry and prose. ? It creates a musical effect in the text that enhances the pleasure of reading a literary piece. ? It makes reading and recitation of the poems attractive and appealing; thus, making them easier to learn by heart. ? It renders flow and beauty to a piece of writing. In the Marketing and Media Industry, as what we have already discussed, the use of makes the brand names interesting and easier to remember. This literary device is helpful in attracting customers and enhancing sales. The Dead "His soul swooned slowly as he heard the snow falling faintly through the universe and faintly falling, like the descent of their last end, upon all the living and the dead." We notice several instances of alliteration in the above mentioned prose work of James Joyce. Alliterations are with "s" and "f" in the phrases "swooned slowly" and "falling faintly". rom Maya Angelou's " " "Up the aisle, the moans and screams merged with the sickening smell of woolen black clothes worn in summer weather and green leaves wilting over yellow flowers."

285 NSOU ? PGEL 5 & 6 Maya gives us a striking example of alliteration in the above extract with the letters "s" and "w". We notice that alliterative words are interrupted by other non-alliterative words among them but the effect of alliteration remains the same. We immediately notice alliteration in the words "screams", "sickening smell", "summer", "weather" and "wilting". rom forth the fatal loins of these two oes; A pair of star-cross'd overs take their ife." This is an example of alliteration with the "f" and "l." in words "forth, fatal, foes" and "loins, lovers, and life". A ly and lea lew into a lue, said the ly to the lea 'what shall we do?' 'let us ly' said the lea said the ly 'shall we lee' so they lew through a law in the lue Read the following excerpts and find out the figure of speech involved, and comment on each excerpt: i. "The camel is the ship of the desert." ii. "We will meet again once the hurly burly is over" iii. " Ye are valour's minion and a minimal hero at the same time" iv. "Tomorrow, Tomorrow And tomorrow, I hope for Better tomorrow." The term refers to consonant length" and this linguistic process is markedly different from the process of i.e that will be described in details later on in this unit. In English phonology consonant length is not distinctive within root words. Example: ? The word is pronounced / , not */bæg:ldz/. However, phonetic gemination does occur marginally.

286 NSOU ?PGEL 5 & 6 is found across words and across morphemes when the last consonant in a given word and the first consonant in the following word are the same , , or . ? /b/: → /sʌbbeɪsmənt/ ? /d/: → /mɪd.del/ ? /f/: → /laɪflfors/ ? /k/: → /bʊkekiː pə ./ ? /m/: → /kaːm 1 mæn/ ? /s/: → /praɪmˈmɪnɪstə / ? /n/: → /iː və nnə s/ ? /p/: → /læmp.poʊst/ or/ lamb post/ With affricates, however, this does not occur. For instance: • ? /ɑrindʒ:dʒjuːs/ In most instances, the absence of this doubling does not affect the meaning, though it may confuse the listener momentarily. The following minimal pairs represent examples where the doubling affect the meaning in most cases as shown below: • ten nails and ten ales • this sin and this inn • five valleys and five alleys • his zone and his own • unnamed and unaimed • and ? (Observed only in some varieties of General American) In some dialects is also found for some words when the suffix follows a root ending in -l or -ll, as in: • ? /soʊl.li/

287 NSOU ? PGEL 5 & 6 but not • ? /juʒ (ʊə)li/ In some varieties of Welsh English, the process of takes place indiscriminately between vowels, e.g. in /mʌni/ but it also applies with graphemic duplication (thus, is orthographically dictated), as in: • ? /bʌtə / iv. " My love is like red Red rose that spring In winter" v. To love her is to love her To love but her is To love for ever." is, basically an of a language that is recognized as a linguistic process based on phonology. This intensifying occurs in several senses as stated below:

288 NSOU ?PGEL 5 & 6 ? tends to draw out the sonic quality of words in a group. This drawing out makes those words more obvious or clearer to the reader ? also tends to encourage the reader to spend more time looking at the sound effect and for thinking about those assonant words. ? encourages continued attention of the readers. ? the reading process (and the reading comprehension process). ? also sounds good and is often easy and/or pleasurable to pronounce, it can also the reading experience of a group of words. This simultaneous speeding up and slowing down of language is pleasurable. ? Needless to explain: Assonance is linguistically so vibrant that it scarcely need any explaination. As semantic meaning is never so formidable in Assonance, it does not involve any need of interpretation or explanation for that matter. The writers know that creating text that is pleasurable to read will attract more attention of the readers. Assonance is of special use to poets because it encourages repeated reading of a group of words. Poets' lines are often more dense with meaning, wordplay, and figures of speech than a typical line of prose is. Sometimes, assonant words can resonate with the content of the lines or sentences in which it occurs, as in the John Donne example from Holy Sonnet 3, above. The assonance in these words allows the poem to , or to the thing it is describing, rather than simply to describe or to tell about it. In prose that reaches for poetic beauty, assonance highlights the craft of the language by calling attention to the language itself. Not all prose wants to make itself known as language; some prose wants to report facts plainly and clearly. But prose using assonance conveys information guides the reader to consider the words chosen and the order in which they're written. In songs, assonance increases the texture of the lines as they are sung, and provides opportunities for interaction with the tones and pitches the singer uses, in combination with the lines. In both the Destroyer and Nirvana lyrics, above, the assonant features are highlighted by the singer via a change in pitch, or a notable increase in the length of the word as it is sung. is a in which the same vowel sounds are repeated within a given poetic or prosaic structure. : In both poetry and prose, assonance's repetition of sound can give language a musical element, as well as emphasize sounds or words that particularly resonate with

289 NSOU ? PGEL 5 & 6 the ideas or themes of the work. When assonance is also alliterative, it can add rhythm to text, i. "He was soon borne away by the waves, and lost in darkness and distance." (Source: Mary Shelley, Frankenstein 1818) ii. "Water water everywhere Not a drop to drink" (Source: S.T. Coleridge. iii. "Ted takes you to Chinatown for turtle Soup, each piece of its floating meat Wholly disparate ..." This poem contains both assonance and alliteration. The /I/ sound in the words "each," "piece," and "meat" slows down that particular sequence, rendering especially vivid the eating of the turtle soup. iv. "Some vodka that'll jump start my heart quicker Than a shock when I get shocked at the hospital By the doctor when I'm not co-operating When I'm rocking the table while he's operating" (Source: Eminem uses assonance in complicated ways throughout his songs, giving them additional rhythm and structure. This example from "Without Me" is a good example: v. "Do not go gentle into that good night, Old age should burn and rave at close of day; Rage, rage, against the dying of the light. . . . Grave men, near death, who see with blinding sight Blind eyes could blaze like meteors and be gay, Rage, rage against the dying of the light." (Source: Dylan Thomas, " ") vi. "O might those sigh and tears return again! ..." (Source: Here, the long /I/ sound is assonant, and its repetition emphasizes how the sound itself seems to embody the feeling being described, that of longing and sighing—of emotional turmoil. Assonance is particularly useful for this kind of sonic demonstration

290 NSOU ?PGEL 5 & 6 of feeling. a. Assonance occurs when sounds are repeated. In the example above, the / / sound is what matters, not the letters used to produce that sound. b. Assonance does not require that words with the same vowel sounds be directly next to each other. Assonance occurs so long as identical vowel sounds are relatively in a given structure. c. Assonant vowel sounds can occur anywhere (at the beginning or end, on stressed or unstressed syllables) within any of the words in the given structure. is identical to another figure of speech called , with one critical difference: Assonance has to do with repeated vowel , whereas has to do with repeated sounds. • "I might like to take a flight to an island in the sky." • "A duck that clucked drove a truck into an aqueduct. is another figure of speech that involves the repetition of sounds and is related to assonance. Assonance and alliteration differ in two key respects. ? Assonance involves the repetition of only vowel sounds, whereas alliteration can involve the repetition of vowel sounds or consonant sounds. ? The repeating sounds of assonance can occur anywhere in a word. The repeating sounds of alliteration, in contrast, must occur either in the first syllables of words or on the stressed syllables of words. In practical terms, these rules mean that assonance can sometimes also be alliteration, but isn't always. Here are two examples of assonance that is also alliteration. In the first example, the assonance occurs at the beginning of words in the group. In the second example, assonance always occurs on stressed syllables of words (note that the second syllables of the words "decline" and "define" are the stressed syllables): • "Aunt Agnes! Ack! Another accounting error!" • I like to decline an offer of wine to define my style.

291 NSOU ? PGEL 5 & 6 In the example below, assonance is also alliteration; because the repeating vowel sound almost never occurs on either the first or stressed syllables (only on "imp" does it do either): "Alice ignored the malice of the imp and bought the palace. If you read this example aloud, and also read aloud the assonance examples that alliteration, you'll sense that, while both have repeating vowel sounds, the examples that are also alliteration have a kind of rhythm to them that non-alliterative assonance lacks. Assonance also plays a role in . Rhyme is the repetition of identical sounds located at the ends of words. Rhymes can be either repeated consonant sounds or vowel sounds (or combinations of the two). A rhyme, then, be assonant, but not rhymes are assonant. Here's an example of assonance functioning as rhyme at the end of lines three and four of the limerick below: "There once was a man named Clark Whose dog refused to bark But when he gave the dog pie It stopped being so shy And is loud nonstop until dark" i. Thistle and darnell and dock grew there, And a bush, in the corner, of May, ii. Would sometimes stoop and sigh, And turn his head, as if he'd said, 'Poor Nicholas Nye! iii. Whre words come out from the depth of truth; Where tireless striving stretches its arms towards perfection; iv. Where the clear stream of reason has not lost; Its way into the dreary desert sand of dead habit; Assonance also plays a noticeable role in " . The "Slant Rhyme" is a type of rhyme formed by words with sounds that are similar but not identical. The

292 NSOU ?PGEL 5 & 6 "Slant Rhymes" often pair similar with dissimilar In other words, "Slant Rhymes" often contain . In the example below from the song "N.Y. State of Mind" "And be prosperous, though we live dangerous Cops could just arrest me, blamin' us, We're held like hostages." The rapper Nas uses to create between the first syllable of the word, ," the word "cops," and the first syllable of the word "hostages." In addition, the assonance of the "us" sound in final syllables of "prosperous," "dangerous," and "could just" establishes the that ends with the slightly different vowel sound in "hostages." Linguistic process inter alia involves close interaction between the surface structure and the deep structure of a given sentence structure. If observed carefully, the surface structure may lead to understanding of Assonance, Gemination and Alliteration in a given literary structure. Assonance involves the repetition of only vowel sounds, whereas alliteration can involve the repetition of vowel sounds or consonant. refers to "repeated vowel , whereas refers to "repeated sounds" in a given structure. Gemination occurs when the consonant sound gets lengthened due to phonemic need. 1. What are Linguistic Processes? 2. What is Assonance? 3. Give examples of Assonance with different senses. 4. What is Alliteration? 5. Are Assonance and Alliteration identical to each other? Why? Why not? 6. What is gemination? 7. Cite examples of gemination from English and your first language. 8. Mention the linguistic process for the following:

293 NSOU ? PGEL 5 & 6 oy an in the aging ain. b. Her own aid ushed the idge of her ow 9. Mention the linguistic process for the following: a. W ter f lls acr ss the utumn r cks. b. The gr n f ld gl ms in the warm sunb ms. 10. Mention the Linguistic process for the following: a. The lo stu qui ly, so Mar alled a loc smith. aura ca ed to te me that i a had fa en i . 1. Caton, E. E. 1972. 'Artificial and Natural Languages', in P. Edwards, ed., . New York: Macmillan Co. & The Free Press. 2. Jackendoff, R. S. (1972). . Cambridge, Mass.: MIT Press. 3. Laura Lunger Knoppers (Ed). (2013). . OUP. Oxford.UK. 4. Karttunen, L. (1977). 'Syntax and Semantics of Questions', 1 Course in General Linguistics (Eds. Bally and Sechehaye and Trans. Roy Harris. 1915) 2 Chomsky, Noam. Syntactic Structure. Mouton Publishers. Paris (1957) 3 Montague's Universal Grammar: An Introduction to Linguist. 1979
? The (phonology) and the (

inter - affect

These morphophonemic

After going through the unit, you will be able to: • Understand interactions between phonological and morphological processes • Know about different kinds of morphophonemic changes • Lean on IPA and Morphophonemic transcriptions. 294

295 NSOU ? PGEL 5 & 6 Morphophonemics is a study about phonological realization of a morpheme (Katamba, 1989). In connection with its phonological process at the level of basic morpheme. Crowley (1987) divides the morphophonemic processes into eight types. They are namely: The word itself "softening" or "weakening" (from Latin lēnis "weak"). An example of synchronic in American English is found in flapping in some dialects: the /t/ of a word like wait /weɪt/ becomes the more sonorous /ɾ/ in the related form waiting ? /weɪtlŋ/. Crowley divides "lenition" into five sub types. They are namely: : The combination of "two consonant sounds" is reduced to one consonant sound, Examples: ? ct has become / ;(/k/ sound is reduced) ? Cold becomes / kə J l/ (/d/ sound is reduced) : Loss of the last vowel sound of a word in its evolution. Example: Old English "lufu" /lufu/ becomes "love" (/u/ sound at the end is lost). c. : The omission of sounds or letters from within a word.Example: ? The word "library" is pronounced as /lʌɪbrɪ/. d. Haplology: Contraction of a word by omission of one or more similar sounds or syllables. Example: ? " " for "mineralology" ? /ˋprä-blē/ for probably : Vowel sound is compressed and sonsonants take care of the phonemic word. SMS language is the result of compression. Examples: ? ? ii. Sound addition: iii. Metathesis: iv. Fusion:

296 NSOU ?PGEL 5 & 6 v. Unpacking: vi. Vowel breaking: vii. Assimilation: viii. Dissimilation: Completing the type, Keraf (1996) 1 mentions a kind of "sound deletion" that occurs at the beginning of a word that is called "aphaeresis". "Sound addition" is further divided by Crowley (1987) into three, namely: a. Anaptyxis: In English, anaptyxis is the insertion of a vowel between two consonants to aid pronunciation, e.g., he went thataway. /a/ is inserted in between /t/ and /w/. b. Epenthesis: most often occurs within unfamiliar or complex consonant clusters. E : ? In English, the name Dwight is commonly pronounced with an schwa between the /d/ and the /w/ /də waɪt/, and many speakers insert a schwa between the /l/ and /t/ of realtor. c. Prothesis: When a vowel sound is inserted before a " " of English, in some situations, where the word is borrowed from English prothesis occurs. Example: ? In Bangla /i/ sound is inserted at the beginning of English Words as shown below: ? School ? /iskul/ ? Staff ? /istʌ ò / Crowley (1987) gives examples in Kairiru and Bislama as the following: 1. Vowel breaking in Kairiru */pale/ → /pial/ 'home'; 2. Unpacking in Bislama /baik/ ← B.Ing /bæg/ 'bag'. In addition to the phonological processes described above, there are also other kinds of processes called monophtongization, diphtongization (Schendl, 2001) and fortition and neutralization (Katamba, 1989). At the level of derivative morphemes, Nida (1949) and Katamba (1989) classify the morphophonemic process as the following: a. Assimilation, b. Dissimilation, c. Loss of phonemes, d. Fusion, e. Palatalization. In addition to the five, there is a new term called incorporation. Parera (1993: 133) says that incorporation is the integration of case into verbs or, morphologically verbalized case without a semantic difference. In other words, it is a verb formation

297 NSOU ? PGEL 5 & 6 derived from a morphologically verbalized case.

Morphophonemic change usually occurs at morpheme boundaries and it involves sounds that are associated with separate phonemes. One very obvious example to morphophonemics would be the use of indefinite articles in English language. in English has two distinct manifestations: "a and an". If a word begins with a consonantal sound then indefinite article is manifested as 'a' (a mango or a cat), while it is manifested as 'an' (an apple or an idiot) if following word starts with a vowel sound. The term ' refers to the way a (consonant or vowel) is pronounced, not necessarily written, in English. Therefore, an hour is a correct phrase not *a hour and a university is the correct phrase not *an university.

Word (Singular) IPA Transcription ? Word (Plural) IPA Transcription ? Pluralisation Process 1 Voiceless Consonant + s = /s/ cut ? cuts kick ? kicks / top ? tops / ? Pluralisation Process 2 Voiced Consonant + s = /z/ dog ? dogs rib ? ribs kid ? kids ? Pluralisation Process 3 Voiced Consonant + s = /ə z/ judge ? judges / wish ? wishes church ? churches / ? Pluralisation Process 4 Vowel / diphthong + s = /ə z/ pea ? peas shoe ? shoes day ? days /kʌt/ /kʌts/ /kɪk/ /kɪks/ /tɑp/ /tɑps/ /dɑg/ /dɑgz/ /rɪb/ /rɪbz/ /kɪd/ /kɪdz/ /dɑg/ /dɑgz/ /rɪb/ /rɪbz/ tò∂tò tò∂tòlz /dɑg/ /dɑgz/ /rɪb/ /rɪbz/ /deɪ/ /deɪz/ ∂ ∂

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To understand the morphophonemics, it's very important to understand concepts A to B not only in isolation but also as to how they appear in a morphophonemic process. Here, we will present regular pluralisation process of English language.

Upon careful observation of the data, it is noticed that plural morpheme in English is realized as /-s/, /-z/ and /-

ə z/

given different phonological environment of the stem to which plural morpheme gets attached to. When one morpheme takes more than one form (morph) in different phonological or morphological environment, these morphs are referred as allomorph to one another. In this kind of situation, we need to set up a single underlying representation from which other morphs are derived for their pronunciation in any particular context. This underlying representation is achieved with the help of some rules, usually referred as morphophonemic rules.

Therefore, it is evident that distribution of in English is not random in nature but is conditioned by occurring at right boundary of the morpheme. Usually, the allomorph with the wisest distribution qualifies as a suitable candidate for underlying representation. In this case, /-z/ qualifies to become underlying allomorph as it occurs after most voiced consonants and after all vowels. And from allomorph /-z/, other allomorphs /-s/ and /- ə z/ have been derived by (a set of) rules. 299

NSOU ? PGEL 5 & 6 There are some common types of morphophonemic changes in English:

The phoneme of the negative prefix/in-/ is lost before the morphemes beginning with /m/; /r/; /l/ and /n/.

Examples: ? immoral in + mobile ? immobile in +regular ? irregular in+ limitable ? illimitable in+ numerable ? innumerable. When words are joined, the phoneme /s/ is inserted.inbetween and the new word is formed. Examples: sword + man = sword man; sale + girl = sale girl; craft + man = craft man The example which is mentioned above, the change from singular to plural Examples: dog + (plural) = dogs; judge + (Plural) = Judges

Assimilation is the influence of a sound on a neighboring sound so that the two become similar or the same. For example, the Latin prefix 'not, non-, un-' appears in English as and in the words ? ? ? (both and are bilabial consonants), and ?

The of the / of / to the in the preceding examples was inherited from . English examples that would be considered native are also plentiful. In rapid speech, native speakers of English tend to pronounce 300 NSOU ?PGEL 5 & 6 as though it were written / , and in anticipation of the voiceless / in the word '' the final consonant of in is not as fully voiced as the in'' , where it is

clearly voiced one i.e. /hiz/. When the linguistic process does not allow the assimilation as explained above, the unassimilated original form ' in the words. ? indecent ? incompetent ? inaccurate

There is the fusion of the two phonemes brought together by morpheme combination into a single new phoneme.

Examples: ? Hindi + English = Hinglish ? Bangla + English= Banglish

In many cases the addition of an affix to a word is accompanied by a shift in stress called /

Promise (Noun) ?

the stress is on the first syllable Pro / mise (Verb) ? the stress is on the second syllable

This type of morphophonemic change is, the occurrence of the allomorph completely different in phonemic structure from the normal form. Those are some common change of morphophonemics, in English. If we can predict the rule behind the different kind of pronunciation or monomorphemic change that happened, it will make it easier for us to learn English. The prefix /in-/ has the allomorphs [il] and [ir] /in-/ + responsible irresponsible /in-/ + logical illogical Phonological rules in English:The prefixes /un-/ and /non-/ would also exhibit this regular pattern, but they do not. /un-/ + responsive (*urresponsive) unresponsive /un-/ + limited (*ullimited) unlimited /non-/ + retroactive (*nor-retroactive) non-retroactive /non-/ + lethal (*nol-lethal) non-lethal Therefore, there must be a morphophonemic rule which determines the allomorphs [il] and [ir] of the prefix /in-/.
301 NSOU ? PGEL 5 & 6 refers to the systematic representation of language in written form through consistent use of phonemic symbols. The source can either be utterances (speech or sign language) or preexisting text in another writing system. ... It also plays an important role for several subfields of speech technology in Computer Aided Language Teaching (CALT). The International Phonetic Alphabet has been developed by the International Phonetic Association as a writing system that can be used to describe the sounds used in speech across languages. This is important because it allows us to describe sounds accurately based on a number of distinctions used to separate speech sounds in languages. At the outset we will focus on learning the vowel and consonants (pulmonic) charts, focusing in particular on the sounds used in English. However, in order for you to use these charts well, it is important for you to understand how they are organized. English Consonants First, you will see that for the consonant chart after Activity 3, the columns are organized according to ? moving from the points to the points, ? the rows, then, are organized according to manner of articulation, ? these are only two of the variables that distinguish sounds from each other. Note that is also shown in this chart through the placement of the symbols to the right or left sides of each cell in the table. If a symbol is placed in the left side of a cell, that means that that symbol corresponds to a voiceless sound. If a symbol is placed in the right side of a cell, that symbol corresponds to a voiced sound. When describing consonant segments, it is typical to describe them in the order of , . If you wanted to describe a [p] sound in English, then, you would say that it is a voiceless bilabial stop. Using these three variables is sufficient to pick out that a particular segment is in contrast to the other segments. For instance, if you left out the distinction, you could refer to either [p] or [b] with the description bilabial stop If you left out the distinction, you could be referring to either [p] [t] [k] in English with the description voiceless stop If you left out the distinction, you could be referring to either [p] or the semivowel [w] with the description voiceless bilabial. English Vowels When describing English vowels, we must use different descriptors to distinguish the different sounds made. Unlike consonants, cannot be as easily described with manner of articulation place of articulation, and voicing because the tongue

302 NSOU ?PGEL 5 & 6 does not touch, make contact with the roof of the mouth in the same way as consonants. Linguistically speaking, are generally voiced. In other words some languages do have voiceless vowels 2 , and the tongue's position is rather imprecise in producing vowels (since it does not meet the roof of the mouth at a particular point, producing the same vowel may have slightly different tongue positions depending on the consonant segments around the production of that vowel). In essence, we must use different variable to describe vowels as being distinct from one another. are of two types: A (pronounced /mono-f-thong/ is simply a vowel sound. The word means that a vowel is spoken with exactly one E : When you pronounce the word, "teeth", then while you are creating the sound of the long /I/, there is no change in the position of the articulators in the oral cavity. English has 20 vowel sounds of which 12 are and 8 are . English Monophthongs are of two types as displayed below: Short vowels in the IPA are: ? /I/ as in "pit" ? /e/ as in "pet" ? /æ/as in "pat" ? / / as in "cut" ? / / as in "put" ? /ɒ/ as in "dog" ? /ə/ as in "about" Long vowels in the IPA are: ? /i:/ as in "week" ? /a:/ as in "hard" ? / :/ as in "fork" ? / :/ as in "heard" ? /u:/ as in "boot" ʌ ʊ α ɔ ɜ

303 NSOU ? PGEL 5 & 6 Diphthongs There are eight diphthongs commonly used in English. They are: ? /eI/ as in "place" ? /aI/ as in "find" ? /ə / as in "home" ? /a / as in "mouse" ? / / as in "boy" ? / ə/ as in "clear" ? /eə/ as in "care" ? / ə/. as in "tour" ʊ ʊ ɔı ı ʊ

304 NSOU ?PGEL 5 & 6 When describing vowels, we describe them in terms of and . " refers to the proximity of the tongue relative to the roof of the mouth. For instance, /i/ in English is a very high vowel. If you produce the segment /i/ and then breath in, you can tell that your tongue is close to the roof of your mouth because the air feels cool on your tongue) whereas /a/ is a very low vowel. You should be able to tell this by looking at yourself in a mirror. Practice articulation and see how your jaw drops when you produce this segment. ,

305 NSOU ? PGEL 5 & 6 then, is shown on the table along the vertical axis, with the higher vowels being placed higher on the table than the low vowels. Backness refers to the approximate location of the tongue's articulation of the vowel relative to the front of the mouth. As with for the vowels, the left is assumed to represent the front of the mouth, while the right represents when the tongue is articulating primarily towards the back of the mouth. Finally, vowels are also affected by whether the lips are or In English, [i] is clearly an unrounded vowel. This is why you are supposed to say 'cheese' [t ò i:z] for photos) while [u] is a rounded vowel (where the lips are pursed). For vowels in particular, the order that is often used to describe them is . In order to describe /i/ in comparison to all of the other vowel segments, then, we would say that it is a high, unrounded, front vowel. Now that you know how to read the charts, you should find it relatively easy to understand the phonetic symbols that will be used in this class. In this class, you will be expected to be able to identify the and for the English consonants, but it is useful to know how to read the chart in case you encounter a phonetic symbol that you do not recognize. Similarly, in the vowel chart, you will be expected to know the and of the English vowels, but should find knowing how to read the chart helpful, since you may encounter some symbols that you are not familiar with. Activity 4 3 Read the following conversation and re-write the text in phonetic transcription: Orthographic Transcript Phonetic Transcription ((

Semi Vowels are segments that are essentially produced like tiny vowels. Have you ever noticed that whenever you pronounce a word with a /w/, that you are essentially pronouncing a tiny /u/ before the following vowel? You may notice this even more when you draw out your pronunciation of words with such half glides. Did you ever wonder why when learning your vowels, you learned /a/ /e/ /i/ /o/ /u/, and sometimes /j/ This is because the letter 'y' sometimes stands for a vowel /j/ as in the name "Amy" and sometimes stands for the half glide /j/ as in the word, 'yes'. are different from vowels on the basis of how they are used in the language. Especially, unlike vowels, these half glides can never act as the nucleus of a syllable . In English, we have just two half glides: /j/, which sounds like a really short /0i/ + /; and /w/, which sounds like a really short /u/. You can remember how these symbols correspond with the different sounds, because the symbol 'j' in the alphabet actually was originally just an 'i' with a long tail. This is why it is the only other letter in the alphabet with the dot above it and the 'w' is called, of course, a 'double /u/' These Semi Vowels function both as as well as

307 NSOU ? PGEL 5 & 6 As the name suggests, are produced when a complete closure is made in the oral cavity. There are two kinds of stops: '' and . are produced when a closure in the oral cavity is made, but air is allowed to escape through the nasal cavity by lowering the velum. Oral are made similarly with a closure in the oral cavity, but the velum is raised so that air cannot escape. Since the air is not allowed to escape, you can never really produce an oral stop for long. Experiment 1: ? Try holding the pronunciation for /b/ and share your experience. nasals can be produced for long periods of time because the air is allowed to escape from nasal and oral cavities. Experiment 2: ? See how long you can pronounce / m/. Experiment 3: ? You can tell if you are producing a by placing a finger on the tip of your nose. If you can feel your nose vibrate when you pronounce a segment, it's a Fricatives are produced when the constriction is really tight, but the articulators are not quite touching. As the articulators are so close, it causes the air to become English Consonants English has 24 consonant sounds. Some consonants have voice from the voicebox and some don't. These consonants are voiced and voiceless pairs ? /p/ /b/ ? /t/ /d/ ? /k/ /g/ ? /f/ /v/ ? /s/ /z/ ? /θ/ /ð/ ? / / /ʒ/ ? / / /d / These consonants are voiced ? /h/ ? /w/ ? /n/ ? /m/ ? /r/ ? /j/ ? /ŋ/ ? /l/ t ò ò

308 NSOU ?PGEL 5 & 6 turbulent due to the persistent friction. This means that these segments sound like a variation of white noise that you would hear on a television. These segments are also known for being quite noisy (there's a reason why when people are trying to drown out the noise of someone else talking to make them quiet, they say "Shhh!" and not "Nnnnnn!" Affricates are segments that are produced by a combination of articulations that are similar to producing a followed directly by a . An example of this is the /t ò / as in the word, "ch ch" or the /d3/ in the word, " j dg . However, it is important to note that these are considered to be segments of their own, and are not counted as two segments. You can remember their name because they are similar to the name . However, remember that they are named and not *'affricatives'. Liquids are segments produced where airflow is allowed to continue through the vocal tract relatively uninhibited. In English, the two key liquids are /l/ and /ct/. Notice that when you make these articulations, you are not completely stopping the airflow, unlike in Stops or Affricates or even creating turbulent airflow, unlike Fricatives and Affricates. Instead, the air is allowed to continue on in a continuous stream. To remember the segments that are liquids in the English language, just think of a sentence like "rivers are filled with liquids", where every word in this sentence contains one of the two . Morphophonemic transcription is the route through which spoken variety of any language can easily be captured and can easily be translated in different languages around the world. Most of the BPOs thrive on different domains of morphophonemic transcriptions like Medical Transcription, Engineering Transcription, Legal Transcription and Military transcription and so on. In English Language Teaching, the study of Morphophonemic Transcription is proved essential due to recurrent need of studying Inter-lingual . The study of Morphophonemic Transcription brings forth the opportunity of studying translinguistic features of and variety of English as a "Borrowed language" in different parts of the world. The study of Morphophonemic Transcription can also lead to the study of segmental and suprasegmental features of English phonology.

309 NSOU ? PGEL 5 & 6 Morphophonemic Transcription refers to the systematic representation of spoken language in written form through consistent use of phonemic symbols and speech technology. Phonetic Transcription is the other name of Morphophonemic transcription. Morphophonemic change usually occurs at morpheme boundaries. The combination of "two consonant sounds" is reduced to one consonant sound under consonant reduction. When describing consonant segments, it is typical to describe them in the order of voicing place of articulation, manner of articulation. When describing vowels, we describe them in terms of and . refers to the proximity of the tongue relative to the roof of the mouth. Semi Vowels function both as as well as Vowel glides are different from vowels because of how they are used in the language. Computer Aided Language Teaching (CALT) is used worldwide and Computer Aided English Language Teaching (CaELT) has become a new trend. 1. What is a morphophonemic change? 2. Discuss Morphophonemic change in the terms of IPA. 3. What is addition of a sound segment called? Discuss the processes of sound addition. 4. Discuss different kinds of processes on sound deletion. 5. Discuss suppletion from English. 6. What is morphophonemic transcription? 7. You have learnt on IPA in Paper 3. How is phonetic transcription different from phonemic transcription? 8. Discuss morphophonemic processes from English. 9. What is morphophonemics? 10. "Use of Indefinite articles in English is an example of morphophonemics"- do you agree? Why? Why not?

310 NSOU ?PGEL 5 & 6 1. Caton, E. E. (1972). 'Artificial and Natural Languages', in P. Edwards, ed.:, . New York: Macmillan Co. & The Free Press. 2. Dey, S.K. (2013). . Pearson Education. Noida. India 3. Jackendoff, R. S. (1972). . Cambridge, Mass.: MIT Pres. 4. Laura Lunger Knoppers (Ed).(2013). . OUP. Oxford.UK. 5. Karttunen, L. (1977). 'Syntax and Semantics of Questions', http://web.standford.edu/-laurik/publications/archive/questions.pdf 1 Using Brace Marks /........../ is a linguistic convention to capture "Speech Sounds" in IPA symbols. 2 are also an areal feature in of the American Southwest (like Hopi and Keres), the Great Basin (including all), and the Great Plains, where they are present in Numic Comanche but also in Algonquian Cheyenne, and the Caddoan called Arikara. 3 https://www.linguistics.ucsb.edu/sites/secure.lsit.ucsb.edu.ling.d7/files/sitefiles/research/ SBC/SBC008.trn

? In the present unit of Paper 6 Module 3 we will focus on the /mɔr 1 fə ld3i/ of Bangla language. Bangla language (also called Bengali) is the easternmost of the languages belonging to the Indo-Aryan language family. This new Indo-Aryan (NIA) language is historically related to Modern Indo-European Languages like Irish, English, French, Greek, Iranian and Russian languages. Bangla is influenced by Oriya, Magadhi and Maithili and has influenced Assamese, Mizo and various Austric languages like Santali, Mundari, Khasi and Sino-Tibetan languages like Kachhari, Boro, Garo and Tripuri, each of them encroaches at times on the Bangla- speaking areas and vice versa. In our course of study we need to focus on which inter alia involves finding answers to the following: ? How the Bangla are formed using finite set of Bangla alphabet? ? How the words are related to other words in the same language? ? How does the morphophonemic syntax of Bangla language function? ? How do different parts of speech function with intonation and stress? ? How does the change in a given can change the pronunciation and meaning of a Bangla phrase or clause or a sentence? 311

312 NSOU ?PGEL 5 & 6 also called is the eastern most of the languages belonging to the language family. This new Indo-Aryan ( ) language is historically related to Modern Indo-European Languages like and languages. is influenced by Oriya, Magadhi and Maithili and has influenced , and various languages like , , and - languages like , , and , each of them encroaches at times on the Bangla-speaking areas and vice versa. The State of Bangladesh has adopted Bangla as the official language. Bangla is also one of the Scheduled Regional languages listed in the Indian Constitution. Bangla is the administrative language of the following Indian Provincial States: ? West Bengal ? Tripura ? Assam ? are available across the length and breadth of India. speakers number about more than 230 million today, making the seventh language after , , , , . It is perhaps the only language on the basis of which an independent state was created. Bangla emerged as a new Indo-Aryan language by 900-1000 CE through and Abahatha, two subsequent phases of (600 BC - 600 CE), along with two other Indo-Aryan languages, and . Until the 14th century, there was little linguistic difference between and . The study of requires a morphophonemic understanding of the key linguistic features of . Let us study these features in phase-wise evolution of language. The evolution of Bangla may be divided into three historical phases. The linguistic features of these three phases of Bangla language can be classified as follows: ? : The earliest example of old Bangla is to be found in the anthology of the oldest called " poems of the mystical related to eastern Magadhi languages. Examples:

313 NSOU ? PGEL 5 & 6 i. // i.e. The body is a tree having five branches. : The above "pada" is highly metaphorical as human body is earth- bound like a tree having five branches that are metaphorically none other than five sense organs. ? - or of Baruchandidas is an example of the early form of Medieval Bangla. Other writings in Medieval Bangla are: ? Poetic translations of the Sanskrit the and the y Krittibas and Kashiram Das. ? Srikrishnakirtan Kavya. ? lyrics, ? Poetical biographies of Sri Chaitanya, ? Various forms of the mangalkavya, narrative, ? Secular poetry written at the court of and Kings, Morphophonemic Changes in Bangla Language (900 -1400 CE) Phonological Features Morphological Features A. Geminate clusters i born out of conjunct consonants were simplified into single consonants and the preceding vowel grew longer as a result of compensatory lengthening. B. The word-final /a/ ( ) remained in place and the word-final /ia/ ( ) turned into long /i/ ( ). A. Feminine gender continued to be used with genitive inflections and past verbal inflections that are ending in /l/ ( ). B. Inflections as used in modern Bangla started surfacing at this stage; but verbal inflexions ending in /-ila/ (-) and /-iba/ (-) began to be used with the subject of the Intransitive Passive Voice. C. The proto forms of modern Bangla Pronouns like /ahme/ ('), /tuhme / ( ) etc. surfaced at this stage of the Bangla language.

314 NSOU ?PGEL 5 & 6 ? Shakta Padabali Poetry, ? Purbabanga-gitika, ? Mangalkavya. Let us study the major morphophonemic changes that occurred during the period. For the convenience of the study we will be using two separate tables as displayed below: Let us look into the Morphophonemic Changes that were observed during the later part of the Medieval period. Early Medieval Morphophonemic Changes in Bangla Language (1400 -1600 CE) Bangla Phonological Features Bangla Morphological Features A. In the early phase of Medieval Bangla, the half-vowels /i/ ( ) and /u/ ( ) started weakening. A. Verbal inflections like /-il/ (-) and /-ib/ (-) started to be used with the subject of the Active Voice instead of Intransitive Passive Voice. B. Post-positions, rather than verbal inflections, started to be used for Intransitive Passive Voice. C. Phrasal and compound verbs gained linguistic currency. B. Nasal Aspirates lost aspiration C. Nasalised vowel + consonant started replacing nasal sound + consonant

315 NSOU ? PGEL 5 & 6 ? An influx of Persi-Arabic words into the language took place at this point of evolution. Bangla also borrowed from Sanskrit, the words known as and , English and other languages. Michael Madhusudan Datta and Rabindranath Tagore are the most influential literateurs of Modern Bangla language. Major Literary works of the period that bear the imprint of Bangla Morphology are: ? Bangla Novels, ? Bangla Essays, ? Bangla Short Stories, ? Bangla Lyrics, ? Bangla Critical Essays. Later Medieval Morphophonemic Changes in Bangla Language (1600 -1800 CE) Bangla Phonological Features Bangla Morphological Features A. the elision of the word-final /a/ ( ). A. The evolution of new inflections like /-r/ (-), /gula/ (-), /guli/ (-), -dig(e)r (-) etc. B. The evolution and currency of epenthesis. B. Assimilation of Lexical loan words of Sanskrit and Persi- Arabic words. C. The evolution of the new vowel sounds and dipthongs /ae/ ( ) as in the English phonetic transformation /hat/. C.Influence of Vaishnavism changed the approach of using "Bhaktigeeti" i.e. devotional songs as literary style.

316 NSOU ?PGEL 5 & 6 Go through the above information again and fill in the table with correct information a. Important Phonological change you Noticed in the Mediaeval period b. Three important features of Bangla Morphology that have influenced Bangla language c. Two important Morphophonemic changes you observed in Modern Bangla Let us closely look into the major morphophonemic implications of the Modern period of evolution of Bangla language in the following table: Modern Morphophonemic Changes in Bangla Language Phonological Features Morphological Features A. The widespread use of vowel harmony or vowel height assimilation influenced by /i/ ( ) and /u/ ( ). A. Use of Shorter Forms: Modern Bangla morphology has got the feature of using the shorter form of pronouns and verbal froms in standard colloquial Bangla that have been adopted in written. Bangla.Examples: (tahar) ? (tar)= his (kariyachhila) ? (karechhila) B. The elision of epenthetic /i/ ( ) and /u/ ( ). B. Many features of medieval Bangla are still found in many Bangla Dialects. C. An increase in the number of words beginning with the sound /ae/ ( ), pronounced as in 'hat,' stemming from e ( ). C. Use of colloquial words in Bangla literature.

317 NSOU ? PGEL 5 & 6 has got its vocabulary extensively enriched, due to various influences it has undergone through, in course of time as highlighted above. Let us discuss some interesting influences that have enriched Bangla vocabulary of modern times. Bangla has been greatly influenced by two non-Aryan languages: Dravidian and Kol. Their influence is evident not only in the but also in the of sentences. A large number of , and in Bangla reveal non-Aryan influence. Examples: D. The separation of consonant clusters in spoken form with anaptyxis or prothesis (insertion of a vowel or schwa in between two Consonants for easing out the pronunciation). D. Attempt of using more and more "chalit Bangla" standardized Rhada Dialect (used by Calcuttans during British rule, as Calcutta was the Capital city of British India till 1911 CE. E. The assimilation of tatsama conjunct consonants formed with /b/ ( ), /m/ ( ) and /y/ ( ). E. Rhetorical structures evolved due to strict Censor Policy of the British Rulers and spread of University Education during the second half of the Nineteenth century and afterwards. i. Onomatopoeic words ii. Repetitive words ? ghoda-toda (horses...) ? Khatkhat ? kapad-chopad (clothes....) ? Dhandhan ? tuk-tuk (nick nack.....) ? Khankhan iii. Conjunctive verbs Sadhubhasha Chalitobhasha English Meaning ? Basiya pada bosepada Sit down. ? lagiya thaka lege thaka Keep up persevering.

318 NSOU ?PGEL 5 & 6 There are plenty of Dravidian and other non-Aryan words in Bangla, especially in place names, indicating that Bangla passed through many stages and was influenced by various other languages. One of the main influences on Bangla was that of Sanskrit as this language was the vehicle of literature and culture for almost the whole of the subcontinent since the beginning of the Christian era. In the days of old Bangla, many Bengalis used to write poetic works in Sanskrit. Even after the evolution of Bangla, many well-known Bengali poets, such as JAYDEV, UMAPATIDHAR and GOVARDHAN ACHARYA, continued to compose their literary works in Sanskrit. The result was that many pure Sanskrit words entered into Bangla from the very early stages. Examles: The religious discourses of the Buddhists and the Jains were carried on in PALI and Ardhamagadhi respectively. The colloquial dialect of Magadha was called while (Colloquial dialect of of Mithila region). These dialects influenced the Old Bangla, " - " i.e. Mystical Rhyme-makers and versifiers as well as " " i.e. lyricists of the Medieval period. The lilting tone of and folk element in attracted the attention of Bangla speakers due to their attachment to agriculture and other related activities. Examples: a. From language Bangla has got words like : Bangla Words ? Sanskrit Root English Equivalent ? ? ? ? ? ? ? ? ?

319 NSOU ? PGEL 5 & 6 ? /nirban/ ? Anirban ? /sangha/ ? /stupa/ ? /samiti/ ? /kaya/ ? /samadhi/ ? / ? b. The word in Ardhamagadhi dialect means strolling bards from which bangla has coined words like ? /mag/, ? /mager muluk/ ? /madhukari/ Following the establishment of Islamic rule in Bengal in the 13th century, Bangla came under the influence of Arabic, Persian and Turkish. Persian was the language of the court during Muslim rule in the 14th and 15th centuries. Because of this special status as well as other cultural influences, Bangla picked up many Persian words and adapted them to its vocabulary. Examples: Activity 2 Study the following Bangla words given in the left column and find out their sources/roots and write your answers in the right column: Bangla Words Sources/Root /bazar/ /bǽjar/ /tumi/ /bikar/ /ingreji/ /far i/ /pranɪ/ ò

320 NSOU ?PGEL 5 & 6 a. Analyze any four important features of Perso-Arabic Words that have influenced Bangla Morphology. b. Do you find any trace of this influence on any dialect of Bangla? In the 16th century, with the Portuguese inroads, several Portuguese words entered into Bangla. Examples: ? /anaras/ ? /a – na – ras/ pineapple /ata/ = ? /a – ta – / custard-apple /tamaku/ = ? /ta – ma – k/ tobacco Bangla Word ? Persian Word English Equivalent jayga ? /d aj. a/ Property/ place / egchi/ ? / e .t i/ Cooking pot/utencil /dôm/ ? /d m/ breath deri ? D e.ri late /dokan/ ? /do.kan/ store, shop pôrda ? /p r.d a/ curtain /bôd/ ? /b d / bad /bagan/ ? /ba. an/ garden /rasta/ ? /ras.t a/ route 3 g d d g ò g ⊃ g ⊃ ⊃

321 NSOU ? PGEL 5 & 6 a. Analyze any five important features of Portuguese Words that have influenced Bangla Morphology. b. Do you find any trace of this influence on any aspect of Bangla language? From the 17th century, the Dutch, French and English started arriving in Bengal. As a result, words from these languages started enriching Bangla vocabulary. With the introduction of the Press and Publication in Bengal, Bangla adopted English Punctuation Marks like , , and other linguistic nuances 4 into Bangla Written form due to the great efforts of Pundit Iswar Chandra Vidyasagar, Mrityunjoy Tarkalankar and Pundit Haraprasad Shastri who popularized the concept of Academic and Professional writing Examples: During the 18th and 19th centuries effective use of Modern Bangla prose began through the persistent efforts of Christian missionaries and the Orientalists. With the commencement of British rule in the second half of the 18th century and the spread of English education, Bangla started absorbing increasing numbers of words. Following the establishment of the Bengali Department at Fort William College, ? Source Word ? Bangla Word = English Equivalent ? French ? /cartouche/ ? /k ^ rtuj/ = cartridge ? French ? /coupon/ ? /kupan/ = coupon ? French ? /depot/ ? /dipo/ = store/godown ? Dutch ? /hartan/ ? /bartan/ = utensils ? Dutch ? /iskaban/ ? /iskapan/ = Heart (Playcard) ? Dutch ? /iskurup/ ? /iskurup/ = screw ? English ? /te b(ə)l/ ? /tabil/ = table = ? English ? /t / ? /t r/ = chair ? English? /l d/ ? /lat/ = lord ? English ? /d n(ə)r(ə)l/ ? /jandrel/ = General (Military) l ò ∈ z ∈

322 NSOU ?PGEL 5 & 6 Calcutta in 1801, the efforts of its head, William Carey and his associate Bangla scholars, made Bangla language a suitable tool for writing fine prose. With the development of Calcutta as a Metropolitan town and the growth of Press and Journalism in regional language, i.e., Bangla during the second half of the 19 th century, newly educated Graduates of Calcutta University played an important part for spreading the news of Nationalism and patriotism in undivided Bengal.. During the 19th century Bangla writers contributed to the further growth of Bangla language. Among them were Raja Rammohan Roy, Bhabani Charan Bandyopadhyay. The language witnessed the elevation of colloquial Bangla to a written literary medium through the work of many talented writers like Rabindranath Tagore, Sarat Chandra Chattopadhayay and many others. The main inherited elements of the Bangla language are: ? : These words are derived from 'that', i.e. ; the Sanskrit word that has changed at least twice in the process of becoming Bangla. Example: Pitri (Sanskrit) ? Pita ( ) ? Pita (Bangla) ? These words are similar to that, i.e. spoken Sanskrit dialects like i.e. of low variety. Sanskrit word loaned into Bangla, with changed pronunciation but retaining the original spelling. Example: /prati/ + /asha/ = /pratyasha/ i.e. expectation ? ardha- (half tatsama in nature; the Sanskrit words changed in the spoken form in Bangla, /pratyasha/ ? /pityesh/ i.e. expectation Bangla has a large number of words of unknown etymology, also known as deshi or local words, which might have their origin in old Indo Aryan loan words from , or - languages. The new loan words are from , , , and other Indo European languages. Prof. Sunitikumar Chatterji made a critical study 2 and found that Bangla has 51.45 per cent words, 44.00 per cent words, 3.30 per cent - words and 1.25 per cent words from , and other languages. Although Jnanendra Mohan Das's lexicon has around 150,000 words, the total number of Bangla words, including dialect words, is much more than that.

323 NSOU ? PGEL 5 & 6 Bangla exhibits all the features of diglossia 3 , though some scholars have proposed triglossia or even n-glossia or heteroglossia between the written and spoken forms of the language. Two styles of writing have emerged, involving somewhat different vocabularies and syntax. or "uptight language") was the written language, with longer verb inflections and more of a Pali and Sanskrit-derived Tatsama vocabulary. Songs such as India's national anthem (by Rabindranath Tagore) were composed in Shadhubhasha. However, use of in modern writing is rare and restricted to some official deeds and documents in Bangladesh as well as in West Bengal that too for achieving particular literary effects. or "running language") is known to linguists as Standard Colloquial Bangla. This written Bengali style exhibits a preponderance of colloquial idioms and shortened verb forms and is the practiced standard for written Bangla now a days. is modelled on the dialect spoken in the Shantipur region in Nadia district, West Bengal. This form of Bangla is often referred to as the "Nadia standard", or "Nadia dialect", or "Southwestern/West- Central dialect" or even "Shantipuri Bangla". This form came into vogue towards the end of the 19th century, promoted by the writings of Peary Chand Mitra's novel (1857), Pramatha Chaudhuri's (1914) and in the later writings of Rabindranath Tagore. As a head-final language, Bangla follows (SOV) word order, although variations to this theme are common. Bangla makes use of , as opposed to the used in English and other European languages. follow the Noun, while , , and precede the Noun. In standard Bangla stress is predominantly initial. Bangla words are virtually all In disyllabic situation the first syllable is stressed.) In other words, the falls upon the initial syllable of the word, while often falls on all odd-numbered syllables thereafter, giving strings such as in / -hô- -gi- / i.e., "cooperation", where the represents primary and secondary stress. "Yes-No Type questions" do not require any change to the basic word order;

324 NSOU ?PGEL 5 & 6 instead, the low (L) tone of the final syllable in the utterance is replaced with a falling (F) tone. Additionally, optional particles (e.g. • /-ki/, /-na/) are often encliticised onto the first or last word of a yes-no question. questions (known as Wh-questions in English) are formed by using these words at the beginning of the sentence.. Bangla maintains the only punctuation mark a straight down stroke or /da[i/ (I) which is the Bengali equivalent of a The other punctuation marks like and have been adopted from English writing style and their usage is similar to English. Unlike in western scripts (Latin, Cyrillic) where the letter-forms stand on an invisible baseline, the Bangla letter-forms instead hang from a visible horizontal left-to-right headstroke called matra. The presence and absence of this (————) is important. Example: ? The letter / ta/ and the numeral i.e. 3 are distinguishable only by the presence or absence of the , ? The consonant cluster /trô/ and the independent vowel /e/. ? The letter-forms also employ the concepts of letter-width and letter-height (the vertical space between the visible matra and an invisible baseline). The morphology of Bangla is 5 , although its analytical nature has gradually evolved as the language passed through the influence of the ruling class. has more than , and a fewer number of . The of the nominal word is expressed in three ways: i. Through endings ( ) ii. Through and ( ) and iii. Through ( ). The does not primarily take any case ending, but in case of 'collective' agents, the takes the ending /-e/ (-), such as:

325 NSOU ? PGEL 5 & 6 ? manuse eman kaj kare na = Human beings are not supposed to do this type of (heinous) work. There is also no ending for inanimate indirect objects. In standard colloquial Bangla, the ending for indirect objects is -/ke/ ( ), the genitive case-ending is -/e/r [ ] and the locative case ending is -/e/te -( ). The word-final sound determines where the ending should be in -r or -/er/, and -/te/ or -/ete/. The of verbs is fairly complex. are chiefly split into two groups based on the : : All the three Tense Forms are applicable for this as shown below: ? : The 'Present Tense' includes three : e.g. /kari/ karchhi/ /karechhi/ ? : The 'Past Tense' includes four : e.g. /karlam/ e.g. /karchhilam/ e.g. /karechhilam/ e.g. /kartam/ . ? : There is only one of the future tense: e.g. /karba/ : The has three forms: /karun/ karo/ and or /kar/ The is used in both . Example: a. /karben/ or /karun/ b. /koro/ /karo/, c. /kar/ /karis/ The has two forms:

326 NSOU ?PGEL 5 & 6 /karun/ /karuk/ , The indicative mood has three tenses Bangla Nouns/Pronouns and Inflections Nouns and Pronouns are inflected for , including , , (possessive), and . The case marking pattern for each noun being inflected depends on the noun's degree of animacy. When a definite article such as - -t. a (singular) or - -gulo (plural) is added, as in the tables below, nouns are also inflected for number. Functionally we see the use of four Cases in Bangla though theoretical grammarians refer to Possessive Case which is no other than the Genitive Case as displayed in the Table 10 below: Cases Application of Case-based Inflections in Bangla Singular Noun Inflections Plural Noun Inflections Animate Inanimate Animate Inanimate Nominative /chātrô- i/ the student /jutā- ā/ the shoe /chātrô-rā/ /chatrô-gan/ the students /jutā-gula/juto- gulo/ the shoes Objective /chātrô- i-ke/ the student /jutā- ā/ the shoe /chātrô-der(ke)/ the students /jutā-gula/juto- gulo/ the shoes Genitive /chātrô- i-r/ the student's /jutā- ā-r/ the shoe's /chātrô-der/ the students' /jutā-gula/juto- gulo-r/ the shoes' Locative − /jutā- ā-y/ on/in the shoe − /jutā-gulā/juto- gulo-te/ on/in the shoes t . t . t . t . t . t . t .

327 NSOU ? PGEL 5 & 6 When counted, Nouns take one of a small set of measure words. Nouns in Bangla cannot be counted by adding the numeral directly adjacent to the Noun. An appropriate measure word functions as a , and it must be used between the and the concerned 6 Most Bangla Nouns take the generic measure word - /ma/ though other measure words indicate semantic classes. Example: ? /jôn/ for humans. There is also this classifier. ? /khana/ and its diminutive form /khani/ used for objects. Such pluralizing suffixes are attached only to Nouns, denoting something flat, long, square, or thin objects. These are the least common of the . Measuring nouns in Bangla without their corresponding measure words (e.g. ? */at . bir . al / (ungrammatical) ? /at . t . a bir . al / i.e. eight cats. However, when the semantic class of the Noun is understood from the , the Noun is often omitted and only the is used, Example: ? /Shudhu êk- thakbe. i.e. Only one person will remain.. It would be understood to mean "Only one will remain.", given the semantic class implicit in - -jôn. In this sense, all Nouns in Bangla, unlike most other Indo-European languages, are similar to mass Nouns. There are two classes of Bangla verbs: Finite verbs are fully inflected for: a. (First, Second, Third) b. (Present, Past, Future) c. (Simple, Perfect, Progressive) d. (Intimate, Familiar, and Formal) but not for number. Conditional, imperative, and other special inflections for mood can replace the tense and aspect suffixes. - : Non-finite verbs have no inflection for Tense or Person,(See Paper 6 Module 3 Unit 12 for details.) The number of inflections on many verb roots can total more than 200.

328 NSOU ?PGEL 5 & 6 Inflectional suffixes in the morphology of Bangla vary from one region to another region, along with minor differences in syntax. Bangla differs from most Indo-Aryan Languages in the zero copula where the copula or connective "be" is often missing in the present tense. Example: ? /se shikkhôk/ = "S/he is a teacher" In this respect, Bangla is similar to and Hungarian as well as Romani semantic morphology. Let us have a re-look into some significant key concepts that are worth considering with reference to Bangla morphology in conclusion. Bangla Consonant conjuncts are simplified in loan words in spoken language. Stress usually falls on the first syllable of a word and on the first word of a meaningful phrase. The primary stress of a question falls on the neuter gender interrogative pronouns /ke/, /ki/, /keno/ (who, what, why). General statements end in low pitch, and questions, affirmative or negative, end in high pitch. The length of vowel sounds is sometimes prolonged, influenced by emotion or voice projection Example: ? ke-ki? ? ya-i! Stress is also employed to put emphasis on a word. In compound sentences, the connecting words have the least stress. Bangla verb usually takes five inflections depending on the person, such as i. First Person (/a − mi/) ii. Second Person ordinary (/tumi/), iii. Second Person familiar (/tu/), iv. Second Person honorific (/a − pni/), v. Third Person ordinary (/ ò e/) vi. Third-person honorific (/tini/). These sets of are different for different . The inflections for and T do not change depending on the person; only the personal endings, that end the verb -/i/ (-), -/o/ (-), -/is/ (-), -/e/ (-), -/en/ (-): ?

329 NSOU ? PGEL 5 & 6 ? ? ( ) ? kare/ ( ) ? karen/ ( ). : The are formed with an -/a/ (-†) appended to the verb root Example: ? /kare/ ? /karai/ An -/d/ (-†) appended to root can also be classified as . Example: ? /ghumai/ ˜ ? /santrai/ The order of endings in a verb root has the following order: ? Verb root (/kar/) + causative ending (/ai/) + Aspect ending (/a – cI/) + Tense ending ( ) + personal ending (/a – m/) The Bangla Verb roots are basically either or . Examples: ? /kar/ (? /kara/ ( ) The and the verb roots are by nature . Exceptions: Onomatopoeic Verb groups that are formed under Dravidian influence: ? /jhɔlmalɔ/ + Verb ? Chɔkmɔka + Verb : The has four forms as displayed below: Verbal Noun e.g. /kara ( ) Completive e.g. /kɔre/ ( ) Conditional e.g. /karle/ ( ) Inchoative e.g. /karte/ ( ). : Correlative compounds are formed in compliance with the rules of correlative compounds that are combinations of and . Examples: ? /da – ka – da – ki/ ( ) ? /ghora – ghuri/ ( ) : Bangla Phrasal Verbs are formed with of verbal roots like /kar/ ( ), /ha – / ( ) or /mar/ ( ) placed after Nouns or Adjectives. Example: ? /upaka – r kara – / ( )

330 NSOU ?PGEL 5 & 6 ? /bha – lo haoya – / ( ) ? /chokh mara – / ( ) : Bangla Compound Verbs are formed with verbs like /uth/ ( ), /par . / ( ), /phel/ ( ), /tha – k/( ) and the like placed after or Example ? /ka – re otha – / ( ) ? /base pɔra – / ( ) ? /bole phela – / ( ) The formation of the substantive words with affixes is limited in Bangla. There are very few original Bangla affixes. Bangla has borrowed the following suffixes from Sanskrit: ? -/ta – / ( ) ? Nominalizing effect on Adjectives e.g. /swacha/ (Adjective)+ - /ta – / = swachata (Noun) ? -/tv/ ( ), ? -/ima – / ( ) Bangla degree words (-/tara/), -/tama/ -) and ordinals /pratham/ /dvitiya – / ( ) are dependent on Sanskrit affixes. Bangla, sufixes for are: ? -/ta – / - , ? -/ti/ - , ? /Kha – na – / – Bangla, sufix suggesting largeness or ungainliness is: ? /jhola – / Bangla, sufix suggesting smallness or prettiness is ? /jhuli/ Bangla, sufix showing loveableness: ? /rama – / in The order of words in Bangla phrase structure is maintained by "left branching", i. e, are placed on the left of ; and precede the . Let us anlyse the following Bangla sentence for understanding the sequence of Bangla phrase structure:

331 NSOU ? PGEL 5 & 6 /a – mi ka – l steshane runa – ke katha – t . a – ka – ne ka – ne balechla – m/ (I uttered the words into Runa's ear yesterday at the station) ? Subject + temporal phrase + locative phrase + indirect object + direct object + adverbial phrase + verb ? Please note the place of the locative phrase can change, affecting the meaning of the sentence. As in , or languages, in Bangla also (the linking verb between the subject and the complement) is not required. Example: ? / a – ma – r na – m ruhul kuddus/ Copula is a must in English language. Example: . ? (My name [ ] (copula) Ruhul Quddus). There are more than 200 sub dialects of Bangla language as identified by 2011 Census. Nouns in Bangla, unlike most other Indo-European languages, are similar to mass Nouns. The most common borrowings from foreign languages come from three different kinds of contact. Wh-questions are formed by fronting the wh-word to focus position, which is typically the first or second word in the utterance. As in Russian, Tamil or Japanese languages, in Bangla also copula (the linking verb between the subject and the complement) is not required. In addition to the second person imperative, Bangla has another mood called the third person imperative. Non-finite verbs have no inflection for Tense or Person. There is yet to be a uniform standard collating sequence (sorting order of graphemes to be used in dictionaries, indices, computer sorting programs, etc.) of Bangla graphemes. Experts in both Bangladesh and India are currently working towards a common solution for this problem. 1. Discuss morphological analysis from Bangla. 2. What is the Bangla word order? How is it different from English? 3. Discuss syntactic variations from Bangla. 4. What are the distinct features of Bangla pronouns?

332 NSOU ?PGEL 5 & 6 5. Discuss the morphological changes from Old Bangla and Middle Bangla. 6. What are correlative compounds? 7. Discuss kinds of loan words in Bangla. 8. What are the punctuations marks for the Bangla script? 9. Compare English and Bangla punctuation marks. 10. Discuss conjunctive verbs from sadhu bhasa and calit bhasa. 1. Allen J. P. B, and Corder, S.P. (Eds.1977). v. 4 (Language & Language Learning. OUP.UK. 2. Bagchi and Dey. S.K. 2006. Vol.1.Cambridge India.Kolkata 3. Bonazzi, Eros. 2008. Bologna (Italy): Libreria Bonomo Editrice. 4. Chatterji, Suniti Kumar. (Reprint.1991) . Calcutta: Rupa & Co. 5. Radice, William. 1994. Chicago: NTC Publishing Group, 6. Sarkar, Pabitra 2016. . Karigar. Kolkata. 7. Sen, S. 2015. (5 Vol 1939, 1991) Ananda Publishers. Kolkata. 1 Brought out by Pundit Haraprasad Shastri in his famous Article, "Hajar bochhorer purono Bangla bhasay rochito Bouddho gan o doha" (1916) 2 See Paper 6 Module 3 Unit 9 under Gemination for details. 3 Bagchi and Dey. S.K. 2006. Exploring History. Vol.1.Cambridge India.Kolkata 4 Compiled by famous linguist and lexicographer, Jnanendra Mohan Das (1872-1939) 5 In a linguistic situation where two varieties of the same language are used under different conditions within a community, often by the same speakers. The term is usually applied to languages like Arabic and Bangla with distinct and (colloquial) varieties. 6 See Paper 6 Module 3 Unit 12 for sample text of each variety. 7 Based on grammatical inflections 8 Most of the Indo-Aryan languages of the Mainland Southeast Asia linguistic area are similar in this respect.

? A contrastive Analysis of will make ELT students and teachers more confident, so that they can handle the bilingual classroom situation more proficiently than they could do otherwise. is a widespread Indo-Aryan new language that has got the status of "National Language" in Bangladesh. This language has also got the status of "Select Regional Language" in the Eighth schedule of the Indian Constitution. The study of the and syntax of Bangla is also carried seriously in Higher Education in the Indian subcontinent. After going through the unit, you will be able to: • Learn to compare Morphology across languages • Learn to contrast Mophology across languages • Understand pedagogical implications of morphology 333

334 NSOU ?PGEL 5 & 6 1 is still followed in School Grammar. The under lying principle of this method suggests that school students learn English better when they get opportunity to apply their L-1 Grammar skill in contrast to English Grammar. Though ELT does never prescribe this GT Method for Classroom Teaching, a few linguists keep this method open to the choice of experienced teachers who face great difficulty in teaching English through Advanced Communicative Method (ACM), while teaching rural students especially when the latter are the first generation English learners. This chapter aims at encouraging English Language Teachers to experiment with Eastern Region based which is highly influential in shaping the great intellects of the the past as well as of present time. Further, contrastive method is useful method a so far researches in Linguistics are concerned. ELT experts may begin understanding the Contrastive Approach with reference to English and Bangla and later on proceed to carry out such studies with other Regional Languages such as Gujrati, Marathi, Tamil and Hindi. With reference to New Education Policy (July 2020) the scope of applying is ever-widening as foreigners can also use this approach for learning Indian Languages through their basic proficiency in . For example, foreign students who visit Viswabharati University for learning can also find this chapter very useful along with ELT experts and Applied Linguistics Trainers. may be conducive to solve the following Classroom Language Teaching problems in • Students with • Students with • Students with • Students with • Students with • Students with

335 NSOU ? PGEL 5 & 6 Application of in class will broaden the linguistic insight of who are interested in Researches in or for that matter as well as in Bangla are somewhat similar to English Pronouns, having different words for , and , and also for and (unlike for verbs, below). Bangla , unlike their English counterparts, do not differentiate for ; that is, the same pronoun may be used for " " or " ". However, Bangla has different third-person pronouns for proximity. The first are used for someone who is nearby, and the second are for those who are a little further away. The Third Person Pronouns are usually for those who are not present. In addition, each of the Second and Third Person Pronouns has different forms for the familiar and polite forms. The Second Person also has a "very familiar" form (sometimes called " "). It may be noted that the "very familiar" form is used when addressing particularly close friends or family as well as for addressing subordinates, or in abusive language. (See the Table 1 below for examples) A. The The Case is used for pronouns that are the subject of the sentence, such as "I already did that" or "Will you please stop making that noise?" AnimatePersonal Pronouns : Nominative Case Referred Person Referred Number with English Translation Singular Plural First Person /āmi/ = I /āmrā/ = we Second Person Very Familiar /tui/= you /torā/= you Plural Familiar 2 /tumi/= you /tomrā/= you Plural Polite /āpni/ = you /āpnārā/ = you Plural

336 NSOU ?PGEL 5 & 6 B. The The Case is used for the Personal Pronouns serving as the Direct or Indirect Objects, as exemplified below: ? I told him to wash the dishes ? The teacher gave me the homework assignment. The inanimate pronouns remain the same in the Objective Case. (See Table 2 for details.) Third Person i Familiar /e/ he or she /erā/ = they Polite /ini/ = he or she /ẽrā/ = they Personal Pronouns : Nominative Case Inanimate / /eʈi /eʈā/ = it /egulo/ = these Animate Familiar /o/ = he or she /orā/ = they Polite /uni/ = he/she /õrā/ = they Third Person Inanimate / /oʈi/oʈā/= it /ogulo/ = those Familiar /ʃe/ = he/she /tārā/ = they Polite /tin/ = he/she /tārā/ = they

337 NSOU ? PGEL 5 & 6 Table 2: Objective Case: Bangla Personal Pronouns and their Use C. The Possessive Case The Possessive Case is used to show possession. Examples: Personal Pronouns: Objective Case Person Singular Plural First /āmāke/ me /āmāderke/ us Second Very Familiar (toke, you) /toderke/ you Second Familiar (tomāke, you) /tomāderke/ you Second Honorific (āpnāke, you) /āpnāderke, you/ Third Very Familiar (eke, him/her) /ederke/ them Third Honorific (ẽke, him/her) *ẽderke/ them Inanimate / (eʈi/eʈā) = it /egulo/ these Third Very Familiar (Distant) (oke, him/her) /oderke/ them Third Honorific (Distant) /õke/ him/her /õderke/ them Inanimate (Distant) / /oʈi/ /oʈa/ it /ogulo/ those Third Very Familiar (/tāke/, him/her /tāderke/ them Third Honorific //tāke/ him/her /tāderke/ them Inanimate (Distant) / /ʃeʈi/ /ʃeʈā/, it /ʃegulo/ those

338 NSOU ?PGEL 5 & 6 ? Where is your coat? ? Let's go to our business house. In addition, let us read the following Bangla sentencesand English sentences side by side to see the contrast: The literal translation of the Bengali versions of these English sentences would be as follows: ? There is my book ? There is my need for money. Personal Pronouns in Possessive Case Person Singular Plural First /āmār/ my /āmāder/, our Second /tor/, your /toder/ your Second /tomār/ your /tomāder/ your Second Person Honorofic /āpnār/ your /āpnāder/ your Third Person /er/ his/her /eder/, their Third Person Honorofic /ẽr/ his/her) /ẽder/, their Inanimate / /eʈir/ /eʈār/ its /egulor/ of these Bangla Sentences English Sentences Possessive Words Used I have a book I need money

339 NSOU ? PGEL 5 & 6 The paradigm of English is presented as Activity 1 in an integrated presentation in contrast to the above paradigm of Bangla language: Person Number Gender Case Nom. Obj. Ist Possessive 2nd Possessive First Singular Plural. ours Second Massculine his Third Singular Feminine Neuter Plural Third Person /or/ his/her /oder/, their Third Person Honorific /õr/ his/her /õder/ their Inanimate / /oʈir/ /oʈār/, its /ogulor/ of those Third Person /tar/, his/her /tader/their Third Person Honorofic /tār/ his/her /tāder/, their) Inanimate / /ʃeʈir/ /ʃeʈār/, its /ʃegulor/, of those

340 NSOU ?PGEL 5 & 6 Nom.= Nominative Obj.= Objective your; yours; hers; her; my; mine;ours;hers;its; theirs; they;them;their; I; we; you;you; he;she;it;its; him;our;us; me. The indefinite someone, somebody etc.) form their paradigms like P ; they show only contrast. Example: ? someone ? someone's ? somebody ? somebody's But no number contrast is possible. Unlike , but like , they show contrast by taking on the suffix with parallel phonological shapes. Unlike English language, Bangla has no negative pronouns such as " . These are typically represented by adding the negative particle ( ) to indefinite pronouns, which are themselves derived from their corresponding question words. Common indefinite pronouns are listed below. / , who / someone / / no one / whose / someone's / no one's / to whom / to someone / / to no one / which / any / none / what / some/something / nothing The relative ( ) and its different variants, as shown below, are commonly employed in complex sentences. The relative pronouns for animate objects change for number and honor, but those for inanimate objects stay

341 NSOU ? PGEL 5 & 6 the same: Bangla Nouns are also inflected for each of the following CASE situations: A iv. marking pattern for each Noun being inflected depends on the noun's degree of animacy. The cannot be inflected upon Nouns which are inanimate, and the cannot be inflected upon nouns which are animate. When a definite article such as t (, for singular Noun) or (, for plural Noun) is added, Nouns are also inflected for number. In formal contexts, especially in writing, the definite article t is replaced by ti ( ). There is also an alternative way of using the plural definite article, -/ , by making it -/ ( ). For animate nouns, are often replaced by Animate and Inanimate Relative Pronouns Person Nominative (who) Genitive (whose) Objective (to whom) Singular (who) (whose) (whom) Singular (Honorific) (who) (whose) (whom) Plural (who) (whose) (whom) Plural (Honorific) (who) (whose) (whom) Inanimate (which/that) (which/that) (in which/what)

342 NSOU ?PGEL 5 & 6 (Let us go through the following table (Table 6) for understanding the inflections of an animate Noun, / (student), and an inanimate Noun, / (shoe) in different Case situations: When counted, nouns must also be accompanied by the appropriate measure word. As in many East Asian languages like Chinese, Japanese and Thai, Nouns in Bangla cannot be counted directly by adding the numeral directly adjacent to the Noun. Measure Word ( ) must be used in between the numeral and the Noun. Unlike English, Most Nouns take the generic measure word /t , although there are many more specific , such as / , which is only used to count human beings. Let us see the Table 7 below for understanding the Bangla Measure Words: StudyingInflections of Animate and Inanimate Bangla Nouns Case Singular Plural Singular Plural Nominative / chhātrô-ţi/chhātrô- ţā the student chhātrô-rā the students / jutā-ţi/jutā-ţā the shoe jutā-gulo the shoes Accusative / chhātrô-ţi- ke/chhātrô-ţā-ke (to) the student chhātrô-der- ke (to) the students Not Applicable Not Applicable Genitive / chhātrô-ţi- r/chhātrô-ţā-r the student's Chhātrô-der the students' / jutā-ţi- r/jutā-ţā- r the shoe's jutā-gulo-r the shoes' Locative Not Applicable Not Applicable / jutā-ţi-te/jutā-ţā-y on/in the shoe jutā-gulo-te on/in the shoes

343 NSOU ? PGEL 5 & 6 Adjectives do not inflect for Case, Gender, or Number in Bangla and are placed before the Noun they modify. Some adjectives form their opposites by - (before consonants) or ¨ - (before vowels): Examples: ? sɔ mbhɔ b/i.e. ɔ sɔ mbhɔ b/ " and correspond to Bangla and "respectively with the definite article attached to the following Noun. Their plural forms are " remain the same with the plurality denoted by the definite article or the classifier. Thus would translate to "while would translate to Bangla adjectives form their comparative forms with ''more", and their superlative forms with , "than all". Comparisons are formed by using Genitive form of the object of comparison, followed by the ''than"or the " like and then by "less". The word for "more" is optional, but the word for "less" is required, so in its absence "more" is inferred. Adjectives can be additionally modified by using / / i.e. "much"or "much more" which are especially Bangla Measure Words Bangla Measure Words English Translation Nɔy-ţā ghoṛi Nine clocks Kɔy-ţā balish How many pillows ɔnek-jon lok Many people Char-pañch-jon shikkhôk Four or five Teachers

344 NSOU ?PGEL 5 & 6 useful for comparing quantities. Table 8. Bangla are highly inflected and are regular with only few exceptions. They consist of a stem and an ending; they are traditionally listed in Bangla dictionaries in Bangla " " form, which is usually formed by adding to the stem: for example ( ) is formed from the stem / /. The stem can end in either a vowel or a consonant. Bangla Verbs are conjugated for tense and person by changing the endings, which are largely the same for all verbs. However, the stem vowel can often change as part of the phenomenon known as " ", whereby one vowel can be influenced by other vowels in the word to sound more harmonious. / ? e but also / i is considered a language in some aspects. In the simple present tense there is no verb connecting the subject to the predicative (the "zero verb" copula). There is one notable exception, however, which is when the predicative takes on the existential, locative, or possessive aspects; for such purposes, Usage of Bangla and English Degree Words Bangla Usage Degree Word in Use English Usage = taller than Subhash is taller than Rahim ( ) ( ) = taller than Subhash is taller than Rahim Subhash of Rahim than less tall Subhash is shorter than Rahim Subhash of Rahim like tall Subhash is as tall as Rahim Subhash of Rahim than much tall Subhash is much taller than Rahim

345 NSOU ? PGEL 5 & 6 the incomplete verb / / is used, which is conjugated according to the rules given below. Where as the verb / means "to be", the verb can be roughly translated as "to exist" or "to be present" In the past tense, the incomplete verb is always used as the copula, regardless of the nature of the predicative. ? For the future tense and non-finite structures, the copula is supplied by the verb / , with the exceptions being the possessive and locative predicatives for which the verb (, "to remain") is utilized. ? Bangla does not have a verb for possession i.e. "to have", "to own". Instead of the sentence " ", possession in Bangla is expressed by the verb (for present and past tenses) and the verb (for future tense) inflected with the possessed object (" ") and a possessive (genitive) case for the possessor i.e. ? → → you → your. For example: ("You have a book"; Literally: = "Your one book exists"). There are four sentence negators employed in Bangla: Existential sentences that use the verb are negated with / , which does not need to be conjugated. All other verbs (with the exceptions the ones listed above) are negated using the universal negative particle / , which can also refer to "no" in yes- no questions. The negative is typically placed after the finite verb (see examples below), but can also be placed at the end of the sentence, which negates the whole sentence. The negative can be used in all tenses except two: the present perfect and the past perfect. Verbs in the present perfect and the past perfect tenses are negated using the suffix - ( ) attached to the simple present verb form; this naturally means that in negative sentences the distinction between the two tenses is lost, since they both use the same verb form.

\ Bangla verbs are inflected for and , but not for . There are five forms: first person, second person (very familiar), second person (familiar), third person (familiar), and second/third person (polite). The same sample subject pronouns will be used for all the example conjugation paradigms: / /), / /, / / and / . These Personal Pronouns have the following plurals respectively: / /, , , and There are two for Bangla verbs: ? The : The indicative mood is used for statements of fact; its various tenses are given . ? The : The imperative mood is used to give commands. Just as in other Indo-Aryan languages, the imperative form of a verb differs on the basis of honorifics. The three sets of second-person pronouns - (VF), (F), H) - combined with slight modifications to the stem of any verb form the imperatives for that verb; these are described in the table below. Note that the plural command forms change the Pronoun but not the verb ending. Activity 2 Fill in the blanks using Negative Verbs in Bangla taking help from the English translation. The first one is done for you. Negating verbs Bangla English Explanation I am not happy Incomplete negator - conjugated for first-person We don't have a car I don't work I didn't help him

For non-causative verbs the verbal infinitive and perfect participle forms require stem transformations according to the principles of vowel harmony. Causative verbs only require stem transformations for forming their perfect participles. The verbal noun can act like a regular noun, and can therefore take case endings and classifier particles; additionally it can also function as an adjective. Both the verbal noun and the verbal infinitive are often used in constructions where the infinitive is needed. Many common sentence constructions, such as those involving obligation, need, and possibility (" ", " ", " ", etc.) are built in Bangla without using nominative subjects; instead, the subject is omitted or often, used in the genitive case. These are typically constructed using the verbal noun (or the verbal infinitive in some cases) along with other nouns or verbs. i. Obligation is expressed using the verbal infinitive and a third-person form of (in any tense, but present tense also uses the future tense conjugation), with the subject in the objective case. For example (" "; is the future tense conjugation for (Khaoya). ii. Need is expressed by using the verbal noun with the noun (, need), and the subject in the genitive. For example: (" "). Application of Imperative Mood Verb Very Familiar Familiar Honorific /bɔlā/ tui bɔl tumi bɔlo āpni bɔlun /kholā/ tui khol tumi kholo āpni khulun /khǽlā/ tui khǽl tumi khǽlo āpni khelun /chenā/ tui chen tumi cheno āpni chinun /jānā/ tui jān tumi jāno āpni jānun /hɔoā/ tui hɔ tumi hɔo āpni hɔn /deoā/ tui de tumi dāo āpni din

? Structure Any active verb can be turned into a passive one by attaching the auxiliary to the verbal noun aspect of the verb in question. Only this suffix is conjugated, using the third-person endings for the various tenses. For example: " " is – so " becomes in the future tense, would be , where the third- person conjugation for future tense. Most verbs (not all verbs have causative forms) can be made causative by adding the suffix /to it. For example: " " is which takes the - suffix to become or " ". The stem of such a causative verb - to be used when conjugating it - is thus the verbal noun form of the base verb ( )in the case of However, such stems do not undergo any vowel transformations when conjugating for tenses. Bengali has four simple tenses: the present tense, the past tense, the conditional or habitual past tense, and the future tense. These combine with mood and aspect to form more complex conjugations: the perfect tenses, for example, are formed by combining the perfect participles with the corresponding tense endings. There are three aspects for Bangla verbs: simple aspect, the progressive/continuous aspect, and the perfect. The progressive aspect is denoted by adding prefix the regular tense endings with (for stems ending with consonants) or (for stems ending with vowels), while the perfect aspect requires the use of the perfect participle. These are combined with the different tenses described below to form the various verbal conjugations. The present tense in Bangla is similar to that of English: I eat, you run, he reads. The endings are , , , , and , and only the 1st-person and the VF forms require stem transformations for vowel harmony. (A type of assimilation, where a vowel shares certain fetures with contrastive vowels elsewere in a word. For example a Front would in the first syllable would require the presence of a Front vowel in the second syllable) The present progressive tense in also similar to that of English: I am eating, you are running, he is reading, etc. This tense is formed by combining the progressive aspect suffix ( ) with the present tense endings; we thus get , , and and all forms require stem transformations for vowel harmony.

See the following table for details. Studying the differences between Bangla and English Tense Structure Bangla Verb Present Present Progressive Present Perfect Familiar Familiar 3 nd Person Honorific 3 nd Person bɔlā āmi bolchhi tui bolchish tumi bolchho ʃe bolchhe āpni bolchhen tell I tell You are telling You have told He/ She is telling You are telling kholā āmi khulchhi tui khulchhish tumi khulchho ʃe khulchhe āpni khulchhen open I open You are opening You have opened He/She is opening You are opening khǽlā āmi khelchhi tui khelchhish tumi khelchho ʃe khelchhe āpni khelchhen play I play You are playing You have played He/She is playing You are playing chenā āmi chinchhi tui chinchhish tumi chinchho ʃe chinchhe āpni chinchhen know I know You are knowing You have known He/she is knowing You are knowing jānā āmi jānchhi tui jānchhish tumi jānchho ʃe jānchhe āpni jānchhen understand I understand You understand You have understood He/Sheis understanding You are understanding

The present perfect tense is used to relate events that happened fairly recently, or even past events whose effects are still felt in the present. It is formed by adding the present progressive tense suffixes (see above) with the perfect participle of the verb. hɔoā ami hochhi tui hochhish tumi hochho ʃe hochhe āpni hochhen become I become You are becoming You have becove He/She is becoming You are becoming dhoā āmi dhuchhi tui dhuchhish tumi dhuchho ʃe dhuchhe āpni dhuchhen wash I wash You are washing You have washed He/She is washing You are washing khāoā āmi khāchhi tui khāchhish tumi khāchho ʃe khāchhe āpni khāchhen eat I eat You are eating You have eaten He/She is eating You are eating deoā āmi dichhi tui dichhish tumi dichho ʃe dichhe āpni dichhen give I give You are giving You have given He/She is giving You are giving

351 NSOU ? PGEL 5 & 6 Application of Bangla Verbs in Present Perfect Tense Bangla/ English Verb English Main Verb First Person Second Person (Very Familiar) Second Person (Familiar Third Person (Familiar Second/ Third Person (Honorific) bɔla say/tell āmi bolechhi tui bolechhish tumi bolechho she bolechhe āpni bolechhen say/tell say/tell I have said/told You have said/told You have said/told She/he has said/told You have said/told kholā Open āmi khulechhi tui khulechhhish tumi khulechho ʃe khulechhe āpni khulechhen open Open I have opened You have opened You ave opened She/he has opened You have opened khǽla Play āmi khelechhi tui khelechhhish tumi khelechho ʃe khelechhe āpni khelechhen play Play I have played You have played You have played She/e/ has played You have played chenā Recognize āmi chinechhi tui chinechhhish tumi chinechho ʃe chinechhe āpni chinechhen Know/ recognize Know/ Recognize I have known/ recognized You have known/ recognized You have known/ recognizd She/He known/ recognized You have known/ recognized jānā know/ understand āmi jenechhi tui jenechhhish tumi jenechho ʃe jenechhe āpni jenechhen

352 NSOU ?PGEL 5 & 6 The (simple) past tense differs from its use in English in that it is usually reserved for events that have occurred recently; for instance, less than a day ago. It would be translated into the English simple past tense: I ate, you ran, he read. The endings are , , , , (notice that the vowels for the second and third [familiar] persons Know/ understand know/under stand I have known/ recognized You have known/reco gnized You have known/rec ognized She/He has known/reco gnized You have known/recog nized hɔoā become āmi hoyechhi tui hoyechhhish tumi hoyechho ʃe hoyechhe āpni hoyechhen become become I have become You have become You have become She/He has become You have become dhoā wash āmi dhuechhi tui dhuechhhish tumi dhuechho ʃe dhuechhe āpni dhuechhen wash wash I have washed You have washed You have washed She/He has washed You have washed khāoā eat āmi kheyechhi tui kheyechhhish tumi kheyechho ʃe kheyechhe āpni kheyechhen eat eat I have eaten You have eaten You have eaten She/He has eaten You have eaten deoā give āmi diyechhi tui diyechhhish tumi diyechho ʃe diyechhe āpni diyechhen give give I have given You have given You have given She/He has given You have given

353 NSOU ? PGEL 5 & 6 are the reverse of those in the present tense), and all forms require stem transformations for vowel harmony. For example: In Eastern varieties of Bangla, "a" is substituted for "e" in second-person familiar forms; thus , , etc. Application of Bangla Simple Past Verbs in Present Perfect Tense Bangla Verb English Verb First Person Second Person (Very Familia r Second Person (Familiar Third Person (Familiar Second/T hird Person (Honorific Second/Th ird Person (Honorific) bɔla say āmi bollām tui bolli tumi bolle ʃe bollo āpni bollen tini bollen khola open āmi khullām tui khulli tumi khulle ʃe khullo āpni khullen tini khullen khǽla play āmi khellām tui khelli tumi khelle ʃe khello āpni khellen tini khellen chenā recognize āmi chinlām tui chinli tumi chinle ʃe chinlo āpni chinlen tini chinlen jānā know āmi jānlām tui jānli tumi jānle ʃe jānlo āpni jānlen tini jānlen

354 NSOU ?PGEL 5 & 6 The habitual past tense has a few different uses. It is used for events that happened regularly, such as "I used to eat out every day" or "He wrote poems when he was young", the equivalent of an imperfect. It may also be used as a sort of conditional, such as the following: "If you asked I " or "If you had asked I ". It is easy to form the habitual past tense: simply start with the simple past tense and change the to (except in the form). The endings are , , , , , and all forms require stem transformations for vowel harmony. For example: , , , , . In less standard varieties of Bengali, "a" is substituted for "e" in second-person familiar forms; thus etc. hɔoā become āmi holām tui holi tumi hole ʃe holo āpni holen tini holen dhoā wash āmi dhulām tui dhuli tumi dhule ʃe dhulo āpni dhulen tini dhulen khāoā eat āmi khelām tui kheli tumi khele ʃe khelo āpni khelen tini khelen deoā give āmi dilām tui dili tumi dile ʃe dilo āpni dilen tini dilen

355 NSOU ? PGEL 5 & 6 Table 13: Bangla Habitual Past TenseVerbs in Application Bangla Verbs in Habitual Past Tense Application Bangla & English Verb 1 st Person 2 nd Person (Familiar) 2 nd Person (Honour) 3 rd Person (Familiar) 2 nd Person (Honour) 3 rd Person (Honor) bɔlā say āmi boltām tui boltish tumi bolte ʃe bolto āpni bolten tini uni bolten khǽlā play āmi kheltām tui kheltish tumi khelte ʃe khelto āpni khelten Tini/uni khelten chenā recognize āmi chintām tui chintish tumi chinte ʃe chinto āpni chinten Tini/uni chinten jānā know āmi jāntām tui jāntish tumi jānte ʃe jānto āpni jānten Tini/uni jānten hɔoā become āmi hotām tui hotish tumi hote ʃe hoto āpni hoten Tini/uni hoten dhoā wash āmi dhutām tui dhutish tumi dhute ʃe dhuto āpni dhuten Tini/uni dhuten Khāoā Eat āmi khetām tui kheltish tumi khete ʃe kheto āpni kheten Tini/uni kheten Deoā give āmi ditām tui ditish tumi dite ʃe dito āpni diten Tini/uni diten

356 NSOU ?PGEL 5 & 6 Quite contrary to English, there are special vocabulary in Bangla that points to Future application. For example there is not a a single word in English that serves the purpose of using it in future reference. In English we have to depend on Modal Auxiliaries and even Present Tense Verb with Adverbials implying future happening.In less standard varieties of , "a" is substituted for "e" in second-person familiar forms; thus ? / /. ? The endings are ; the ? and conjugations are identical in this tense, and ? All forms require stem transformations 4 is not required in English language when we need to express any thing with reference to any time in future. Example: I am to visit UGC office in Delhi for an urgent meeting tomorrow. Bangla & English Verb 1 st Person 2 nd Person (Familiar) 2 nd Person (Honour) 3 rd Person (Familiar) 2 nd Person (Honour) 3 rd Person (Honour) jānā know āmi jānbo tui jānbi tumi jānbe she jānbe āpni jānben Tini/uni jānben hɔoa become āmi hɔbo tui hobi tumi hɔbe ʃe hɔbe āpni hɔben Tini/uni hɔben dhoā wash āmi dhubo tui dhubi tumi dhube ʃe dhube āpni dhuben Tini/uni dhuben khāoā eat āmi khābo tui khābi tumi khābe ʃe khābe āpni khāben Tini/uni khāben deoā give āmi dibo tui dibi tumi dibe ʃe dibe āpni diben Tini/uni diben

357 NSOU ? PGEL 5 & 6 Whereas English language features pre , Bangla typically uses post . In other words these modifying words occur their object in English. : the house ? For his occupation On the other hand these modifiers typically occur their object in ? ? baṛir bhitore ? pashe Some require their object Noun to take the PossessiveCase, while others require the Objective (which is unmarked for inanimate Nouns). This distinction must be taken into account. Most are formed by taking Nouns referring to a location and inflecting them for Locative Case. They can also be applied to verbal nouns also as exemplified below: Bangla Postpositions that require Accusative (objective) case Bangla Postposition English Word Bangla Usage English Usage /aage / before /shôkal-er age = 'before the morning' /pôre/ after /shondha-r pore/ 'after the evening' /upore/ on top of, above /bichhana-r upore/ 'on top of the bed' /niche/ below under /boi-er niche/ 'under the book' /pichhone/ behind /almari-r pichhone/ 'behind the cupboard' /shamne/ in front of' /gaṛi-r shamne/ 'in front of the car' /oi pare/ across /nodi-r oi pare/ 'across the river' /kachhe/ near /janala-r kachhe/ 'near the window' /pashe/ beside /chula-r pashe/ 'beside the stove' /jonno/ for /shikkhôk-er jonno/ 'for the teacher' /shôngge/ with /am-ar shôngge/ 'with me'

358 NSOU ?PGEL 5 & 6 At the outset we need to know that Bangla language unlike English language 5 has distinct : ( ): An of Bangla that was practiced for Bangla Literature from the Fourteenth century till the first half of the twentieth century. Sadhubhasha is generally considered as "outdated'' and is no longer used neither in writing nor in normal conversation. (//bahubal kahake bali ebong bakyabal kahake bali taha prathame bujhaiba// Ebong dui baler praved o taratamya dekhaiba// English Translation: I shall explain what is muscle power and what is oral power (power of speech) and then I shall make you understand the difference in between the two. 1. Ref: ( ): A new of Bangla that is practiced for Bangla Literature and Journalism since the Nineteenth century to date. Sample Text (//parar prante akti boro puskarini//) Bangla Postposition English Word Bangla Usage English Translation /kore/ 'by means of': /ţêksi kore/ 'by taxi' /chhaṛa/ 'without'; 'aside from': /ama-ke chhaṛa/ 'without me' /theke / from' (places): /Bangaluru theke / from Bangaluru' /diye / 'by': /ta-ke diye/ 'by him' /Niye/ 'about' (animate), 'with' (animate) /toma-ke niye/ 'about/with you' /porjonto/ 'until': /dôshţa porjonto/ 'until ten o' clock' /shôho/ 'with'; 'including': /ţaka shôho/ 'along with the money' /hoe/ 'via': /Kolkata hoe Delhi/ 'to Delhi via Kolkata' Bangla Postpositions that require Nominative Case Bangla Postposition English Word Bangla Usage English Translation /dhore/ = for (time): /dudin dhore/ 'continuing for two days' /niye/= 'about' (inanimate); 'with' (inanimate): /niye/ 'about/with it' BanglaPrepositions that require locative case Bangla Postposition English Word Bangla Usage English Translation /bina/ 'without': /bina onumoti-te / 'without permission'

359 NSOU ? PGEL 5 & 6 English Translation There is a big pond at the outskirt of a para (part of a village) (//tar nam Padmapukur//) English Translation This is called Padmapukur. Ref: It is important to note that the Bangla Morphology discussed below applies fully only to the) form. Although Bangla is typically written in the Bangla script, a Romanization scheme is used in this unit to suggest the pronunciation. The study of the and syntax of Bangla is also carried seriously in Higher Education in the Indian subcontinent. Bangla Verbs are conjugated for tense and person by changing the endings, which are largely the same for all verbs. The inanimate pronouns remain the same in the Objective Case.The cannot be inflected upon Nouns which are inanimate The stem can end in either a vowel or a consonant. In Eastern varieties of Bengali, "e" is substituted for "a" in second-person familiar forms; thus , , etc. In English we have to depend on Modal Auxiliaries and even Present Tense Verb with Adverbials implying future happening. 5 The negative is typically placed after the finite verb can also be placed at the end of the sentence, that negates the whole sentence.The habitual past tense has a few different uses. It is used for events that happened regularly, such as . The comparision between English and Bangla Morphology will lead to successful implementation of ELT in classroom situation where the medium of classroom is Bangla or close to Bangla. 1. Critically evaluate the efficacy of Contrastive Approach (CA) in English teaching. 2. How GT Method can be used in teaching English Grammar to school students? 3. Make a full proof Lesson Plan and add comments with reference to with GT feasibility for teaching the first generation of English learners. 4. Execute a Lesson Plan applying Contrastive Approach for teaching English Grammar to students whose Mother Tongue is Bangla.

360 NSOU ?PGEL 5 & 6 5. Suppose you are teaching a group of Bengali/Hindi Medium School children of 16 -18 Age group. Discuss application of English Personal Pronouns in contrast to whatever they already know with reference to their respective L- 1 (Mother Tongue). 6. Suppose you are teaching a group of Bengali/Hindi Medium School children of 13-15 Age group. Discuss application of English Generative Case in contrast to whatever they already know with reference to their respective L-1 (Mother Tongue). 7. Suppose you are teaching a group of Bengali/Hindi Medium School children of 15-17 Age group. Discuss application of English Nominative Case in contrast to whatever they already know with reference to their respective L- 1 (Mother Tongue). 8. Suppose you are teaching a group of Bengali/Hindi Medium School children of 15-19 Age group. Discuss application of English Verbs in contrast to whatever they already know with reference to their respective L-1 (Mother Tongue). 9. Suppose you are teaching a group of Bengali/Hindi Medium School children of 13-15 Age group. Discuss application of English Preposition in contrast to whatever they already know with reference to their respective L-1 Postpositions. 10. Draft a Lesson Plan using G T Method and show its effectiveness in contrast to Direct Method for teaching English Grammar to High School students whose L-1 is Bangla. 11. Study the following situation and conduct an Action Research for each of them: a. Students with b. Students with c. Students with 1. Allen J. P. B,and Corder, S.P. (Eds.1977). v. 4 (Language & Language Learning. OUP.U K. 2. Bagchi and Dey. S.K. (2006). . Cambridge India. Kolkata. 3. Bonazzi, Eros. (2008). Bologna (Italy): Libreria Bonomo Editrice.

361 NSOU ? PGEL 5 & 6 4. Chatterji, Suniti Kumar. (Reprint.1991) . Calcutta: Rupa & Co. 5. Dey, S.K. (2013). . Pearson Education. Noida and New Delhi 6. Radice, William. 1994. . Chicago: NTC Publishing Group. 7. Sarkar, Pabitra. (2016). . Karigar. Kolkata. 8. Sen, S. (2015). s (5 Vol 1939, 1991) Ananda Publishers. Kolkata. 1 Popularly known as GT Method that was used for teaching English throughout the 18th and the 19th century across the globe. 2 English language has universal form ''you'' /ju/ for second person Nominative case and ''thee'' and ''thou'' are poetic words for the same. 3. English language has application of ''he/she'' with reference to third person nominative case. 4. Stem transformation of near in not required in Englcish Language when we need to express anything with reference to any time in future. e.g., I am to visit there for an urfent meeting tomorrow.

? From the previous units we learnt that Morphology is the study of forms. This sub- discipline of Linguistics studies the internal structure of words, where the domains are word formation and inflection. The morphological structure of word plays an important role in determining its phonetic form, syntactic properties and its meaning. This unit is designed on practice activities of morphological structures. After working on the unit you will be able to: • Revise on word formation and inflection, • Understand the morphological interfaces, • Know how new complex words derive their meanings, • Learn on identification of morphemes from different languages. Morphemes are language specific units larger than phonemes and syllables. For identifying morphemes, there are few strategies. These strategies are Segmentation of words into minimal sound-meaning constituents. This strategy is comparing and contrasting forms that are partially similar in sound and meaning and associating shared sound with shared meaning. This procedure can be continued until the forms 362 MODULE - 4 : MORPHOLOGICAL ANALYSIS

363 NSOU ? PGEL 5 & 6 are unbreakable into smaller sound-meaning units. For example, segmentation of into its constituent morphemes by comparing, contrasting and isolating the morphemes. : Segment the following words into their constituent morphemes. Clue: Consult a Dictionary (Oxford Advance Learners). i) Inconsistent ?comparing? contrasting ? isolating Step 1. Reconsideration ?re-consideration Step 2. Consideration ?consider-ation Re-consider-ation prefix+root+suffix Let us take some more examples: a) Preferences ?comparing? contrasting ? isolating Step 1: preferences: preference-s Step 2: preference: prefer-ence Prefer-ence-s root+ suffix + suffix b) Segmenting repayment into its constituent morphemes: Step 1: repayment : payment?re-payment Step 2.payment : pay? pay-ment re- pay-ment prefix+root+suffix c) segmentingintrusion into its constituent morphemes: ? comparing? contrasting ? isolating 1. intrusion : intrusion?intru-sion intru-sion root+suffix Segmenting intrusion into its constituent morphemes:

364 NSOU ?PGEL 5 & 6 ii) Autonomous iii) Generalized iv) merchantable v) provocation Your answer: : Analyse the meanings of the constituent morphemes from the following words. a. Proximity: proxim-ity b. Rediscover: re-dis-cover c. Subcontractor: Sub-contract-or d. Unintentional: un-inten-tion-al e. Naturally: natur-al-ly Your answer: We have learnt on Free and Bound morphemes in the earlier units. In segmenting a word into its constituent morphemes, some morphemes are not breakable. While some other morphemes can be segmented. Compare: -sist in consist re- in rewrite -er in writer Some root morphemes never occur alone. In modern English, morphemes such as -ceive, -mit, -fer have lost their independent meaning and their meaning is derived from the word in which they occur. For example the following words with the above morphemes: - receive, conceive, perceive - permit, remit, omit, commit, transmit, admit - refer, confer, prefer, defer, transfer These are

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forms which have a common semantic distinctiveness and an identical phonemic form.

Thus they are all representations a single morpheme. Root morphemes (which are not segmented further) never occur alone and have no independent lexical meaning. These are called bound morphemes. List the morphemes in each word below, and state whether each morpheme is free (F) or bound (B). First one is worked out for you.

365 NSOU ? PGEL 5 & 6 : Write the definition of Free morpheme. Your answer: Now let us try to understand the concept 'morphological analysis' by examining a data on Swahili. Swahili is a Bantu language which is spoken primarily in East Africa. There are approximately 800,000 native speakers of Swahili, and some 30,000,000 people worldwide speak Swahili as a second language. From the following data sets 1 in Swahili, identify the strings of sounds which correspond to the morphemes. anapenda 'he likes' alimua 'he killed him' alimona 'he saw him' alikupenda 'he liked you' atapenda 'he will like' ananitazama 'he looks at me' alimsaidia 'he helped him' alimpenda 'he liked him' alipenda 'he liked' atakusikia 'he will hear you' alimpiga 'he hit him' alitupenda 'he liked us' amependa 'he has liked' alitupanya 'he cured us' 1. Creating Create(F) -ing (B) 2. unhealthy 3. seaward 4. waiter 5. wastage 6. reconsider 7. Poetic 8. keys 9. modernize 10. incompletion Your answer: 2. unhealthy 3. seaward 4. waiter 5. wastage 6. reconsider Un- (B) sea (F) wait (F) waste (F) re- (B) health (F) ward (B) -er (B)-age (B) consider (F) -y (B) 7. poetic 8. keys 9. modernize 10. incompletion poet(F) key(F) modern (F) in-(B) -ic (B) -s (B) -ize (B) complete (F) -ion (B)

366 NSOU ?PGEL 5 & 6 alimchukua 'he carried him' aliwapenda 'he liked them' alinipenda 'he liked me' ninakupenda 'I like you' nitampenda 'I will like him' nitawapenda 'I will like them' Your answer: The words anapenda'he likes' and alitupenda'he liked us', have the common structure 'penda'. Therefore 'penda' signifies 'to like'. Identify the following morphemes from the above paradigm. The tense markers are given. Pronouns Tenses Verbs he: [present]: na see: me: [future]: ta help: you: [past]: li hit: him: [past part.]: me carry: us: kill: them: look: I: hear: cure: like: Your answer: he: a [present]: na see: ona me: ni [future]: ta help: saidia you: ku [past]: li hit: piga him: m [past part.]: me carry: chukua us: tu kill: ua them: wa look: tazama I: ni hear: sikia cure: panya like: penda : Translate the following Swahili sentences into English. a) amenipiga b) anatusaidia

c) nitakutazama Your answer: He has hit me. amenipiga He helps us. anatusaidia I will look at you. nitakutazama The process of changing the form of a word to include information on number, person, case, gender, tense, mood or aspect is called inflection. Inflection does not change word category. For example, Plural forms in English are marked with '-s', as in; cat/cats, chair/chairs, train/trains. The word category is unchanged in the examples. There are quite a few exceptions to this simple rule. In these groups, the plural is formed in different ways as in; box/ boxes, ox/oxen, wolf/wolves. There are few irregular forms in English as in; information/information, foot/feet, sheep/sheep, child/ children. Find the plural morphemes in Assamese from the following paradigm data 2 . Number: Assamese has two grammatical numbers: singular and plural. The singular number is unmarked and plural number is marked by two plural morphemes -bur and bilâk. The difference between singular and plural number in Assamese is shown below. Singular and Plural number in Assamese Root Singular Plural lorâ 'boy' lorâ 'boy' lorâ-bur/bilâk 'boys' âm 'mango' âm 'mango' âm-bur/bilâk 'mangoes' kitâp 'book kitâp 'book' kitâp-bur/bilâk 'books' mâs 'fish' mâs 'fish' mâs-bur/bilâk 'fishes' Your answer: : Can you state similar plural markers from your native language? Your answer: Words can be characterized as phonological units. That is a word which is a formed out of morpheme(s) consists of a combination of phonemes. These phonetic

shapes of the morphological structures have an important role in morphological analysis. There is phonological conditioning in the morpheme structures. Phonemes do not have any meaning of their own. When they occur in combination to form morphemes, they give rise to meanings. The morphological structure also can influence the phonetic shape of complex words. There is thus an interface where the two sub-domains of Linguistics meet and interact with each other. Let us take a few examples. Examine the phonological structures of the following words: Nonessential, undecided, impractical, inexistent, illogical, illiterate, and irrespective. All these words have prefixes signifying not or opposite. Words logical and literate, the prefix ir- or im- is not applicable, showing that there is assimilation with the prefix final consonant and the root initial consonant. This is also evident in the morphemes of 'irrespective'. Again in impractical /m/ and /p/ are both bilabial sounds, showing a similarity in the sound features. Thus the negation prefix has more than one form because different word initial phonemes occur with certain phonemes. The words revisit, replay, rejoice, contains the prefix re- which signifies again or back. This prefix can combine with both vowel initial and consonant initial roots. For example re-open, re-consider. The phonetic combinations in the morphemes con-, co- and com- state that there is togetherness in the meaning of the words formed with the addition of these prefixes. The prefix 'mis-' stands for wrong or not, as in the words misjudge, misplace, misrepresent. While trying to figure out the meaning of a complex word like misanthrope, the meaning of the prefix dictates the meaning of the word to a reader. Dis-, diff-, di- signify apart or separation as in the words discover, difficult, diagonal. The morpheme di- stands for 'two' which has a matching meaning with apart or separation. The phoneme combinations of the prefix bring in focus the meaning of the morpheme structure to which it is attached. All the above discussions are presented in a tabular format below. Prefix Meaning Example Non-, un-, in-, il-, ir-, anti- Not, opposite Nonsense, unhappy, antitrust Re- Again, back Re-entry, re-discover Con-, com-, co-, syn- With , together. Conference, along with competition, co-occurrence, syndicate Mis- Wrong, not Misrepresent, misplace Dis-, diff-, di- Separation, away, apart Difference, Diaspora, disrespect

: Study the following words and comment on the phonological interfaces: a) pitter-patter, tick-tock, hocus-pocus, nitty-gritty b) give-gave, foot-feet, c) dog-z, cat-s, church-es and part-ies Your answer: The list in a) are reduplicated words, where the following segment is rhymed with the first segment and does not have a meaning in isolation. The words in b) are stem alternations where the altered stem is a morpheme. Gave is the past form of the verb give and feet is plural of foot. In c) there are three kings of plural allomorphs which are phonologically conditioned. Both /g/ and /z/ are voiced sounds, /t/ and /s/ are voiceless and the vowel /e/ is added in between the consonants /t ò / and /s/ for ease of pronunciation. In parties, /y/ which is a semivowel has changed to /−ies/ in plural form. In this unit, you have leant on the identification of Morphemes from English well as from languages other than English. Morphemes are language specific and working on morphological analysis on different languages adds to building knowledge on Morphology. Interfaces are of three kinds. Other than phonological interface, there are interface with semantics and relation between morphology and syntax. These are discussed in the next units. There are some review questions to check your comprehension on the unit. 1. What are the strategies for identification of morphemes? 2 Identify the morphemes and their meanings for the following words: a) contentment, b) disproportionate, c) geography, d) unclassified, e) enclosure 3. What is inflection? 4. Give one example of inflection from English on number, person, case, gender, tense, mood or aspect.

5. Discuss Morphological and phonological interfaces in English. 6. Discuss 10 prefixes of English with examples. 7. Discuss with examples inflection from your mother tongue with glosses. 8. Discuss prefixes from your native language ad compare with those of English. 9. Discuss morphological structure of words with the following: a) two prefixes, root, and suffix b) prefix, root and two suffix c) prefix, root and suffix 10. What is the role of comparing in morpheme identification? Anderson, S. R. (1992). . Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. Aronoff, M. (1994). Cambridge: MIT Press. 1 https://www.coursehero.com/file/59865069/Morphology-Exercise-7pdf/ 2 https://www.google.com/exercises+on+morphological+analysis+in+assamese ? In the previous unit, we have worked on the morphological analysis from English, Swahili and Assamese. In this unit you will work on morphological analysis on few more languages. Here is a small task to revise the concepts you have learnt in this course. Give the morphological analysis for the following English words: a) Dehumidifier b) Recapitulation c) Antidisestablishmentarianism Your answer: After going through the unit, you will be able to: • Understand the interface on Morphology and Semantics, • Learn to analyse morphology from sentence structures, • Revise on the concept 'identification of morphemes', • Develop ideas on how to teach morphology. 371

372 NSOU ?PGEL 5 & 6 A morpheme is defined as the minimal units of meaning. An allomorph is a phonetic realization of a morpheme in a different phonological or morphological environment. The word allomorph has two morphemes; allo- meaning 'different' and − morph or phonetic realization of a morpheme. An allomorph is conditioned by phonological rules or morphophonemic rules of a language. You will learn about morphophonemic analysis in the next unit. Now let us work on tasks on allomorphs. : Identify the allomorphs with the same meanings from the following words: In-considerate Ir-responsible Im-moral il-legal Non-entity un-finished end-less dis-agreement Your answer: Without: -less; non-Not: un- : Give a list of 10 allomorphs with the following English morphemes a) Plural (-s): b) Past (-ed): c) Subject-Verb Agreement (-s): Your answer: : Morpheme or allomorph? a) Is the minimal unit of meaning in a language. b) Is a unit of meaning that varies in sound without changing its meaning. c) Can be a word or part of a word. d) Is usually a part of a word. e) Is concerned with the structure and meaning of a word. f) Is concerned with the sound of words. Your answer:

373 NSOU ? PGEL 5 & 6 You have learnt on identification of morphemes in Unit 13. The processes are comparing − contrasting − isolation. Here lets us revise on the topic and also learn while working on tasks. :Which of the following words cannot be segmented into prefix + root? a) miscellaneous mistake mispronounce b) missile misquote mischief c) rebel rebate rewrite d) reclaim record return e) industrious innocent interfere f) inorganic influenza indecisive Your answer: : Complete the matrix. Join the prefixes and the roots. Discuss the word where you find processes of regressive or progressive assimilation. de- re- con- per- sub- in- ex- pre- ob- -ceive -clude -cur -duce -flect -form -pose -flect -sist -sume -serve Your answer:

374 NSOU ?PGEL 5 & 6 : What are the roots for the following words? preceded unilaterally microscopic disinterested unforgetful estrangement bystanders spaciousness triumphantly arguments unhappiness violently revitalization bejewelled Suitability Your answer:
: Which of the following is not a suffixation? Underline the word and explain by giving a paraphrase. a) redden, harden, widen, heaven
——————————————————————— b) trickster, gangster, lobster, punster
——————————————————————— c) hostess, waitress, prowess, princess
——————————————————————— d) employee, trainee, goatee, interviewee, examinee
——————————————————————— e) hatter, hammer, prisoner, potter, banker
——————————————————————— An important theory in morphology is the relation between form and meaning. There is a notion of 'concatenation' which means that each unit of morpheme should have a meaning, and added meaning goes hand in hand with the added form. This was explicit in the tasks from the previous sections of this unit. The interface of morphology with semantics is concerned with the formation of complex words and the composition of names and concepts. There are two sides of this interface. They are the semantic side and the structural side. You have already worked on this in Task 8. Let us work on some more examples to figure out the relation between them. : Explain the non-suffixed word from the following: a) action, creation, election, completion, passion ———————————————————————

375 NSOU ? PGEL 5 & 6 b) career, mountaineer, profiteer, engineer, racketeer
——————————————————————— c) comment, development, achievement, government
——————————————————————— : A Polysemy is a word with different but related senses. Point out different senses of the same word from the following pairs of sentences. a) Did you hear that sound? He has a sound health. b) How do you express it in words? She had sent her papers in express mail. c) The offer was accepted. He accepted the truth Your answer: : Content morphemes or content words carry the semantic content of words. They are open class items: nouns, verbs, adjectives and adverbs. These morphemes can add new morphemes to their structure. Grammatical or function morphemes are closed class items like pronouns, articles, prepositions, and conjunctions. These do not have clear meanings, but have grammatical functions. They are closed morphemes because they are not added to morphemes to form new words. From the following discuss the content morphemes and function morphemes with explanations: a) The girl in the car is the author of a new book. b) A complex sentence has an independent clause and a dependent clause. c) Because she is an English Teacher, some people expect her to speak and write perfectly. Your answer: Morphology builds up words from combinations of roots, stems and affixes and applying other operations to them. Syntax takes inflected words and combines them with phrases and sentences. The domain of morphology is below the word level. Syntax operates above the word level. Morphemes or combinations of morphemes are smallest units in a sentence. Morphology has stems and affixes, while Syntax has NP

376 NSOU ?PGEL 5 & 6 (Noun Phrase) and VP (Verb Phrase). You had a preliminary introduction to these terms in Paper 4. The two components morphology and syntax have an interface, in the structures of language. You have worked on some of these in Task 11. Let us find out more on how these interfaces work from the following tasks. : Which types of morphemes can be found in the following sentences 1 . Classify them according to 'free/ bound', and 'lexical/ grammatical'. a) Often when it is a choice between mindset and skill-set those with a better mindset are preferred and do better in life. b) We are beginning to recognise that that doing small things that focus in inner wellness is what is 'trending'. c) Your character influences your mindset and your way of thinking and it is clearly visible in your choices and decisions. d) Cultivate passion and imagination and a curious mind that never tires of learning. e) And if evolution towards a better self is the purpose of life-then character alone is responsible for your journey towards that purpose. Your answer: : Study the sentence structures in Task 12. Comment on how the inflected words combine to form phrases in the sentences. Your answer: This unit is a step further into morphological analysis. There are many new terms and concepts introduced with simple explanations and tasks. Interface of morphology with semantics and relation of morphology with syntax are discussed from the ELT perspective. You can consult the books mentioned in the reading list for venturing further on the topics. There are few review questions at the end to test your comprehension. 1. What are polysemous words? 2. Discuss Function morphemes. 3. What are open morphemes and close morphemes? Why are they called so?

377 NSOU ? PGEL 5 & 6 4. What is concatenation? Illustrate with examples. 5. Design a lesson plan on teaching Morphological Analysis. 6. Cite examples of English allomorphs from 10 different content and function morphemes. 7. Distinguish between function words and content words. 8. Design a task on identification of allomorphs. 9. Cite examples of grammatical morphemes. Can you also call them free morphemes? Why? 10. Discuss the interface between morphology and semantics. Aarts, Flor and Jan Aarts. (1987). Oxford: Pergamon. Bauer, Laurie. (2021). . Edinburgh: Edinburgh University Press. Matthews, P. H. (1991). . 2 nd Edition. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. Gillian Ramchand and Charles Reiss. (2012). . Oxford Handbooks Online. Oxford: Oxford University Press. DOI: 1093/ offordhb/9780199247455.001.0001 https://www.academia.edu/1427280/Worksheets_morphology_and_word-formation 1. , Kolkata July 25, 2021, Times Life, p. 4.

? Morphophonology is a branch of Linguistics that studies the interaction between morphological and phonological processes. It studies the phonemic representation of morphemes in different environments. Its concern is the sound changes that take place in morphemes when they combine to form words. In this unit, me will learn on these changes. The term 'morphophonemics' (zm ɔ :fə (J)fə ni:mIks), is derived from two words, morpheme and phoneme. After going through the unit, you will be able to understand better • the concept of word formation, • the structure of language in terms of morphological processes, • the analysis of morphemes, • how to differentiate various word formation process. 378

379 NSOU ? PGEL 5 & 6 The processes by which the words of a paradigm with a common base are differentiated from each other are known as morphological processes. Morphological processes in English are of two main types: Affixation and non-affixation. Affixation has ten processes as shown in the following flow diagram: You have learnt about affixes and their types in Module 1. Here, you will learn about the morphological process that results from affixations. Let us recapitulate what we have learnt so far. In the sentence: 'The boy's innocence shocked the partner', we have the following distinctions: The (functional) boy (lexical) -'s (inflectional) innocen(t) (lexical) -ce (derivational) shock(lexical) -ed (inflectional) the (functional) partner (lexical). Internal change is a morphological process. When two or more words, related in form and meaning, differ from each other in one or more phonemes of their structure, then one word is derived or inflected from the other in the same paradigm by internal change. For example, 'talk', 'talked', 'talking' are members of the same paradigm of inflection. In compounding, two or more free morphemes combine to form a new word. For example, 'postman', 'bookcase', 'football' are compound words. The components can be free morphemes, derived words or new word forms by compounding. For example, 'mother-in-law', 'passers-by', 'airline', 'pathfinder', etc. Let us work on a few examples. Find the type of morphemes from the following compounds: Morphological Process Affixation Non-Affixation Zero Modification Internal Change Compounding Borrowing Clipping Conversion Acronym Blending Coinage Backformation Multiple Process Reduplication

380 NSOU ?PGEL 5 & 6 a) Classroom b) Know-all c) Air-conditioner d) Looking-glass e) Homework f) Watch maker g) Fireman h) Homework i) Blackbird j) Girlfriend k) Textbook l) Housekeeper m) Flower-pot Your answer: : Add compounds to the following categories: a) Noun + noun: coffee cup, towel rack, _____, _____, b) Noun + adjective: fat free, lap top, _____, _____, c) Adjective +Noun: white collar, blue bird, _____, _____, Blending is another word formation process, where two words combine to form a new word with a new meaning. In blending, only parts of the words are combined. In compounding, whole words are combined. Examples of blending are: smoke + fog = smog, motor + hotel = motel. Let us work on on a few more examples to understand this concept. : Find the blended words. Are there phonological process in the changes? a) Breakfast + lunch = b) Gasoline + alcohol = c) Mobile + episode = d) Web + log = : Find the combining words: a) Sci-fi = b) Internet = c) Fortnight = d) Sitcom = e) Emoticon = Answers Task 3: a) brunch, b) gasohol, c) mobisode, d) motorbike, e) blog. There are instances of multiple phoneselisiar word initially and word finally. Answers Task 4: a) science + fiction, b) international + network, c) fourteen + night, d) situation+ comedy, e) emotion + icon.

381 NSOU ? PGEL 5 & 6 Borrowing is the process in which a word from one language is directly borrowed into another language. This happens when two languages come in contact with each other. The words are mostly nouns, along with verbs and adjectives. Borrowing is a common source of new words in languages. There are two types of borrowing. The first type is . In English, the following words are borrowed from foreign languages: Algebra – Arabic Guru – Indian Chowmein – Chinese Murder – French Paprika – Hungarian Pizza – Italian Borrowed words are also known as . English is a source for loan words for many languages. : Find the sources of the following borrowed words: a) Hamburger b) Theatre c) Piano d) Umbrella e) Sofa : Find the borrowed words from the following languages: a) Japanese b) Turkish c) Brazilian d) Spanish e) French The second type of borrowing is . Loan translation is the translation of morpheme-by-morpheme of the borrowed words from the loaning language to the borrowed language. Loan translations sound awkward at first but are gradually accepted in the language with use. Word for word translations without any grammatical alterations are known as calques (from the French word for 'copy'). For example; German 'übermensch' → English 'superman' German 'standpunkt' → English 'standpoint' Spanish 'momento de la verda' → English 'moment of truth'

382 NSOU ?PGEL 5 & 6 Spanish 'Casa Blanca' → English 'White House' : Find the English Loan translations of the following: a) German 'Biergarten' → English _____ b) German 'Lehnwort' → English _____ c) French 'dejeuner' → English _____ Answers Task 5: German, Greece, Italian, Italian, Arabic Answers Task 6: tycoon, yogurt, chocolate, guitar, diplomat Answers Task 7: a) beer garden, b) loan word, c) breakfast Coinage is the invention or creation of a new term from scratch. These terms are created to connect to people with the same society. After their formation they tend to become everyday words in the language. Before 1899, there was no such term as 'aspirin', which was coined as a trade mark for Acetyl + Salicylic Acid in Germany. In 2020, the word, COVID-19 (acute respiratory illness of humans) was coined through clipping and blending of rona rus isease in 20 Find the coinages for the following: a) New and inexperienced player b) Players in the same clan c) Italian city of Genoa d) Earl of Sandwich e) To use internet to find information : Find ten examples of coinages in English and their formation words. Your answer: Answer Task 8: newbie/ noob, clannies, jeans, sandwich, google Clipping is a morphological process whereby new words are formed by shortening other words without changing the meaning. In the phonological shortening process, either the initial part or the final part or both parts are eliminated. For example, from refrigerator or pub from public house. The shortened form is the dominant form in the language. For example, the word ' ' from 'pianoforte'. Thus, clipping is a word reduction process, where syllables or whole word is eliminated. The reduced form and the complete form of the same word are used in different registers. Let us work on a few tasks on clipping.

383 NSOU ? PGEL 5 & 6 : Find the clipped words from the following: a) Telephone b) Laboratory c) Influenza d) Examination e) Advertisement Your answer: : Write the complete form of the following words: a) Gym b) Prof c) Narc d) Hydro e) Bus f) Gas g) Van In back formation, a new word with a new meaning is derived from an existing word. Back formation is based on analogy and results in a new word category. For example, from 'television' (n). we have derived the word 'televise' (v). Derive new words from the following nouns and mention their word categories: a) editor b) donation c) enthusiasm d) formation e) revision : Write the original words from which the following words are derived: a) create b) transmit c) act d) opt e) process Answers Task 12: edit (v), donate (v), enthuse (v), form (v), revise (v)

384 NSOU ?PGEL 5 & 6 Answers Task 13: creation, transmission, actor, option, procession Conversion is a morphological process which involves neither elision nor addition of any morpheme. This derivational process involves a change in the process, of assigning a new category to the existing word without changing its form in any way. For example, a noun can be used as a verb or vice-versa. This process is also known as zero-derivation. Talk – His talk was well taken. Cheat – The person is a cheat. Guess – You can make a guess For all the three sentences, the verbs 'talk', 'cheat' and 'guess' are functioning as nouns in the sentences. : Discuss the following sentences with conversion: a. She bottles her up. b. Stop shouting like a crazy person. c. Can you empty the trash for me? d. It is a must for you to take rest. e. He was admitted to the university after a three year wait. : Frame sentences with the following conversions: Taste (n) ⇔ Taste (v) Export (n) ⇔ Export (v) Paint (n) ⇔ Paint (v) Service (n) ⇔ Service (v) Repair (n) ⇔ Repair (v) Your Answer: Answers Task 14: bottle (Noun → Verb), crazy (Adjective → Noun), empty (Adjective → Verb), must (Verb → Noun), wait (Verb → Noun). Creation of a word involves multiple processes. Let us take the word 'snowball' in the sentence: The problems with the agents have snowballed. In this sentence, first, there is compound formation. Snow + ball = snowball. This

385 NSOU ? PGEL 5 & 6 word is a noun, which functions as a verb in the sentence. Thus the two process are compounding and conversion. Let us take another example: 'internet'. 'Internet' is a clipping from two words. 'Inter' from 'international', and 'net' from network. These two clipped words then blend together to form 'internet'. More than one process can be traced in the formation of the word. : Trace the word 'total' in its different categories for the following sentences: A .That was a total disaster. B. What is the total? C. The loss totaled 500/- this term. Your answer: : Trace the word formation processes for the following words: a) Carphone b) Washing machine c) Bookkeeper d) Living room e) Deep fridge Your answer: The word 'acronym' has two morphemes: acro/acr (Greek 'akros', meaning 'height' or 'summit') and nym/onym (Greek 'onumon', meaning 'name'). Acronym is an abbreviation that is treated like a word and is made with the initials of several words. There are three kinds of acronyms, as can be seen in the following examples: – Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome, where the initials of the words are treated together as a single word. National Football league – where the initials are pronounced as separate segments but still treated as a word. This is called initialism or alphabetism. Radar- Radio Detecting And Ranging, or – Light Amplification by Simulated Emission, where the segments are not written in capitals and are treated as regular words. : Give the Acronyms for the following: a) National Aeronautical and Space Administration – b) United Nations International Children's Emergency Fund – c) English as a Second Language –

386 NSOU ?PGEL 5 & 6 d) Short Messaging Service – : Give the full form of the following Acronyms: a) NEP 2020 b) CBSE c) CBCS d) SWOT e) RIE Repetition of all or part of the base with or without internal change is reduplication. Repetition can be before or after the base. In English, repetition is not found in inflected words. There are examples of derived words with repetition as in 'papa', 'chocho', and in 'wigwag', 'razzle-dazzle', where there is repetition with internal change. : Find instances of repetition in the following words: a) Hanky-panky b) Tiptop c) Ticktock d) Singsong e) Boogie-woogie Your answer: Morphological analysis studies the structure of words and combination of morphemes in the creation of new words. In this unit, we have learnt on various word formation processes in general, and explored on a variety of illustrations from English. Words are created on the basis of other words and morphemes and become part of a language. New words are created with or without change of form and function. To check your understanding, there are following review questions: 1. Find the lexical categories for compounding in the following words: house wife, boy friend, arm-chair, Ice cold, dark blue, Pick pocket, popcorn, campfire, snowball. 2. Find the blended words:

387 NSOU ? PGEL 5 & 6 biography + picture, advertisement + entertainment, camera + recorder, internet + citizen, spoon + fork, transfer + resistor, web + seminar. 3. Find the coined term: Louis Pasteur, What's Application, to escalate. 4. Find the clipped word: bicycle, demonstration, memorandum, photography, helicopter, dormitory. 5. State which of the following statements are true: a) Conversion is a reduction process. b) Clipping does not alter word categories. c) Back formation is based on analogy. d) Repletion is found in inflected words. e) Calques are loan words. 6. Name the morphological process for the following: a. A derivational process b. A reduction process c. Alters word categories d. New words are formed e. Part of the word is deleted f. Two or more words are joined together 7. Discuss conversion for the italicized words: a. It is obvious that my team will enter the . b. He scored in his first shot. c. It is a good . d. He took a close at the machine. 8. Discuss multiple processes for the following words: a. Hand-washing b. Self-isolation c. Cyber-bullying d. Driving-lisence 9. Write the Full forms of the following Acronyms: MOOCS SMART OER SCUBA 10. Find ten words from English which are loan words and ten words which are

388 NSOU ?PGEL 5 & 6 loan translations that are used in your First Language and state their contextual applications. Bauer, L. (1983). . New York: Cambridge University Press. Grady, O Malley. et al. (1996). Newyork: Cambridge University Press. Katamba, Francis. (1993). . London: MacMillan Publisher Ltd. Kelly, Gerald. (2000). . England: Pearson Education Limited. Sloat, C. and Taylor, S. (1978). . Eugene Oregon: Pacific Language Associates. Yule, George. (1996). . New York: Cambridge University Press. Bauer, L. (1983). . New York: Cambridge University Press. Katamba, Francis. (1993). London: MacMillan Publisher Ltd. Matthews. P. H. (2012). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. DOI: https://doi.org/10.1017/CBO9781139166485.010 Yule, George. (1996). . New York: Cambridge University Press. ? Morphophonemics is the study of relationship between morphology and phonology. Phonology and morphology are two main components of a language system. In this unit, we will revise on the a few concepts leant in Unit 10 and learn to investigate on the phonological variations within morphemes, marking different grammatical functions. Morphophonemic variations occur at morpheme boundaries consisting of sounds of distinct phonemes. For example, the vowel changes in keep and kept, bind and bound, and consonant changes in knife and knives, loaf and loves. A word's pronunciation is sensitive to morphological factors. For example, in English, the word electric /elektrik/ has a final velar sound, when added with an /-ity/ suffix, electricity /elektrisiti/, the velar changes into voiceless alveolar fricative. 389

390 NSOU ?PGEL 5 & 6 After going through the unit you will learn on: • The phonemic differences of the allomorphs of the same morpheme, • The distribution of allomorphs in one morpheme, • Interactions between morphological and phonological processes. Morphophonemic processes or morphophonemic changes study the phonological realization of the allomorphs of the morphemes of a language. It is also defined as phonemic representation of the morpheme indifferent environments, as well as, the morphological factors which affect the appearance of phonemes. It deals with phoneme alterations of morphemes across morpheme boundary. The nine morphophonemic processes are:

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The phoneme /n/ of the negative prefix /in/ is lost before the morphemes beginning with sonorant sounds. /m/, /l/, /r/, and /n/. For example, immobile, illimitable,

irregular, innumerable. Let us take three more examples, where there is loss of plosion, loss of post alveolar approximant /r/ and loss of front mid-high vowel /e/. Grandpa ['græ / npa:] Forecast [fɔ :ka:st] Despite [dɪˋspaɪt] For 'grandpa' the voiced alveolar plosive /d/ is lost in pronunciation. This reduction has made the disyllabic word monosyllabic. In 'forecast' the post alveolar approximant /r/ is lost and its existence is marked by length (:) of the preceding sound segment. In 'despite' word final vowel /e/ is dropped. Similar to example 1, this elision also reduces the number of syllables. If the word final vowel is pronounced, it would have made the disyllabic word trisyllabic. Let us work on consonants with different places of articulation. : Discuss the loss of phonemes from the following: a) attem b) foo all c) archite

391 NSOU ? PGEL 5 & 6 d) Woul 't meet my aunt Your answer: When two plosives with different places of articulation are in contact within a word, the articulation of the first plosive continues till the articulation of the second plosive is heard. The release of the first plosive is weak, and the plosion is heard after the second consonant. For (d) we have nasal plosion. At the junction of the plosive /d/ and nasal /n/, the articulation of the nasal starts when the articulation of /d/ is not yet complete. The release of the plosion flows through the nasal cavity, producing a nasal plosion. : Can you trace the loss of phonemes? a) Democrat → democracy b) Aristocrat → aristocracy c) Meter → metric d) Handsome [hǽnsəm] e) Grass [g ɑ: s] f) Pneumatic Your answer: : Transcribe and trace the loss of phoneme from the following word pairs. a) High, sign b) Date, name c) Climb, comb d) Acquire, muscle Your answer: Addition of phonemes is a morphophonemic change, where a phoneme, which did not exist before is added to the morpheme. For example, addition of /b/ as in Snob + ish = snob ish or addition of /s/ as in Sale girl and sword man. Let us work on the following task. : Find the added phoneme in the following words a) Reduplicative [rɪdju:plkə tɪv] b) Indecision [ˌɪndiziʒ n]

392 NSOU ?PGEL 5 & 6 c) Type-typography Your answer: A simple consonant change is an alternative allomorph which shows a change in one or more phonemes. For example, from the word 'permit' we derive 'permission'. The word final /t/ changes to /s/ in the derived word. Similarly, in Possessive / pə'zesiv /, word medial /s/ becomes voiced and is pronounced as /z/, and the /s/ of the suffix is unchanged. : Find the change in consonants for the following words: a) Extinct → extinguish b) Harmonic → harmonious c) Commit-committed d) Nod-nodded Your answer: We have learnt about assimilation in phonology in Unit 8. Assimilation in morphonemics is a phonemic change which occurs when the articulations of two contiguous morphemes are combined and they become more like each other. For example, the phonemes /t/, /d/ and /n/ become bilabials before bilabial consonants, as in 'He is a fa oy' or 'She has got an apar ent. The phoneme /t/ does not sound like an alveolar plosive. It gets influence by the sound features of its following sound or preceding sound and sound more like a bilabial. : What are the features if the following phonemes? a) I love thi inny one here. b) I have bee oing out these days. c) We found a chee op on the way. Your answer: We have learnt on dissimilation as a phonological process in Unit 8. Here we will discuss dissimilation as a morphomemic process. Dissimilation occurs when the combining identical sounds in contiguous allomorphs become dissimilar. For example,

393 NSOU ? PGEL 5 & 6 in+ noble = ignoble. The negative prefix 'in-' turns into 'ig-' before the base word 'noble'. Similarly, the morpheme ' −ed' is realized as /t/ for laughed [lɑft] or [lǽft], but is realized as /d/ for showed [ʃəüd]. : Point out dissimilation in the following words. a) Past tense allomorph: Talked, jumped, read, met, put b) Plural allomorph: wolves, boxes, sheep c) Third person singular suffix: writes, goes, watches Your answer: Synthesis is a consonant change, where two consonants are combined to form a new consonant which is different from both its constituents. This fusion of consonants is a common feature in English. This new sound segment belongs to juncture of two the allomorphs it represents. For example in moist + ure = moisture /mɔ It ò ə /, the sounds /t/ and /u/ combined to form /t ò /. : What are 'synthesis' changes in the following words? a) Actual [aktjJ ə l] b) Vision [viʒ n] c) Glycogen [galk ə J d3en] d) Humming-bird [hʌmlŋb3:d] Change of syllabic vowel or diphthong is substitution of another vowel or diphthong than the one which appears in the normal allomorph. For example, past tense allomorph as in Take-took or Shake-shook. : Find the change of syllabic vowel or diphthong from the following words: a) Clear-clarity b) Globe-globular c) Reflation [/ ri:fleɪʃn] d) Semiology [ˌsemɪˈɒlədʒɪ] e) Imitation [ˌɪmɪteɪʃn]

394 NSOU ?PGEL 5 & 6 Your answer: Gradation is the process in which strong and weak forms of certain words are used according to certain circumstances or contexts. Let us study the strong and weak forms of words in their contexts: Gradation is a feature of the vowel phonemes in the words. The strong forms have long vowel /u:/ and back vowel /ɒ/. The weak forms have short vowel /J / and central vowel /ə /. In the first example, the elision of the consonant /r/ is marked by length. Most function words have strong and weak forms. Function words are auxiliaries (do, has, can), conjunctions (and, but, as), prepositions (to, from, of), determiners (the, a, some) and pronouns (him, her, them). English has about 40 such words. The weak forms are unstressed forms. : What are the gradations in the following words? A. I do it, but I won't. you pass me the milk? B. I said eggs chips not eggs or chips. I'd like eggs chips. C. I told you! I' quit smoking. Your answer: A. B. C. Suppletion is an inflectional technique where we change the morpheme, in place of adding a suffix. Suppletion occurs when the inflected form of the word have Strong form Weak form Ask her not him. - Her [hɜ:] Did you ask her? – her [hə:] I said I didn't want to. – to [tu:] Do you want to go? – to [tə] I know where he is from. – from [frɒm] Did you hear from him? – from [frəm]

395 NSOU ? PGEL 5 & 6 different roots. For example, go-went, bad-worse, is-was, good-better. Suppletion deals with grammatical functions of words and is exception to the regular rules on inflectional words. Nouns and verbs can change due to suppletion. For example, the paradigm go: goes: went: gone: going, went is a suppletive form the verb go. : Discuss suppletion of the verb 'be' from the following paradigms I

Your answer: A morphological rule is a formal way of presenting how morphemes (free morphemes and bound morpheme) are used. For example, the word improbability, can be analysed as: Im- is a derivational prefix, which alters the semantic content. The prefix adds to the adjective stem to render another adjective. This is presented as a rule as follows. Im- + Adjective →Adjective im- +possible (Adj) → impossible(Adj) Now the morphological rule for the suffix (-ity) Adj + -ity → Noun Improbable (Adj) + -ity → improbability There can be a rule for every affix. Let us work on few examples. : Give the morphological rule for the following words: a) Preconception b) Sensitivity c) Tactfully d) Unexplained Improbable -ity Im probable Improbability

396 NSOU ?PGEL 5 & 6 e) Vaporize Your answer: Morphophonemic rule assigns phonetic form determined by morphology and phonology. It has the

The word morphophonemic consists of two terms, morphology and phoneme. Unlike phonological rule, Morphophonemic rules are sensitive to their environment. We have learnt on phonological rules in Phonological Analysis, Paper 4 Module 4, Unit 14.

Whenever morphological information is required to specify the environment for an allophonic rule, the rule is morphophonemic.

A morphophonemic rule is the formal way of presenting how morphemes are used marking grammatical functions, for example, • [-s] allomorphs -[-s] after voiceless sounds -[-z] after voiced sounds -[-iz] after sibilants -[-vz] after voiceless fricative • [-ed] allomorph -[-t] after voiceless sounds -[-d] after voiced sounds -[ed] after alveolar stops Both these rules were on allomorphs; the plural allomorphs and the past tense allomorphs. We have learnt them in dissimilation. Let us work on few more morphophonemic rules. : Write morphophonemic rules. A. Un+ pleas + ant + ness= unpleasantness B. Pleas + ure = pleasure C. Pleas + ant = pleasant D. Dis + please = displease E. Pleas + ing = pleasing F. Dis + pleas +ed = displeased

397 NSOU ? PGEL 5 & 6 Your answer: [-e] the word final vowel is deleted -[-Ø] before −ure -[-Ø] before −ant -[-e] when a prefix is added -[-Ø] before −ing -[Ø] before -ed In this final unit of the module, we have revised on morphology and learnt to write morphological rules. In morphophonemic analysis there are multiple rules that explain the alternations of the root and alternations of the affixes. These rules intact with each other and are ordered. Some rules apply first followed by other rules, as found in words formed with prefix and suffix. When morphemes are clustered or grouped together to form

words, then changes in the phonological structure of these words occur. These are morphophonemic changes. In analysing these changes, we compared different allomorph of

the same morpheme and called one of them the normal form, based on which the other forms vary. The normal form has the widest distribution. 1. Discuss the loss of phonemes. a) Please + ant + ly = Pleasantly b) Windfall, grandparent, friendship c) Airline, Airbus, Aircraft 2. Discuss the vowel changes from the following: a) Panorama →panoramic [pǽnə'rǽmik] b) Revive [rI'vaiv] c) Pity+ ful = pit ful d) Instrument − instrumental e) Symbol-symbolic f) Able-ability

398 NSOU ?PGEL 5 & 6 3. Discus gradation from the following. a) Have more vs I've had b) We meet vs I do this? c) She so nice vsHow nice she ! 4. Discuss the morphophonemic process. a) Sing-sang b) Teach-taught c) Was-were 5. Write the morphological rules for the morphemes. a) Re-examination b) Overcharged c) Groundless 6. Write the morphophonemic rules. [un-] + romantic = unromantic [un-] + limited = unlimited [non-] + resident = non-resident [non-] + lethal = nonlethal 7. Write five examples of gradation. 8. Distinguish between dissimilation and loss of phoneme. 9. Compare suppletion in English and suppletion in your first language. 10. What is the basic difference between a morphological rule and a morphophonemic rule? Illustrate. Lieber, Rochelle. (2021). 3 rd Edition. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. DOI: https://doi.org/10.1017/CBO9780511808845 McMohan, April. (2020). . Edinburgh Textbooks on English Language. 2 nd Edition. Edinburgh: Edinburgh University Press. Roach, Peter. (2009). . 4 th Edition. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

399 NSOU ? PGEL 5 & 6 ....
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Hit and source - focused comparison, Side by Side

Submitted text	As student entered the text in the submitted document.
Matching text	As the text appears in the source.

1/46	SUBMITTED TEXT	21 WORDS	59%	MATCHING TEXT	21 WORDS

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2/46	SUBMITTED TEXT	13 WORDS	76%	MATCHING TEXT	13 WORDS

English, the spelling of a word is a highly reliable guide to its

English where the spelling of a word is not always a totally reliable guide to its

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3/46	SUBMITTED TEXT	19 WORDS	52%	MATCHING TEXT	19 WORDS

the stress is on the first syllable it is a noun and if it is on the second syllable

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4/46	SUBMITTED TEXT	1 WORDS	100%	MATCHING TEXT	1 WORDS

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A combination of vocal sounds, or one such sound, used in a language to express an idea (e.g., to denote a thing, attribute, or relation), and constituting an ultimate minimal element of speech having a meaning as such.' (1989) 176 NSOU ?PGEL 5 & 6 'One of the units of speech or writing that native speakers of a language usually regard as the smallest isolable meaningful element of the language, although linguists would analyze these farther into morphemes,' (1986) '

a combination of vocal sounds, or one such sound, used in a language to express an idea (e.g. to denote a thing, attribute, or relation), and constituting an ultimate minimal element of speech having a meaning as such" (1989). ? Collins English defines it One of the units of speech or writing that native speakers of a language usually regard as the smallest isolable meaningful element of the language, although linguists would analyze these further into morphemes." (1986)

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of a single morpheme or of a'combination of morphemes'
(1985) '

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One of the units of speech or writing that native speakers of a language usually regard 183

One of the units of speech or writing that native speakers of a language usually regard

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as the smallest isolable meaningful element of the language, although linguists would analyze these farther into morphemes. 8

as the smallest isolable meaningful element of the language, although linguists would analyze these further into morphemes." (1986)

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A combination of vocal sounds, or one such sound, used in a language to express an idea (e.g., to denote a thing, attribute, or relation), and constituting an ultimate minimal element of speech having a meaning as such. (1927, 1989) One of the units of speech or writing that native speakers of a language usually regard as the smallest isolable meaningful element of the language, although linguists would analyze these farther into morphemes, (1986) 9

a combination of vocal sounds, or one such sound, used in a language to express an idea (e.g. to denote a thing, attribute, or relation), and constituting an ultimate minimal element of speech having a meaning as such" (1989). ? Collins English Dictionary defines it as "One of the units of speech or writing that native speakers of a language usually regard as the smallest isolable meaningful element of the language, although linguists would analyze these further into morphemes." (1986)

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One of the units of speech or writing that native speakers of a language usually regard as the smallest isolable meaningful element of the language, although linguists would analyze these farther into morphemes. 10

One of the units of speech or writing that native speakers of a language usually regard as the smallest isolable meaningful element of the language, although linguists would analyze these further into morphemes." (1986)

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| 18/46 | SUBMITTED TEXT | 69 WORDS | 89% | MATCHING TEXT | 69 WORDS |

Examples of inflectional affixes in English are the suffix on plural nouns, the suffix on third person, singular number verbs, the suffix "s" on possessive nouns, the suffix on past participle forms of verbs, and so on. In describing the inflectional morphology of English, we will need to describe the various bound grammatical morphemes these and other inflectional affixes of English realize, and various kinds of grammatical functions they perform.

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| 19/46 | SUBMITTED TEXT | 22 WORDS | 63% | MATCHING TEXT | 22 WORDS |

Both derivational and inflectional morphemes may occur in the same word, but when that happens derivational morphemes are attached first and inflectional morphemes

Both derivational and inflectional morphemes may be found in the same word. In that event, derivational morphemes are attached first and any inflectional morphemes

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| 20/46 | SUBMITTED TEXT | 46 WORDS | 89% | MATCHING TEXT | 46 WORDS |

Examples of derivational affixes in English include all those prefixes and suffixes we have called bound lexical morphemes, e.g. and As these bound morphemes combine with other free lexical morphemes, or stems containing them, the derivational morphology of English will need to describe the grammatical category of the morphemes (

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| 21/46 | SUBMITTED TEXT | 57 WORDS | 60% | MATCHING TEXT | 57 WORDS |

we us our ours Second you you your yours Masculine he him his Third Singular Feminine she her her hers Neuter it its

We Us Our Ours You You Your Yours He Him His His She Her Her Hers It It Its

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| 22/46 | SUBMITTED TEXT | 11 WORDS | 95% | MATCHING TEXT | 11 WORDS |

Akmajian, A., Demers, R.A., Farmer, A.K. & Harnish, R.M. (1995).

Akmajian, A., Demers, R. A., Farmer, A. K. and Harnish, R. M. (1995).

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| 23/46 | SUBMITTED TEXT | 12 WORDS | 83% | MATCHING TEXT | 12 WORDS |

do not change the category of the word to which they are

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| 24/46 | SUBMITTED TEXT | 13 WORDS | 76% | MATCHING TEXT | 13 WORDS |

the last sound of the pervious word and the first sound of the

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| 25/46 | SUBMITTED TEXT | 17 WORDS | 77% | MATCHING TEXT | 17 WORDS |

morphology) are the main components of a language system including English. Many a times, these systems interact and

morphology) are two of the main components of a language system. However, many a times, these systems interact and

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| 26/46 | SUBMITTED TEXT | 44 WORDS | 100% | MATCHING TEXT | 44 WORDS |

Morphophonemics may be defined as analysis and classification of the phonological factors which affect the pronunciation of morphemes or, correspondingly, the morphological factors which affect the appearance of phonemes. In morphophonemics, we basically study interaction between morphological and phonological processes and how they these factors affect each other.

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| 27/46 | SUBMITTED TEXT | 25 WORDS | 96% | MATCHING TEXT | 25 WORDS |

changes may be regular or irregular and are context sensitive in nature. In 'morphophonemics', we specifically study the changes which occur at the boundaries of morphemes.

changes may be regular or irregular and usually are context sensitive in nature. In 'morphophonemics', we specifically study the changes which occur at the margins/boundaries of morphemes.

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| 28/46 | SUBMITTED TEXT | 112 WORDS | 91% | MATCHING TEXT | 112 WORDS |

Morphophonemic change usually occurs at morpheme boundaries and it involves sounds that are associated with separate phonemes. One very obvious example to morphophonemics would be the use of indefinite articles in English language. in English has two distinct manifestations: "a and an". If a word begins with a consonantal sound then indefinite article is manifested as 'a' (a mango or a cat), while it is manifested as 'an' (an apple or an idiot) if following word starts with a vowel sound. The term ' refers to the way a (consonant or vowel) is pronounced, not necessarily written, in English. Therefore, an hour is a correct phrase not *a hour and a university is the correct phrase not *an university.

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34/46	**SUBMITTED TEXT**	30 WORDS	**100%**	**MATCHING TEXT**	30 WORDS

each other in some interesting ways and give rise to a phenomenon which is known as 'morphophonemics'. Sometimes, due to this interaction, pronunciation of a morpheme may get modified or completely changed.

each other in some interesting ways and give rise to a phenomenon which is known as 'morphophonemics' Sometimes, due to this interaction, pronunciation of a morpheme may get modified or completely changed.

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35/46	**SUBMITTED TEXT**	18 WORDS	**100%**	**MATCHING TEXT**	18 WORDS

There is the fusion of the two phonemes brought together by morpheme combination into a single new phoneme.

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36/46	**SUBMITTED TEXT**	20 WORDS	**100%**	**MATCHING TEXT**	20 WORDS

In many cases the addition of an affix to a word is accompanied by a shift in stress called /

In many cases the addition of an affix to a word is accompanied by a shift in stress called

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37/46	**SUBMITTED TEXT**	47 WORDS	**86%**	**MATCHING TEXT**	47 WORDS

Assimilation is the influence of a sound on a neighboring sound so that the two become similar or the same. For example, the Latin prefix 'not, non-, un-' appears in English as and in the words ? ? ? (both and are bilabial consonants), and ?

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38/46	**SUBMITTED TEXT**	80 WORDS	**72%**	**MATCHING TEXT**	80 WORDS

The of the / of / to the in the preceding examples was inherited from . English examples that would be considered native are also plentiful. In rapid speech, native speakers of English tend to pronounce 300 NSOU ?PGEL 5 & 6 as though it were written / , and in anticipation of the voiceless / in the word '' the final consonant of in is not as fully voiced as the in'' , where it is

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39/46	**SUBMITTED TEXT**	20 WORDS	**70%**	**MATCHING TEXT**	20 WORDS

the stress is on the first syllable Pro / mise (Verb) ? the stress is on the second syllable

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40/46	**SUBMITTED TEXT**	12 WORDS	**100%**	**MATCHING TEXT**	12 WORDS

forms which have a common semantic distinctiveness and an identical phonemic form.

Forms, which have a common semantic distinctiveness and an identical phonemic form

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41/46	**SUBMITTED TEXT**	26 WORDS	**78%**	**MATCHING TEXT**	26 WORDS

The phoneme /n/ of the negative prefix /in/ is lost before the morphemes beginning with sonorant sounds. /m/, /l/, /r/, and /n/. For example, immobile, illimitable,

The phoneme /n/ of the negative prefix{in-} is lost before the morphemes beginning with sonorant sounds /m/; /r/; /l/ and /n/.e.g. immobile ; irregular, illimitable.

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42/46	**SUBMITTED TEXT**	13 WORDS	**92%**	**MATCHING TEXT**	13 WORDS

am We are You are you are He/ she / it is They are

am We are Being You are You are Being He/she/it is They are

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43/46	**SUBMITTED TEXT**	13 WORDS	**96%**	**MATCHING TEXT**	13 WORDS

form of a phonological rule but is restricted to a particular morphological environment.

form of a phonological rule but it is restricted to a particular morphological environment.

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44/46	**SUBMITTED TEXT**	17 WORDS	**91%**	**MATCHING TEXT**	17 WORDS

Whenever morphological information is required to specify the environment for an allophonic rule, the rule is morphophonemic.

Whenever morphological information is required to specify the environment for an phonological rule, the rule is morphophonemic.

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45/46	**SUBMITTED TEXT**	23 WORDS	**54%**	**MATCHING TEXT**	23 WORDS

words, then changes in the phonological structure of these words occur. These are morphophonemic changes. In analysing these changes, we compared different allomorph of

words then changes in the phonological structures of these words occur. Such changes are called morphophonemic changes. In the process of analysis of these changes, we compare the different allomorphs of

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DOOR_OPENS)) >>TALK REBECCA: >>FOOTSTEPS Okay. ... (SNIFF) Um, <ENV: ((DOOR_CLOSES REBECCA: The .. The way that your testimony is FOOTSTEPS<< coming .I don't know if I explained this to you o[n the ph]one, RICKIE: [Hm-m]. REBECCA: is, (H) when a person (Hx) is charged with murder (Hx) .. and, um, .. there .. are other incidences, where he acted in the same way? RICKIE: [Mhm], REBECCA: [(H)] When 306 NSOU ?PGEL 5 & 6 way? RICKIE: [Mhm], REBECCA: [(H)] When we have to prove,in this case we have to prove specific intent. <ENV: TALK<< to expose himself to a person, for sexual arousal (H) RICKIE: >P Mm P<. REBECCA: Um, .. when we have to prove something like specific intent, (H) um, or we have to prove identity. ... Because he's disputing identity in a coup- -- in ... at least one of the cases. RICKIE: [Hm]. REBECCA: [(H)] Um (Hx), then, we are allowed to bring in, ... prior similar conduct. ... U=m, .. where he acted in .. a, .. an identical way, or where the victims were

DOOR_OPENS)) >>TALK 3.40 4.10 REBECCA: >>FOOTSTEPS Okay. 4.10 5.85 ... (SNIFF) U=m, 5.85 7.40 <ENV: ((DOOR_CLOSES)) 7.40 7.80 REBECCA: The -- 7.80 10.15 ... The way that your testimony is FOOTSTEPS<< coming in, 10.15 12.01 ... I don't know if I explained this to you o[n the ph]one, 11.50 11.75 RICKIE: [Hm-m]. 12.01 12.41 REBECCA: is, 12.41 15.61 (H)= when a person (Hx) is charged with multiple crimes, 15.61 16.56 (Hx)= .. a=nd, 16.56 17.16 u=m, 17.16 18.86 .. there .. are other incidences, 18.86 20.56 where he= acted in the same way? 20.56 21.13 RICKIE: [Mhm], 20.56 22.29 REBECCA: [(H)] When we have to prove, 22.29 24.74 in this case we have to prove specific intent. 24.74 24.74 <ENV: TALK<< 24.74 27.19 ... to= expose himself to a person, 27.19 28.29 .. for sexual arousal. 28.29 28.54 (H) 28.54 28.84 RICKIE: >P Mm P<. 28.84 29.34 REBECCA: U=m, 29.34 31.99 .. when we have to prove something like specific intent, 31.99 32.84 (H) um, 32.84 34.34 or we have to prove identity. 34.34 36.44 ... Because he's disputing identity in a coup- -- 36.44 38.14 in ... at least one of the cases. 38.14 38.49 RICKIE: [Hm]. 38.14 40.60 REBECCA: [(H)]= U=m (Hx)=, 40.60 41.15 then, 41.15 42.65 w=e are allowed to bring in, 42.65 44.57 ... prior similar conduct. 44.57 45.47 ... U=m, 45.47 47.37 .. where he acted in .. a, 47.37 48.82 .. an identical way, 48.82 51.47 or where the victims were

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PREFACE In the curricular structure introduced by the University for the students of Post Graduate degree programme, the opportunity to pursue post Graduate course in a subject is equally available to all learners. Instead of being guided by any presumption about ability level, it would perhaps stand to reason if receptivity of a learner is judged in the course of the learning process. That would be entirely in keeping with the objectives of open education which does not believe in artificial differentiation. I am happy to note that this University has been recently accredited by National Assessment and Accreditation Council of India (NAAC) with grade 'A'. Keeping this in view, the study materials of the Post Graduate level in different subjects are prepared on the basis of a well laid-out syllabus. The course structure combines the best elements in the approved syllabi of Central and State Universities in respective subjects. It has been so designed as to be upgradable with the addition of new information as well as results of fresh thinking and analysis. The accepted methodology of distance education has been followed in the preparation of these study materials. Co-operation in every form of experienced scholarship is indispensible for a work on this kind. We, therefore, owe an enormous debt of gratitude to everyone whose tireless efforts went into the writing, editing and devising of a proper layout of the materials. Practically speaking, their role amounts to an all-out involvement in layout of the materials and an involvement in 'invisible teaching', as well. For, whoever makes use of these study materials would virtually derive the benefit of learning under their collective care without each being seen by the other. The more a learner would seriously pursue these study materials, the easier will it be for him or her to reach out to larger horizons of a subject. Care has also been taken to make the language lucid and presentation attractive so that they may be rated as quality self-learning materials. If anything remains still obscure or difficult to follow, arrangements are there to come to terms throughout the counseling sessions regularly available at the network of study centers set up by the University. Needless to add, a great deal of these efforts is still experimental–in fact, pioneering in certain areas. Naturally, there is every possibility of some lapse or deficiency here and there. However, these do admit of rectification and further improvement in due course. On the whole, therefore, these study materials are expected to evoke wider appreciation the more they receive serious attention of all concerned. Professor (Dr.) Subha Sankar Sarkar Vice-Chancellor

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Introduction to the course: Syntax is one of the specialized areas of linguistic analysis. Since we are beginners to the study of linguistics, it requires us to have only a basic understanding of English syntax. To elaborate, if we are able to remember accurately our grammar lessons in classes IX and X we should be able to cope with this course. It is anyway a good opportunity for us to make a fresh start. This module aims to consolidate all of what we have studied in grammar so far in a more comprehensive and interrelated manner. It is customized for an English language teacher of India, who needs this knowledge to do the following with his/her students: a. We need to ensure that our English students at school know the appropriate terminology of English grammar. b. We also need to ensure that (a) through their language performance in speaking and writing, c. Further, make sure they develop and demonstrate progressive steps towards achieving accuracy. For all these to happen, we need to spell out what our students should be able to do and what we should develop in ourselves (teachers) to enable them to do so. Please have a look at this list: At the end of a course in syntax, the learners: should have basic knowledge of the grammatical terms, should be able to show an understanding of the relation between words, sentences and meaning, should be able to understand the structure of phrases of all major grammatical categories with a knowledge of their 'heads' and 'modifiers', should be able to see how phrases are related across categories in terms of modification, coordination and subordination, should be able to understand all the major clause types and sentence types, should be able to relate sentence structures with the functions they play in real-life communication, should be able to see differences between complex and simple sentence structures, Finally, they should be able to correct their own errors (deviant sentences in writing or inappropriate utterances in speech) to a large extent when we revise their writings and justify the accuracy of structures used by them.

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NSOU PGEL-7 9 Module 1 : Sentences of English Unit 1 Syntax in English Structure 1.1 Introduction 1.2 Objectives 1.3 Discussion-Structure of a sentence 1.4 Parts of a Sentence 1.5 Combination of components in clauses 1.6 Summary 1.7 Review Questions 1.8 References 1.9 Reading List 1.1. Introduction What is a sentence and how does syntax relate to the sentence? In this introductory unit, we will study the basics of English Syntax. Syntax, in general, is the study of sentences. The syntax of any language, as we know from our introduction to linguistics, deals with the rules governing the ways words are combined to form phrases, clauses and sentences. We will study the same in the context of the English language. Here we need to bear in mind that a language has a hierarchical structure in which a higher-level unit such as a clause is made up of units immediately below them in the hierarchy, for example the phrases. In other words, larger units are formed out of smaller units. It also comes under the purview of syntax how words as smaller units are combined by rules to make phrases and how phrases are joined by rules to make clauses and sentences.

NSOU PGEL-7 10 1.2. Objectives In this unit, we will study the following: How words form larger units of syntax called phrases, How phrases combine into clauses, How clauses make sentences, The components of a clause in terms of Subject, Verb, Object and Complement. 1.3. Discussion-Structure of a Sentence Syntax, as a branch of study, looks after how words are combined into phrases which are accurate and appropriate, how phrases are combined into accurate clauses and clauses lead to the formation of accurate sentences. Let us look at an example: (1) The green book on the table is a historical novel on Kolkata's past. This is an accurate sentence, Right? Let us see what makes it accurate. Please read the following statements and see if you agree with them: This whole sentence can be divided into three parts as below: a. The green book on the table b. is c. a historical novel on Kolkata's past Each part is accurate and acceptable by anyone who uses English as his/her mother tongue or uses it as good as his/her mother tongue. Each part is composed of more than one units. One would probably not agree that the part (b) has more than one units since what is 'visible' is just one word, "is". We will sort this out in a minute. Now let us see if we accept the following statements on the sentence in (1) above: The part "the green book on the table" has 2 parts inside it, "the green book" and "on the table" The part "is" may be one word, but it has more than one units of information, i.e. it says that the verb is "be", the verb is used in the present tense in this NSOU PGEL-7 11 sentence and the entity which appears to be the subject of the sentence (a), is a singular one. The part, "a historical novel on Kolkata's past" has two parts inside it: "a historical novel" and "on Kolkata's past". The parts "a green book" and "a historical novel" are similar in structure in terms of word order: Article-Adjective-Noun. Any other order would result into an inaccurate structure such as *book a green or *novel a historical. The parts "on the table" and "on Kolkata's past" are similar structures. They follow the word order Preposition-Determiner-Noun (both article "the" and possessive "Kolkata's" are treated as determiners). They are accurate and if this order is changed, the words will generate inaccurate structures, such as *the table on or *Kolkata's past on. As we understand and accept the above statements, we are now in a position to understand the scope of syntax in English. Syntax of English seeks to understand the following: How words such as the, green and book make a larger unit "the green book". What is the rule that generates (make) the above unit? - Answer: It is a rule that says for this larger unit to be grammatically accurate, the words should follow the order Determiner-Adjective-Noun and therefore any other order is ungrammatical. The same rule can be applied on the words a, historical and novel to generate the part "a historical novel". The word 'on' can be combined with another combination of two words such as "the table" and "Kolkata's past" and while combining, it must stay on the left-hand side of the second combination. And finally, No word in the sentence in (1) above can change its position. If it does, the sentence will become ungrammatical. We can now summarize what our knowledge of syntax does: a. It explains how larger units called phrases are made up of words following certain rules. b. It shows that the rules are very small in number and their scope for

NSOU PGEL-7 12 application is very vast, for example it is the same rule that generate 'the green book' and 'a historical novel'. One can generate numberless expressions such as these using the same rule. c. It explains how larger phrases can be made out of phrases. For example, the portion "is a historical novel on Kolkata's past" (traditionally known as the predicate) is made up of two phrases, "is" and "a historical novel on Kolkata's past". d. It determines how the portion "the green book on the table" can be combined with the rest (mentioned in c) i.e. it must appear in the subject position of the total sentence. To sum up, syntax is the study of organization of words into phrases, phrases into clauses and sentences. Here, the term 'organization' has four major aspects: The categories of the words that form an accurate sentence, The order in which they appear in an accurate sentence, The rules that determine the order, The internal relations between the words and phrases which determine an accurate sentence. Syntax also deals with other larger aspects such as the following: What are the rules that are responsible to generate a sentence like "Is the green book on the table a historical novel on Kolkata's past?" The discussion will unfold the issues in phases. 1.4. Parts of a Sentence In this sub-unit, we will discuss parts of a sentence in English. Recalling from the grammar books we studied in school, we can close our eyes and say that a sentence has three parts, namely, subject, verb and object. This is not absolutely false but on the other hand it is not complete in itself. To start the discussion let us look at the four sentences given below in the set no (2): (2) a. The children greeted everyone during the festival. b. Stop that non-sense.

NSOU PGEL-7 13 c. My father is sleeping. d. The evolution of music through the ages is quite a spectacular phenomenon because ever since man has lived, there has been evidence of music being around and ever since the era of globalization began everything has been recorded on the Internet making the computers almost like a time capsule for anyone who would want to go back in time and live the era through the music, and they will find themselves truly travelling through space and time. If we accept all four of them as sentences, our school grammar lessons' definition of a sentence will not work. Let us see why it may or may not work: In the first sentence (a) there is a clear subject, verb and an object. In the second sentence (b) the subject is not present, but understood as 'you'. In the third sentence (c) there is no object. And in the fourth sentence (d) there are so many subjects, verbs and objects and many other components! In other words, we need to develop a clear idea of what a sentence is and what it is not. Then we will study its basic components. Now let us look at the following set and see how many of the expressions can be treated as simple sentences in the set no (3): (3) a. The evolution of music through the ages is quite a spectacular phenomenon. b. Everything has been recorded on the Internet. c. They will find themselves. d. Making the computers almost like a time capsule for anyone. e. Who would want to go back in time. f. Truly travelling through space and time. Let us remind ourselves that a simple sentence is the one which has only one verb group. A verb group is a combination of a verb and some auxiliaries. Keeping that in mind, we would confirm that the first three (a, b and c) are simple sentences and the next three (d, e and f) are not.

NSOU PGEL-7 14 Let us examine why - (d) has a verb group (making) but not a subject. (e) has a subject (who) but it is not accurate as long as the sentence is intended to be a declarative (non-question) sentence. (f) has a verb-group (travelling) but no subject. In other words, we are able to distinguish a simple sentence from a 'non-sentence' by saying the following: i. A simple sentence must have a verb group. ii. A simple sentence will have a subject, if the verb requires it. iii. A simple sentence may have an object, if the verb requires it, otherwise not. iv. A simple sentence has a verb group where the auxiliary 'tense' is clearly understood as either 'present' or 'past'. v. If the verb group's 'tense' is not clearly understood as either 'present' or 'past', it is not a sentence. vi. A simple sentence may have components other than a subject, a verb and an object. It may have a complement or an adjunct. Now let us try to match the following sentences (a-f) with the statements above (i - vi). As it is an exercise, the order in set no (4) has been jumbled up. (4) a. Making the computers almost like a time capsule for anyone. b. They will find themselves. c. Everything has been recorded on the Internet. d. The evolution of music through the ages is quite a spectacular phenomenon. e. My father is sleeping. f. Stop that non-sense. This exercise will be discussed in the Contact classes. From the discussion above, we understood that a simple sentence can have the following components:

NSOU PGEL-7 15 a. A Verb-group (referred to as V sometimes) b. A Subject (referred to as S sometimes) c. An Object (referred to as O sometimes) d. A Complement (referred to as C sometimes) e. An Adjunct (referred to as A sometimes) 1.5. Combination of components in clauses Having understood this, let us look at the following combinations of V, S, O, C and A and try to say which among them are compulsory and which ones are optional for a simple sentence to stand on its own. (5) a. V Verb group only b. VO Verb-group + Object c. SV Subject + Verb-group d. SVO Subject + Verb-group + Object e. SVOO Subject + Verb-group + Direct Object + Indirect Object f. SVC Subject + Verb-group + Complement g. SVOC Subject + Verb-group + Object + Complement h. SVOA Subject + Verb-group + Adjunct Note that in this list, one constituent (part of a sentence) is common to all. This means, it is an important constituent. The common constituent is none other than V, i.e. the Verb-group. So it is the obligatory constituent of a sentence. The rest are optional. Whether they will be there or not in a sentence, will be decided by the meaning of the verb. We will explain this in a minute. Now let us look at the following expressions each of which is regarded as a sentence. (6) a. Halt !

NSOU PGEL-7 16 b. Stop this nonsense. c. My father is sleeping. d. My father teaches linguistics. e. My father gave me a book by Chomsky. f. My mother was happy. g. The authorities made my mother the principal of the college. h. They called my mother in the morning. Let us have a look at the sets (5) and (6) again and try to match the pieces of information. In (6), all the Vs are typed in bold. It should now be possible to label the rest. To wind up this unit, we have just started a discussion of basics of a sentence. At this point, we can only say that a simple sentence is a syntactic construction that necessarily has a finite verb-group and a few optional constituents. Which optional constituents will be there in a sentence would depend on the meaning of the verb or the structural requirements of the verb. 1.6 Summary In this unit, we discussed the following terms: simple sentence, phrase, verb- group, subject, object, complement, word, auxiliary. What we did not discuss so far and we will discuss in course of time are the following: Types of sentences in terms of their internal structure: Complex sentence, compound sentence and complex-compound sentence. Types of sentences in terms of their overall structure and function: Declarative, Interrogative, Imperative and Exclamatory sentence. Components of a sentence in terms of phrases: Noun Phrase, Verb Phrase, Adjective Phrase, Adverb Phrase, Preposition Phrase etc. Please use an online glossary to be familiar with the terms before you read the next units. In the next part of this module, we will also see that the syntactic structure of English follows predictable patterns which can be formulated quite easily into rules.

NSOU PGEL-7 17 We will learn how to make generalizations across different grammatical categories. For instance, we will see that the apparent differences that exist between

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noun phrases, verb phrases, adjective phrases, adverb phrases and prepositional phrases

are only superficial. Underneath these phrases they have more common properties than we can apparently expect. We will also see that the difference between the notion of a phrase and a clause is actually very thin. These generalizations will enable us to take a fresh look at the grammar we have learned so far in school and college. 1.7 Review questions a. What is a simple sentence? b. What are the possible components of a simple sentence? c. What are the necessary components of a simple sentence? d. What are the optional components of a simple sentence? e. Give an example of a sentence in which the subject is not present but understood as "You". f. If you have 'knowledge of syntax', how will it help you as a teacher of English language in your classroom? 1.8 References Greenbaum, S. (1991). An Introduction to English Grammar. London: Longman.

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NSOU PGEL-7 18 Unit 2 Clauses vs Utterances Structure 2.1 Introduction 2.2 Objectives 2.3 Basic Notions that we have - Utterances 2.3.1 Boundaries 2.3.2 Dialogicity or Responsivity 2.3.3 Finalization 2.3.4 Generic form 2.4 Comparison of Sentences, Clauses and Utterances 2.4.1 Modality 2.4.2 Signal Specificity 2.4.3 Completeness 2.4.4 Constituency 2.4.5 Rule Government 2.5 Clauses vs utterances: Examining data 2.6 Clauses and utterances from the point of view of syntax in English 2.7 Summary 2.8 Review Questions 2.9 References 2.10 Reading List 2.1 Introduction In this unit we will study a few aspects related to two significant concepts of syntax in English, clauses and utterances. We will compare them by looking into similarities and differences among them. As we do that, we will examine some data which are close to real-life usage in English language. There will be three exercises to ensure that our understanding of the new information is deep and we can apply what we learn. The exercises will be discussed in the contact class. NSOU PGEL-7 19 2.2 Objectives In this unit, we will learn about the following: Sentences and utterances, Similarity of structural components in sentences and utterances, Difference between clauses and utterances. 2.3 Basic notions that we have - Utterances A very renowned scholar of Applied Linguistics today, Scott Thornbury observes that the grammar of spoken English shares the same basic structure as that of written English although there are some significant differences. The reason, he says, is that 'speech is built up clause by clause, and phrase by phrase' as opposed to writing which is built up 'sentence by sentence'. Taking this notion as a starting point, let us see what we already know about written and spoken language. In writing, the sentence boundaries are very clear, visible even to a basic learner of the language. In written English, for example, the boundaries are visible in the following ways: We know that a sentence is starting if there is a visually discernible space before it. If it is the starting of a paragraph, the space is very clear. If it is following another sentence, the gap is less, but understood as a signal. We know that a sentence is ending if there is a full-stop or a period (.), if it is a declarative or an imperative sentence. For example, The main office of the Netaji Subhas Open University is at Salt Lake. Please visit it when you can. We know that a sentence is ending if there is a question mark (?), in the case of an interrogative sentence. For example, Where is the main office of the Netaji Subhas Open University? We know that a sentence is ending if there is an exclamation mark (!) in the case of an exclamatory sentence. What a magnificient building NSOU main office has! Until today, these three punctuation marks have been globally accepted standards of 'sentence boundaries' concerning all varieties of written English.

NSOU PGEL-7 20 For speech, however, the case is slightly complicated and there is not enough unanimity among scholars as to how to determine the boundaries of a 'spoken sentence' which we will refer to as an 'utterance' in this unit. Russian scholar Mikhail Bakhtin, who is regarded as a prominent philosopher of spoken language in the 20th century, introduced four distinct properties of utterances in any natural human language: 2.3.1 Boundaries All utterances are bounded by silence. In other words, there is a pause between two utterances. There can be a change of speech subject after a pause. 2.3.2 Dialogicity or Responsivity An utterance is usually part of a dialogue, a two way or multi-way interaction between two or more speakers. An utterance must be either responding to another utterance or following a previous utterance or initiating a dialogue. 2.3.3 Finalization An utterance must have a clear ending which indicates that the speaker has said everything he or she wishes to say at a certain point of exchange of language in spoken mode. 2.3.4 Generic form The choice of the speech genre (type) is determined based on the specific circumstances and sphere in which the dialogue occurs. For example, a classroom lecture in syntax in English and an informal conversation between a student and a teacher on the same subject in the teacher's office belong to two different genres or speech types. The genre plays an important role in shaping the utterances. 2.4 A comparison of sentences, clauses and utterances To compare the notions of sentences, clauses and utterances, there are a number of similarities as well as differences. We can mention some of the standards or parameters of comparison: 2.4.1 Modality Utterance is restricted to spoken mode of language use. In contrast, sentence is restricted to written mode of language use.

NSOU PGEL-7 21 2.4.2 Signal specificity This point is related to the earlier point. Sentence ending is signaled by a punctuation mark, a period or a question mark or an exclamation mark. These belong to the graphology or writing conventions of a certain language. In contrast, ending of utterances are signaled by a pause, the length of which (even in terms of micro- seconds) is mutually agreeable between the speaker and the hearer as users of a common language. It is often signaled by a change in the tone, depending on the intention of the speaker. Signals of utterance are mainly phonological. There can also be para-linguistic signals such as facial expressions, hand movements etc. 2.4.3 Completeness Although there is a myth that an utterance can be incomplete whereas a sentence is always complete, it is not logically acceptable. The issue is actually much deeper than it appears. The point is, they observe different parameters of completeness. A sentence is treated as complete only when it is complete at the formal, structural and clausal level - in the case of English language, a clause with a finite verb group (as mentioned in the previous unit) determines a sentence to be structurally complete. On the other hand, an utterance can be treated as complete at a lower level of structuring - one word can constitute an utterance, a phrase can make an utterance, a clause can make an utterance. Both sentence and utterance require completeness in terms of meaning. Both sentence and utterance require completeness in terms of their 'intention', i.e. what the writer of a sentence or the speaker of an utterance wants to do with the product of language, written or spoken. 2.4.4 Constituency This is a standard of deep-level similarity. Both sentence and utterance are made up of words belonging to different categories such as nouns, verbs, adjectives, prepositions etc. The way the words combine with each other are exactly the same for a certain language. 2.4.5 Rule government Both sentence and utterance are governed by the same set of rules. Some of these rules are universal, i.e. common for all natural human languages and some of them are language-specific. For a certain language, the constituents of sentences and

NSOU PGEL-7 22 utterances are formed following the same rules. We may now try to look at some examples of utterances and explore what kind of syntactic study should be relevant for understanding them. Let us do a small activity: Exercise 1 Categorize the following utterances in various groups and put them in the following table. Name each group. Get your coat. It's time to go! Are you having fun? On the couch? Won't you? You know what? Let's do this inside. You see? Okay? Bring it to me later. Aren't you? I'm busy right now. Right? Remember? Isn't it? Yes, absolutely. No, no, no dear, you can't. The utterances 1. Okay? 2. Right? 3. Remember? 4. Name the group One-word utterance Why did you put them together? Each has one word and a question in the end.

NSOU PGEL-7 23 5. 6. 7. 8. 9. 10. 11. 12. 13. 14. We said before that utterances are restricted to spoken form and sentences are restricted to written form. This, we may note, is a general norm. Sometime, a written text may report spoken language or spoken language may be actually represented in a written text. In our next activity, we will look at 2 texts which are somehow thematically related but one has more of sentences and the other has more of utterances. Exercise 2 : Identify 10 sentences and 10 utterances from the following (altogether). Text 1 Eleven years after the Australian Human Rights Commission recommended a formal apology to Australian aborigines, Prime Minister Kevin Rudd has said 'sorry'. The Human Rights Commission estimated that from 1910 until 1970 more than 50,000 aboriginal children had been taken from their parents. The children were placed in orphanages and church homes in the white community. Former Prime Minister John Howard refused to apologise, saying today's Australians should not say sorry for the policies of the past. Saying 'sorry' was the first order of parliamentary business for the new Labor Government led by Kevin Rudd. This is a transcript of the apology. Today we honour the Indigenous peoples of this land, the oldest continuing cultures in human history.

NSOU PGEL-7 24 We reflect on their past mistreatment. We reflect in particular on the mistreatment of those who were Stolen Generations - this blemished chapter in our nation's history. The time has now come for the nation to turn a new page in Australia's history by righting the wrongs of the past and so moving forward with confidence to the future. We apologise for the laws and policies of successive Parliaments and governments that have inflicted profound grief, suffering and loss on these our fellow Australians. We apologise especially for the removal of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander children from their families, their communities and their country. For the pain, suffering and hurt of these Stolen Generations, their descendants and for their families left behind, we say sorry. To the mothers and the fathers, the brothers and the sisters, for the breaking up of families and communities, we say sorry. And for the indignity and degradation thus inflicted on a proud people and a proud culture, we say sorry. We the Parliament of Australia respectfully request that this apology be received in the spirit in which it is offered as part of the healing of the nation. Apology to Australia's Aborigines from http://www.radioaustralia.net.au/news/features Text 2 Australian Man: Five thousand years ago? Chinese Man: May be two thousand five hundred years ago. Australian Man: Years ago. Chinese Man: During the Qin Dynasty. Australian Man: Uh-huh. Chinese Man: When we had the first Emperor of China. We called him "Qin Shi Huang". That means first Emperor of China. Australian Man: Uh-huh. Qin Shi Huang?

NSOU PGEL-7 25 Chinese Man: Qin Shi Huang. Yeah right. Australian Man: Not the Yellow Emperor? Chinese Man: Not the Yellow Emperor. You know? (The) Yellow (one) is a new one. Australian Man: M-hm. More recent. Chinese Man: More recent. Yeah. More recent. Australian Man: Uh-huh. Chinese Man: The Yellow Emperor is the... we call him the original emperor of China. Australian Man: Uh-huh. Chinese Man: But at that time it was only regional. Australian Man: M-hm. China was very small. Chinese Man: Qin Shi Huang was the first emperor to control the whole (of) China. Australian Man: Uh-huh. Chinese Man: And...But he..When he...When he (it was recorded) occupied all the Chinese lands; he said he wanted to live forever. Australian Man: M-hm Chinese Man: You know he wanted to live for ever. Australian Man: M-hm. Forever. Chinese Man: He wanted to live forever. Australian Man: Forever. To be immortal. Chinese Man: Right. Australian Man: You understand that word? Immortal. Chinese Man: I don't know (it) Australian Man: It means "to not die". Chinese Man: Not die! Yes.

NSOU PGEL-7 26 Australian Man: I want to be immortal. Chinese Man: Right. Exactly. He wanted to be immortal. Australian Man: M-hm. Chinese Man: And so he dispatched somebody. Australian Man: He sent somebody. Chinese Man: He sent somebody. Australian Man: He dispatched somebody to.. Chinese Man: He dispatched somebody to "Go find me the long live grass!" Herbs! Australian Man: In English we say "Elixir of Immortality". Chinese Man: "Elixir". Australian Man: "Elixir" is like "medicine". Chinese Man: Ok. Elixir. Yes Australian Man: The elixir of immortality. Chinese Man: Of immortality.. Australian Man: If you drink the elixir of immortality you can live forever. Chinese Man: Right. exactly. The Elixir of Immortality from: http://englishconversations.org/ 2.5 Clauses vs utterances: Examining data Now with the help of the examples you collected from the two texts above, write a short text in your notebook with some observations. Try to accommodate a few crucial points given here: Find examples of a few simple sentences which has only one clause. You may go back to unit 1 and select any one of the 6 types of simple sentences. Establish that each one is a complete clause by saying that they have an easily identifiable finite verb group and the information related to the main verb is complete.

NSOU PGEL-7 27 Exercise 3 Now find examples of a few utterances which are not complete clauses. In order to do that, you may look for the following: Utterances with just 1 word, for example "Right". Utterance with a phrase such as, "During the Qin Dynasty" Utterances which are not to be regarded as words, for example, "Uh-huh". Utterances which are identical to simple sentences, for example, "That means first Emperor of China. (It is an SVO type of sentence)" Find examples of an utterance which conveys meaning completely but falls short of a grammatical unit, for example: "You understand that word?" This is complete as a question but it lacks a "Do" auxiliary in the beginning if it has to be treated as a sentence. Find examples of an utterance which is a word, a very frequent word that we use all the time, but we usually do not use it in a crucial position of a sentence, such as Subject, Verb or Object. For example, the word "OK/ Okay" - we use it so many times in our daily conversations, but we do not usually make a sentence with it, by keeping it in the S, V, or O positions of a clause. Find an expression which is a combination of 4 words, (now read carefully...) but should be treated as two utterances because of their functions. Your clue: One is a question and the other is an assertion. Again, both are made up of the same words written in the same order. Find some utterances which have been repeated in the conversation. The above exercise, even if we do not complete it, will help us understand the following points better. 2.6. Clauses and utterances from the point of view of syntax in English We assume that it is the same 'syntax' that governs the well-formedness of the clauses and utterances in the English language. This means a number of rules are the

NSOU PGEL-7 28 same to determine that a clause or an utterance is accurately structured. Let us see what does not change for both: The words and their basic dictionary meaning. The words and their category such as N, V, A, P, etc. The words and how they combine to each other in a phrase. The phrases and how they combine in a clause. However, there are a number of differences between a clause and an utterance, especially where the utterances are distinct from clauses: Utterances can be repeated in spoken language, clauses in sentences in written language are usually not repeated. See the examples below: Australian Man : He sent somebody. Chinese Man : He sent somebody. The same set of words following the same sequence can make two different utterances, one a question and the other an assertion, See the examples below: Australian Man : Not the Yellow Emperor? (Question) Chinese Man : Not the Yellow Emperor. (Assertion) Spoken language has the power to change the effect (called illocution in Linguistics) of an utterance by changing the tone. One word such as "Right' or "OK/Okay", on its own, can constitute an utterance, but not a clause. For a word to work as a clause, one 'grammatical constituent' must be attached with it. For example, the word "Halt" cannot be treated as a clause unless it is recognized that it has the grammatical function Tense embedded into it. A phrase can constitute an utterance, but it cannot constitute a sentence except in the case of an imperative sentence with a verb phrase. Look at the following examples - More recent To be immortal

NSOU PGEL-7 29 Years ago Of immortality We will end this section by citing a pair of examples used by John Lyons a famous linguist of the 20th century. He says that the combination of words "I saw him yesterday and I shall be seeing him again tomorrow" can be treated in two different ways. First, in written language, it is one sentence with two clauses [I saw him yesterday] and [I shall be seeing him again tomorrow.] joined by the coordinator "and". Second, in the study of spoken language, they are treated as two distinct utterances, "I saw him yesterday" and "And I shall be seeing him again tomorrow." He said that the factors that distinguish the two utterances are a potential pause and intonation. This point will be elaborated further during the contact class. 2.7 Summary To sum up, this unit sensitized us about a relatively new dimension of understanding syntax in English by looking at examples of spoken language expressions in English. It insisted upon the fact that the grammar governing the accurate structures of spoken and written language are basically the same. 2.8. Review Questions a. What are some of the features that the grammar of spoken English shares with that of written English? b. What are some of the significant differences that written English shows with the spoken English? c. Give an example of a phrase that can constitute an utterance to reply to a question in a conversation. d. Collect 4 complete sentences from Exercise 1. Why do you consider them as complete sentences? e. Write in a few sentences what exactly you learnt from exercise no 2 and 3. 2.9. References Lyons, J. (1968, Reprinted 1995). Introduction to Theoretical Linguistics. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

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NSOU PGEL-7 31 Unit 3 Types of Sentences-Simple, Complex and Compound Sentences Structure 3.1 Introduction 3.2 Objectives 3.3 Definition of a Sentence 3.4 Simple Sentences 3.5 How Sentences are Related 3.5.1 Conjoining 3.5.2 Embedding 3.5.3 Recursion 3.6 Compound Sentences 3.7 Complex Sentences 3.8 Complex-compound sentences 3.9 Summary 3.10 Review Questions 3.11 References 3.12 Reading List 3.1. Introduction The title of this unit does give us a scope to wonder, "What is there in it? We all know about simple, complex and compound sentences. We have studied them all in school. We even remember the teachers who taught us, etc." We, as practising or potential English language teachers, must be equipped with our own clarity of understanding the differences so that we don't feel confused in the presence of our students, perspiring to explain the difference between a complex and a compound sentence. In other words, this is a very serious unit and clarity of understanding it will pave our ways to understand a number of critical syntactic concepts discussed in the later units of the course.

NSOU PGEL-7 32 3.2 Objectives The objectives of this unit are the following: To know the basic difference between simple, complex and compound sentences. To develop a competency of describing simple, complex and compound sentences by using the appropriate grammatical terms, which determines clarity of understanding. To be able to explain why a sentence should be treated as a simple, complex or compound sentence by using our faculty of argumentation which is an academic attribute of high order. 3.3. Definition of a sentence In the last two units we did not look at a definition of a sentence, simply because it is extremely difficult to accommodate all the known facts about a sentence within a single definition. Ironically, languages of the world are so diverse in terms of their sentence structure that they always show data that defy a single definition. However, for English language, we may consider a definition offered by an eminent scholar, Michael Swan: A sentence is a group of words that expresses a statement, command, question or exclamation. A sentence consists of one or more clauses, and usually has at least one subject and verb. In writing, it begins with a capital letter and ends with a full stop, question mark or exclamation mark. We need to note one word here, "usually". This means that there are exceptions to the generalization that a sentence needs to have a subject. In the previous unit this has been mentioned. In the next unit, we will see that imperative sentences do now 'show' a subject. The subject is only 'understood'. The difference between what is 'shown/seen' in written words and structures and what is 'not seen but understood' will be discussed in another unit on deep and surface structures. 3.4. Simple sentences The sentences discussed here are of the basic type. That means they are all assertive, affirmative, non-interrogative, non-imperative and non-exclamatory sentences.

NSOU PGEL-7 33 This has been done deliberately so that whatever is learnt here is done with maximum clarity. The other sentence types, namely interrogative, imperative and exclamatory will be discussed in the next unit. Here we need to maintain that a simple sentence is made up of one clause. A clause is made up of a verb group (a combination of a main verb and its auxiliaries), and some phrases which may have grammatical roles such as a subject, an object or a complement. Unit1. Section 2. (5) a. V Verb group only b. VO Verb-group + Object c. SV Subject + Verb-group d. SVO Subject + Verb-group + Object e. SVOO Subject + Verb-group +Indirect Object + Direct Object f. SVC Subject + Verb-group + Complement g. SVOC Subject + Verb-group + Object + Complement h. SVOA Subject + Verb-group + Adjunct Now, let us try to identify the constituents of these simple sentences. Please see the following example in (1) below. You may fill in the tables below on your own. Please note that for each simple sentence, there are exactly the same number of boxes as the number of constituents. In number (1) below, there are three boxes for three constituents, S, V and O and the fourth box is to write the clause type, which is nothing but a sequence of the constituents, SVO. (1) The dog chased the cat. S V O Type The dog chased The cat SVO (2) Snow White greeted Grumpy. Type

NSOU PGEL-7 34 (3) He loves them. Type (3) Betsy borrowed some money from Christopher. (Be careful how you handle 'some' and 'from') Type (5) The team played badly. Type (6) The bank manager laughed. Type (7) They have two children. Type (8) The duckling became a swan. Type (9) Ahmed's brother's sister-in-law arrived today. Type (10) The police will arrest the violent demonstrators. Type

NSOU PGEL-7 35 It is anticipated that we may have some issues related to identifying objects and complements and distinguishing them from each other. This will be taken up during the discussions in the contact classes. At this point, we need to ponder upon a few questions that inspired scholars to investigate into the syntax of languages more and more: What makes it possible to convert two or more simple sentences into one compound or one complex sentence? What makes it possible to retain the sense/meaning even after structural changes from 2 simple sentences into one complex or compound sentence? Are the clause structures fundamentally different in simple, complex and compound sentences? Well these questions take us into a level of deeper understanding of rules of syntax in a universal perspective, that is applicable for all natural human languages. 3.5 How the Three types of sentences are related Let us not be surprised to note that simple, complex and compound sentences have fundamentally the SAME structure. The difference that we observe are only at the surface and sequential level. It is the same set of rules that apply for all the three types of sentences. Then what makes the difference? Well, the differences are caused by three structural principles, namely conjoining, embedding and recursion. Let us see what they mean: 3.5.1 Conjoining means any two clauses can be combined in a linear order with the help of a conjunction, for example, [I am not going] but [my sister is keen to go]. Here two simple sentences shown by brackets are joined by the conjunction 'but' producing a compound sentence. 3.5.2 Embedding means a clause (equivalent to a simple sentence) can become part of a phrase which may be the subject of a sentence. For example, in the sentence, [My sister who is a movie-maniac] is keen to see [Dil Keya Kare.] Note that it is a combination of two simple sentences:[My sister is keen to see Dil Keya Kare] and [she is a move maniac]. The principle of embedding makes it possible to be attach the clause [she is a movie-maniac] to the phrase "my sister". Thus, in the new complex sentence, the subject becomes [My sister who is a movie-maniac]. The predicate then follows just as it

NSOU PGEL-7 36 would do in a simple sentence. 3.5.3 Recursion is what makes embedding possible to operate in syntax. It allows the same structural rules to work time and again to make new constructions. To elaborate, in the above sentence, the structure SVC appears two times as in My sister is a movie-maniac and in the entire sentence. Please see the boxes below: S V C Type My sister is a movie-maniac SVC S V C Type My sister who is keen to see SVC is a movie-maniac Dil Keya Kare The point will be discussed further in the contact classes. 3.6. Compound sentences A compound sentence can be thought of as a clear combination of two simple sentences as it is a combination of two cases. But there is one important point that needs to be kept in mind always. The conjunction that joins the two clauses must be a coordinating conjunction, as opposed to a subordinating conjunction. Let us see the following compound sentences: a. We studied all day for the test and now it is time to rest. b. We may rest at home or we may go to the park. c. We may go to the park but we should not move around too much. Let's take note about the conjunctions typed in bold. The first one, and, is called an additive conjunction as it adds two propositions or ideas. The second one, or, gives an alternative between two propositions and it is called an alternating conjunction. The third one, but, clearly establishes a contrast between two propositions. It is called a contrasting conjunction. These are of course aspects of meaning that we may bear in mind while considering the compounding sentences. Apart from the three distinct aspects of meaning, what is structurally important is that the two clauses on two sides of the conjunction are independent clauses. That means they can stand on their own

NSOU PGEL-7 37 as simple sentences. Let us have a look at the following set: a. We studied all day for the test. b. Now it is time to rest. c. We may rest at home. d. We may go to the park. e. We should not move around too much. Each one of them is a simple sentence and each one of them is a complete clause that can be joined by conjunctions to make compound sentences. 3.7. Complex sentences A complex sentence is a sentence which has more than one clause. It is distinct from a compound sentence since the way the clauses are related is different. In a complex sentence, one clause is treated as the main clause or matrix clause. The second one is called a subordinate clause or an embedded clause. It may take us some time to fully understand the difference. Until then, we need to keep studying sentences. Let us have a look at the following sentence: Someone mentioned that you played basketball. Now let us underline the main verb of the main clause and put the subordinate clause within brackets: Someone mentioned [that you played basketball.] Now let's compare this structure with a simple sentence: Someone mentioned it. If we analyze the constituents of this sentence using the table of section 3.2., we will get: S V O Type Someone mentioned it. SVO Isn't it interesting and intriguing then, that the complex sentence also can be understood in terms of the same three components?

NSOU PGEL-7 38 S V O Type Someone mentioned that you played SVO basketball. Well, how do we put the two facts together? It's actually very easy. All we need to say is that the structure of the matrix clause is SVO, where the O (object) position is occupied by another clause, which is called an embedded clause. In the following sentence, we notice that the embedded clause is in the front part of the matrix clause. [Although it is tempting,] we are not going to the mountains during winter. Thus, we notice that the position of the embedded clause may change. It may occupy any of the positions of the matrix clause such as S, O, C and A. Here it is an Adjunct. In the following sentence, there are two clauses as shown by the brackets - One principal and one subordinate clause: [The instructions from the Director are required][so that the notice can be prepared by the secretaries.] The first one is the principal clause and the second one is the subordinate clause. Usually the subordinate clause has a semantic function. It offers more information on the principal clause and thereby it modifies it. We will end this section by looking at two complex sentences from a very famous text: a. If there is anyone out there who still doubts that America is a place where all things are possible, who still wonders if the dream of our founders is alive in our time, who still questions the power of our democracy, tonight is your answer. b. It's the answer told by lines that stretched around schools and churches in numbers this nation has never seen, by people who waited three hours and four hours, many for the very first time in their lives, because they believed that this time must be different, that their voice could be that difference. (From the first Presidential Speech of Barack Obama, January 20, 2009.)

NSOU PGEL-7 39 These two historically famous sentences which are worth reading time and again, tell us the following about complex sentences: The principal or main clause can be at the end of the sentence as in (a), tonight is your answer. The principal or main clause can be at the beginning of the sentence as in (b), It's the answer told by lines - There can be more than one embedded/subordinate clauses in a sentence. Just see how many times the word 'who' have been used. Every use of who has brought in an embedded clause into the complex sentence such as: — who still wonders if the dream of our founders is alive in our time — who still questions the power of our democracy — who waited three hours and four hours. A complex sentence can show recursion by embedding as one subordinate clause may contain within it, another subordinate clause as in the following: — [because they believed (that this time must be different)] An exercise to distinguish between compound and complex sentences: a. Write a prose paraphrase of this poem with minimum changes. To Jane The keen stars were twinkling, And the fair moon was rising among them, Dear Jane, The guitar was tinkling, But the notes were not sweet till you sung them Again. As the moon's soft splendour O'er the faint cold starlight of Heaven Is thrown, So your voice most tender

NSOU PGEL-7 40 To the strings without soul had then given Its own. The stars will be awake, Though the moon sleep a full hour later To-night. No leaf will be shaken Whilst the dews of your melody scatter Delight. Though the sound overpowers, Sing again, with your dear voice revealing A tone Of some world far from ours, Where music and moonlight and feeling Are one. (Percy Bysshe Shelley, Poetical Works, ed. Mary Shelley (London: E. Moxon, 1839). b. Now look at the sentences that you have written. Decide which one is a complex sentence and which one is a compound one. 3.8. Complex-compound sentences So far as the English language is concerned, it is possible that one sentence may have properties of both complex and compound sentences. Such sentences are called 'complex-compound' sentences. Let us look at the constituents following sentence: [When the teacher gave the tasks to the students], [they were all happy] and [they did it in minimum time]. Here two clauses are joined by a coordinating conjunction 'and' and the subordinate clause is joined with them with the wh-word 'when'. Now it will be easy for us to underline the clauses inside the following long sentence and see how they make it a complex-compound sentence:

NSOU PGEL-7 41 Once upon a time, there was a child who was always sad and she never said what was wrong with her, but one day at school, her teacher tried to ask her what was wrong with her and she then said that she had lost her toy when her young brother was playing with it outside. A Comprehensive exercise: The exercise in this section involve our ability to apply our knowledge of simple, complex and compound sentences. Convert the following sentences as per the instructions given in the brackets. a. The driver was so tired that he fell asleep after the trip. (Make it compound.) b. The team must practise regularly or they will not win the next match. (Make it complex.) c. The boy was sick, but he wanted to watch the movie. (Make it simple.) d. The student was too clever to be caught for plagiarism. (Make it compound.) e. I don't know about his arrival. (Make it complex.) f. My cousin, who is a journalist, went to see the Olympics in 2016. (Make it a simple sentence.) 3.9 Summary This unit discussed properties of simple, compound and complex sentences. It also showed that one sentence can have properties of both complex and compound sentences. We avoided writing stereotypical definitions and rather looked at varied examples to see for ourselves that we can analyze all types of sentences in terms of their constituents and their interrelations. 3.10. Review Questions Examine the structure of each of the following sentences and decide if it is a simple, complex or a compound sentence. Show reason in support of your judgment. a. Birds of the same feather flock together. b. The rich must help the poor and the poor must bless the rich occasionally.

NSOU PGEL-7 42 c. Avinash, the driver, also sells phone cards in the supermarket. d. The wild mosquitoes do not appear in summer because it is too hot then. e. In the film, the heroine admired the hero after he won the battle. 3.11 References Radford, A. (2004). English Syntax: An Introduction. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. Swan, M. (2008). Practical English Usage: International Students Edition. Oxford: Oxford University Press. 3.12 Reading List Yule, G. (2010). The Study of Language. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. Huddleston, R. (2005).

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A Short Overview of English Syntax Based on The Cambridge Grammar of the English Language.

Available at: http://www.lel.ed.ac.uk/ grammar/overview.html

NSOU PGEL-7 43 Unit 4 Types of Sentences Declarative, Interro- gative, Imperative and Exclamatory Sentences Structure 4.1 Introduction 4.2 Objectives 4.3 Propositional content, grammatical content, communicative content and sentence types 4.4 Declarative sentences 4.4.1 Simple Declarative sentences 4.4.2 Compound Declarative sentences 4.4.3 Complex Declarative sentences 4.5 Interrogative sentences 4.5.1 Simple Interrogative sentences 4.5.2 Compound and Complex Interrogative sentences 4.6 Imperative sentences 4.6.1 Simple Imperative sentences 4.6.2 Compound Imperative sentences 4.6.3 Complex Imperative sentences 4.7 Exclamatory sentences 4.7.1 Simple Exclamatory Sentences 4.7.2 Exclamatory clauses in complex sentences 4.8 Consolidated exercise: Converting sentence types 4.9 Summary 4.10 Review Questions 4.11 References 4.12 Reading List

NSOU PGEL-7 44 4.1. Introduction The title of the unit is very transparent and it gives us a clear idea of the content. But unlike what is usually expected from such a title, we are not into taxonomy of sentence types. Rather, we need to expand the scope of the unit so that it adds value to our common understanding of these four types of sentences. As potential or practising English language teachers pursuing this degree, we must go beyond the issues such as 'what is a declarative sentence?' or 'what is the difference between a declarative sentence and an interrogative sentence?'. In fact, this unit will presuppose that we, the participants know the 'what-s' of the four types of sentences mentioned in the title. So, the question now is, What more? 4.2. Objectives The objective of this unit is to build a general awareness of sentence types in the target language as well as in the first language so that as teachers we can explain better to our students. As students of applied linguistics, we need to ponder upon a few questions related to types of sentences which we should keep active while we go through the sections of the unit: Why are there various types of sentences in English language? Are there various types of sentences in our first language (Bengali/Hindi) also? Do they correspond? (i.e. if an interrogative sentence of Bengali is translated into English, do we generate an Interrogative sentence in English?) Can it be done in any other way? For example the Bengali question, /tomar nam ki?/ can be translated as "What is your name?" But while reporting the same, one can either say The teacher asked me, "What is your name?" or The teacher asked me my name. In such a situation, what happened to the question? Vanished? How? When we go to the classroom, what exactly are we to teach our students about the various types of sentences? What do we do, if they ask us for the rules? How many rules shall we teach? Or, should we talk about some principles that underlie all rules?

Questions such as these may not have ultimate or absolute answers, but more we investigate and explore, more we know what to do with them in the classroom. And obviously, one teacher's ways of handling them is definitely going to be different from the other. 4.3. Propositional content, grammatical content, communi- cative content and sentence types Before we proceed towards the various types of sentences, let us ask ourselves, "What are the different elements in a sentence?" In other words, when we read or hear a sentence, how can we describe our knowledge about it? Let us take this issue forward with a simple example: (1)Did my son give your daughter some money? Let's take a notebook and a pencil and list all that we know from this sentence before we read further. Now let's see if our notes match the following: a. We know that there are 2 entities in the sentence - 'my son' and 'you', who are related through an action, 'give'. There is one more entity 'some money' which links the 2 entities and 1 action. It is our interpretation of the basic meaning of the sentence which we do with the help of our knowledge of the English language, especially our knowledge of the words, 'my', 'son', 'give', 'your', 'daughter', 'some' and 'money'. But what the sentence denotes is not the mere sum total of the meanings of these lexical items or words. Then what else? b. We know that the words 'my' and 'son' are linked first, merging into a phrase, 'my son' which acts as the agent of the action denoted by the verb 'give' and the words 'your' and 'daughter' merge into a phrase 'your daughter' which act as the 'recipient' of the action 'give'. In the same way, the words 'some' and 'money' merge into a phrase and act as the 'goal' of the action. Besides, we also know from this sentence that this sentence is fundamentally different from "Did your daughter give my son some money?" - How? That is because if the roles of these two entities change, the sentence would generate a different word order and the meaning of it will be reversed. We also know that the action took place in the past time, from the tense of the auxiliary 'did'.

c. Our knowledge of the sentence is not restricted to what we 'read' physically with our eyes on the page where it is written or printed. We also have a few facts registered in our minds. We know that there is a person who is saying this sentence and there is another person to whom this sentence is said to. We presume that this is a part of a two-way communication. We know that this sentence is a question from two signals: a. the question mark and b. the word order. The point we noted in (a) above constitutes the propositional content of the sentence. The point we noted in (b) above constitutes the grammatical content of the sentence. The point we noted in (c) above constitutes the communicative content of the sentence. The type of a sentence is related to all the three in the following (reverse) order: (c) Communicative content: What is the intention of the speaker/writer towards the hearer/reader? Does he or she intend to ask a question or state a fact or request for something? (or mean it as a threat) (b) Grammatical content: How would the grammar of the language allow the speaker/writer to frame the sentence corresponding to the intention? What grammatical rules would he/she call in for action? (a) How would he/she choose the words from the lexicon (say the speaker's mental dictionary) to denote the basic meaning. In short, sentence types are to be studied in relation to the communicative, grammatical and semantic contents of a sentence. Please note that each content can have both affirmative and negative aspects. For constraints of space, negative sentences are not discussed in this unit. 4.4. Declarative sentences Declarative sentences are those that 'state a fact'. Well, that is their function. We need to have some concrete idea about their structure also. Structurally, they follow

the basic phrase order such as S-V-O or S-V-C etc. (see Unit 3). In other words, all the basic clause types that we studied in the previous unit are applicable for the declarative sentences. The sentences in this section are repeated (with slight modification) from the exercise 2 of unit two, helping us to bridge better between units. 4.4.1. Simple declarative sentences are those which have only one clause in them. For example, let us look at the following sentences: (2) This is a transcript of the apology. (3) We reflect on their past mistreatment. (4) The children were placed in orphanages and church homes. 4.4.2. Compound declarative sentences are those in which a coordinating conjunction joins two clauses and the overall product is a compound sentence and functionally it still states facts. The following sentence is an example: (5) A former Prime Minister refused to apologize, and he said that today's Australians should not say sorry for the policies of the past. 4.4.3. Complex declarative sentences are those that are complex in their structure, but they still state facts, for example, the following: (6) The Human Rights Commission estimated that from 1910 until 1970 more than 50,000 aboriginal children had been taken from their parents. (7) We the Parliament of Australia respectfully request that this apology be received in the spirit in which it is offered as part of the healing of the nation. 4.5 Interrogative sentences We all know that an interrogative sentence is the one that asks a question. It is true to a great extent. Have we thought about the issue from different angles? To elaborate, have we thought about the following? Are questions asked only by using interrogative sentences? What are the other ways of asking questions? Are interrogative sentences used only for asking questions? These issues will be discussed in the contact class as well as in later modules.

Keeping aside the communicative content of the interrogative sentences, we may look into their structural properties. All interrogative sentences share their propositional content with a corresponding declarative sentence. It is believed by many grammarians that an interrogative sentence is generated by 'moving' some of the grammatical units of a declarative sentence which forms the foundation of it. Let us look at the following examples. 4.5.1. Simple interrogative sentences can be generated in two different ways. Let us study the following sets of sentences and say what structural changes are observed: (8) a. The dog chased the cat. b. Did the dog chase the cat? c. Who chased the cat? (9) a. He loves all his students. b. Does he love all his students? c. Whom does he love? (10) a. Betsy borrowed some money from Christopher. b. Did Betsy borrow some money from Christopher? c. From whom did Betsy borrow some money? Looking at (8), (9) and (10) above, it is possible to distinguish between the (b) sentences from the (c) sentences. The sentences in (b) are called Yes-No type interrogative sentences and those in (c) are called Wh-type interrogative sentences. The issue will be discussed further in another unit. 4.5.2. Compound and complex interrogative sentences: Compound interrogative sentences are those in which two interrogative clauses are joined by a conjunction, for example: (11) d. Didn't we study all day for the test and now isn't is time to rest? e. Should we rest at home or should we go to the park? Complex interrogative sentences are those which are complex, that is, there is a

NSOU PGEL-7 49 main clause and a subordinate clause, but it is the main clause which does the job of interrogation. For example, in the following sentence, (12) [Did someone mention [that you played basketball]]? The subject-auxiliary inversion, the grammatical marker of the interrogative happens in the first clause which is the main clause. 4.6 Imperative sentences We generally know what imperative sentences are - we have been told that they are the ones, without a subject. But that is not correct. The best way to describe an imperative sentence is that it is a type of sentence in which the subject is compulsorily understood as "you". There are a few other aspects as well which we often overlook: Imperative sentences are rich in their communicative content. They are used to convey request, command, etc., a very wide range of communicative functions that the speaker intends to do towards the addressee of the sentence. Regarding their grammatical content, they necessarily show the verb in its present tense and the subject is understood to be "you". They can allow a politeness marker such as "Please" in all the positions of adjunct such as - Please do it for me, or Do it for me, Please. 4.6.1. Simple imperative sentences are those which have only one clause, for example; (13) Kindly close all the windows in this room. 4.6.2. Compound imperative sentences are those that contain two clauses and each clause has an imperative structure, for example; (14) [Kindly close all the windows in this room] and [please switch on the AC.] 4.6.3. Complex imperative sentences are those where there are two clauses but only the main clause is in the imperative, for example in the following complex sentence, (15) Kindly open the windows in this room so that we can get some fresh air. Only the main clause is in the imperative. The subordinate clause (underlined portion) has the structure of a declarative sentence with a clear SVO structure.

NSOU PGEL-7 50 4.7 Exclamatory sentences Exclamatory sentences or clauses are also called exclamatives and scholars have investigated two of their properties very extensively, namely the structural properties or how they are formed and their communicative properties or how they function in natural communications in English. In this section we will look at examples with both the aspects in mind. Examples in this subsection are collected from a famous scholarly work on exclamatives by Peter Collins. 4.7.1 Simple exclamatory sentences (16) How exclamatives: And how right he was! But how little love we give him! How very true that was, how very true! (17) What exclamatives: What a place that is! Oh, Grand-dad, what big words you use! What determination it had aroused! What a fuss the papers have made about me! 4.7.2. Exclamatory clauses in complex sentences (18) Principal or main clause ["What evil lurks in the heart of man?"] he said in a bass whisper. (19) Subordinate clause (a) I never realized [what a big deal this boat race has developed into.] (b) You can't believe [how many bowls and pans he's gone through.] 4.8. Consolidated exercise: Converting sentence types Read each of the following sentences and try to convert its type. After the conversion, note what grammatical changes are involved in converting the sentences. The first one is done as an example: a. He asked me angrily, "What's your name?" (Make it a statement.) Converted sentence: He asked me angrily my name.

NSOU PGEL-7 51 b. My mother asked the carpenter about the time he would finish the work in the kitchen. (Write it in direct speech with a question.) c. Shouldn't the administration think of raising the salary? (Make it an affirmative statement.) d. We saw a very beautiful performance last evening. (Make it exclamative.) e. What a beautiful scene it was to see the moon rising between the sea and the mountain! (Make it a statement.) f. Everyone wants to be praised by the spouse. (Make it a negative Wh-type question.) g. Couldn't you have thought of some other person instead of Ali to play as goalkeeper? (Make it an affirmative statement.) h. We suffered quite a lot during the power cut last year. (Make it an exclamative.) i. What a lovely patch of green we can see from the terrace. (Make it a statement.) j. Who wants to be let down in front of others? (Make it a negative statement.) k. The confusion seems to be due to a lack of communication. (Make it a negative question.) _____ _____ _____ _____ _____ _____ 4.9. Summary We may now sum up the contents of this unit by keeping in mind that the issues discussed here only opened up new avenues of exploration. Some of them will be taken up in the unit on transformation of sentences. Whatever has been said here is said with no intention of being prescriptive, i.e. this unit has not told us 'what is correct' and what is not. It only sensitized us about the fact that it is universal that all human languages show diversity in types of sentences and in that regard, English only follows some universal principles. Regardless of languages and linguistic structures, there are certain universal communicative needs human beings have such as having to

NSOU PGEL-7 52 state facts, ask questions or having to request or instruct. A certain language only tunes its structural properties to allow its speakers to meet their communicative needs by optimizing its structural inventory. 4.10 Review Question We have read this famous poem sometime in our English courses. This time we will read it from a different perspective. We will look into the sentence types used in this poem. After reading the poem, we will identify as many types of sentences as we can. The Solitary Reaper By William Wordsworth Behold her, single in the field, Yon solitary Highland Lass! Reaping and singing by herself; Stop here, or gently pass! Alone she cuts and binds the grain, And sings a melancholy strain; O listen! for the Vale profound Is overflowing with the sound. No Nightingale did ever chaunt More welcome notes to weary bands Of travellers in some shady haunt, Among Arabian sands: A voice so thrilling ne'er was heard In spring-time from the Cuckoo-bird, Breaking the silence of the seas Among the farthest Hebrides. Will no one tell me what she sings? Perhaps the plaintive numbers flow For old, unhappy, far-off things, And battles long ago: Or is it some more humble lay, Familiar matter of to-day? Some natural sorrow, loss, or pain, That has been, and may be again?

NSOU PGEL-7 53 Whate'er the theme, the Maiden sang As if her song could have no ending; I saw her singing at her work, And o'er the sickle bending;- I listened, motionless and still; And, as I mounted up the hill, The music in my heart I bore, Long after it was heard no more.

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96%	**MATCHING BLOCK 6/18**	**SA**	B. A. III Eng. P. 11 _ 16 Lang and Ling all.PDF (D142214959)

Pullum, G. (2002). The Cambridge grammar of the English language. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

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Quirk, R., Greenbaum, Leech, G. and Svartvik, J. (1985). A comprehensive grammar of the English language. London: Longman.

Anderson, C. (2019). Essentials of Linguistics. Open Textbook Library. Available at: https://open.umn.edu/opentextbooks/textbooks/599
NSOU PGEL-7 54 Module Introduction: In the previous four units (units 1-4) we discussed various types of sentences. Next, taking the basic assumption that a sentence is made up of a clause or a number of clauses, the discussions now will concentrate on the clausal level. In units 5-8, different types of clauses will be introduced from with two aspects in mind: one, the structure of the clause and two, their function inside the sentence. Our knowledge of English grammatical terms will be extremely important at this stage and we need to revise our grammar lessons to have control on the relevant terminology. As we are aware, distance education has its own constraints and limitations. This is mainly because the teacher is not in sight. Hence, we have to be 'close' to the learning material. We need to really concentrate in the lessons. But let us not worry - this is not going to be a very stressful process. Let's just relax mentally and stop thinking of anything else that is not of prime importance to the lesson. And, let's stop worrying if we would pass the examination or whether we will be able to memorize everything as they are written in the study materials. In short, let's engage ourselves in the learning process. We will have to participate in a number of exercises to be done individually to ensure that learning is complete. Let's take note of the items which seem to be difficult in the exercises so that they can be discussed in the contact classes. Two of the main sources from where iconic examples of definitional statements are taken for this module are Oxford Dictionary of English Grammar and A Communicative Grammar of English, henceforth mentioned as ODEG and CGE respectively. Module 2 : Clauses of English
NSOU PGEL-7 55 Unit 5 Types of clauses - noun/adjective/adverb Structure 5.1 Introduction 5.2 Objectives 5.3 Clauses and Sentences 5.4 Noun Clauses 5.5 Noun Clauses vs Noun Phrases 5.6 Adjective Clauses 5.7 Adverbial Clauses 5.8 Summary 5.9 Review Questions 5.10 References 5.11 Reading List 5.1. Introduction A clause is a grammatical unit that operates at a level lower than a sentence and higher than a phrase (ODGE). Traditionally those constituents of a sentence are treated as clauses which have a subject of their own and a finite verb and yet they are parts of larger sentences. For example, in the sentence, I was ten years old when I got my first scholarship has two clauses, "I was ten years old" and "when I got my scholarship". Some modern grammars do away with the distinction between clause and sentence and prefer to treat all complete sentential structures as clauses where one clause can embed (contain) another. What is interesting about clauses is that they often behave like words in two ways - they have a categorial identity such as Noun, Adjective and Adverb just like words and phrases have, and their ways of relating to one another is consistent with how they behave as words or phrases. In other words, the following are observed and confirmed by grammarians across structural levels: A noun (usually) does not modify, An adjective modifies a noun,

NSOU PGEL-7 56 An adverb modifies a verb, While examining sentences, grammarians have understood that a clause behaves in a sentence the same way a phrase behaves. Therefore, the following statements are true not only for English language but also for almost all natural human languages: A noun clause acts as a subject or object or complement in a sentence, just the way a noun phrase does. A noun clause acts as a complement to a preposition just the way a noun phrase does. An adjective clause modifies a noun just an adjective phrase does. An adverbial clause modifies a verb or another clause just the way an adverbial phrase does. This deep level similarity between a clause and a phrase has given some grammarians the scope to treat clauses also as phrases, but in this module, we will not follow that course of thinking. 5.2. Objectives After going through the unit, you will be able to: Understand roles of clauses in sentences. Learn on nominal clauses, Know about adjectival and adverbial clauses. 5.3 Clauses and sentences Almost all grammarians agree that sentences are made up of clauses. One clause or more than one clauses may constitute a sentence. In module 1 we have seen that if a sentence has one clause it is surely a simple sentence whereas if it has more than one clauses, it is either a complex or a compound sentence. CGEL (A Comprehensive Grammar English Language) distinguishes clauses in three different ways. They are the following: On the basis of clause elements such as subject, verb, object, complement etc. which construct the clauses - thus we have SV, SVO, SVC, SVOO types of clauses.

NSOU PGEL-7 57 On the basis of clause functions - considering what the clause is doing in a sentence, i.e. is it functioning as a subject, object, complement or an adjunct. On the basis of finiteness - considering if verb inside the clause is finite or non-finite - thus distinguishing all clauses into types such as finite and non- finite clauses. 5.4. Noun Clauses Noun clauses are also called 'nominal clauses' as the word 'nominal' is an adjective of the noun 'noun'. Let us study the following 4 sentences from CGE (page 325) and ask ourselves why the structures under consideration are called nominal clauses: a. Whether I pass the test or not does not matter very much. b. I don't know whether we really need a new car. c. What our friends really worry about is whether to stay here or move elsewhere. d. This raises the question as to whether we should abandon the plan. To make sure that we understand the interrelations of the clauses in the sentences above, let us do a small activity: Underline the common word in all the sentences Look at the right-hand side of the word and see until the end of the clause Now, let us underline the following portions in (a)-(d) above: e. Whether I pass the test or not f. Whether we really need a new car g. Whether to stay here or move elsewhere. h. Whether we should abandon the plan Now let us try to match the columns A and B in the following table: A. Clause number B. Role in the sentence Write a reason, why? e. Object f. Complement of a preposition g. Subject of the sentence h. Complement

NSOU PGEL-7 58 It is not true that all noun clauses start with the word 'whether'. The authors of CGE probably have the aspect of clarity in mind with which they approach a student who may not have a teacher by him/her at the time of reading. To summarize the outcome of the activity above we can say that a Noun clause (or a nominal clause) is the one which can act as a subject, an object, a complement or a complement of a preposition in a sentence. 5.5. Noun clauses vs noun phrases The distinction between noun clauses and noun phrases is very subtle, but let's not worry, it is not difficult. Basically, we need to keep in mind that a clause must have a verb group, that is a combination of a main verb and an auxiliary. Well then, how does it become a noun clause? The simple answer is, it behaves like a noun phrase. In other words, from structural point of view it is a clause, but it behaves like a noun phrase. To repeat, how does it behave like a noun phrase? Answer is, it takes up one of these roles - subject, object, complement of a verb or complement of a preposition. We will see each of them in the following examples. Please take a pencil and write the role of the underlined clause in the bracket given: Set A a. Which of the candidates will be elected is quite unpredictable. [ ] b. We regret that the plan is impracticable. [ ] c. Some historians believed that Napoleon was poisoned. [ ] d. Mary told him how brave he was. [ ] e. Today he is what his father wanted him to be. [ ] f. They deviated from what their original position was previously. [ ] Let us quickly make sure that we wrote the write answer: a. SUBJECT b. OBJECT c. OBJECT d. OBJECT e. COMPLEMENT OF THE VERB 'BE'(IS) f. COMPLEMENT OF THE PREPOSITION

NSOU PGEL-7 59 Now let us look at some Noun Phrases (underlined portions) similar in content in the same positions: Set B. a. The election of candidates is quite unpredictable. (subject) b. They rejected the impractical plan. (object) c. Some historians speculated the cause of Napoleon's death. (object) d. Mary admired his bravery. (object) e. Today he is a famous social worker. (complement) f. They deviated from their original position. (complement of the preposition) Now let us do this small exercise: Write 1 sentence stating why in set A the underlined portions are treated as noun clauses. a. b. c. d. e. f. If there is still some confusion about this distinction, let us wait for the contact classes to discuss further. 5.6. Adjective clauses Having understood the noun clauses, it is not too difficult to understand the notion of an adjective clause. Basically, it is a clause, i.e. it is an embedded simple sentence and it is adjectival in nature, i.e. its main job is to modify a a noun phrase. Let us look at the following examples: a. They accept the theory that the group proposed. b. The medicine which we were waiting for has finally hit the market.

NSOU PGEL-7 60 c. Please study the diagram that is given in the next page. d. Burgers, which many youngsters adore, have high calorie. e. People who are careful wear masks to protect themselves. f. My grandfather can remember the time when telephones didn't exist. g. Mohua has a friend whose sister still lives in Ladakh. h. The rasogolla that Haldiram's sell in Delhi is not cheap. i. The reason why Pratik went to medical college is that he wanted to be a doctor. Just to make sure that we understood the concept of an adjective clause and to accept each of the underlined clauses as adjective clauses, let us do this small activity: Let us fill in the following table identifying the noun phrases that the adjective clauses modify (Let us note that the modern grammarians treat a one word expression like 'burgers' also as a noun phrase): Sentence number The noun phrase modified by the adjective clause a. The theory b. c. d. e. f. g. h. i. 5.7. Adverbial clauses Any clause that functions like an adverb to express notions such as time, place, reason, condition, purpose, result, comparison etc. can be treated as an adverbial

NSOU PGEL-7 61 clause. Its main function is that of modification - it is always a subordinate clause modifying the main clause. Let us see the following examples: Set A: From ODEG (Oxford Dictionary of English Grammar) (page 14) a. I will come when I am ready. b. They succeeded because they persevered. c. Don't do it, unless you are sure. d. Although he was injured, he struggled on. e. While he was travelling, he contracted jaundice. f. Make it Thursday please, if it is possible. Now let's take a pencil and divide the sentences above in two parts in this way: (a) I will come / when I am ready. Having done that, we should be able to agree with the following observations: (b) [because they preserved] modifies [They succeeded]. (c) [unless you are sure] modifies [Don't do it] (d) [Although he was injured,] modifies [he struggled on.] (e) [While he was travelling] modifies [he contracted jaundice] (f) [if it is possible] modifies [Make it Thursday please] Now we should be able to fill in the following table to write our observations on the specific way one clause modifies another: Example number Modifying clause Nature of modification a When I am ready Time b c d e f

NSOU PGEL-7 62 In the following sentences, we will see how an adverbial clause can be identified and how it can be distinguished from other clauses or phrases. We really need to pay attention to the discussion. We have just seen that the adverbial clauses indicate time, place, manner, comparison etc. while modifying another constituent. Let us look at the three sentences below: a. They were trying to decide where to go on holiday. [place] b. We still have the issue of how we are to raise the extra funds. [manner] c. Ashok asked me when I would be ready for the snap. [time] It is a kind of overgeneralization to think that any clause that contains information on time, place or manner are adverbial clauses. In fact, among these three sentences, none of the underlined portions are adverbial clauses. All of them are actually noun clauses. We need to make sure, why. It is because in (a), where to go on holiday is a complement to the verb 'decide'. In (b), how we are to raise the extra funds is a complement to the preposition 'of' and in (c) when I would be ready for the snap is the direct object of the verb 'ask'. We have seen before that a clause that assumes the role of complement or object can only be a noun clause. Since childhood we have been taught that adverbs indicate time, place and manner. That is only one side of the fact. The other side is about the interrelation of constituents which we need to turn to now. Let us see the following three sentences: a. When I was getting ready for the snap, Ashok spilled some tea on my dress. b. My sister cooks exactly how my mother used to cook when she was young. c. They danced where they conducted the party. Clearly, in (a) the underlined clause is an adverbial clause indicating time of action of the verb 'spilled'. In (b) there are two adverbial clauses: the first one indicates 'manner' and the second one 'time'. And in (c), the underlined adverbial clause indicates 'place' of the action 'dance'. To make sure we understood how to distinguish an adverbial clause from any other types, let us take a pair of sentences from above - one of which is an adverbial clause and the other isn't, and try to describe the difference. It will take just a couple of minutes.

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_____ 5.8 Summary In this unit, we looked at three types of clauses, noun clause, adjective clause and adverb clause. We included in our discussion the position of each of these clauses and the roles they assume in the sentences. We will conclude with an open-ended question: Why isn't there a verb clause or a prepositional clause in English or in any human language? Let us start researching until we meet in the contact classes. 5.9 Review Questions 1. Write the role of the underlined clauses: a) The arrival date doesn't matter. b) He told them the truth. c) The main thing is that she's happy. 2. Name the type of clause for the following: a) Whether it rains, it doesn't matter. b) I moved to the city after I changed jobs. c) Please turn out the lights before leaving the room. d) It's warm and comfortable in front of the fire. 3. What is the distinction between a noun phrase and a noun clause? 4. Write adjectival and adverbial clauses with the following structures: a) They are looking for people who are skilled in design. b) They have widely differing views. c) We are only watching a movie.

NSOU PGEL-7 64 5. Write 6 adverbial clauses indicating manner, time and place. 6. Discuss the criteria for distinguishing different types of clauses. 7. Study the following noun clauses. What is the common factor between them? a) If it is a holiday the bank is closed. b) When you know nothing it's a lie. c) Who came in it doesn't matter. 8. Study the following noun clauses. What is the common factor between them? a) I told them that it could rain. b) And then I wondered whether the parcel would reach in time. c) He came in time if the shop opened just now. 9. Study the following adverbial clauses. What is the common factor between them? a) As I was reading the book, the phone rang. b) Before I have tea, I go for a walk. c) When I was a child we lived in that city. 10. Study the following adjectival clauses. What is the common factor between them? a) I'll get the dishes ready. b) Do I make you angry? c) Let's paint the room yellow. 5.10 References 1. Chalker, S. and Weiner, E. (2015). The Oxford Dictionary of English Grammar. New York: Oxford University Press. 2. Leech, G. and Svartvik, J. (2015). A Communicative Grammar of English. Delhi: Pearson Education.

NSOU PGEL-7 65 5.11 Reading List 1. Chalker, S. and Weiner, E. (2015). The Oxford Dictionary of English Grammar. New York: Oxford University Press. 2. Leech, G. and Svartvik, J. (2015). A Communicative Grammar of English. Delhi: Pearson Education. 3. Kuiper, K. and Scott, A.W. (2010). An Introduction to English Language: Sound, Word and Sentence. 2nd ed. London: Palgrave Macmillan. Answers to Review Questions 1a) Subject, b) object, c) complement

Unit 6 Main clause and subordinate clause Structure 6.1 Introduction 6.2 Objectives 6.3 Sentence Types and Clause Types 6.4 Main Clauses 6.5 Subordinate Clauses 6.6 Summary 6.7 Review Questions 6.8 References and Reading List 6.1. Introduction The terms main clause and subordinate clause are also known as independent clause and dependent clause. The basic idea behind this distinction is whether a clause can 'stand on its own' if it is extracted out of a frame of a sentence. Thus, in the sentence "It is inevitable that there are risks on the way" there are two clauses and only one of them can stand on its own if it is taken out the sentence - "It is inevitable." The clause "that there are risks on the way" cannot be treated as a sentence on its own. This is only a very simple test of which one is the main clause and which one is the subordinate or dependent clause. The rationale for studying this distinction is that in many of our students' writings we see incomplete or inaccurate sentences. While treating them, we need to focus our attention to a student's composition of new sentences and see which aspect needs more instructions. 6.2. Objectives After going through the unit, you will be able to: Learn about main clause and subordinate clause, Know more about complex sentence, Understand the functioning of multiple subordinate clauses.

6.3 Sentence types and clause types Sentence types are deeply related to the two clause types that we are discussing here. Before we proceed further, let us please revisit Unit 3 and collect 2 simple sentences, 2 compound sentences and 2 complex sentences. Please write them down here: a. Simple sentences:

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_____ c. Complex sentences:

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_____ Now let us do the following: Indicate the clause boundary, for example - /Sita likes cold water/, /although her husband likes warm water/ etc. Let us make sure in the simple sentences, there is only one clause in each sentence. This is the main clause. In other words, a simple sentence does not have a dependent/subordinate clause. Let us notice that in the compound sentences, there lies a coordinating conjunction between the two clauses, for example, /The weather is pleasant/

but /the roads are muddy. The two clauses on both sides of the conjunction 'but' are independent clauses or main clauses because they can stand on their own as simple sentences. Let us also notice that in the two complex sentences, there is one clause which is independent, i.e., it can stand on its own as a simple sentence and the other one cannot. The one that cannot is the subordinate clause. Please remember to show your notes to the lecturer during the contact classes. 6.4 Main clauses In this subsection, let us focus on the main clauses only. ODEG offers the simplest description of it - "A clause that is not subordinate to any other" (p. 232). The source mentions 3 very important points as given below: It is traditionally contrasted with the subordinate clause. It can stand on its own as an independent sentence. In some models, a main clause can contain a subordinate clause. In that case the entire sentence is the main clause and the subordinate clause is embedded inside it. The three points mentioned above need to be elaborated more with the help of the following examples. Please read the examples and answer the questions that follow: a. I was ten. I got a scholarship. b. I was ten and I got a scholarship. c. I was ten when I got a scholarship. Questions: Identify the main clauses. _____ Identify the subordinate clause. _____ Look at sentence number (c) once more and decide which type of a sentence it is: SV, SVO, SVC or SVCA.

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If we refer to unit 1 of module 1 in paper-7, we would easily identify (c) as an SVCA type of sentence. S V C A I was ten when I got my scholarship. To quote ODEG: "The whole sentence I was ten when I got my scholarship is a main clause of the pattern SVCA, with the subordinate clause supplying the adverbial element." (p.232) Now let us do the following exercise where we identify the main clause only. Take a pencil and underline the main clauses in the following sentences: a. Kristy went out and she forgot to switch off the gas fire. b. We know that Dr. Ghosh wrote several poems but he threw them away. c. The journalists who ignored the ban and printed the report might find themselves in jail. d. If you go walking on the hills in winter and you do not take proper equipment, you are asking for trouble. Now see what remains outside the underlined portion. List those words here: _____ _____ _____ _____ _____ _____

6.5 Subordinate clauses The easier way to do this section is to go back to the previous set of sentences and study them once more. The clauses which are not main clauses are the subordinate clauses. But we need to do a little more with this information. We need to remember just one point: A subordinate clause always depends on a main clause. That is the reason they cannot stand on their own as a sentence. We will understand their nature more if we study the subordinate clauses in following sentences. By the way, each of the sentences is a complex sentence. Read the following sentences and fill up the table that follows: a. They are pioneering a new geography in which they will establish when new races settled in particular regions. b. A geneticist says the Pacific islands are an ideal testing ground for the theory that the Pacific was colonized from west to east. c. The history begins with the day when the chief medical officer for Vanuatu noticed that a large number of people there suffered from anemia. d. He was advised to treat them with iron supplements so he contacted scientists at Oxford who found that half of the donors suffered from alpha-thalassemia, which is usually linked to the presence of malaria. e. It seems that the gene protects against malaria, since carriers of the alpha 3.7 mutant will not die of malaria even if they contract a severe bout. f. Although anthropological studies have been inconclusive, previous biological research has suggested that there was no contact while the Melanesians were moving East. Number The main Subordinate Subordinate Subordinate clause clause 1 clause 2 clause 3 a. b. c. d. e. f. These sentences will be taken up again in the next module, where syntactic tree structures will be practiced to demonstrate the interrelations between constituents. 6.6 Summary While we learn about a number of grammatical concepts, we should always keep in mind that they are not isolated ideas - they are interrelated. Subordinate clauses occur only in complex sentences where one clause needs to depend on another. The main clauses occur in simple sentences and compound sentences. A subordinate clause

can also be considered as a part of the main clause such as an adjunct in an SVOA type of sentence. 6.7 Review Questions 1. Name the type of clause from the following: a) If you travel by air, it may be costly. b) How you would solve the problem is your business. c) The salesman who had come is from my village. 2. Identify the subordinate clause from the following sentences a) Like a express train speeding on the tracks, he went through the door. b) She went home straight from here because she has to study for her class test. c) My uncle Hari who lives in America is coming home for the vacation. 3. State whether the following is MC (Main clause) or SC (Subordinate clause). a) Is grammatically correct as a sentence. b) Cannot make a complex sentence. c) Adds more information to a sentence. d) Is also known as a dependent clause. e) Is a complete sentence. 4. Identify the main clause from the following: a) Despite the wind and the rain, Smita searched for her dog. b) I earned an A in my language test after I spent a whole night studying. c) She was telling us that she knew the secret. 5. Mention the type of sentence from the following: SV, SVO, SVC, SVCA a) He succeeded. b) I knew that he would succeed. c) He succeeded because he worked hard. d) He was twelve when he succeeded. 6. Add subordinate clauses to the following sentences. a) I would do this. b) The children were playing.

c) He was contended. 7. What are the differences in structure and punctuation for the following complex sentences? a) After the singing class started, Lily arrived. b) Lily arrived after the singing class started. 8. What is the difference between the clauses from the two sentences? a) I know he lives in Kolkata. b) I know where he lives. 9. Write the main clause. a) I gave him the book he was looking at. b) I made a mistake in giving him my address. 10. Why do we get a complex sentence from a main clause and a subordinate clause? 6.8 References and Reading List

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Unit 7 Relative Clauses-Restrictive & Non-Restrictive Structure 7.1 Introduction 7.2 Objectives 7.3 Relative Clauses 7.4 Restrictive Relative Clauses 7.5 Non-Restrictive Relative Clauses 7.6 Summary 7.7 Review Questions 7.8 References 7.9 Reading List 7.1 Introduction This unit plans to discuss a few aspects of relative clauses. Previously we looked at the adjective clauses. Relative clauses are basically adjectival in nature. Their primary grammatical task is to modify a noun phrase. Depending on the nature of modification, the relative clauses are divided into two types, restrictive and non- restrictive relative clauses. 7.2 Objectives After going through the unit you will be able to: Learn more on subordinate clause, Learn on essential and on-essential information in a sentence, Understand types of relative clauses. 7.3 Relative Clauses Let us keep in mind a few facts about relative clauses in English: All relative clauses are subordinate clauses. They all have a relative pronoun such as who, which, where and even that to start with. Sometimes it can be absent but can be 'felt'.

NSOU PGEL-7 74 Category wise, they are adjectival in nature. Hence each relative clause modifies a noun phrase. The following examples from Swan (2016) are considered as canonical examples of relative clauses: a. Have you ever spoken to the people who live next door? b. Those who are not yet registered should do so at once. c. There is a programme on tonight which you might like. d. He has got a job in a new firm where they don't work much long hours. e. Here is the book that you were looking for. Let us do a small activity with these five sentences. Let us identify the relative pronouns in the sentences in (a) to (e) above and circle them. Let us underline the subordinate clauses that start with the relative pronouns. Let us now look at the constituent left to the relative pronoun and put a bracket around it - this is a noun phrase modified by the relative clause. As we are able to do the above three, we will be able to fill in the following table now: Sentence Noun phrase modified by Relative Relative clause the relative clause pronoun a. the people who who live next door b. c. d. e.

NSOU PGEL-7 75 7.4. Restrictive Relative Clauses The first point to keep in mind in the distinction between restrictive and non-restrictive relative clauses is that, we must not give too much importance to the literal meaning of the word 'restrictive'. These two are only two grammatical terms denoting two debatably distinguishable grammatical behaviours of relative clauses. The terms have been being used by convention, the origin of which is difficult to trace. Restrictive clauses seem to contain information which are considered essential to the meaning of the sentence in which it is embedded. The sentence seems to be semantically incomplete as it does not make much sense without the clause. In the examples below, we would note how the clauses give information to describe and define the nouns which precede it. a. He is the journalist who interviewed the leader of the opposition. b. That is the seat where I lost my purse. c. We are talking about a time when rice was two rupees a kilo. d. She is the heroine whose father was a great actor. In all the sentences above the underlined relative clause give 'essential information' for which the sentence is composed. The main/principal clauses here do not convey much information as we can note if we read them separated from the subordinate relative clause: a´. He is the journalist _____ b´. That is the seat _____ c´. We are talking about a time _____ d´. She is the heroine _____ If we imagine a context of a conversation where these sentences occur, the information given in the main clauses (a' to d') seem to be known both by the speaker and the hearer. It is the information in the subordinate relative clause that the speaker has to give the hearer. This is the grammatical context of the restrictive relative clauses. And let us keep in mind that no constituents 'restrict' anything in these clauses. By convention, users of standard English language all over the world do not use a comma before a restrictive relative clause.

NSOU PGEL-7 76 7.5. Non-restrictive Relative Clauses Naturally, a non-restricted relative clause is the one which contain non-essential information for the sentence. e. Mr. Jatin Pal, who lives in my locality, is the MLA of our constituency. f. His whole family went on a holiday to Mandarmoni, which is in East Midnapur district. g. Priyanka, whose mother is a school principal, is very knowledgeable in online learning. h. The New Market, which was an icon of Calcutta city, has now lost its glory because of the modern shopping malls and multiplexes. By convention, commas are used on both sides of a non-restrictive relative clause. In the examples from (e) to (h) it is noticed that the underlined relative clause gives information which can be considered 'additional' to the main information that is conveyed through the main clause. For want of space here, let us keep it for more discussion during the contact classes. Exercise Join the following simple sentences into complex sentences, turning one of them into a relative clause. Try to examine if the relative clause is restrictive or non- restrictive. a. Ten families went to the beach. Their children had a sandcastle competition. _____ b. Sarala Aunty is my mother's friend. She is a great cook and a salad designer. _____ c. The car broke down yesterday. It is running perfectly well today. _____ d. The marketing team wrote a report. It was presented in today's Board meeting. _____

NSOU PGEL-7 77 e. Kolkata is the capital of West Bengal. It is called the City of Joy. _____ 7.6 Summary The unit 7 discussed the grammatical distribution of relative clauses and their nature of modifying noun phrases. We should now go back to the section on adjective clauses once more in unit 6 and make sure that we understood all the points clearly. Work on the following questions to check your comprehension. 7.7 Review Questions 1. Find relative clauses from the following: a) I like people whose company makes me happy. b) This is the duplicate key which opens the back door. c) Have you got anything that belongs to him? 2. Name the type of relative clause for the following: a) What is the name of the old lady who just came in? b) People who maintain a balanced diet are fit for the tour. c) Have you got something that will drive away the flies? 3. Name the relative clause for the following. a) This is Ms Sen, who's joining us on Monday. b) He married someone, whom he met on a bus. c) I poured him a drink, which he drank at once. 4. What is the basic difference between the sentence structures in Question 2 and Question 3? 5. State whether the following statements are True or False. a) Restrictive relative clause restricts the noun it is talking about. b) Non-restrictive relative clause provides more unnecessary information to understand a whole sentence.

NSOU PGEL-7 78 c) Restrictive relative clause is not essential to the meaning of a sentence. d) Non-restrictive relative clause is an adjective clause. 6. Decide whether the following relative clauses are restrictive or non- Restrictive. a) My sister who is 25 years old spent her holiday in France. b) My sister, who is 25 years old, spent her holiday in France. 7. Write the main clause of the following sentences. a) The monument which we visited is very old. b) My brother who lives in Tokyo came to see me last month. 8. Define restrictive relative clauses with examples. 9. Define non-restrictive relative clauses with examples. 10. Explain the difference in clauses from the sentences: a) The man who lives next door won the lottery. b) Mr Spencer, who lives next door, won the lottery. 7.8 References Akmajian, A. et al. (2001). (eds.), Linguistics: An Introduction to Language and Communication. Cambridge, MA: MIT. Adger, D. (2004). Core Syntax: A Minimalist Approach. New York: Oxford University Press. Carnie, A. (2001). Syntax. Oxford: Blackwell Publishers. Chalker, S. and Weiner, E. (2015). The Oxford Dictionary of English Grammar. New York: Oxford University Press. Börjars, K. and Burridge, K. (2004). Introducing English Grammar. New York: Arnold Publishers. Huddleston, R. and Pullum, G. K. (2005). A Students Introduction to English Grammar. Madrid: Cambridge University Press. Jha, S.K. (2017). Exploring Ambiguous Structures in English. Global Journal of Interdisciplinary Social Sciences. Vol 6. Number 3, p. 1-4.

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NSOU PGEL-7 80 Unit 8 Ambiguity in sentences, IC Analysis Structure 8.1 Introduction 8.2 Objectives 8.3 Ambiguity in sentences 8.4 IC Analysis 8.4.1 Modification 8.4.2 Predication 8.4.3 Complementation 8.4.4 Subordination 8.4.5 Coordination 8.5 Summary 8.6 Module Conclusion 8.7 Review Questions 8.8 References and Reading List 8.1 Introduction Ambiguity is an essential property of a human language. We know that the process of linguistic communication involves two stages; formation of a structure (such as a sentence) by a speaker or a writer and its interpretation by the hearer or a reader. When one structure gives scope for more than one interpretations, ambiguity is created. For example, the expression "an Indian Economics teacher" can have two meanings, a. A teacher of Economics who is an Indian citizen and b. A teacher of Indian Economics. This kind of multiple interpretation is possible since the grammar of English allows two types of linking of the constituents of this expression: a. an Indian [Economics teacher] and b. an [Indian Economics] teacher. In this unit, we will first discuss how different ways of linking syntactic constituents result in ambiguity. In the second part we will discuss immediate constituent analysis or IC analysis.

NSOU PGEL-7 81 8.2 Objectives After going through the unit, you will be able to: Understand the concept of 'ambiguity'. Learn about IC analysis. Know about ambiguity and IC analysis. 8.3 Ambiguity in sentences 1- The hatred of the killers could mean either : 2- Someone hated the killers or 3- The killers hated someone. Let us notice the nature and scope of ambiguity in the following two sentences a. I like syntax more than my colleague. b. Babu kicked Raju, and he broke his leg. In the first sentence (a), there are two possible meanings that a speaker may intend to convey, let us call them 'paraphrases': "I like syntax more than my colleague likes syntax". "I like syntax more than I like my colleague." The two paraphrases are possible since the grammar of the English language two different ways of interrelating the constituents of this sentence (a). Similarly, the second sentence (b) also has two possible paraphrases: "Babu kicked Raju and Babu broke his leg." "Babu kicked Raju and Raju broke his leg." These two paraphrases are possible since both the proper names (Babu and Raju) share their PNG features (Person-Number-Gender) with the possessive pronoun "his". This ambiguity will not arise if, the speaker and the hearer belong to a culture where either Babu or Raju is a feminine name. Whereas in (a) and (b) ambiguity arises out of two possible syntactic relations, it can also arise out of two meanings of a given lexical item (word) as seen in the following pair of sentences:

NSOU PGEL-7 82 c. I saw a bat. d. Shakespeare is fascinating to understand. In (c), a speaker may mean s/he has seen any one of the following two: A long and flat wooden object used for hitting the ball in games such as cricket or baseball. A small animal that flies at night and looks like a mouse with two wings (Dictionary meanings of 'bat' from Macmillan English Dictionary). In case of (d) the word Shakespeare may mean either of the following two: The character of Shakespeare. The works of Shakespeare. This type of ambiguity is called lexical ambiguity since the seed of the ambiguity is in a certain word. Now let us quickly check if an ambiguous sentence and one of its meanings are given, we can infer the second meaning. e. Didi hit a policeman with an umbrella. Paraphrase 1: Didi hit a policeman who held an umbrella. Paraphrase 2: _____ f. Flying planes can be dangerous. Paraphrase 1: The act of flying planes can be dangerous. Paraphrase 2: _____ Ambiguity can also occur due to different ways of relating the immediate constituents of a sentence. Let us study the following sentences closely. g. The parents of the bride and the groom were waiting. h. Small dogs and cats are all over the place. The first sentence (g) may mean 'the parents of BOTH the bride and the groom are waiting' or 'the parents of ONLY the bride, and the groom' are waiting. These two meanings are derived due to two different ways of relating the constituents of the same sentence. The ways are shown with the help of square brackets here:

Paraphrase 1: [The parents of [the bride and the groom]] were waiting. Paraphrase 2:[[The parents of the bride] and [the groom]] were waiting. Here small and large size square brackets are used for ease of understanding. Similarly, for the next sentence (h) there are two possible ways of relating the adjective 'small' to the nouns 'dogs' and 'cats'. Paraphrase 1: [The small [dogs and cats]] are all over the place. Paraphrase 2: [The [small dogs] and [cats]] are all over the place. We will come back to the issues in ambiguity once we complete the next subsection on IC analysis. Before that, let us quickly test our intuition on ambiguity for the following sentences: i. He went to the bank. Paraphrase 1: _____ Paraphrase 2: _____ j. They are watching dogs. Paraphrase 1:_____ Paraphrase 2: _____ k. I'll tell you when they arrive. Paraphrase 1: _____ Paraphrase 2: _____ 8.4. IC Analysis IC-analysis is a method of syntactic analysis and it expands as "immediate constituent analysis". The constituents of a sentence namely phrases and clauses relate to one another in different ways. Each constituent has an immediate relation with another constituent. For example, in the sentence, "The most intelligent student in my class comes from a very poor but hard-working family" the constituents relate to one another in different ways. To understand, let us read the following questions, then read sections 8.3.1 to 8.3.5 and finally come back to answer the questions:

What is the relation between "The most intelligent student in my class" and "comes from a very poor but hard-working family"? _____ What is the relation between "most" and "intelligent"? _____ What is the relation between "poor" but "hard-working"? _____ What is the relation between "in" and "my class"? _____ We must have noticed that these constituents which are kept under quotes relate to each other in different ways. 8.4.1. Modification Modification is a semantic relation in which one constituent modifies another constituent. They can be called 'modifier' and 'modified'. If we study the following sentence closely: The President was [quite][upset] at [the reception][that he received]. We would agree that in the phrase "quite upset", 'quite' is the modifier and 'upset' is the modified. Similarly, in the noun phrase "the reception that he received", 'the reception' is the modified and the relative clause 'that he received' is the modifier. In English, there is no fixed rule about the directionality of these two items. In other words, a modifier can either precede or follow the modified. 8.4.2. Predication This semantic relation is based on the very traditional idea that a sentence or a clause is a combination of a subject and a predicate. The relation that exists between a subject of a clause and its predicate is called predication. Let us look at the following two sentences: a. [We][are going to take a vacation before the airfares go up.] b. [All the people][enjoyed the dinner and the concert that followed it.] In (a), 'We' is the subject and in (b) 'All the people' is the subject. The remaining part of each sentence is the predicate.

8.4.3. Complementation The semantic relation of complementation exists between a verb and its object or complement. It also exists between a preposition and its complement. In the following sentence there are three sets of complementation: If they [got] a carpet], [at] [first] they had to [decide][where was the best place to put it.] "a carpet" complements the verb "got", "first" complements the preposition "at", "where was the best place to put it" complements the verb "decide". 8.4.4 Subordination Subordination is a semantic relation in which a constituent (a clause or a phrase) 'depends' on another 'constituent'. In the following sentence : He walked [as if] [someone was following him.] The clause "someone was following him" depends on the subordinator "as if". Without "as if" the clause cannot be related to the first part of the sentence "He walked". 8.4.5 Coordination The notion of coordination is the simplest among all the relations and it is very easy to identify too. If two constituents, phrases or clauses are joined by a coordinator or a coordinating conjunction, there is a coordination relation among the immediate constituents. In the first sentence below, two clauses are coordinated: [I have eaten two pizzas] but [I am still hungry]. On the other hand, in the second sentence, two pairs of phrases are coordinated: I [like] and [admire] [pizzas] and [pastas]. Like and admire - coordination of verb phrases Pizzas and pastas - coordination of noun phrases

Task 1. In each set below, one constituent is identical. With the help of IC analysis, establish the similarity or difference between the sentences in each set: Set A 1. I wondered when the plane would leave. 2. I would take a video when the plane would leave. _____ _____ _____ _____ Set B 1. John asked me whether I was ready yet. 2. I myself did not know whether I was ready yet. _____ _____ _____ _____ Set C 1. They accept the theory that the world is flat. 2. They accept the theory that the group proposed. _____ _____ _____ Set D 1. We still have the problem of how we are to fund the extra resources.

2. How we are to fund the extra resources is still a problem for us.

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_____ Task 2. Ambiguity and IC Analysis (Mainly for contact classes) Study the following sentences and decide if they are ambiguous. With the help of IC analysis show the reason for the ambiguity: a. John lost his friend in the overcrowded subway station. b. Shakespeare is fascinating to understand. c. Annie whacked a man with an umbrella. d. We saw the man with the telescope. e. Visiting aunts can be a nuisance. f. The parents of the bride and the groom were waiting. 8.5 Summary This unit has been developed keeping in mind that our study of English syntax must not be restricted to knowing the "what" aspects of certain grammatical terms. We should be able to identify constituents of novel sentences, analyze their parts and justify our analysis with the help of the notions learnt in this unit. 8.6 Module conclusion Let us keep in mind that we are not studying this module only to know about the "what" aspect of clauses and their categories. Our main objective is to gain competency in the "how" and "why" aspects of clauses. In other words, we are not going to stop with just knowing what a noun clause or a relative clause is, but we need to know how they are distributed in sentences. Besides, we need to be in a position to apply our logic to establish why, in a sentence so far unfamiliar to us, a clause can be categorized as a noun clause, an adjective clause or an adverbial clause. At the end of the day, we are English language

teachers and we need to impart in our students a life-long skill of critical thinking which they can use to understand the composition of new sentences beyond their contact with us as their English teachers. 8.7 Review Questions 1. What is IC analysis? 2. What is ambiguity? Illustrate. 3. Analyse the structure of Predication for the following: a) I am giving a presentation. b) Poor John ran away. c) The girl is happy. 4. Analyse the modifier and the modified for the following: a) The children found a white puppy. b) Barking dogs seldom bite. c) The old man sold an old car. 5. Analyse the structure of co-ordination. a) My friend ate apples and oranges in the morning. b) It was getting late and they were hungry. c) We can go swimming or we can stay here. 6. Analyse the structure of complementation. a) He didn't give any reasons for the changes. b) The dog hated the thought of leaving the man in the park. c) The pupils in the class were made to read aloud all together. 7. Analyse the structure of Subordination. a) Although it was not dark, the stars were visible in the sky. b) They started the welcome song as soon as he came. c) I won't respond unless you make a patch up with me. d) They were here because they know her. 8. Analyse the ambiguous sentences. a) The professor's appointment was shocking. b) I could not sleep because of the cricket. c) John drove his car to the bank. 9. Explain two problems that ambiguous sentences can create in communication. 10.How many interpretations can you list for the sentence - Put the book on the table by the window in the bedroom. 8.8 References and Reading List Akmajian, A. et al. (2001) (eds.), Linguistics: An Introduction to Language and Communication. Cambridge, MA: MIT. Adger, D. (2004). Core Syntax: A Minimalist Approach. New York: Oxford University Press. Carnie, A. (2001). Syntax. Oxford: Blackwell Publishers. Chalker, S. and Weiner, E. (2015). The Oxford Dictionary of English Grammar. New York: Oxford University Press. Börjars, K. and Burridge, K. (2004). Introducing English Grammar. New York: Arnold Publishers. Huddleston, R. and Pullum, G. K. (2005). A Students Introduction to English Grammar. Madrid: Cambridge University Press. Jha, S.K. (2017). Exploring Ambiguous Structures in English. Global Journal of Interdisciplinary Social Sciences. Vol 6. Number 3, p.1-4. Kuiper, K. and Scott, A.W. (2010). An Introduction to English Language: Sound, Word and Sentence. 2nd ed. London: Palgrave Macmillan. Leech, G. and Svartvik, J. (2015). A Communicative Grammar of English. Delhi: Pearson Education. Miller, J. (2002). An Introduction to English Syntax. Edinburgh: Edinburgh University Press.

Radford, A. (2004). English Syntax: An Introduction. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. Rowe, B.M. and Levine, D.P. (2009). A Concise Introduction to Linguistics. Boston: Pearson. Swan, M. (2016). Practical English Usage. Oxford: Oxford University Press. Wasow, T., Perfors, A. and Beaver, D. (2010). The Puzzle of Ambiguity. Ms. Stanford University. [Obtained from https://web.stanford.edu/~wasow/Lapointe.pdf] Yule, G. (2010). The Study of Language. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. Module 3 : Transformations of Sentences Unit 9 Nature of Sentence-Deep Structure, Surface Structure 1 Structure 9.1 Introduction 9.2 Objectives 9.3 Deep Structure and Surface Structure 9.4 Competence and Performance 9.5 Rules of Generative Grammar 9.6 The Standard Theory 9.7 Summary 9.8 Review Questions 9.9 References 9.10 Reading List 9.1 Introduction This unit introduces a very crucial distinction of concepts in the study of syntax of English as well as of all natural human languages -Deep Structure and Surface Structure. These concepts were used extensively in the Standard and Extended Standard Theories of Transformational Generative Grammar which was founded by Noam Chomsky with his path-breaking publication Syntactic Structures (1957). This model of grammar had two broad objectives - one, to account for fundamental similarity among languages despite their apparent diversity and two, the ability of a natural learner of a language to gain control over its grammar reflected in his/her successful identification of grammatical as well as ungrammatical sentences. Both the concepts were hypothetical in nature, used in order to explain the phenomenon of how a finite set of grammatical rules can generate an infinite number of new meaningful grammatical sentences in a language.

9.2 Objectives After going through the unit you will be able to : Know about deep structure and surface structure. Enhance your understanding of the system of English language in the context of deep structure and surface structures. Approach the task of language teaching in a better way. 9.3 Deep structure and surface structure This topic has been debated upon among linguists from different schools of thought for a very long time. In this module we will try to bring in the aspects of it which are relevant to understand how sentence structures can be conceptually related to their meanings. These understandings are considered as crucial since we are language teachers and are monitors of our learners' learning of language. It is highly relevant to note that we handle sentences in their Surface Structures and we all refer to their Deep Structures - often we do it subconsciously as long as we have not been introduced to these two terms. The purpose of this module is to allow the language teachers to apply these two notions in their understanding of language structures, especially syntactic structures. In layperson's terms, Surface Structure is the structure that we see while we read and Deep Structure is the structure that underlie it, that we understand the meaning of. For example, in the sentence, "Open the door, please." the surface structure is "Open the door, please." which we read in print or we hear in sounds. But don't we understand it as, "YOU open the door, please"? The meaning component YOU is very much part of this proposition contained in the frame of information of the sentence, but it does not surface. It is only understood. Hence, to start with, we will understand deep structure as the structure of a sentence that we understand. Now the question is, why do we need to focus our attention to the Deep Structure? Or why is the Surface Structure alone not enough to study syntax? This can be understood well only if we take note of the theoretical background of a tradition of linguistic analysis called Transformational Generative Grammar which was consolidated in two famous books by Noam Chomsky, namely Syntactic Structures (1957) and Aspects of the Theory of Syntax (1965). There were other important

publications too before and after these two works which have also contributed to the new tradition of linguistic inquiry. Let us see what was 'new' in the approach of Chomsky and other generative linguists. Professor S.K. Verma and Professor N. Krishnaswami, who taught in the Central Institute of English and Foreign Languages, Hyderabad (at present English and Foreign Languages University or EFLU) for many decades gave a very comprehensive account of the theoretical background of generative grammar in a very reader-friendly way in their book Modern Linguistics: An Introduction. Some of the points considered by them are elaborated here with examples: Generative grammar assumes that there is a 'mental reality' underlying the 'actual linguistic behaviour'. For example, in the sentence "Open the door, Please", the actual linguistic behaviour is what is written or heard "Open the door, Please" but the mental reality is that the sentence is understood as "YOU open the door, Please". Clearly, the representation in the mental reality goes slightly beyond the actual linguistic behaviour. It accommodates the logically plausible information mutually understood between the speaker and the hearer, the two participants in an exchange of language. The term Deep Structure was a tentative name given to represent the mental reality of a sentence. Generative grammarians insisted that the aim of sentence analysis or for that matter language analysis should be the Deep Structure. Hence, we can say that they wanted to link how language functions with how the human mind functions in processing language or linguistic structures. 9.4 Competence and Performance Generative grammar also made a distinction between two fundamental concepts related to the knowledge and use of language in a universal perspective - competence and performance. Competence is the knowledge of the core grammar of a speaker's language which gives him/her the ability to 'see through' structures and relate the structures with the meaning that would generate. Performance, on the other hand is the speaker's actual use of language. All that we read or hear, speak or write are linguistic expressions in performance. But what makes it possible especially what enables a user to speak or write grammatically correct sentences and to give judgment on the grammatical correctness of a sentence is his/her Competence - the core knowledge of the system of a language. This knowledge is invisible and inaudible but its very existence is discernible from written or spoken language which are expressions

of performance. For example, when an English speaker says "Open the door, Please", it is his/her performance in speech. What enables him/her to say it correctly is his/her knowledge of the English grammar which employs information beyond what is said. To elaborate further, the speaker knows that in this sentence the subject is YOU which is not pronounced but is meant. This information is part of his/her competence. Now, approaching this sentence from the hearer's side, the hearer too understands this sentence as "YOU open the door please". Again, it is his/her part of his/her competence which allows him/her to accept this sentence as grammatically correct. One can relate performance to the surface structure and competence to the deep structure. A speaker gains competence in a language by mastering its grammar which, according to the generative grammarians, is a 'finite set of rules'. This means that the grammar of a language has a limited number of rules. However, this does not mean that the language has a limited number of sentences. In fact, a language potentially has infinite number of sentences. Task 1. Consider the following sentence: '*We speaked at the café this week end.' Is this error due to competence or performance? Your answer: 9.5 Rules of Generative Grammar When the grammatical rules operate on the lexical items or words, they can generate infinite number of sentences. A generative grammarian would endeavour to propose a model of grammar that can account for the strange phenomenon of how a finite set of rules can generate an infinite set of sentences. In the first two decades of the development of generative grammar the scholars made use of two types of rules, namely Phrase Structure Rules or PS-Rules and Transformation Rules or T-rules. In the theoretical models called Standard Theory and Extended Standard Theory, PS-rules were used to generate the Deep Structure and the T-rules were used to generate the surface structure. It was generally assumed that a native speaker's competence relies upon his/her knowledge of both these types of rules. For a more elaborate description of how they work, one can read the chapter on Syntax in the book The Study of Language by George Yule.

NSOU PGEL-7 95 9.6 The Standard Theory We must keep in mind that the generative grammar was not intended to be a mere grammar of syntax only. It had it its purview three elemental aspects of the system of language - sound, meaning and (syntactic) rules. These three were also considered as primary aspects of linguistic ability. A speaker who has the knowledge of a language actually has the knowledge of its sound system, the logically constructed meaning system and the rules of sentence formation. The Standard Theory of generative grammar hence proposed three components— a. Syntactic component b. Phonological component c. Semantic component The syntactic component was meant to be the central part of the grammar which had two subcomponents - the base subcomponent and the transformational subcomponent. The base was comprised of PS-Rules (Phrase Structure Rules) and a lexicon (the mental vocabulary). The base was to generate infinite set of sentences in their deep structures with the help of a finite set of Phrase Structure rules. The Transformational subcomponent was made responsible for generating the surface structures with the help of a finite set of Transformational Rules. The semantic component was related to the Deep Structure of a sentence - it was thought of allowing the speaker obtain a logical interpretation of a syntactic structure. The Phonological component was related to the Surface Structure of a sentence - it was thought of allowing the speaker to obtain the phonetic representation from the surface structure. Here we need to mind that the Surface Structure was also meant to be abstract until the phonological rules of the Phonological Component would generate the actual utterance spoken by the speaker. 9.7 Summary In this unit (no 9) we were introduced to the basic notions of deep and surface structure of sentences as outlined by Chomsky and his associate generative linguists. We learnt that the Transformational Generative Grammar intended to account for the

NSOU PGEL-7 96 native speaker's ability to perform the following mental activities related the system of language— a. the ability to understand syntactic structures and their interrelations b. the ability to relate structures with meaning c. the ability to pronounce the actual utterance at the time of communication It is quite natural that we will have questions in our mind. For that let us do two short exercises: Task 2. List all the new words (terminology) which need further clarification.

_____ Task 3. Write a few wh-type questions arising in the mind while reading the unit.

_____ 9.8 Review Questions 1. Define Competence. Illustrate. 2. Why it is important to make a distinction between competence and performance? 3. Discuss the three components of Standard Theory. 4. What is the surface structure (SS) composed of? 5. What are the rules of Generative grammar? 6. What does deep structure (DS) represent? 7. What is the distinction between the following pairs of sentences? SS or DS? a. The children broke the window. b. The window was broken by the children. 8. State whether the following are true or false. a. Deep structure is the meaning of a sentence.

NSOU PGEL-7 97 b. Surface structure is how a sentence is worded. c. Speaking involves transforming Deep Structure into Surface Structure. 9. What is Generative Grammar? 10. Write Competence (C) or Performance (P) for the following statements. a. Is the real world linguistic output. b. May be flawed because of memory limitations, distractions or shift of attentions. c. Represents only a small sample of possible utterances. 9.9 References Aitchison, J. (1992). Teach Yourself Linguistics. London: Hodder & Sloughton.

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NSOU PGEL-7 98 Verma, S.K. and Krishnaswami, N. (1997). Modern Linguistics: An Introduction. Delhi: Oxford University Press. Yule, G. (2014). The Study of Language. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. 9.10 Reading List Aitchison, J. (1992). Teach Yourself Linguistics. London: Hodder & Sloughton. Chomsky, N. (1957). Syntactic Structures. The Hague: Mouton. Justice, P.W. (2004). Relevant Linguistics. Stanford, California: CSLI Publications. Verma, S.K. and Krishnaswami, N. (1997). Modern Linguistics: An Introduction. Delhi: Oxford University Press. Yule, G. (2014). The Study of Language. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. Answers to Task 1 and Review Questions. Task 1 The error is due to performance. The speaker may be aware of the verb conjugation but had failed to perform. 2. It is important to distinguish between competence and performance because it allows to differentiate between a not knowing something and a speech error. 7. For the two sentences, the Deep Structure is same. There is difference in the syntactic forms. So the Surface Structure is distinct. 8. All true. 10. a. P; b. P; c. P.

NSOU PGEL-7 99 Unit 10 Nature of Sentence-Deep Structure, Surface Structure 2 Structure 10.1 Introduction 10.2 Objectives 10.3 Deep Structure and Surface Structure of English Sentences 10.4 Nature of Sentences in the Context of a Language 10.5 More on Deep Structure 10.6 Conclusion 10.7 Review Questions 10.8 References 10.9 Reading List 10.1 Introduction In this unit we will try to find answers to some of the questions that came to our mind while reading the previous unit. We will discuss points with the help of examples. One crucial characteristic of traditional grammars that we read in school or college is that while prescribing rules, they look at sentences "as they appear" in speech or in writing. Transformation Generative grammar approaches sentences as they are constructed and interpreted in the mind. This is the basic motivation for positing the complementary levels of structuring sentences in terms of Deep and Surface structures. 10.2 Objectives After going through the unit, you will be able to— Learn on the nodes of parsing sentences Understand sentence analysis according to Deep Structure Work with Subject-Verb-Complement structures

NSOU PGEL-7 100 10.3 Deep structure and surface structure of English sentences Mathews (2007) describes deep structure as "a representation of the syntax of a sentence distinguished by varying criteria from its surface structure." For example, if we consider the surface structure of the following sentence, a. Children are hard to please. We note the following: - the subject is 'children' - the infinitive 'to please' is the complement of the adjective 'hard'. But in its deep structure, the word 'hard' would have as its subject a subordinate sentence in which children is the object of please. Therefore, the way we understand the constituents of the sentence is this: [to please children] is hard." We would understand the need for a deep structure representation if we bring in a sentence to compare with a similar structure. Let us look at both of them: a. Children are hard to please. b. Children are eager to please. What we see in the structural organization of the two sentences is that both of them have the same linear structure. In other words, both of them have the same sequence of constituents which is the following: [Subject Children] [be-verb are] [Adjective hard/eager] [Infinitive phrase to please] But the way we (who are standard users of English and who can intuitively judge English sentences as grammatically correct or incorrect) understand the two sentences are different. Our understanding of the meaning of the two sentences are the following: a. [To please children] is hard. b. Children are eager [to please someone]. Both the sentences have SVC structure i.e. both have three components in them, Subject-Verb-Complement. But the position of the infinitive phrase is asymmetric. Let us look at these two tables:

NSOU PGEL-7 101 Subject Verb Complement To please children is hard Subject Verb Complement Children are eager to please someone This is what we understand. But what we see on paper or what we hear are slightly different. Generative grammarians intend to focus their attention of sentential analysis on the level of understanding and not on the level of what is read or heard. To reinforce what was said, let us try to generate two different representations of this famous pair of sentences, originally constructed by Chomsky: c. John is easy to please. (Meaning "For someone to please John is easy.") d. John is eager to please. (Meaning "John is eager to please someone.") Task 1 : Looking at the two tables above, let us fill in the following table to understand the sentences given in italics above: Subject Verb Complement is Subject Verb Complement is We clearly note that both c and d have the same word order and the same sequence of grammatical constituents Subject-Verb-Adjective-Infinitive Phrase. But as the sentences in italics would indicate, their internal relations are different. That is because they have different deep structures. 10.4 Nature of sentence in the context of a language Burton-Roberts (2011) in Chapter 11 of his book Analysing Sentences: An Introduction to English Syntax raised the canonical question - What is a language? In answering the questions, he put forward two answers: - A language is a system of communication. - A language is a set of sentences.

NSOU PGEL-7 102 Needless to say, that we are quite familiar with the first statement. It is the second statement which lead us to thinking in a different or rather a new way. The author attributed the idea to Noam Chomsky who, according to him, "opened up a fruitful avenue of thought more interesting and accurate then any other idea around at the time". Ray Jackendoff, a renowned generative grammarian who has been following the tradition of inquiry and analysis since 1957, wrote in 2007 that the first chapter of Chomsky's Aspects of the Theory of Syntax (1965) was remarkable as it set the agenda for everything that has happened in next half a century. There were three theoretical pillars that supported the enterprise: mentalism, combinatoriality, and acquisition. A fourth major contribution of the Aspects of the Theory of Syntax is, that attracted most attention from the wider academic community, concerned the notion of Deep Structure. A basic claim of the 1965 version of generative grammar was that in addition to the surface form of sentences (the form we hear), there is another level of syntactic structure, called Deep Structure, which expresses underlying syntactic regularities of sentences. For example, if the following two sentences are considered, a. The bear was chased by the lion. b. The lion chased the bear. a passive sentence like (a) was claimed to have a Deep Structure in which the noun phrases are in the order of the corresponding active (b). Similarly, if a pair of an interrogative sentence and an assertive sentence is considered, c. Which martini did Harry drink? d. Harry drank that martini. It is understood that a question such as (c) was claimed to have a Deep Structure that closely resembles that of the corresponding declarative sentence in (d). Chomsky's Aspects of the theory of Syntax made the striking claim that the relevant level of syntax for determining meaning is Deep Structure, following a hypothesis first proposed by Katz and Postal (1964). This claim was only that regularities of meaning are most directly encoded in

NSOU PGEL-7 103 Deep Structure, and this can be seen in the above pairs of sentences. What encouraged generative grammarians to follow the idea of Deep Structure is that the techniques of transformational grammar could lead one to represent meaning in linguistic structures. This was a large step towards uncovering the nature of human thought. Generative grammarians argued that a number of grammatical operations take place in the Deep Structure. They are the following: - Semantic interpretation - a speaker understands the meaning of a sentence when s/he has access to the Deep Structure. - Assignment of grammatical relations - it is at the Deep Structure that the grammatical relations and subject and object are assigned to constituents. The fact that the meaning of 'The rat chased the cat' and 'The cat chased the rat' are different because they have DIFFERENT Deep Structures. On the other hand the meaning of 'The cat chased the rat' and 'The rat was chased by the cat' are the same because they have the SAME Deep Structure. In fact the semantic interpretation of a sentence is possible for the speaker because s/he intuitively understand the grammatical relations at the Deep Structure. - Insertion of lexical items to their grammatical frames - It is at the Deep Structure that the speaker intuitively recognizes the category features of a given lexical item (a word). In other words, every speaker intuitively knows if a word is a noun or an adjective or an article. If the syntactic structure is "the green tree", the speaker recognizes the word 'the' as an article/determiner, 'green' as an adjective and 'tree' as a noun. Having done this, the speaker then places them in the right order to understand the aspects of meaning such as, the referent is a tree, it is green in colour and the tree is a definite one. 10.5 More on the Deep Structure We must always keep in mind that Deep Structure is a level of mental representation - it was intended to be theoretical in nature. Of course, we have every right to ask, Why? The reason is, there are several mysteries in language and its structures which need adequate explanation from a grammarian. To elaborate, let us think about the following and ask, Why? - An active sentence and its passive counterpart have the SAME meaning. We know that. But can we explain, why it is so?

NSOU PGEL-7 104 - The Subject-Verb-Object/Complement relation in an affirmative sentence and its negative counterpart are the SAME. It has been observed, but it needed explanation. - The Subject-Verb-Object/Complement relation in an assertive sentence and its interrogative counterpart are the SAME. The grammar needs to explain this. Task 2 To confirm these 3 statements let us do a short exercise in steps. Step 1. Convert the following sentence into passive: - A. Uttamkumar gave a bouquet of flowers to Suchitra Sen. (Active) - B. _____ (Passive) Now if we compare the two sentences, we can answer the following questions: i. In A. who gave the bouquet of flowers? _____ ii. In A. who got the bouquet of flowers? _____ iii. In B. who gave the bouquet of flowers? _____ iv. In B. who got the bouquet of flowers? _____ Isn't it interesting that i and iii as well as ii and iv have the same answers? A grammarian needs to explain, why the answer is the same. Step 2 Let's look at the following two sentences and answer the questions - C. Amitava broke the window. (Assertive sentence) Make it into an interrogative sentence (ask a Yes-No question): D. _____ (Interrogative sentence) Now let's answer the following questions - i. In C, the action indicated by the verb is _____ ii. In C, the agent (who did the action) is _____

NSOU PGEL-7 105 iii. In C, the goal (which was affected by the action) is _____ iv. In D, the action indicated by the verb is _____ v. In D, the agent (who did the action) is _____ vi. In D, the goal (which was affected by the action) is _____ Again, what we notice here is that there is striking similarity between C and D. Just to confirm, please put a tick mark (?) next to the statements below: - i and iv have the same answer _____ - ii and v have the same answer _____ - iii and vi have the same answer _____ We are now in a position to deeply understand the rationale for constructing a level of representation called Deep Structure. It is a tentative explication of how a speaker understands the interrelations of the basic components of a sentence, regardless of the sentence types. If we look at A, B, C and D above we will reconfirm that the basic constituents of A and B are the same and those of C and D are also the same. Any standard speaker of English can confirm this without referring to a grammar. The grammar has to answer why they are the same. The answer now is that both A and B as well as C and D have the same Deep Structure. 10.6 Conclusion In this unit, we had a detailed discussion of the notion of Deep Structure and tried to understand how it is distinct from the Surface Structure of sentences. The examples showed us how the constituents of what we read and hear are understood differently from their mere surface appearances. 10.7 Review Questions 1. Analyse the Subject-Verb-Complement of the following: a. Flowers bloom. b. She closed her book. c. I and my brother have visited the gardens. 2. Discuss the Deep Structures from the following:

NSOU PGEL-7 106 a. Old table and chairs. b. The small boy chased the large dog. 3. Give two Surface Structures for the following: a. The dog saw the girl. b. The runner broke the world record. 4. Mention the type of sentences and their S-V-C. a. The sun is the brightest star in the universe. b. Do you think I should buy a school bag? c. He met them after a long time. d. This is not a correct approach. e. My grandmother tells me interesting stories. 5. Write three assertive sentences and discuss their multiple Deep Structures. 6. Write three affirmative sentences and their negative counterparts and analyse them into S-V-C. 7. Write the Deep structure representations for the following: a. The news is so good that it cannot be true. b. She is too tired to speak. c. He is the best boy in the class. d. She did not accept the proposal. e. We like pizza. 8. Write surface structures of the following pattern. Subject Verb Complement Object Verb Complement

NSOU PGEL-7 107 9. Give two surface structures for each of the following: a. Small boys and girls are on the play ground. b. The tourist saw the man with a telescope. c. The lady bumped into the man on the pavement with an umbrella. 10. Can a single Deep Structure be the source for many Structures? Why? 10.8 References Aitchison, J. (1992). Teach Yourself Linguistics. London: Hodder & Sloughton.

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NSOU PGEL-7 108 10.9 Reading List

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London: Pearson. Haegeman, L. and Gueron, J. (2006). English Grammar: A Generative Perspective. Oxford, UK: Blackwell Publishing. Jackendoff, R. (2007). Language, Consciousness, Culture: Essays on Mental Structure. Cambridge CA: MIT Press. Katz, J.J. and Postal, P.M. (1964). An Integrated Theory of Linguistic Descriptions. (Research Monographs, 26.) Cambridge, Massachusetts: MITPress.

NSOU PGEL-7 109 Unit 11 Transformation of Sentences 1 Structure 11.1 Introduction 11.2 Objectives 11.3 Writing conventions in syntactic analysis with rules 11.4 Phrase Structure Rules 11.5 Transformation Rules or T-rules 11.6 Conclusion 11.7 Review Questions 11.8 References 11.9 Reading List 11.1 Introduction We always associate grammar with rules. But what exactly are rules? Are they actually written anywhere? If yes, are they written in the same way in different sources? Can the same rule be written in different ways? Are rules exclusive entities or are they related to each other? In the context of grammar, if a sentence requires more than one rules to be used how should they be ordered? These are some of the fundamental questions that perpetually keep scholars engaged in new inquiries. The Transformational Generative Grammarians also sought answers to them. In their theoretical framework, they introduced various types of rules. A rule is nothing but an objective, explicit expression of some sort of generalization observed in the system of a language. Once expressed, it is expected to generate grammatically correct expressions attestable by the native speakers of the language. 11.2 Objectives After going through the unit, you will Know the conventions of rule writing Learn on Phrase Structure Rules (PS-rules) and generation of deep structures.

NSOU PGEL-7 110 Learn Transformational Rules (T-rules) and generation of surface structures. Understand how the PS-rules and T-rules work. 11.3 Writing conventions in syntactic analysis with rules Before we proceed further to discussing the rules, we need to acquaint ourselves with some of the conventions in syntactic rule writing. The use of abbreviations - it is commonly assumed that a student of syntax is familiar with the abbreviations of names of syntactic constituents. Some of the very frequent standard abbreviations are the following: S = Sentence NP = Noun Phrase VP = Verb Phrase AdjP = Adjective Phrase AdvP = Adverb Phrase PP = Preposition Phrase Art = Article Det = Determiner Aux = Auxiliary Use of an arrow (→) The symbol of arrow is conventionally read as "goes to" and understood as "consists of". For example, the expression in the PS- rule NP → Art N is read as "NP goes to Article and Noun" and understood as the Noun Phrase consists of an article and a noun. This rule describes the possible structure of a Noun Phrase. Use of brackets ( ) : A pair of first brackets are used to indicate an optional constituent in a phrase. For example, the PS-rule NP → Art (Adj) N is understood as the NP consists of an article, an adjective and a noun and among these three, the adjective is optional. This rule also describes the possible structure of a Noun Phrase. Use of brackets { } : A pair of second brackets are used to indicate that only one of the constituents inside it can be used at one time. For example, ∃

NSOU PGEL-7 111 the PS-rule Modal → {shall, will, can, could} is understood as only one of the 4 modals can be used within a verb phrase. Use of the symbol star (*): The star symbol is used to indicate that a syntactic construction is ungrammatical and hence not a sentence. For example, * The unfortunately bird could not fly rain due to. Tree-structures and its branches: The detailed labeled analysis of a sentence is called a Tree-structure and its parts are analogically called 'branches'. For example, the constituents of the sentence 'The chef cooks the soup' can be represented as the following: In this representation, the entire structure is called a 'tree'. Each part is called 'a branch'. We must note with care that each branch is actually a visual representation of a PS-rule. In this tree there are two branches which are identical - one in the left hand side and the other is in the right hand side: NP D N This is nothing but another representation of the same rule written as NP → D N and is understood as the Noun Phrase consists of a determiner and a noun. Let's also note that this branch is also seen in the same tree, two times, because the same rule has been applied two times to describe two different NPs - "the chef" and "the soup". One of the properties of rules is that they are "recursive" i.e. the same rule can be applied again and again. Task 1 Give the tree structures for the sentences:

NSOU PGEL-7 112 a. Peter works in Gujarat. b. She is very intelligent. c. We reached home. d. My last name is Jones. e. You are single. Your answer: 11.4 Phrase Structure Rules We mentioned in the previous unit that in the generative grammarians' analysis, the system of language consists of a finite set of rules that can generate an infinite number of sentences. With this in mind, let us see if we can identify a few rules of English language. Let us take a sentence, The dog saw a man in the park. If we draw a tree structure in the same manner as shown in the previous page, we will get the following: Now let us understand each of the branches of this tree with the help of the following statements. Task 2 Let's tick ( ) the box next to the statement as we understand the statement. 1. The dog saw a man in the park. - This is a sentence. It is represented by the capital letter S. 2. This sentence is made up of two parts - NP and VP. NP stands for Noun Phrase and VP stands for Verb Phrase. NP and VP are labels for constituents traditionally known as Subject and Predicate.

Rule S → NP VP NP → Det N VP → V NP NP → Det N PP PP → P NP NP → Det N Meaning of the rule The sentence is made up of an NP and a VP. The NP is made up of Determiner(article) and Noun. The VP is made up of V (verb) and an NP. The NP is made up of Determiner(article) a Noun and a PP (Prepositional Phrase). The PP is made up of a P (preposition) and an NP. The NP is made up of Determiner(article) and Noun. Sentence/part where it works [NP The dog] [VP saw a man in the park] [NP [Det the] [N dog] [VP [V saw [NP a man in the park]]] [NP [Det a [N man [PP in the park]]] [PP[Pin [NP the park]]] [NP [Det the] [Npark] Put if clear 3. NP (Noun Phrase) is made up of two constituents, Det and N. Det stands for Determiner (Article) and N stands for Noun. 4. VP (Verb Phrase) is made up of a Verb and another NP (Noun Phrase). This time this NP is the object of the sentence. 5. The object NP is made up of a Det, an N and a PP (Prepositional Phrase) 6. The PP is made up of a P (Preposition) and an NP. 7. The last NP is made up of a Det and an N. These statements are true observations of a grammatically correct English sentence. Are they rules? - No, they aren't. So where are the rules? A generative grammarian would say that the rules governing these statements are to be written in a specific manner which will reflect economy of expression i.e. written in a very short form, almost mimicking mathematical expressions. The following table gives the rules in formalized expressions and explains what each rule means. Task 3 Let's tick the last box as we understand the rule. Rule no. 1. 2. 3. 4. 5. 6.

Let's notice something very interesting here. The rule numbers 2 and 6 are identical - NP → Det N. It means the same PS-rule is applied twice in the sentence. The generative grammarians attribute this to a property of rules in general called Recursion. This property allows a particular rule to be applied any number of times to generate new sentences or sentential components. The purpose of the PS-rules is to generate the underlying Deep Structure of a sentence. In other words, a speaker of English, with his/her access to the Deep Structure of the sentence have understood the 7 statements listed above with the help of which s/he processes the meaning of the sentence which essentially requires him/ her to understand the interrelation of all the components of the sentence. Having accepted that the underlying Deep Structure represents the level of understanding of the grammatical and meaning content of a sentence, we need to explore how to reach the Surface Structure. It was proposed that a set of Transformational Rules or T-rules are responsible to generate the Surface Structure. 11.5 Transformation Rules or T-rules While the PS-rules generate the deep structure, they do so in a rather fixed manner in a specific word order which is often different from the word order of the Surface Structure. Let us look at the two sentences illustrated in the book The Study of Language by George Yule: a. Mary saw George recently. b. Recently Mary saw George. A native speaker of English would not see any difference either in the meaning or in the grammar or these two sentences. They are just the two different representations of the same content. The generative grammarian would like to account for this reality in terms of a rule, which is different in nature and operation from the PS-rules. This type of a rule is called a Transformation rule or T-rule. Its task is to generate the Surface Structure from the Deep Structure. The sentence in b above is generated through the T-rule of Adverbial Movement. The rule allows an adverbial to be moved from its original position (in the end of the sentence) to another position (in the beginning of the sentence) which the native speaker of English would approve as grammatical. This how we get the following: Mary saw George recently. → T-rule [Adv-Movement] → Recently Mary saw George.

This T-rule by default does not generate the following since it is ungrammatical by the judgment of a native speaker: *Mary saw recently George. Now to understand the process of transformation in other types of sentences let us consider another pair of sentences: c. The dog chased that girl. d. That girl was chased by the dog. A native speaker of English would say that both the sentences mean the same. In both the cases 'the dog' is the agent of the action 'chase' and 'that girl' is the patient, who bears the consequence of the action. Both of them hence have the same Deep Structure. Now the issue is to account for a different surface structure for the sentence in d. This is where a T-rules comes into operation. The relevant T-rule here is Passivization, which alters the phrase order of Subject NP 'the dog' and the object NP 'that girl', inserts an additional auxiliary 'was', internally changes the verb from past 'chased' to past participle 'chased', and introduces a preposition 'by' to carry the object NP. This entire description of grammaticality can be economically expressed as the following: The dog chased that girl. → T-rule [Passivization] → That girl was chased by the dog. As T-rules are held responsible for any changes in word order in the Surface Structure, we can look at one more process of Transformation. Let us look at the following pair of sentences now: e. That girl was chased by the dog. f. Was that girl chased by the dog. If we write the constituent order of e here as - [NP - Aux - V - PP] as we can see in the following tree,

We are surely in a position to see the change in the word order in f. It is [Aux - NP - V - PP]. What is the effect of this change? It transforms the assertive sentence in e into an interrogative sentence. A Transformation rule called Aux-inversion is responsible for this change. The operation now can be economically written as the following: That girl was chased by the dog. → T-rule [Aux-inversion] → Was that girl chased by the dog? To repeat, in this section we saw how three different types of T-rules can operate to transform one type of sentence to another. We will remember them as the following points: T-rule [Adv-movement] can change the position of an adverb in the sentence transforming one grammatical sentence to another. T-rule [Passivization] can transform an active sentence into a passive sentence. T-rule [Aux-inversion] can transform an assertive sentence into an interrogative sentence. 11.6 Conclusion In this unit, we discussed two types of rules used in the Transformational Generative Grammar, the PS-rules and the T-rules. The PS-rules are responsible for generating the Deep Structure of a sentence and the T-rules are responsible for transforming one sentence into another. Both the types of rules are abstractions of the inherent mental reality of a native speaker of English who judge grammatical sentences by his/her intuition and not by explicit knowledge of grammar. Before we proceed to the next unit, let us do this small activity: Task 5 List the new words (terminology) which need further clarification.

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_____ _____ Task 6 Write a few questions arising in the mind while reading the unit.

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NSOU PGEL-7 117 Task 7 Write 3 pairs of sentences to show the scope of 3 T-rules discussed in the unit: T-rule [Adv-movement] a. b. T-rule [Passivization] c. d. T-rule [Aux-inversion] e. f. 11.7 Review Questions Give the Tree diagrams for the following sentences: 1. She is my mother. 2. I have been to Singapore. 3. People want more money. 4. The girl in the blue dress in my student. 5. You may take something to read for a while. 6. She got the idea. 7. A moderately short programme. 8. Her English has really improved over the years. 9. The government has become more interested in science education. 10. The decision to study abroad was celebrated by his friends. 11.8 References Aitchison, J. (1992). Teach Yourself Linguistics. London: Hodder & Sloughton.

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NSOU PGEL-7 119 Unit 12 Transformation of Sentences 2 Structure 12.1 Introduction 12.2 Objectives 12.3 Active-passive transformation 12.4 Imperative transformation 12.5 Interrogative transformation through Sub-Aux Inversion 12.6 Interrogative transformation through Wh-movement 12.7 Topicalization transformation 12.8 Conclusion 12.9 Review Questions 12.10 References 12.11 Reading List 12.1 Introduction In this unit, we will try to consolidate our knowledge of Deep Structure, Surface Structure and Transformation of sentences through taking part in exercises. We will also study some of the structural conditions under which transformations can take place. 12.2 Objectives After going through the unit, you will be able to Understand transformation of sentences Learn on different types of transformations Learn to write PS-rules 12.3 Active-passive transformation In this subsection, we will see that we are able to apply what we learnt in the

NSOU PGEL-7 120 previous units in addressing some new issues related to the two types of rules. Here is a set of 10 sentences. Given on the right hand side column the PS-rules that generate the deep structure of each. Now let's try to answer the following questions: Task 1 a. What is the common type of all the sentences? b. Which of the following sentences can be transformed into passive sentences using the T-rule [Passivization]? Put or in the third column. c. What prevents the rule from working in the other cases? d. Which PS-rule is present in the sentences that can be passivized? e. Which PS-rule is present in the sentences that cannot be passivized? Sentence PS-rules Put or for Passivization 1. The dog chased the cat. S → NP VP NP → Det N VP → V NP 2. Snow White kissed Grumpy. S → NP VP NP → N VP → V NP 3. He loves them. S → NP VP NP → N VP → V NP (Pronoun is treated as N) 4. Betsy borrowed some money S → NP VP from Christopher. NP → (Q) N VP → V NP PP PP → P NP (Q stands for quantifier 'some')

NSOU PGEL-7 121 5. The team played badly. S → NP VP NP → Det N VP → V AdvP 6. The bank manager laughed. S → NP VP NP → Det N N VP → V 7. They have two children. S → NP VP NP → (Q) N VP → V 8. The duckling became a swan. S → NP VP NP → Det N VP → V 9. Someone mentioned that S → Comp NP VP you played basketball. NP → N VP → V NP(S) (Comp=Complementizer 'that' NP(S) means the object of the V is a sentence/clause.) 10. The police will arrest S → NP VP violent demonstrators. NP → Det (AdjP) N VP → V NP Before turning the page, let's write our answers here: a. _____ b. _____

c. _____ d. _____ e. _____ Now let's see if the answers tally with the following. If not, let's keep them for discussion in the contact classes. a. All the sentences are assertive and are in active voice. b. The sentences that can be transformed into passives are 1, 2, 3, 4, 9 and 10. c. In the other cases, that is in the sentences 5, 6, 7 and 8, the object NP is absent. Part of the operation of the T-rule [Passivization] is to move the object NP to the subject position of the passive sentence. In the absence of an object the T-rule cannot be applied. d. PS-rule present in the sentences that can be passivized is VP → V NP e. PS-rule present in the sentences that cannot be passivized is VP → V (AdvP) Reflecting more on the answers of d and e, we understand how a T-rule is dependent on the structure of the sentence or the PS-rules that constitute the sentence. 12.4 Imperative transformation Once we have developed an insight into the process of one type transformation of sentences it becomes easy to deal with the other types. If we are to generate the following surface structures— a. Close the door. b. Get well soon. c. Have a nice day. We need to first consider their deep structures, that is the way we understand them. Then the relevant T-rule can be applied to generate the surface structure in the following manner: a. YOU Close the door. → T-rule [Subject deletion] → Close the door. b. YOU Get well soon. → T-rule [Subject deletion] → Get well soon. c. YOU Have a nice day. → T-rule [Subject deletion] → Have a nice day. T-rule [Subject deletion] is an economic statement which makes it explicit what a native speaker of English knows implicitly about an imperative sentence - The subject of the imperative sentence is absent in the surface structure and it is understood

to be YOU by default in the deep structure. Just like the T-rule [Passivization], the T-rule [Subject deletion] is also structure dependent. We will be able to confirm that if we consider the following sentences. d. Be studying when I return! e. Be gone by daybreak! f. Have the dishes washed when I return! g. *Must close the door! h. *Will eat your vegetables! Clearly, d, e and f are imperative sentences and g and h are not. A generative grammarian would explain it saying that in g and h, the PS rule related to the VP is different. It is VP → Modal V NP and it poses a constraint to the application of the T-rule [Subject deletion]. This is an example of how the concepts of T-rule and PS- rule can clearly explain a new set of ungrammatical sentences. 12.5 Interrogative transformation through Sub-Aux Inversion Transformation rules account for changes in sentence types and the interrogative sentences (Yes/No-question types) are analyzed as results of application of T-Rule [Sub-Aux inversion]. The surface structure of the interrogative sentence a. Can I have another go? can be represented as the following: I can have another go. → T-Rule [Sub-Aux inversion] → Can I have another go? We notice that the deep structure of this sentence has the following order of constituents: [NP I][AUX can] [V have] [NP another go] The T-rule [Sub-Aux inversion] allows the Auxiliary 'can' to move towards the left-hand side of the subject NP "I". In generative grammar, both nouns and pronouns are treated as part of NPs.

Task 2 We need to apply this rule in the following set of sentences. Let's first get the Deep Structure word order and then apply the T-rule. We need to write the sentences on the line given below: b. Have you taken the trash out? Deep Structure order → T-rule [Sub-Aux inversion] → Surface Structure order _____ c. Are you leaving now? Deep Structure order → T-rule [Sub-Aux inversion] → Surface Structure order _____ d. Will you be OK? Deep Structure order → T-rule [Sub-Aux inversion] → Surface Structure order _____ e. Were you hurt in the accident? Deep Structure order → T-rule [Sub-Aux inversion] → Surface Structure order _____ f. Could I have forgotten my keys again? Deep Structure order → T-rule [Sub-Aux inversion] → Surface Structure order _____ 12.6 Interrogative transformation through Wh-movement Having understood the Surface Structure generation of Yes-No type of interrogatives, we would naturally be curious about the other types of questions, the Wh-type interrogatives. These questions are generated through three rules, T-rule [Wh-substitution], T-rule [Wh-movement] and T-rule [Sub-Aux inversion]. For example, the Surface structure of the sentence "Whom will you invite?" can be generated in the following manner: Deep Structure: You will invite someone. (This is how the content of the sentence is understood. The motivation for the question is the absence of information about the

object of the sentence.) Sequence of transformations: 1. You will invite someone. → T-rule [Wh-substitution] → You will invite whom. 2. You will invite whom. → T-rule [Wh-movement] → Whom you will invite. 3. Whom you will invite. → T-rule [Sub-Aux inversion] → Whom will you invite? Task 3 To make sure we understood the stages well, let us work out the 3 stages for the following pairs of Deep and Surface Structure representations. Deep Structure: You are going home now for some reason. Surface Structure: Why are you going home now? Sequence of transformations: 1. _____ 2. _____ 3. _____ Deep Structure: You are going to the venue sometime. Surface Structure: When are you going to the venue? Sequence of transformations: 1. _____ 2. _____ 3. _____ 12.7 Topicalization transformation Although in the last three subsections we saw that transformations change sentence types, we need to remain aware that transformation does not always change the sentence type. A sentence may retain its type (let's say assertive) but the speaker may intend to read just the information content of the sentence by giving more importance to one of its constituents. The point is, the sentence still remains grammatically correct by the judgment of a native speaker. Let's consider the following pair of sentences:

NSOU PGEL-7 126 Deep structure: Bill carried Mary. Surface Structure: Mary, Bill carried. Deep structure: I like Mary. Surface Structure: Mary, I like. This type of transformation is called Topicalization which allow a number of constituents to be moved to the front of the sentence or clause so that it gets more attention from the hearer. Following are a few more examples - I will not go into the valley of death. → T-rule [Topicalize PP] → Into the valley of death, I will not go. He is not intelligent. → T-rule [Topicalize AdjP] → Intelligent, he is not. I said Fred would go home, and he will go home. → T-rule [Topicalize VP] → I said that Fred would go home, and go home he will. Let us conclude this unit by doing a small task on our own. Let's do a Google- search of the following terms: Active passive truncated passive topicalization it-cleft wh-cleft Task 4 Let's now try to write the nature of transformation in the following sentences: a. The mice ate the pretzels. b. The pretzels were eaten by the mice. c. The pretzels were eaten. d. The pretzels, the mice ate. e. What ate the pretzels were the mice. f. What the mice ate were the pretzels. g. The mice are what ate the pretzels. h. It was the mice that ate the pretzels. i. It was the pretzels that the mice ate.

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_____ 12.8 Conclusion In this unit (unit 12) we discussed how transformation rules are applied to bridge the gap between the Deep Structure and Surface Structure of English sentences. Sufficient number of examples have been included and they were chosen keeping a wide range of variety in mind. In this entire module (Paper 7) we tried to develop our understanding of how Transformational Generative grammarians offered a new outlook into the syntactic structure of languages and how they endeavored to explain how syntactic structures are related to human undertraining in general. 12.9 Review Questions 1. Give theT-rule [Wh-movement]. a. Did Lily see someone? b. He has forgotten which problem he can solve how. 2. Give The T-rule [Wh-substitution]. a. You will invite him some day. b. They came for some reason. c. Her grandfather arrived by the metro. 3. Give the T-rule [Sub-Aux inversion]. a. They have been to Delhi. b. I could use my keys. c. Seema will listen to music. 4. Give examples of three sentences with T-rule [Subject-deletion].
NSOU PGEL-7 128 5. State the T-rule [Topicalize...] for the following: a. They came back running. b. She stayed at a hotel. c. We were in the classroom. d. I cook very well. 6. Give examples of five sentences with T-rule [Passivization]. 7. Write the PS-rules for the following. a. The boy is funny. b. The cat is in the kitchen. c. I ate the delicious cake. 8. What are the restrictions for passivization transformations? 9. State the type of transformation for the following: a. Have you met someone? b. He should come in the morning. c. I see those children. 10. Discuss the ways you may utilize the transformations and fundamentals of syntax for a language class. 12.10 References Aitchison, J. (1992). Teach Yourself Linguistics. London: Hodder & Sloughton.

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NSOU PGEL-7 130 Module 4 : Tree Diagrams Unit 13 Tree Diagrams - Parsing 1 Structure 13.1 Introduction 13.2. Objectives 13.3. Word and Sentence relationship 13.4. Different types of Phrases 13.5. Tree Diagrams 13.6. Use of Different Phrases in Real life 13.7. Summary 13.8. Review Questions 13.1 Introduction This module is about the grammatical system of the English Language, with specific attention to the syntactic structures. Unlike the previous three modules, here we will test our knowledge of the structures with the help of various types of exercises. We have already studied the syntactic structures that are instrumental in producing different phrasal, clausal and sentential patterns in the previous units. We will start with the exercises on categories and functions of syntactic units such as words and phrases. There will be tasks on the analysis of the nominal, verbal, adjectival, adverbial and prepositional structures. After the phrasal analysis, the module will discuss issues related to the clausal level, i.e. the English simple sentence and its components. There will be tasks on clause/sentence structures, modification patterns and combination of clauses. In this module, we will develop the skill of analyzing sentences and their parts. After the sentential parts, we will briefly address the sentential types such as actives, passives, negatives, interrogatives and imperatives. We will also analyze how different aspects of transitivity of the verb have important roles to play in the formation of sentences. Among other issues, we will examine structures related to the areas where majority of EFL learners of English make mistakes while using the language.

NSOU PGEL-7 131 13.2. Objectives After going through this unit, you will be able to: Understand the relation that exists between words and sentences Identify different types of phrases Analyse the components of different types of phrases Draw tree-diagrams on phrases. 13.3. Word and Sentence relationship In the initial stage we will explore the relationship between syntax, lexicon and semantics, in other words, between words, phrases, sentences and their meaning. It will start from the grammar of words and how they construct and constrain sentential as well as semantic forms at higher levels of linguistic organization. The fundamental idea is that the 'seed' of the sentence is in its words. If we know about words well, we will know about the sentences well. At a practical level, we will see how our knowledge of words guides us to write flawless sentences. 13.4. Different types of phrases Before we move on to the exercises, we need to remember the following crucial points: A noun phrase consists of one head noun (N) and it may have several modifiers such as an adjective (Adj), a determiner (Det) or a Quantifier (Q) An adjective phrase (AP) may have an intensifier such as 'very' in 'very good" and an AP is usually a modifier of the head noun (N) in a noun phrase (NP). It can also be a complement in a Verb Phrase (VP) A preposition phrase has a preposition (P) as its head and a noun phrase (NP) as its complement A verb phrase (VP) can have an Adverb as its modifier and an NP, PP or an AP as its complement. In our system of tree diagrams, the modifier generally appears on the left- hand side of the head and the complement appears on the right-hand side of the head.

NSOU PGEL-7 132 Exercise 1 A. Study the following words and try to classify them. Add other words to them to make possible parts of sentences (phrases). Accident Apartments Active Myself Western Throughout Intelligence Expensive Violence Newspaper Educational Theoretical Themselves Hospital Transport Environment Coffee Juice Milk Mathematics Atmosphere Linguistics Everybody Understanding Interesting Pictures Activities Trousers Committee Something Reasonable Constable Many Community Media Significant Much Representative Narrow-minded Hopelessly Absolutely Home-made Broken-hearted Dangerously Better Enough Knowledgeable Million Let us use the following table to organize our answers: I II II No. The word Its category A phrase using the word 1 Hospital Noun A nearby Covid hospital 2 Interesting Adjective Some interesting pictures 3 Many Quantifier Many famous teachers 4 Broken-hearted Adjective A broken-hearted supporter

NSOU PGEL-7 133 5 Media Noun The western media 6 Throughout Preposition Throughout my journey 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20 21 22 23 24 25 [Table 1] 13.5. Tree Diagrams Now let us draw tree structures according to the structural relations of the constituents. Five examples are given here, corresponding to the structures in 1-5 in table 1 above.

NSOU PGEL-7 134 A. A nearby Covid hospital NP Det Adj Noun Modifier Head noun | | | | A nearby Covid hospital This entire configuration is called a tree structure or a phrase marker. It shows the interrelation between the words, structurally as well as semantically. For example, this tree shows that the head noun hospital (the word which is of most significance in this phrase) is modified by three modifiers, a determiner (article), an adjective and a noun-modifier. A noun-modifier is a noun but it modifies another noun. B. Some interesting pictures NP Quantifier Adjective Head noun (N) | | | Some interesting pictures Here the head noun (N) is modified by a quantifier (Q) and an Adjective (Adj). In the next tree, let us use only the short forms. C. Many famous teachers NP Q Adj N | | | Many famous teachers

NSOU PGEL-7 135 D. A broken-hearted supporter NP Det Adj N | | | A broken-hearted supporter E. The western media NP Det Adj N | | | The western media F. PP Preposition NP | Throughout the journey We should now be able to draw the tree structures of the rest of our phrases from the column III of table 1. Let us use a separate sheet of paper or a notebook. Exercise 2 Let us try to identify structures similar to the ones we have done in exercise 1. Let us follow the simple steps: - Some word combinations are underlined in the following text.

NSOU PGEL-7 136 - Look at the tree structures used in the list following the text. - Identify which tree structure would correspond to which word combination. - Let us find out some new combinations too. 13.6 Use of Different types of phrases in real life NEW AIRLINE RULES Attendant: Welcome aboard Ala Carte Air, sir. May I see your ticket? Passenger: Sure. Attendant: You're in seat 12B. That will be $5, please! Passenger: What for? Attendant: For telling you where to sit. Passenger: But I already knew where to sit. Attendant: Nevertheless, we are now charging a seat locator fee of $5. It's the airline's new policy. Passenger: That's the craziest thing I ever heard. I won't pay it. Attendant: Sir, do you want a seat on this flight, or not? Passenger: Yes, yes. All right, I'll pay. But the airline is going to hear about this. Attendant: Thank you. My goodness, your carry-on bag looks heavy. Would you like me to stow it in the overhead compartment for you? Passenger: That would be nice, thanks. Attendant: No problem. Up we go, and done! That will be $10, please. Passenger: What? Attendant: The airline now charges a $10 carry-on assistance fee. Passenger: This is extortion. I won't stand for it. Attendant: Actually, you're right, you can't stand. You need to sit, and fasten your seat-belt. We're about to push back from the gate. But, first I need that $10. Passenger: No way!

NSOU PGEL-7 137 Attendant: Sir, if you don't comply, I will be forced to call the air marshal. And you really don't want me to do that. Passenger: Why not? Is he going to shoot me? Attendant: No, but there's a $50 air-marshal hailing fee. Passenger: Oh, all right, here, take the $10. I can't believe this. Attendant: Thank you for your cooperation, sir. Is there anything else I can do for you? Passenger: Yes. It's stuffy in here, and my overhead fan doesn't seem to work. Can you fix it? Attendant: Your overhead fan is not broken, sir. Just insert two quarters into the overhead coin slot for the first five minutes. Passenger: The airline is charging me for cabin air? Attendant: Of course not, sir. Stagnant cabin air is provided free of charge. It's the circulating air that costs 50 cents. Passenger: I don't have any quarters. Can you make change for a dollar? Attendant: Certainly, sir! Here you go! Passenger: But you've given me only three quarters for my dollar. Attendant: Yes, there's a change-making fee of 25 cents. Passenger: For cryin' out loud. All I have left is a lousy quarter? What the heck can I do with this? Attendant: Hang onto it. You'll need it later for the toilet. The tree structures: Write the phrase and complete the tree A. NP Your ticket Possessive N | | Your ticket

NSOU PGEL-7 138 B. VP Telling you V N (Pronoun) | | Telling you Now let us complete the rest of the tree structures. Please note that there can be more than one phrases that would fit into one tree structure. C. NP Det Adj N D. NP Det (possessive) N | | E. PP P NP | Possessive N | |

NSOU PGEL-7 139 F. NP Q N | | 13.7 Summary This unit provided us with the opportunity of drawing as well as handling phrase- level tree structures to represent the interrelation of their constituents. We have noticed that none of the trees in unit one represented a full simple sentence. We have come across four major types of phrases and have seen how they look when their constituents are accommodated into a tree structure. Before we proceed towards the next unit, let us write down our queries and problems here.

_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____ 13.8 Review Questions 1. What are the major parts of a language you are familiar with? 2. Are these parts connected to each other? 3. What do we understand by the term semantics? 4. Meaning, is it an integral part of the sentence or a word? 5. How are words related to sentences? 6. What rules govern the combination of words into sentences? 7. What are a group of words forming a meaningful unit called? 8. What are the different parts of such word groups? 9. Can you provide some of the labels that you have come across in this unit? 10.Why do we draw Tree diagram? 11.Can you find some phrases in these questions and draw tree diagrams?

NSOU PGEL-7 140 Unit 14 Tree Diagrams - Parsing 2 14.1 Introduction 14.2 Objectives 14.3 Activity 14.4 Parsed Sentences 14.5 Summary 14.6 Review Questions 14.7 Reading List 14.1 Introduction In the previous unit we saw how the word level constituents construct phrases. We got familiar with exercises of

different phrasal categories: Noun Phrase, Verb Phrase, Adjective Phrase, Adverbial Phrase and Prepositional Phrase.

With a fair amount of practice of analyzing the phrase structures with the help of tree diagrams, we will be able to appreciate some of the universal principles underlying the structures of phrases in all natural human languages. We will also be in a position to reflect upon differences in phrase structures among different languages such as English and Bengali or Hindi. This will naturally lead us towards theoretical understanding of structural variations or 'parameters'. In future, this will also help us understand some crucial issues related to Contrastive Analysis and Error Analysis, the two important frameworks to explore structural differences in languages and their impact on learning. Inside and outside our language classrooms we will be able to understand issues of learning difficulty and ease with this knowledge. 14.2 Objectives After going through the unit, you will be able to: Analyse structures of phrases Revise on the tree diagrams Have hands on experience on parsing

NSOU PGEL-7 141 14.3 Activity Exercise 1 We will now identify various types of phrases from the sentences of the following text and using tree structures, we will see how they construct sentences. In the text 1 that follows, a few simple sentences and a few clauses within sentences are underlined. Let us first read them within the text and then study them in isolation. Let us notice that they are parsed, i.e. their immediate constituents are split. Let us look at the labels and then we should try to label them on our own in a notebook. In the next stage, let us notice the tree structures. Text 1

Long, long ago there lived, in a village called Keejeejee, a woman whose husband died, leaving her with a little baby boy. She worked hard all day to get food for herself and child, but they lived very poorly and were most of the time half-starved. When the boy, whose name was 'Mvoo Laana, began to get big, he said to his mother, one day: "Mother, we are always hungry. What work did my father do to support us?" His mother replied: "Your father was a hunter. He set traps, and we ate what he caught in them." "Oho!" said 'MvooLaana; "that's not work; that's fun. I, too, will set traps, and see if we can't get enough to eat." The next day he went into the forestand cut branches from the trees, and returned home in the evening. The second day he spent making the branches into traps. The third day he twisted cocoanut fiber into ropes. The fourth day he set up as many traps as time would permit. The fifth day he set up the remainder of the traps. The sixth day he went to examine the traps, and they had caught so much game, beside what they needed for themselves, that he took a great quantity to the big town of Oongooja, where he sold it and bought corn and other things, and the house was full of food; and, as this good fortune continued, he and his mother lived very comfortably. But after a while, when he went to his traps he found nothing in them day after day.

Source: http://www.worldoftales.com/African_folktales/African_Folktale_44.html
NSOU PGEL-7 142 14.4 Parsed sentences a. [NPYour father] [VPwas [NPa hunter]]. b. [NPHe][VPset [NPtraps]]. c. [NP-ADVThe next day] [NPhe][VPwent [PPinto [NPthe forest]]]. d. [NP-ADVThe third day] [NPhe][VP[Vtwisted][NPcocoanut fiber][PPinto ropes]]. e. [NPHe and his mother][VPlived [AdvPvery comfortably]]. Now let us see how we can represent the same structures into tree diagrams. We can put a tick mark if we understood the tree to our satisfaction. If not we can write down what is not clear in the space provided next to the tree. A. S [ ] Put the tick here. NP VP Possessive N V NP | | | Your father was Det N | | a hunter
_____
_____ _____
_____
NSOU PGEL-7 143 B. S [ ] Put the tick here. NP VP N set NP | | He N | traps
_____
_____ _____
_____ C. S [ ] Put the tick here. NP (Adv) (O = Ordinal)
VP Det O N | | | N V PP The next day | | he went P NP | into Det N | | the jungle
NSOU PGEL-7 144
_____
_____ D. This time the tree will be empty i.e. the nodes will be there but not the words. Let us try to put the words. S [ ] Put the tick here. NP NP VP Det O N N V NP PP NM N P NP After writing the words at the end of the nodes, we need to tally them with the parsed sentence in d above. E. Now the words and the nodes will be given and we need to link with pencil the nodes with lines. S [ ] Put the tick here. NP VP NP Conj NP V AdvP N Pos N lived Modifier Adv and He his mother very comfortably
NSOU PGEL-7 145
_____
_____ _____ Exercise 2 To gain more confidence, let us try a few more trees analyzing the following clauses taken from the same text. The nodes are given below. We need to join the right nodes with the right nodes above them and the words below them. A. He went to examine the traps. S [ ] Put the tick here. NP VP N V VP Infinitive V NP Det N B.

The fifth day he set up the remainder of the traps.

S [ ] Put the tick here. NP(Adverbial)NP VP Det O N N V Particle NP Det Q Det N
_____
_____
NSOU PGEL-7 146 C. This good fortune continued. [ ] Put the tick here. S NP VP Det AdjP N V Adj
_____ D.

He took a great quantity to the big town of

Oongooja. S [ ] Put the tick here. NP VP N V NP PP Det Adj N P NP Det Adj N P N
_____ 14.4 Conclusion This unit challenged us to demonstrate that we understood the interrelation between words in the phrases and between phrases inside the sentences. To recall our earlier lessons in Module 1 Unit 1-4, we realized that each branching of trees is motivated by phrase structure rules. When we draw "S goes to NP VP" in a tree structure we actually represent the PSR (S → NP VP). Similarly, when each phrasal node branches out, it only shows what the constituents of the phrase are. In the next unit we will see that in many of the phrasal nodes, clauses can be accommodated, and this is due to the universal syntactic property of recursion.

NSOU PGEL-7 147 14.5 Review Questions Give the Tree Diagram for the following NPs. a) A glass of water. b) The window's unbreakable glass. c) Fine wines at very good prices. d) A really difficult life. e) Some strange experiences last week. f) Very interesting conversation. g) A lot of flu around at the moment. h) The thought of leaving you. i) The idea of marriage. j) The Queen's arrival. 14.6 Reading List Azar, B.S. and S. Hagen (2019). Fundamentals of English Grammar: Workbook. New York: Longman. (5th Edition).

NSOU PGEL-7 148 Unit 15 Tree Diagrams - Parsing 3 15.1 Introduction 15.2 Objectives 15.3 Exercises 15.4 Phrase Structure Rules 15.5 Conclusion 15.6 Review Questions 15.7 Reading list 15.1 Introduction Next, the discussions will concentrate on the clausal and sentential levels. It is a good idea that we revise our previous lessons once more to be able to confidently draw the tree structures out of the following sentences which are parsed but without labels. The labels are given in the form of PS-rules next to the sentences and all we have to do is to represent them using a tree structure. One sentence is illustrated fully. Let's see how PS-rules are branched out in the tree. 15.2 Objectives After going through the unit, you would have; Revised the previous lessons of the module. Practised on tree diagrams. Worked with PS rules. 15.3 Exercises Exercise 1 The specialty of this exercise is that in each sentence there is another sentence (clause) embedded. The embedded clause is labeled as S too. In the embedded S the same PS rule S → NP VP is applied. This property in syntax is called recursion. a. [[I] [don't know] [whether [we][really][need][a new car.]]]

NSOU PGEL-7 149 PS Rule Representation in Tree S → NP VP S [ ] Put the tick it is clear. NP VP | NP → N N VP → V S1 V S1 | V → don't know don't know S1 → Comp S2 Comp S2 (see next page) Comp → whether whether S2 S2 → NP VP NP VP | NP → N N | N → we we VP → Adv V NP Adv V NP Adv → already already Det Adj N V → need need NP → Det Adj N Det → a a Adj → new new N → car car

NSOU PGEL-7 150 15.4 Phrase Structure Rules Exercise 2 Now, only the PS rules are given next to the sentences. Let us draw the trees step by step. Once more, each ' indicates a new branching in a tree. b. [We regret][that [the plan][is [impracticable.]]]] S → NP VP VP → V S1 S1 → Comp S2 Comp → that S2 → NP VP NP → Det N Det → the N → plan VP → V AdjP V → is AdjP → Adj Adj → impracticable c. [Mary [told [him]]] [how brave [he was].] S → NP VP NP → N N VP → V NP S2 V → told NP → N N → him S2 → NP VP

NSOU PGEL-7 151 NP → N N → he VP → V AdjP V → was AdjP → Modifier Adj Modifier → how (very) Adj → brave d. They accept the theory that the group proposed. S → NP VP NP → N N → They VP → V NP S (This S is a relative clause.) V → accept NP → Det N Det → the N → theory S → that the group proposed. Let us note that an S (clause) inside a sentence can be represented with a triangle too, for example: VP V NP S | Accept Det N | | the theory that the group proposed

NSOU PGEL-7 152 e. Mohua has a friend whose sister still lives in Ladakh. S → NP VP NP → N N → Mohua VP → V NP S1 (S1 here is a relative clause to be shown under a triangle.) V → has NP → Det N Det → a N → friend S → whose sister still lives in Ladakh f. While he was travelling, he contracted jaundice. S → S1 (Adverbial Clause) NP VP S1 → While he was travelling (Show it under a triangle.) NP → N N → he VP → V NP V → contracted NP → N N → jaundice g. Kristy went out and she forgot to switch off the gas fire. S → S1 Conj S2 Conj → and S1 → NP VP

NSOU PGEL-7 153 NP → N N → Kristy VP → V V → went out (a composite verb and not a V+Adv) NP → N N → she VP → V NF-Cl (Non-finite clause) V → forgot NF-Cl → to switch off the gas fire (Can be written under a triangle.) h. We know that Dr. Ghosh wrote many poems but he threw them away. S → S1 S2 S1 → NP VP NP → N N → We S2 → Comp S1 Conj S2 Comp → that Conj → but S1 → NP VP NP → N N → Dr. Ghosh VP → V NP V → wrote NP → Q N Q → many N → poems

NSOU PGEL-7 154 S2 → NP VP NP → N N → he VP → V NP Adv V → threw NP → N N → them Adv → away. i. I will come when I am ready. S → S1 S2 (S2 is an adverbial clause) S1 → NP VP NP → N N → I VP → Modal V Modal → will V → come S2 → when I am ready (it can be written under a triangle). j. They danced where they conducted the party. S → S1 S2 (S2 is an adverbial clause) S1 → NP VP NP → N N → they VP → V V → danced S2 → where they conducted the party (S2 can be written under a triangle).

NSOU PGEL-7 155 15.5 Conclusion In this unit on tree diagrams, parsing was done mainly to focus on how to represent embedded clauses i.e. clauses which are accommodated within a matrix sentence. The phrase markers (tree structures) gave us an idea of how the property of recursion works inside the structure of sentences. We have noticed that the same PS-rules keep appearing and reappearing in making newer sentential structures. 15.6 Review Questions A. Give the tree diagrams for the following VPs. a) She opened the door. b) Do not walk on the grass. c) I am looking forward to seeing you again. d) I have read your email. e) I am waiting for the post office to open. B. Give the PS Rules for the following a) My father and I once made a boat. b) We think it is not possible. c) We went to the city last month. d) I usually watch a movie on Saturday afternoons. e) Ann is in the garden. 15.7 Reading List Azar, B.S. and S. Hagen. (2019). Fundamentals of English Grammar: Workbook. New York: Longman. (5th Edition) Biber, D., S. Conrad and G. Leech. (2003). Longman Student Grammar of Spoken and Written English. London: Longman. Gramley, S. and K. Patzold. (2004). A Survey of Modern English. London & New York: Routledge. Greenbaum, S. (2013). An Introduction to English Grammar. London: Routledge.

NSOU PGEL-7 156 Unit 16 Practical Tasks 16.1 Introduction 16.2. Objectives 16.3 Exercises 16.4 Conclusion 16.5 References and Reading List 16.1 Introduction The exercises in this unit are meant exclusively for the Contact Programme where the resource person will demonstrate, either in a real class or in an online class how to draw the trees flawlessly step by step. To maintain consistency, all the sentences are collected from the previous lessons. It is expected that we complete reading the lessons so that we understand the rationale of taking decisions while we are drawing the trees. These exercises will also ensure that we have developed confidence in analyzing structures that have been discussed in the entire course (Paper 7). Let us try to draw tree diagrams of some of the sentences that have been used to demonstrate lessons in the modules 1-3. Let us observe the following sets of sentences, take note of the main nodes given as clues next to the sentences and try to complete the trees in a notebook ahead of the contact classes: 16.2 Objectives After going through the unit you will be able to: Draw tree diagrams on kernel sentences. Draw tree diagrams on transformations. Learn how to transfer strings into tree structures. 16.3 Exercises Exercise 1 a. Mr. Jatin Pal, who lives in my locality, is the MLA of our constituency.

NSOU PGEL-7 157 S NP VP N S (relative clause) PP P NP b. His whole family went on a holiday to Mandarmoni, which is in East Midnapur district. S NP VP Adj N V PP S (Relative clause) c. Priyanka, whose mother is a school principal, is very knowledgeable in online learning. S NP VP N S (Relative clause) V PP AdjP d. The New Market, which was an icon of Calcutta city, has now lost its glory because of the modern shopping malls and multiplexes. S NP VP N S (Relative clause) V PP AdjP Conj. Adv. Exercise 2 Each of the following sentences is ambiguous. After reading unit 8, let us try to draw 2 tree structures for each sentence to show that these sentences can actually lend themselves to two interpretations. A clue is given with each sentence. a. Didi hit a policeman with an umbrella. (PP with VP or NP) b. Flying planes can be dangerous. (Adj-NP or V-NP) c. The parents of the bride and the groom were waiting.(P-NP-Conj-NP) d. Small dogs and cats are all over the place. (NP-Conj-NP) e. They are watching dogs. (V-NP or Adj-NP)

NSOU PGEL-7 158 Exercise 3 After reading unit 11 once more, let us draw a tree structure for the sentence. The dog saw a man in the park and try to transfer the following strings into branches of a tree structure: 1. [NP The dog] [VP saw a man in the park] 2. [NP [Det the] [N dog] 3. [VP [V saw [NP a man in the park]] 4. [NP [Det a [N man [PP in the park]]] 5. [PP [P in [NP the park]]] 6. [NP [Det the] [N park] Exercise 4 After reading unit 12 once more let us try to draw the tree structures of the following sentences. This time no clues are given hoping that we are confident to handle trees on our own. Of course, we have the liberty to look at the relevant PS- rules given next the sentences in unit 12. 1. The dog chased the cat. 2. Snow White kissed Grumpy. 3. He loves them. 4. Betsy borrowed some money from Christopher. 5. The team played badly. 6. The bank manager laughed. 7. They have two children. 8. The duckling became a swan. 9. Someone mentioned that you played basketball. 10. The police will arrest violent demonstrators.

NSOU PGEL-7 159 Exercise 5 Each of the following sentences is a product of a transformation. Let us recall that transformation applies on a kernel sentence. Draw the tree structures of the kernel sentences that underlie the following sentences. a. Close the door gently. b. Get well soon. c. Have a nice day. d. Can I have another go? e. Have you taken the trash out from the sitting room? f. Are you leaving now? g. Will you be OK? h. Were you hurt in the accident? i. Could I have forgotten my car keys again? j. When are you going to the venue? k. Into the valley of death, I will not go. 16.4 Conclusion As potential or practising teachers of English, it is hoped that this module based on the exercises has enabled us to demonstrate the following attributes which are relevant in our classrooms and in monitoring students' progress in learning: Adequate control of English Language grammar, Communicate basic concepts, theories and ideas represented through tree structures, Handle simple specific tasks related to parsing in tree diagrams, Demonstrate knowledge and understanding of fundamental concepts and ideas in specific phrase and clause types, and Retrieve information efficiently from previously read sources, To conclude, we must keep in mind that making mistakes is an essential step to

NSOU PGEL-7 160 learning and acquiring knowledge. We need not be over-sensitive about making mistakes while working out the exercises. The subject lecturer is always with us, just an e-mail away. 16.5 References and Reading List Azar, B.S. and S. Hagen. (2019). Fundamentals of English Grammar: Workbook. New York: Longman. (5th Edition) Biber, D., S. Conrad and G. Leech. (2003). Longman Student Grammar of Spoken and Written English. London: Longman. Gramley, S. and K. Patzold. (2004). A Survey of Modern English. London & New York: Routledge. Greenbaum, S. (2013). An Introduction to English Grammar. London: Routledge. Murphy, R. (2012). English Grammar in Use. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. Quirk, R. and S. Greenbaum (2002). A University Grammar of English. Essex: ELBS. O'Brian, E. (2012). Sentence Diagramming Exercises: An Introduction to Sentence Diagramming. Amazon: Elizabeth O'Brian. Swan, M. (2014). Practical English Usage. Oxford: OUP. Sinclair, J. (ed.) (2017). Collins Cobuild English Grammar, Glasgow: HarperCollins. Verma, S.K. and Krishnaswami, N. (1997). Modern Linguistics: An Introduction. Delhi: Oxford University Press. Wardhaugh, R.(2003). Understanding English Grammar. Oxford: Blackwell Publishing.

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different phrasal categories: Noun Phrase, Verb Phrase, Adjective Phrase, Adverbial Phrase and Prepositional Phrase.

different phrasal categories; noun phrase (NP), verb phrase (VP), adjective phrase (AdjP), adverb phrase (AdvP) and a prepositional phrase (

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16/18 **SUBMITTED TEXT**   244 WORDS   **96%**   **MATCHING TEXT**   244 WORDS

Long, long ago there lived, in a village called Keejeejee, a woman whose husband died, leaving her with a little baby boy. She worked hard all day to get food for herself and child, but they lived very poorly and were most of the time half-starved. When the boy, whose name was 'Mvoo Laana, began to get big, he said to his mother, one day: "Mother, we are always hungry. What work did my father do to support us?" His mother replied: "Your father was a hunter. He set traps, and we ate what he caught in them." "Oho!" said 'MvooLaana; "that's not work; that's fun. I, too, will set traps, and see if we can't get enough to eat." The next day he went into the forestand cut branches from the trees, and returned home in the evening. The second day he spent making the branches into traps. The third day he twisted cocoanut fiber into ropes. The fourth day he set up as many traps as time would permit. The fifth day he set up the remainder of the traps. The sixth day he went to examine the traps, and they had caught so much game, beside what they needed for themselves, that he took a great quantity to the big town of Oongooja, where he sold it and bought corn and other things, and the house was full of food; and, as this good fortune continued, he and his mother lived very comfortably. But after a while, when he went to his traps he found nothing in them day after day.

Long, long ago there lived, in a village called Keejee'jee, a woman whose husband died, leaving her with a little baby boy. She worked hard all day to get food for herself and child, but they lived very poorly and were most of the time half-starved. When the boy, whose name was 'Mvoo' Laa'na, began to get big, he said to his mother, one day: "Mother, we are always hungry. What work did my father do to support us?" His mother replied: "Your father was a hunter. He set traps, and we ate what he caught in them." "Oho!" said 'Mvoo Laana; "that's not work; that's fun. I, too, will set traps, and see if we can't get enough to eat." The next day he went into the forest and cut branches from the trees, and returned home in the evening. The second day he spent making the branches into traps. The third day he twisted cocoanut fiber into ropes. The fourth day he set up as many traps as time would permit. The fifth day he set up the remainder of the traps. The sixth day he went to examine the traps, and they had caught so much game, beside what they needed for themselves, that he took a great quantity to the big town of Oongoo'ja, where he sold it and bought corn and other things, and the house was full of food; and, as this good fortune continued, he and his mother lived very comfortably. But after a while, when he went to his traps he found nothing in them day after day.

W   http://www.worldoftales.com/African_folktales/African_Folktale_44.html

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17/18 **SUBMITTED TEXT**   11 WORDS   **100%**   **MATCHING TEXT**   11 WORDS

The fifth day he set up the remainder of the traps.

The fifth day he set up the remainder of the traps.

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18/18 **SUBMITTED TEXT**   11 WORDS   **100%**   **MATCHING TEXT**   11 WORDS

He took a great quantity to the big town of

he took a great quantity to the big town of

W   http://www.worldoftales.com/African_folktales/African_Folktale_44.html

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1 PREFACE In the curricular structure introduced by this University for the students of Post- Graduate degree programme, the opportunity to pursue Post-Graduate course in a subject is equally available to all learners. Instead of being guided by any presumption about ability level, it would perhaps stand to reason if receptivity of a learner is judged in the course of the learning process. That would be entirely in keeping with the objectives of open education which does not believe in artificial differentiation. I am happy to note that this university has been recently accredited by National Assessment and Accreditation Council of India (NAAC) with grade 'A'. Keeping this in view, the study materials of the Post Graduate level in different subjects are prepared on the basis of a well laid-out syllabus. The course structure combines the best elements in the approved syllabi of Central and State Universities in respective subjects. It has been so designed as to be upgradable with the addition of new information as well as results of fresh thinking and analysis. The accepted methodology of distance education has been followed in the preparation of these study materials. Co-operation in every form of experienced scholarship is indispensable for a work of this kind. We, therefore, owe an enormous debt of gratitude to everyone whose tireless efforts went into the writing, editing, and devising of a proper layout of the materials. Practically speaking, their role amounts to an all-out involvement in 'layout of the materials and an involvement in 'invisible teaching', as well. For, whoever makes use of these study materials would virtually derive the benefit of learning under their collective care without each being seen by the other. The more a learner would seriously pursue these study materials, the easier will it be for him or her to reach out to larger horizons of a subject. Care has also been taken to make the language lucid and presentation attractive so that they may be rated as quality self-learning materials. If anything remains still obscure or difficult to follow, arrangements are there to come to terms with them through the counselling sessions regularly available at the network of study centres set up by the University. Needless to add, a great deal of these efforts is still experimental—in fact, pioneering in certain areas. Naturally, there is every possibility of some lapse or deficiency here and there. However, these do admit of rectification and further improvement in due course. On the whole, therefore, these study materials are expected to evoke wider appreciation the more they receive serious attention of all concerned. Professor (Dr.) Subha Sankar Sarkar Vice-Chancellor First Print : March, 2022 Printed in accordance with the regulations of the Distance Education Bureau of the University Grants Commission. Netaji Subhas Open University Post Graduate Degree Programme M A in English Language Teaching (PGEL) Course Code : PGEL- 8

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English as Language of Empowerment : Opportunities and Survival Module

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Sohini Dutta 3 9–12 Sohini Dutta Dr S Bandyopadhyay Assistant

English as Language of Empowerment : Opportunities and Survival Module-1 : English as a Second Language Unit 1 History of English in India (1600-1947) 9-22 Unit 2 Status of English 23-36 Unit 3 Distinctions Between SL and FL 37-48 Unit 4 Spread of English- Post Independence to Present Day 49-60 Module-2 : English for Specific Purposes Unit 5 Opportunities for Using English in India (Travel, Tourism & Trade) 61-75 Unit 6 Opportunities for Using English in India (Education, Employment and Social Mobility) 76-89 Unit 7 Varieties of English with emphasis on Indian Varieties (Speaking + Writing) 90-103 Unit 8 Place of English in Education 104-111

Module-3 : English for Official Purposes Unit 9 English Loan words in Indian languages (Bangla) 112-122 Unit 10 Code Mixing & Code Switching 123-130 Unit 11 English in Mass Media (Radio, Television, Newspaper) 131-139 Unit 12 English for Official & Professional Purposes 140-149 Module-4 : Practical Work and Case Studies Unit 13 Performance Execution (Writing & Speaking) 150-166 Unit 14 Business Communication Skills 167-175 Unit 15 Case Studies on Resource Management 176-181 Unit 16 Case Studies on Writing Skills 182-191

PGELT-8A : Elective paper Course Title: English as Language of Empowerment : Opportunities and Survival

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NSOU ? PGELT-8A 9 MODULE-1 : ENGLISH AS A SECOND LANGUAGE Unit 1 History of English in India (1600-1947) Structure 1.1 Objectives 1.2 Introduction 1.3 History 1.4 Charter Act of 1813 and the Beginning of State Intervention in Education 1.5 Oriental Occidental Controversy in Indian Education 1.6 Macaulay's Minute (1835) 1.7 The Charter of 1833 and after 1.8 Other Milestones up to 1947 1.9 Summary 1.10 Review Questions 1.11 References and Reading List 1.1 Objectives This unit has been designed to serve the following purposes: i. To take into account how the East India Company's stand shifted from maintaining neutrality to spread of English education; ii. To trace the foundation of English teaching and learning in India; iii. To evaluate the establishment, diffusion and gradual development of a stable foundation of English teaching and learning; and

10 NSOU ? PGELT-8A iv. To give an account of the British contribution to the spread of English in India. 1.2 Introduction The unit provides a broad overview of the introduction of English education in the colonised India. Though there were strong recommendations to implement the grant-in- aid system (Charles Wood 1854), the major responsibility was taken up by the Christian missionaries. They established schools which were popularly called 'convent schools' and used rigorous methods of teaching English. There were different approaches to education that co-existed in India along with a fair share of indigenous learning methods. The period from 1600-1947 has witnessed many landmarks in English education in India and this unit will unfold these in a chronological manner. 1.3 History The story of English in India is not so simple as to be explained in easy terms like "the British came, colonized, and imposed their language" (Graddol, 2010:62). Rather it is actually more complicated. Portuguese, Dutch, French, Spanish and Danish missionaries came to India since Vasco de Gama paved the path in 1498. They came in the form of Christian Missionary, started schools as the Centre for spreading their religious message. Their only aim was conversion. But the British arrived in India in the early 17 th century in the in the form of East India Company. Initially they were more interested in trade than imperial power. But gradually the situation changed with renewal of the Company's Charter. The Company's main activities shifted from trading to ruling India. Because of this shift in interest the Company was entrusted with the tremendous task of educating a section of the subjects to be appointed for manning their offices in India. Amidst much debate and discussions English established itself as both medium of instruction and a subject of study. Task 1 Pre-test for self-evaluation i. When did the missionaries come to India? Why did they come? ii. How much important is the battle of Plasseyin the social and cultural history of India? iii. Which period can be considered 'pre-colonial' period?

iv. What was the role of 'indigenous education' in India? v. In which year did Vasco de Gama land in South India? vi. What was the aim of the earliest missionaries who came to India immediately after Vasco de Gama? vii. What initiative did the East India Company take for better understanding between the Company and the people? viii. Why did the East India Company try to maintain neutrality in interfering cultural and social life of the subjects? ix. What is the significance of Charter of 1813? x. What was the purpose of the missionary societies which came after 1813? xi. What is Macaulay's minute? xii. How did the systematic state education system develop? xiii. What is the significance of Wood's Despatch? Task 2 Read the following passage and try to imagine what might follow this: The end of the Mughal period witnessed general disorder in the country. Educational institutions were forced to close down because of the conditions in the country and the lack of support for their maintenance. The Hindu system of education and its institutions which had continued to function during the period of the Muslim rulers, inspite of efforts to close them down, had to do so now because of the general disturbances in the country. … The Moghuls and the British co-existed for a time at the helm of affairs in India, and the former actually entrusted the task of collecting land revenue to the East India Company only in 1765, which can be considered the starting point of British administration in India. (Ramachandran, P and Ramkumar,V :Education in India, NBT, 2005. Pp-48-50) Task 3: Preview of Milestones in English Education in India under British Rule (1600-1813) Choose the point/points that you consider to be important in the origin and development of English in India. Arrange them in chronological or spatial order to note

down gradual development of English education in India. You may add points of your own. i. During the pre-colonial period (mid 1700s to the beginning of 1800s) indigenous education flourished in India. The purpose of such education was deeply rooted in religion. It was spiritual in nature. ii. While indigenous education flourished, the East India Company had been functional, but it was not interested in education since its primary concern was trade. iii. Tols and chandimandaps (in Bengal), pathsalas(in western India), pyols (in South India), chatuspaties (in Bihar) were schools for the Hindus. Sanskrit was the medium for studying scriptures under the supervision of Brahmin pundits.What was Sanskrit to the Hnidus, were Arabic and Persian to the Muslims. In maktabas and madrassas, Muslim children were taught under the guidance ofmaulivies. iv. While education was sharply divided for the Hindus and the Muslims, a few missionary schools came up for the purpose of conversion. The medium was different depending upon the patrons, place of operation, and the need of the situation. v. Portuguese Missionaries concentrated on Bombay, Goa, Daman and Diu, Chittagong and Hooghly. Children of the converted families were taught Portuguese and local language, Christianity and Arithmetic. Later the Portuguese were overpowered by the British. The Dutch set up schools in Chinsura,Hooghly, and Nagapattinam in South India. They also established a college in Ceylon (today's Sri Lanka). But their goal was not proselytisation. Like the Portuguese, the Dutch efforts faded away. The French set upkuthies in Pondicherry, Yanam and Karaikal in South India, and Sreerampore in Bengal. In their schools French and Christianity were compulsory subjects. Local languages were also allowed. With the British attack the French endeavour was withdrawn. vi. In the Charter of 1698, a clause was inserted for engaging ministers of religion at the Company's factories. For this almost every ship brought a Chaplain. The goal was to spread Christianity among the employees of the Company. As a consequence many charity schools were established and English began to enjoy

NSOU ? PGELT-8A 13 a special status, in limited sphere, as a medium of instruction. So missionary activities ran side by side with Company's new attempts. vii. From the early 1700s, the situation changed considerably. Attempts were made for imparting proper education, as opposed to 'Christian' education. The aim was to promote better understanding between the Company and the people. Missionaries who took up educational activities in India since 1702 promoted the use of English. Zieganbalg, Kiernander and Schwartz set up schools in South India to teach the Gospel in the vernacular and also in English. They opened a printing press and an institution for training the teachers. The credit of Kiernander lies in founding schools in Madras and printing press in Bengal. Schwartz established a school in Trichy around 1772 and an English Charity School in Tanjore. viii. Famous among the missionaries who worked for Bengal towards the end of the 18 th century were known as Serampore-trio. This group includes Dr. Carey, a great propagandist; Ward, a printer; and Marshman, a school teacher. ix. What the missionaries did was significant both in quantity and quality. Although, with the best of their efforts, they could touch only a very small part of the population, they made significant contribution. They introduced printing press in India and promoted printing of books in Indian languages. Along with this, they also made English popular among the Indians by promoting its use. x. As soon as the Company emerged as the political and administrative force in the second half of the 18 th century, the Company began to maintain neutrality with regard to religious and social affairs of its subjects. They decided not to interfere with the traditional cultures of the people. As a result the Company no longer supported the religious goal of the missionaries since the Company was apprehensive that conversion might offend the common lot. So they started to discourage the missionary activities and it was a shocking set-back for the missionaries. xi. But in England, William Wilberforce, Charles Grant and others raised their voice for the revival of missionary pursuits in India. Charles Grant, a junior Officer in British East India Company, drafted the original proposal for mission in 1786- 87. He sought for neither money nor manpower, but an official endorsement of the Company. The situation turned so much that an agitation brewed against the East India Company. The Company was held responsible for opposing

14 NSOU ? PGELT-8A Christianity and neglecting the education of the Indians.As a consequence, Company's Charter was renewed in 1813 and a new clause was incorporated. Clause 43 of the Charter of 1813 stated that

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a sum of one lac of rupees in each year shall be setapart and applied to the revival of literature and education of the

Indians.This marks the beginning of the State system of education in India under the British Rule. Tasks 4 a. What was the pre-colonial period? b. What sort of education flourished during the pre-colonial period? c. What was the purpose of indigenous education of that period? d. Was there any religious bent in education? How do you come to know? e. What were the schools for the Hindus? What was taught there? f. What were the schools for the Muslims? What was taught there? g. Why were missionary schools set up? h. Where did Portuguese missionaries establish their schools? What did they teach there? i. How was the Dutch different from the Portuguese in their mission? j. Where did the French establish their kuthies? What were the compulsory subjects there? k. What new clause was inserted in the Charter of 1698? What was its immediate consequence? l. When did English begin to enjoy a special status? m. What significant changes did take place from early 1700s? n. What role did Serampore-trio play? o. How did the East India Company begin to change its role after 1757? (Clue: Company rule in India started in 1757, after the battle of Plassey – began to maintain neutrality – withdrew support from the missionaries, etc.) p. What was the impact of withdrawal of support from the missionaries? q. Why was a new clause (Clause 43) inserted in the Company's Charter of 1813?

NSOU ? PGELT-8A 15 1.4 Charter Act of 1813 and the Beginning of State Intervention in Education Let us go through what Clause 43 of the Charter Act of 1813 states:

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It shall be lawful for the Governor General-in-Council to direct that out of any surplus which may remain

of the

rents, revenues, and profits arising from the said territorial acquisitions, after defraying the expenses of the military, civil, and commercial establishment and paying the interest of the debt, in manner hereinafter provided, a sum of not less than one lac of rupees in each year shall be set apart and applied to the revival and improvement of literature and encouragement of the learned natives of India and for the introduction and promotion of a knowledge of the sciences among the inhabitants of the British territories in India.

Task 5: Now, try to interpret the Charter in the light of the following: i. The Charter shows the commitment of the Company as well as the British Government. ii. Thanks to the zeal of Grant and Wilberforce, for the first time in India the State intervened and agreed to spend a sum of rupees one lac for literature and learning. iii. The objectives are threefold:

revival and improvement of literature, the encouragement of learned natives in India, and the introduction and promotion of knowledge of science among the inhabitants of the British territories in India.

iv. Does the Charter specify any method to achieve the goal? v. What do you consider to be inevitable outcome of the vague clause? 1.5 Oriental Occidental Controversy in Indian Education The surplus 'territorial' revenues accrued in the year 1821 and it gave rise to the question of utilization of the fund. Holt Mackenzie, the Secretary to the Government in the Territorial Department, extended his support to both oriental and European education. He suggested that the fund should be utilized chiefly for the instruction of those who would themselves be teachers, translators or compiler of useful books. At his suggestion

16 NSOU ? PGELT-8A a General Committee of Public Instruction was formed. This Committee was very much in favour of promoting classical literature. As a result Sanskrit College was set up in Calcutta in 1824 and Calcutta Madrassa was reorganized. Sanskrit and Arabic books were printed on a large scale. Oriental scholars were employed to translate useful English books into classical languages. However, a debate arose on whether the allotted money would be spent on Oriental learning or western science and education. One group, including Warren Hastings and Minto, pleaded for the Orientalists or Classicists. They demanded

promotion of Indian education through the medium of Sanskrit, Arabic and Persian.

Many, including Raja Ram Mohan Roy, stood in favour of western education. There was still a third group who wanted Indian languages as the medium of instruction. So the situation demanded a resolution of the tri-polar controversy. But how can this be resolved since the goals are so diverse and the state allocation is so paltry a sum in respect of the population! Task 6 a. When did the question of implementation of Clause 43 of the Charter of 1813 arise? b. What did Holt Mackenzie suggest regarding utilization of surplus 'territorial' revenues in 1821? c. What gave rise to the Oriental Occidental controversy? 1.6 Macaulay's Minute (1835) During this violent controversy Macaulay came to India as a Law Member of the Governor General's Executive Council, became the President of the General Committee on Public Instruction, and drafted a document which is known as 'Macaulay's Minutes on Education'. In this document he advocated education of the upper classes in India and made a strong plea for spreading western learning through the medium of English. Macaulay was asked to adjudicate on a single legal point: whether the money set aside in the Company's 1813 Charter renewal for public instruction could be diverted from supporting classical Indian languages to funding the diffusion of 'useful knowledge' through English.Keeping in mind both sides of the arguments—Anglicists and Orientalists — Macaulay made the point very clear:
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it is impossible for us, with our limited means, to attempt to educate the body of the people.We must at present do our best to form a class who may be interpreters between us and the millions we govern — a class of persons Indian in blood and colour, but English in tastes, in opinions, in morals and in intellect.

According to
Graddol, Macaulay's Minute is "far from being a central one in the history of English-medium education in India". It has been given more importance than it actually deserves. He considers

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the wider socio-economic and political context in which English rapidly became so dominant in India (

Graddol, 2010:63). Task 7 a. What is the most significant part of Macaulay's Minute? b. How much important is Macaulay's Minute in the history of English education in India? 1.7 The Charter of 1833 and after The Charter Act of 1833 played a pivotal role in the history of the East India Company. Out of its trading business the company emerged as the administrative agency for the British Crown. This Charter attracted missionaries from Germany and America as India was opened up for people all over the globe. Among the well-known missionaries working in between the renewal of the Charter (1813-1833) Alexander Duffcontributed much. He started an English school in Calcutta in 1830 following the Company's 'Downward Filtration Theory' and he felt that the upper classes, being benefitted from education, would take it to lower stratum of the society. In order to minimize the administrative cost,Lord Bentinck, the Governor-General, intended to employ local clerks in place of the clerks brought at great expense from Britain. Apart from proselytisation, the British rulers favoured English education for some practical and economic needs. It was mainly to hire cheaper human resource from India. This shift to local recruitment in the Company opened up scope of well-paid new jobs for the English-speaking Indians in public service. Naturally, a craze for white collar job motivated the aspiring youths to go for English-medium and English gained the status of medium of instruction all over India. Task 8 a. What role did Alexander Duff play in promoting English education

18 NSOU ? PGELT-8A b. Why did the British rulers support English education? c. How did English gain the status of medium of instruction all over India? 1.8 Other Milestones up to 1947 Let us trace the trend of emerging demand for English education all over India: i. Wood's Despatch(1854): Charles Wood's Despatch of 1854 stated that there was no intention of abolishing the local language education. The Despatch introduced grant-in-aid system, pleaded for Anglo-vernacular schools and secular education, and stressed the need to establish institutions for professional education. So the indigenous system of education faded out gradually giving place to English education for white collar job. Spread of English education gave birth to the Indian middle class which demanded English education. The aspirations for employment and good fortune gradually attributed English the status of a powerful medium of instruction under the British rule. ii. Establishment of Universities: In 1857 Acts of Incorporation were passed for establishing universities in Calcutta, Bombay and Madras. Later Punjab University was established in 1882, Allahabad University in 1887, and the Aligarh Muslim University from the Mohamedan Anglo Oriental College (established in 1875). All the universities were examining bodies. Teaching was carried out in affiliating colleges. However, the medium was English. iii. Hunter Commission (1882-83): Missionary schools faced tremendous competition in the wake of public demand for government schools and English education. So the missionaries created agitation. To dissolve the problem the Hunter Committee, the first Indian Education Commission, was appointed. Ironically, the report of the commission went against the missionaries and endorsed secular education in government schools. It recommended that the state should concentrate on elementary education in vernacular. All schools were to function under the local government. The Commission made progressive recommendations for promotion of girls' education and of Muslims. Following this the number of colleges by voluntary agencies shot up producing so many graduates. At the turn of the century there were 191 colleges, including Fergusson College in Poona and Ripon College in Calcutta.

NSOU ? PGELT-8A 19 iv. Problem of Educated Unemployment: In the beginning of the new century a new class of 'educated unemployed' was created and the spreading of English education in India came under scanner in Britain. Although the Downward Filtration Theory proved fruitful in creating an educated class, it failed to take education to the masses. v. Lord Curzon and the Indian Universities Act (1904): When Lord Curzon became the Viceroy in 1898 he felt the need for reforms in education. He wanted all universities to be teaching universities, and not merely examining bodies. So in 1902 he appointed the Indian Universities Commission to evaluate the present condition and to suggest ways for improvement. Following the recommendations of the Commission, Curzon got the Bill drafted and subsequently passed as an Act in 1904. This Act marks the beginning of qualitative reform in higher education. Curzon's educational reforms include: use of vernacular as medium of instruction up to 13 years of age and starting English thereupon; application of the Direct Method in teaching English; introducing diversification in subjects and inclusion of practical training to make the learners fit for job market; improving the quality of teaching and examination system; introduction of technical and vocational education; allowing the schools of Art to grow; framing policy for education in Agriculture; and so on. It is ironical that Curzon's attempt to improve the educational scenario in India was greatly resisted by the educated Indians. As people went against Curzon for partitioning Bengal in 1905, his progressive educational policy failed to achieve its immediate goal. But Curzon's educational ideas play a very significant role in marking the defects prevalent in Indian education even today. vi. National Education Movement:As Curzon's policy fanned the nationalist flames, the anti-partition movement turned to Swadeshi Movement and the National Education Movement gained momentum. All the renowned figures of Bengal, including Rabindranath Tagore, pleaded for mother tongue as the medium of instruction. This movement played a significant role in kindling patriotic feeling and a sense of nationalism.Many new universities – Mysore University (1916), Banaras Hindu University (1917), Patna University (1917), Osmania University (1918), Aligarh University (1920), Dacca University (1920), Lucknow University (1920), etc. — were set up. Some of them were to promote indigenous education. But it could not undermine the importance of English.

20 NSOU ? PGELT-8A vii. Sadler Commission (1917-1919): The Calcutta University Commission or the Sadler Commission, named after Michael Sadler, Vice-Chancellor of Leeds University, was appointed to take stock of the situation. It recommended the starting of Intermediate Colleges to provide a two-year bridge course before stepping into college education. Intermediate course was actually a passport to higher education. Although mother tongue was recommended as the medium of instruction English was attached a special importance. viii. Hartog Committee(1929): Headed by Sir Philip Hartog, a Committee enquired into all aspects of Indian education. In its report in 1929 the Committee recommended consolidation and improvement of education, giving importance to primary education. It deplored the poor standard of English at higher education level. ix. Abbot-Wood Report (1936-37): Apart from recommending technical education as an integral part of education, this report laid emphasis on mother tongue as medium of instruction at high school stage. But it suggested that English should be a compulsory subject and the teaching of English should be made more realistic. x. Gandhi, Hossain and Tagore: In his new approach to education, popularly known as Basic Education, Mahatma Gandhi laid emphasis on mother tongue as medium of instruction. The Wardha Scheme (or, "NaiTalim'), as proposed by Dr. Zakir Hossain, aimed at complete development. In the report of Zakir Hossain Committee (1938)

In his educational scheme Rabindranath Tagore, influenced by naturalism, discarded the paths of western education. xi. Sargent Report (1944): It was the first comprehensive educational plan formulated by Central Advisory Board of Education. It focused on free,compulsory, and universal basic education in mother tongue for all boys and girls between the ages of six and fourteen. English was regarded as compulsory second language. Task 9 a. What did Wood's Despatch state? What was the result?

NSOU ? PGELT-8A 21 b. What role did the universities play initially? c. Why was the Hunter Commission set up? What did the commission recommend? d. What gave rise to educated unemployment? e. How did Curzon try to reform university education? f. What instigated the rise of National Education Movement in India? g. Which Commission recommended intermediate colleges? Why? h. What is considered the first comprehensive education plan in India? Why? 1.9 Summary The missionaries and the East India Company attempted to educate the Indians for three distinct reasons. The first reason was obviously proselytization. The second reason was to produce a class of educated youths to be engaged by the Company for managing administration. The third reason is to impart western learning to make savage Indians civilized. Charles Grant considers it to be true cure of darknessby introducing light. But this spread of education,especially English education, ignited India into an integrated nation. Lord Bentinck could imagine this future. "Macaulay himself", as Graddol thinks, "

seemed convinced that British efforts to improve Indian education would eventually result in independence." 1.10

Review Questions i. What role did the missionaries play in promoting English education in India? ii. When did the state take the responsibility of education of the Indians? Why? iii. Macaulay's biographer , John Clive (1973) suggests that the 'much of the battle of the over English education had, in fact, been fought and won before Macaulay ever set foot in India'. – Do you agree with Clive? Give reasons. iv. Do you support the view that Occidentalist-Orientalist controversy strengthened the foundation of English as a medium of instruction? Justify your answer. v. Identify the socio-economic, and political context in which English rapidly gained dominating position.

22 NSOU ? PGELT-8A vi. What was the impact of Wood's Despatch on the Indians? vii. What is the Downward Filtration Theory? What role did it play in spread of English education during British rule? viii. What do you consider to be the most significant outcome of English education? Why? ix. How did English become the medium of instruction in Indian education? x. How did the British create an English-speaking elite in India? 1.11 References and Reading List Agarwal,

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NSOU ? PGELT-8A 23 Unit 2 Status of English Structure 2.1 Objectives 2.2 Introduction 2.3 Markers of a global language 2.4 What does 'status' mean? 2.5 Status of English: An overview of the world scenario 2.6 Why is English a global language? 2.6.1 Concept of Global language 2.6.2 Geographical Spread of the Language 2.6.3 Historical Factors 2.6.4 Socio-Economic and Cultural Factors 2.7 Status of English in India 2.8 Growth of English in India 2.8.1 Functions of English in ESL setting 2.8.2 Future of English in India 2.9 Summary 2.10 Glossary 2.11 Review Questions 2.12 References 2.13 Reading List 2.1 Objectives This unit is concerned with the evolving position and role of English. Here, we will take into account the following aspects of the gradual development of English as a powerful instrument of social change. Our goals are:

24 NSOU ? PGELT-8A i. To decode the meaning and implication of the abstraction 'STATUS'. ii. To take a stock of the present world scenario iii. To explain why English is the global language iv. To explore how English has become the global language v. To focus on the role of English in multilingual context vi. To trace the continuous shift in the status of English vii. To predict the future status of English in a rapidly changing world 2.2 Introduction As a powerful medium of administration and education it has gained widely different status in different parts of the globe. Even in the same country it is looked upon from different angles at different points of time. Its status has been shifting continuously giving rise to so many questions regarding future of English and other indigenous languages. 2.3 Markers of a global language Standing on the COVID 19(early 2020) infested world today we can think of the vision of John Lennon's 1971 masterpiece "Imagine". Especially, this part of his influential song: A brotherhood of man Imagine all the people Sharing all the world... What took the English language to do in four centuries, the Corona Virus could do it in four months. Unfortunate, though this is, it is true.While COVID-19 has bound the whole world with a threat of utter helplessness and despair, English has bound almost all nations in a thread of linguistic 'brotherhood'. This linguistic brotherhood has given English the status of a global language. Passing through different stages of growth and development, leaving behind a long and glorious history of its expansion, English has established itself as an essential language in all spheres of life, especially communication. Its vibrant presence in global economy and culture is evident. What makes English so

important today? It cannot be explained without taking into account the historical, political, socio-economic, cultural, media-related, communication and technological factors. These factors are instrumental in lending English the status of a global language. The most commonly used markers of status are: First Language (L1), Second Language (L2), Foreign Language (FL), Global English, Common Language, Lingua Franca, Library Language etc. Task 1 i. What is your mother tongue? ii. What is first language? What is your first language? iii. What is second language? What is your second language? iv. How did English come to India – through the missionaries or the East India Company? v. Why do we learn English? vi. Why do the children of England learn English? vii. Have you gone through "BanglataThikAse Na" by Bhabani Prasad Majumder? How does the narrator show a disrespect or contempt for mother tongue? viii. What was the language of the ruler during the British rule in India? ix. What language can enable you to be a citizen of the world? x. Which language, according to you, captures major part of social media – Facebook, WhatsApp, Twitter etc.? 2.4 What does 'status' mean? Let us look for the meaning of the word 'status'. Oxford Advanced Learners Dictionary (9 th edition) has given 5 meanings of the word 'status': i. The legal position of a person, group or country ii. The social or professional position of somebody or of something iii. High rank or social position

iv. The level of importance that is given to something v. The situation at a particular time during a process Which one will you accept as meaning of 'status' in the context of 'status of English'? 2.5 Status of English: An overview of the world scenario Let us examine the scenario as presented below on the basis of data collected from different sources: WORLD SCENARIO ? Acts as an international link language. ? Language of international politics, trade, commerce, and industry. ? Mother tongue of more than 300 million people. ? More than 700 million people use this language. ? One out of ten persons in the world knows English. ? Over75% of the world's mail and 50% of the world's newspapers use English as a medium. ? Over 50% of the world's radio stations and TV channels use English. ? Over 50% of the world's scientific and technical journals and periodicals use English as medium of expression. ? English is one of the six official languages of UNO. ? Link language of the commonwealth countries ? Creates better understanding among the nations. ? Medium of cultural exchange among the nations of the world. ? Facilitates mobility of teachers and students from one country to another. ? Opens up worldwide chances for employment. ? Language of empowerment ? Pipeline

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for the stream of knowledge in all branches of learning.

Task 2 a) What idea do you form about the status of English in the world? (Clue:You can guess the position of English today and predict what it could be in future.) b) Which of the above data do you consider to be 'Demographic Factor'? (Clue:Demographic factor refers to geographical spread of a language and the number of speaker it has) c) Which of the above information may be grouped as 'Cultural Factor'? (Clue: 'Cultural Factor' refers to the use of language in literature, science, and other fields.) d) What reflection on 'Economic Factor' do you get from the World Scenario? (Clue: 'Economic Factor' refers to the usefulness of a language in the job market, in trade and commerce.) e) What do you consider to be the 'Political Factor' behind the status of English? (Clue: 'Political Factor' is concerned with the status of the users, specially, the rulers.) 2.6 Why is English a global language? In his illuminating study, English as a Global Language, David Crystal presents a lively and factual account of the rise of English as a global language and explores the whys and wherefores of the history, current status and future potential of English as the international language of communication. Not only David Crystal, there are many scholars who advocate English as a global language. Let us take into account the general perception of English as a global language: 2.6.1 Concept of Global language What is a global language? A language which is used by the highest number of speakers in the world? Or a language used in almost all countries? Chinese is used by the highest number of native speakers but it is confined to the geographical territory of China. Can we call Chinese a global language? We can't. The status of 'global language' is given to a language that plays a special role in every country. We must take into account: What is the special role? Does English play that special role globally? The

28 NSOU ? PGELT-8A 'special role' includes such functions as use by a large number of people as a mother tongue, second language, and foreign language; as the official language in many countries; adoption by other countries as a powerful medium of communication and education; language of trade and commerce, management and administration, media and entertainment; acceptability in the job market; and so on. Today English qualifies genuinely for the status of global language. Task 3 a) In which country English is used as a mother-tongue? b) Name a country where English is used as a second language? c) Do you think that English fulfils all the conditions of a global language? Justify your answer. 2.6.2 Geographical Spread of the Language English has travelled far and wide throughout history. It has resulted in geographical spread of English all over the globe. Now it is used as the first language in 23 countries, official or joint official language in about 50 other countries, where it is used along with the indigenous language for a wide variety of public and private functions. In countries like Malaysia and Bangladesh English is used as a second language without enjoying any official status. Countries where English is a first or second language are located in all the five continents. In a country like India English has multiple status. To some, especially to the elite, it is the mother tongue; to an average Indian it is a second language; and to a small fraction it is a foreign language. English is also a language of inter-state communication. Now the growth of number of speakers of English is steadily growing. Task 4 1. What is the status of English in China and Japan? (Clue: Other than L1 & L2) 2. Which four countries are considered main English speaking countries? 3. Which country plays the key role in geographical spread of English? (Clue: Refer to establishment of British colonies all over the globe – role of traders, missionaries, and settlers)

NSOU ? PGELT-8A 29 4. Which of the two — British English or American English — is more homogeneous? Why? (Clue: American – in grammar and vocabulary; grew separately – set a new standard – less conservative – easy mobility) 2.6.3 Historical Factors How did English reach a position of pre-eminence all over the world? This issue demands a close study of the historical account of spread of English around the world. It began with its pioneering voyages to the Americas, Asia, and the Antipodes. This expansion of the British Empire continued for a long period establishing English in every continent and in islands of the three major oceans – Atlantic (St Helena), Indian (Seychelles) and Pacific (in many islands, such as Fiji, and Hawaii). This large-scale spread of English makes the application of the label 'global language' a reality(David Crystal 2003:29). Most countries where English is a second language are former British colonies, such as India and Nigeria. It is used in various public functions: public transaction, in government services, in the court of law, in broadcasting, in social media, in the press, and in education. Even after independence English plays a dominant role in many African and Asian countries English as a means of interpersonal communication. Task 5 a) What was the status of Latin in medieval Europe? (Clue: same as English today – in academic, scientific, and cultural spheres) b) Which language was the most dominant language in Europe in the eighteenth century? (Clue: French) c) Which language is regarded today as lingua franca of most academic and scientific writing? (Clue: Lingua franca means link language) 2.6.4 Socio-Economic and Cultural Factors The importance of English is so deep rooted in public life that people in many walks of life now depend on English for their economic, cultural and social well-being. Today English has gained inevitable access into the global domains of political life, business, safety, communication, entertainment, the media and education.

30 NSOU ? PGELT-8A 2.7 Status of English in India Do all people of all British colonies speak in English? What role does English play in India? Let us go through the fact and figures to extend our knowledge. i. Position of India among English-speaking Countries In the world, English is the most widely used language. But in respect of number of native speakers Chinese comes first. It is true that about 25% of the world population speak in English. English is a mother tongue in the U.K, USA, Ireland, Canada, Australia, New Zealand, South Africa and the Caribbean. These are called mother tongue countries. English is used as a first language (L1) in the mother tongue countries. One survey, conducted by Lok Foundation and Oxford University, shows only 6% of Indian population speak English regularly. The 2011 census records that over 10% of Indians are able to use English. This gives India the status of third largest English-speaking country after the UK and the USA. In publication of books in English India enjoys the same status. India offers over 3000 daily newspaper in English. ii. English after Independence Since independence Hindi became the official language and English remained as an associate official language for the country. According to the 2001 Census, 12.6% of Indians knew English; about 86 million Indians reported English as their second language, and another 39 million as their third language. iii. Indian Human Development Survey (2005) According to the Indian Human Development Survey (2005), conducted on 41,554 households, 72% of men did not speak any English, 28% spoke at least some English, and 5% (17.9% out of those who spoke at least some English) spoke fluent English. The corresponding percentage among women were: 83% speaking no English, 17% speaking some of English, and 3% (out of those 17.6% who spoke at least some English) spoke fluent English. iv. DISE Report According to DISE (District Information System for Education) of NUEPA (National University of Educational Planning and Administration) enrolment in English-medium schools in India rose to 29 million in 2013-14 from 15 million in 2008-09.

NSOU ? PGELT-8A 31 v. Census 2011 According to the 2011 Census, 129 million (10.6%) Indians spoke English; 259,678 (0.02%) Indians spoke English as their first language; 83 million as a second and another 46 million as third language. vi. Linguistic Landscapes Linguistic landscape is an indicator of linguistic choice of the people of a locality, district, province or state. It offers a first diagnostic of the language situation of a particular area — be it a street, village, town, city, building, country, or online environment. India is a multilingual country. So English is found in linguistic landscapes as a means to overcome language barrier. Recent development of tourism and hospitality management has made English popular. It is evident in posters, billboards, notice boards, milestones, road-directions and where not. Be it a hotel or hospital, a college or a shopping mall, railway station or airport, your vision is sure to be obstructed or attracted by linguistic landscapes. Recently some new words, such as 'covidiot', 'smishing' are used in social media. Task 6 a) Has demand for English increased recently? Why? b) What does the DISE report indicate? c) What is the present position of English in India? d) What clue does linguistic landscape provide for us? vii. Indian Vision ? Rightly observes Radha Krishnan Commission: "

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It (English) is a language which is rich in literature — humanistic, scientific and technical. If under sentimental urges we should give up English, we would cut ourselves from the living stream of ever growing knowledge." ?

According to Graddol: "

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Throughout India there is an extraordinary belief, amongst almost all castes and classes, in both rural and urban areas, in the transformative power of English.English is seen not just as a useful skill, but a symbol of a better life, a pathway out of poverty and oppression. Aspiration of such magnitude is a heavy burden for any language and for those who have responsibility for teaching it, to bear. The challenges of providing universal access to English are significant, and 32

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many are bound to feel frustrated at the speed of progress. But we cannot ignore the way that the English language has emerged as a powerful agent for change in India.

Its impact has already been felt in government policies, in new electoral dynamics, and a whole new sector of the economy that has provided an engine of economic growth (2010:124)." ? National Curriculum Framework (NCF) -2005 states "

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English in India today is a symbol of people's aspirations for quality in education and fuller participation in national and international life. … The level of introduction of English has now become a matter of political response to people's aspirations, rendering almost irrelevant an academic debate on the merits of a very early introduction." (

Position Paper: National Focus Group on Teaching of English, P-1) 2.8 Growth of English in India Let us look at how English is imagined in India and recent trends that encourage English: English is imagined as Trends encouraging English A library language The growing middle class A link language Increasing urbanization A language of enslavement The shift to a services economy A language of liberation and liberalism Widening access to higher education A language of modernity and (from 12% participation rate to 30% in development a decade A defence against Hindi Increased vocational training A transactional 'vehicular' language Improved communications/mobility A language of geographical mobility More children attending private schools A language of social mobility English taught in government schools A language which brings money from Class 1 The language of the 'new Brahmins' English-medium streams opening in government schools (Graddol 2010:64)

NSOU ? PGELT-8A 33 Can you guess how much English has sparked off our aspirations? Actually, English is now closely associated with our wider social and political aspirations. Once the British created an English-speaking class of the elite, now demand for English is coming from lower castes and rural areas. On December 28, 2018, West Bengal government has declared that English medium teaching would be introduced in 65 schools. Of them, 44 are in primary section and 21 in the secondary section. 2.8.1 Functions of English in ESL setting English is now supposed to have five main functions in an ESL setting in India: ? Instrumental: As a medium of instruction. ? Regulative: As a language of law and administration. ? Interpersonal: As a means of interpersonal,inter-state communication ? Commercial: As a language of trade and commerce ? Creative: As a medium of creative writing in various genresincluding print and electronic media. 2.8.2 Future of English in India There has been a major shift in perception regarding English in India. The status of English is changing with growing demand for English. It can be predicted that English will be used by more people for more purposes than ever before. Three main drivers of this greater use of English are: education, employment, and social mobility. The demand for English-medium schools is increasing. This is because English can widen the scope of entry into higher education, including Medical and other branches of professional and vocational education. In job market good English skill, also known as Soft Skill, is now required in organized sector. At present English is regarded as an access route to middle classes and geographical mobility within India and beyond. But there is acute shortage of properly trained English teachers to promote English at all levels. 2.9 Summary During the twentieth century English firmly established itself as a global language. Almost all the British colonies gained political independence gradually. Some of them, like Malaysia and Kenya, attempted to overcome linguistic slavery. The spirit of nationalism grew so much that a section of people supported the move for indigenous

34 NSOU ? PGELT-8A language as national language. In some countries, like India, English continued to enjoy the status of official language along with a national language. But the need for a common language, specially a lingua franca, the emergence of the USA as an English-speaking superpower in all spheres, existence of English in all corner of the globe, and the introduction of speedy communication system based on internet, computer, mobile phone, and digital life, and many such socio-economic, and cultural factors have recently proved the supremacy of English. In fact, English has made the world one. National Knowledge Commission (2009) has rightly observed: "The time has come for us to teach our people, ordinary people, English as a language in schools." 2.10Glossary Foreign Language:

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English as a foreign language refers to a situation where it is taught for certain specific purposes viz. … reading, scientific works, translation, communication, at certain levels and for certain purpose only.

Linguistic landscape: Refers to visible signs in public place. Language is part of physical environment. Any visible language that occurs in public space, both online and offline, constitutes the linguistic landscape. It includes printed, written, carved, sprayed or otherwise visible pictures, logos, signs, graphs, message, traffic signals, shop windows, flags, banners, graffiti, menu, T-shirts, tattoos, and other meaningful signs. Facebook, Twitter, Instagram, Blogs, Websites, WhatsApp are virtual places where linguistic landscape data can be found. Second Language:

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English as a second language refers to a situation where English is used widely for purposes of administration, education and as a common link language. 2.11

Review Questions i. Why do we require a common language for intra-provincial (i.e. between the provinces in India) and international communication? ii. Which language serves the purpose of a common language? iii. English is now no longer the language of mother tongue countries, like England and America. It has acquired the status of an international language. Do you agree? Give reasons in support of your point of view.

NSOU ? PGELT-8A 35 iv. Modify the following statements, if you find any discrepancy: a. In India a majority of people will become bilingual with English as their second language. b. In respect of status of English, India is a mother tongue country. c. English and French are official language of Mauritius. d. Most countries with second-language speakers of English are former French colonies. e. British English is more homogeneous than American English in vocabulary and grammar. v. Indigenous population of many countries had to adopt English as their first or second language. Why? (Clue: British acquired territories throughout the world – British settlers dominated the country politically as well as linguistically) vi. Apart from English, which other languages have had the status of world language? What were the geographical areas of their dominance? How does English differ from those languages in terms of geographical expansion? (Clue: Latin in medieval Europe, especially, in scientific, academic and cultural spheres; French in the 18 th century Europe – supremacy of French and Latin was confined to Europe, English all over the world) vii. Give three reasons for the rise of English to its present status. viii. Tourism sector in India is witnessing a boom. It is creating a potential demand for the workforce at managerial, supervisory, skilled and semi- skill levels. – What role can soft skills (i.e. English communication skills) play in this situation? ix. How can communications in the form of computer networks, call centres, mass media, mobile phones or even road building play a significant role in reshaping demand for English? (Clue: growth of IT-BPO opened up new jobs for those meritorious candidates who can speak English – employment potential 2-6 million in India –English dailies are the second most read – film industry and television create demand – IT is transforming Indian society— internet, mobile phones, social networking etc.)

36 NSOU ? PGELT-8A x. Is Hindi the national language of India? What is the status of Hindi in India? What is the status of English in India? (Clue: No – Hindi, official language – English, associate official language) xi. Topic for discussion a. In a study, conducted by a TV channel, 57% felt that English is making us forget our mother tongue. How far is this from reality? b. Dalit activists such as MeenaKandasamy from Tamil Nadu, and Chandra Bhan Prasad from Uttar Pradesh, claim that English is a key to Dalit emancipation. Do you agree? c. In India there is a surging demand for English among the common people. Parents and employers want it. In view of that public policy increasingly accepts the need to provide universal access to it. Is it possible to provide opportunities suitable for learning English? 2.12 References Blommaert, Jan. Ethnography, Superdiversity and Linguistic Landscapes (Bristol: Multilingual Matters, 2013)

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India (British Council, 2010) Graddol, David. The Future of English(British Council, 1997)
NSOU ? PGELT-8A 37 Unit 3 Distinctions Between SL and FL Structure 3.1 Objectives 3.2 Introduction 3.3 Second Language Vs Foreign Language 3.3.1. Foreign Language 3.3.2. Second Language 3.3.3. Some features of FL and SL 3.4 Second Language Vs First Language 3.5 EFL and ESL 3.6 Implications For Teaching 3.7

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Summary 3.8 Review Questions 3.9 References 3.10 Reading List 3.1 Objectives After going through this unit you will be able to: a) Understand the

basic concept of 'second' and 'foreign' language along with the points of difference between the two b) Understand the basic concept of 'first' and 'second' language and how they differ from each other c) Understand how

in

respect of teaching implications

38 NSOU ? PGELT-8A 3.2 Introduction We all know that language is the most significant aspect which makes human beings different from all other species. Accordingly, language acquisition is the most impressive aspect of human development both from psychological and cognitive perspective. We know that all normal human beings acquire the language they first encounter as children. Then they may proceed to learn multiple languages but those languages will always be different from the first language they acquired by being exposed to. So, it is evident that there are a lot of differences between the first language and the second language of a person. It is noteworthy here that the field of language learning is indeed a complex domain of study: it can vary according to different criteria related to the field's four main pillars: the learner, the teacher, the learning context, and the target language. Researchers in the field of language education have clearly stated that second language education is not the same as first language education, and hence, today, second language teaching/learning receives as much attention as first language teaching/learning does from language educationists. However, often when researchers in the field of language education deal with foreign language education, they tend to ignore the equally important distinctions existing between first and second language acquisitions on the one hand, and foreign language acquisition on the other. In the current era of globalisation every individual who is aspiring to work in a multicultural society needs to learn/acquire a second language. It is very essential for all of us as inter and intra language communications are becoming inevitable among nations, states and organisations which create a greater need for knowing another language. The uses of common languages are in areas such as trade, tourism, international relations between governments, technology, media, medicine and science. Therefore, many countries such as Japan and China have created education policies to teach at least one foreign language at primary and secondary school level. However, some countries such as India, Singapore, Malaysia and Philippines use a second official language in their governing system. Today many countries like China are giving enormous importance to foreign language learning, specially learning English Language.

NSOU ? PGELT-8A 39 3.3 Second Language Vs. Foreign Language Let us now try to understand the fundamental difference between the two concepts - second and foreign language. Technically, foreign language refers to a language which is not the native language of a large number of people in a particular country or region, is not used as a medium of instruction in schools, and is not widely used as a medium of communication in government, media, etc. 3.3.1. Foreign Language Generally, a foreign language has no direct link with the person's immediate social or personal environment. The selection of a target foreign language is thus largely a personal choice of the learner, except in cases where children and adults are compelled to learn foreign languages for academic or professional reasons. Like first and second language education, foreign language education too is a heterogeneous notion composed of different forms of learning. The underlying criteria for such diversity are linked, once again, with specific features of the learner and teacher profiles, and the given learning context: For example, foreign language learners can belong to different age groups and can have different learning objectives and capacities; they may have as teachers, native or non-native speakers of their target language; they may learn in learning environments that are favourable or unfavourable to language acquisition, etc. Despite their intrinsically heterogeneous forms of existences, all the three -first, second and foreign language learning- each has its typical representative group of learners: First language learners in their vast majority are toddlers and small children while the most representative groups of learners for second languages are young children and adolescents. Foreign language learners on the other hand are generally adults. Although it can be argued that children continue to learn their first and second languages even after growing up, the society does not consider adult learners of first languages to be formal language 'learners'. Although second language learners do at times continue to follow lessons of their target language even as adults, such cases are comparatively limited in number. Thus, interestingly, while first and second language learners are hardly represented by outsiders to their typically representative age groups, foreign language learners, despite being represented primarily by adult learners, also include a considerably large number of young children and adolescents. In this sense, foreign language learners are the group of language learners which includes the most varied range of learner age groups. Foreign language learners could further be distinguished from each other according to the type of learning context they are in: while some foreign language learners study

40 NSOU ? PGELT-8A their target language in places where it is used for day-to-day communication (endo- lingual learning contexts), others learn it in places where the use of the target language is more or less restricted to the language classroom (exo-lingual learning contexts); although this difference in learning contexts is also applicable to first and second language learning contexts, it is in the case of foreign language learning that its significance becomes more apparent: while almost all first and second language learners learn their target languages in either fully or semi-endo-lingual contexts, foreign language learners are to be seen pursuing their goal in both types of contexts. 3.3.2. Second Language Second language, in a broad sense, refers to any language learned after one has learnt one's home or local language. However, when contrasted with foreign language, the term refers more narrowly to a language that plays a major role in a particular country or region though it may not be the ûrst language of many people who use it. For example, the learning of English by immigrants in the US or the learning of Catalan by speakers of Spanish in Catalonia (an autonomous region of Spain) are cases of second (not foreign) language learning, because those languages are necessary for survival in those societies. English is also a second language for many people in countries like Nigeria, India, Singapore and the Philippines, because English fulûls many important functions in these countries (including the business of education and government) and learning English is necessary to be successful within that context. In many countries of the world, children learn their second language at school. This is generally either another local language (French for English-speaking Canadians) or an international language (French for Moroccans) that is considered to be important in the country where the learner resides. The designation of a non-native language as a second language in a given country depends on the close historical, geographical, socio-economical ties that the country shares with the country of origin of the non-native language. When the second language of a learner is determined by the country which he resides in, he would often have the possibility to use that language in his own country. Nevertheless, in certain other cases, a learner's second language is not determined by the country in which he lives but by his immediate family and social entourage. Insuch a situation, his second language could be different to that of the country inwhich he resides: If the learner is from a bi- or multilingual home or minoritycommunity in his native country (e.g. Tamils in Sri Lanka), or if the learner has immigrated to another country as a youngster speaking his own first language (e.g. Tamils in France), etc. he would learn as his second language the first language of the country's majority or, in the case of a vast country, that of his NSOU ? PGELT-8A 41 region. However, even in such cases, the learner would have a rather close relationship with his second language and would be in a position to use it in his day to-day life. One may ask whether any language that a learner learns after his first language could be considered to be his second language. Our answer would be in the negative. Rather, a second language is a language that a learner masters the second best, after his first language. It might or might not be, chronologically learnt, but, it should be the language that he is most familiar with after his first language. Moreover, a second language usually has a functional value in the learner's family and/or his social circle. A second language, in its name sake only, might not always meet all these requirements; for example, if a learner in a monolingual country where students are not obliged to learn a second language decides, in an arbitrary manner, to learn any given language as his second language, the language he/she learns, though is surely the second language for him/her to learn, will not necessarily be his second language because it will have less functional value. This shows how, unlike a first language or even a foreign language, a second language of a learner has a socially marked existence than a personal one. 3.3.3. Some Features of FL and SL: However, it is also important to remember that the status of a given language would not always be the same to its learner, its teacher and their learning context: For example, if we consider the case of a Moroccan learning English from an Englishman in Sri Lanka, the status of English vis-à-vis each of these stakeholders will be different: while for the teacher, it would be hisfirst language, in the learning context of Sri Lanka, English would be a second language. On the other hand, for the Moroccan student, who has probably had Arabic and French as his first and second languages, English would only be a foreign language. Although the status of a target language could thus vary vis-à-vis the person or the context in question, our focus as teachers would essentially be on the status of a language with regard to its learner. Thus, the terms "foreign language" and "second language" are assigned in respect of language functions, learning purposes, language environment and learning methods. Foreign language means the language used outside the country. But the Second language refers to the language that plays the same important role as mother tongue. Shu Dingfang (1994) distinguished differences between "foreign language" and "second language" according to language environment, language input and affective factors which influence the learning process and so on. Therefore, EFL means learning English in non- English-speaking countries, while ESL means English as a second language, which has the same or even more important status as mother tongue.

42 NSOU ? PGELT-8A 3.4. Second Language Vs First Language In the present context, it is necessary for us to understand the notion of 'first language' too. The first language of a learner could often be the same as what is generally termed ashis/her 'mother tongue'. In such a situation, the learner would indeed have as his/her first language the first language of his/her mother (home). However, in the present globalised world, the concept of first language has evolved beyond the concept of the mother tongue. Ina world where global migration is a major phenomenon, and as a direct consequence, mixed marriages are onthe increase, more and more children are compelled to learn more than one language at home. If their parents speak two different languages, children may select either their mother's or their father's native language as their first language, or else, theywill consider both languages as their first languages. Beyond a child's home setting, his social setting could also play a considerable role in determining his first language. In the case of immigration, young children often adopt the language of their host country as their first language to the detriment of their parents' native tongues. In certain other cases where the child's parents underestimate their native language vis- à-vis another more widespread language, they may encourage their children to abandon the native tongue and adopt the more prestigious language as their first language (e.g. children of native Sinhalese adopting English as their first language). In any case, it would be appropriate to call the first language, the very first language(s) that a child would master and that he/she would continue to use (to different degrees) for the rest of his life. Many learners learn their first languages both at home and school and use it for day- to-day communication in the society in which they live. Let us now explore the differences between the two in detail: ?

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A first language is the mother tongue or native language of a person while a second language is a language a person learns in order

toexpand his outreach within the society using one more language that is prevalent. ?

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The first language is like an instinct which is triggered by birth and developed with the experience of being exposed to it. A second language is a personal choice of a

personor is imposed by the structure of the society. ?

| 92% | **MATCHING BLOCK 28/67** | SA | 34 SLM Mohammad Ashyam Assistant Prof CODE AMU … (D143249960) |

There is no other alternative to a first language. A person cannot decide his/ her first language. It comes to him/her as an inheritance/legacy/birth right. On the other hand, a second language is always fixed by the person

or the society he/she lives in.
NSOU ? PGELT-8A 43 ?

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The acquiring process of the first language is very rapid while the learning process of the second language can vary from language to language and from person to person. ?

The first language is 'acquired' and the second language is primarily 'learned'. The difference between these two words describes the qualities of the two languages. 'Acquire' means "to come into possession or ownership of" which indicates that the first language is like a dynamic and abstract property which comes into possession of a person. On the other hand, 'learn' means "to gain knowledge or skill by study, instruction, or experience" which indicates that there is nothing passive in second language learning. ? A first language is acquired reasonably well within the first six years from the birth. However, a second language can never be learned as efficiently as a first language; though good competence can be achieved in the second language. ? The first language acquisition is always natural and there is no need for instruction in acquiring it. But

for learning a

second language is not natural and it needs continuous guidance and instruction. ? The first language acquisition begins with telegraphic speech. The term 'telegraphic speech' deriving from the word 'telegram' was coined by Roger Brown, an American psycholinguist, in 1963. It refers to the two-words a child can utter when s/he is 18 to 24 months of age. Examples of telegraphic speech: Mom see, Dad go, No ball, Daddy walk, Mommy milk, etc. On the other hand, the second language acquisition begins with a full sentence. A child cannot start learning the second language without being fully efficient in the first language. ? The first language is a natural part of a person's everyday life. But the second language is a new aspect of the person's life if s/he chooses it to be. ? The first language does not require any conscious effort; the acquisition process of the first language is subconscious. The second language requires constant conscious effort so that the learners can internalize the structures of the second language. ?

Again, according to some researchers, the defining difference between a first language (L1) and a second language (L2) is the age which the person started

44 NSOU ? PGELT-8A learning the language. For example, Eric Lenneberg used second language to mean a language consciously acquired or used by its speaker after puberty 3.5. EFL and ESL Let us now study how the concepts of ESL and EFL differ from each other. From the perspective of teaching based on the definitions of English as a Foreign Language (EFL) and English as a Second Language (ESL), the audience of EFL are those for whom English is not the first language or the official language of the country such as China, Japan and South Korea. In these countries, English isn't indispensable for daily communication. But for ESL, there are two kinds of audience. One is for people who immigrated to English-speaking countries, the other is for countries that have once been colonised by the English-speaking countries, such as Africa and some other countries in Southeast Asia including India. We should note that both EFL and ESL are aimed at teaching English, however, there are some differences in teaching purposes and methods. For ESL classroom teaching, although the teacher is the initiator of classroom activities, students are the core of classroom activities. For example, in an oral English class of ESL mode, the teacher may explain the new words and abbreviations to the students through two advertisements in the newspaper. The students then read the advertisements and engage themselves in a role-play act such as the landlord and the tenant talking to each other on the phone according to the content of the advertisements. After that, the teacher may ask two other groups of students to do the same. However, in most EFL classes the teacher begins with the grammar of the language and the focus primarily lies on the structural acquisition with the communicative activities being introduced much later. Hence, ESL learners have been found to develop the proficiency to use English to communicate naturally in all occasions, while EFL learners have been found to be hardly using English in social occasions. 3.6. Implications for Teaching The understanding of the notions of first, second and foreign language respectively has impacted the pedagogy of language in big way. To understand the nature of first language acquisition, researchers have tried to explain how children progress from "no language" to their mother tongue. In second language acquisition, however, the process

NSOU ? PGELT-8A 45 is more complicated as learners already have knowledge of their first language. The Interlanguage Theory plays a crucial role in arriving at findings on how second language learners move from their first language towards the second language. The above similarities and differences between first and second language provide the language teachers with information to aid them in teaching second / foreign language. This information can help the teacher in designing classroom activities, designing the syllabus, choosing an appropriate method, understanding the learning processes of his/her students, and guiding his/her students in the language learning process. Task 1 Discuss what do you understand by the term 'second language'. How does it differ from foreign

language? _____
_____
_____
_____
_____ The first language is 'acquired' and the second language is 'learned'.

Explain. _____
_____
_____
_____
_____ 3.7. Summary From our discussion in this unit we have learnt the following: ? The terms "foreign language" and "second language" are assigned in respect of language functions, learning purposes, language environment and learning methods.

46 NSOU ? PGELT-8A ? Second language education is not the same as first language ? Foreign language refers to a language which is not the native language of a large number of people in a particular country or region ? Foreign language is not used as a medium of instruction in schools, and is not widely used as a medium of communication in government, media, etc. ? The selection of a target foreign language is largely a personal choice of the learner, except in cases where learners are compelled to learn foreign languages for academic or professional reasons. ? Foreign language learning context can be of two types: endo-lingual learning contexts where it is used for day-to-day communication, or exo-lingual learning contexts where the use of the target language is more or less restricted to the language classroom. ? Second language refers to any language learned after one has learnt one's native language. ? A second language usually has a functional value in the learner's family and/or his social circle ?

A first language is the mother tongue or native language of a person ? A second language is a language a person learns in order to communicate with the native speaker of that language. ? The first language is '

acquired' while the second language is 'learned'. ? The first language acquisition begins with telegraphic speech e.g. mom see, dad go, etc. ? Second language acquisition begins with a full sentence. ? Though EFL and ESL are aimed at teaching English, they differ from each other in respect of teaching purposes and methods. 3.8. Review Questions a. How is a second language important in our lives? b. Is it possible to acquire a second language like the first language? NSOU ? PGELT-8A 47 c. What are the major differences between second and foreign languages? d. Are the different strategies to teach a second and a foreign language? e. Based on your reading of this unit, do you think English is being taught properly in India? What are your reasons for this? f. Discuss foreign language learning contexts. g. "

The first language is 'acquired' while the second language is 'learned'"- Justify the

statement. h. Teaching methods for ESL and EFL are not same. Do you agree? Justify. i. Explain First language acquisition and foreign language learning. j. What are the differences in the teaching purposes of first language and second language? 3.9 References Bygate, M. (1987).Foreign Language Study. London.

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48 NSOU ? PGELT-8A 3.10 Reading List Ellis, R. (1986). Understanding Second Language Acquisition. London. Oxford University Press. Krashen, Stephen D.(1988). Second Language Acquisition and Second Language learning. Prentice- Hall International. Larsen – Freeman, D. & Long, M. (1991).An Introduction to Second Language Acquisition Research. London & New York. Longman.

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NSOU ? PGELT-8A 49 Unit 4 Spread of English- Post Independence to Present Day Structure 4.1 Introduction 4.2 Objectives 4.3 Education at the time of Independence 4.4 Radhakrishnan Commission and English Education 4.5 The Constitution of India and the English Language 4.6 Secondary Education Commission and the Study of English 4.7 Education Commission (1964-66) and English Education 4.8 English Education in India (Since 1968) 4.8.1 National Policy on Education and the Programme of Action 4.8.2 The Acharya Ramamurti Committee (1986-90) 4.8.3 National Curriculum Framework and English Education in India 4.9 Language Policy in Post-Independence India 4.10 Indian English and Indian Writing in English 4.11 English for Empowerment 4.12 Summary 4.13 Review Questions 4.14 References 4.15 Reading List 4.1 Objectives This particular unit aims at tracing the spread of English in India after Independence (1947) with the following objectives:
50 NSOU ? PGELT-8A i. To take into account how the status of English was defined and redefined at every stage of development in ELT in India; ii. To give an overview of the Government Policies regarding English after independence; iii. To give the learners an idea of Indian English and Indian Writing in English; iv. To consider what the different Commissions and Committees recommended regarding ELT; and v. To record the modifications made in all spheres of ELT, from change in perception to adoption of new methods and techniques. 4.2 Introduction

English in India is a global language in a multilingual country.

Today it is

a symbol of people's aspirations for a quality in education and

essential requirement for fuller participation in national and international life. Its role has undergone radical changes with India's independence. From its colonial origin, through a series of slow modifications to achieve the status of medium of instruction, to initial role in independent India is a part of our national history. In independent India the status of English has been swinging between two extreme views – one giving it the status of "library language" and the other in favour of replacing it by regional language or mother tongue. As Graddol says, "

Some in India claim it is a burden, others a liberation" (

English Next India: 9).The present status stems from its overwhelming presence on the world stage (NCF 2005: Position Paper 1). To cope with its global demand the status has changed so much that it finds its reflection in national policies and politics. As a consequence, all the commissions and committees had to address the issue of lending English a distinctive status in educational scene since the days of the University Education Commission (1948). On the other hand, there has been a great change in the perception of teaching of English following the changes in perception of language acquisition. While the government policies underwent a succession of rapid evolution to meet the need and aspirations of the new generation of learners, the delivery system also modified itself with the emergence of a number of well-accepted theories of language acquisition. As a result, there has been a shift in approaches and methods, techniques and tools. So English Language Teaching (ELT) moves on from traditional grammar-translation method to structural approach giving rise

NSOU ? PGELT-8A 51 to new methods like direct method, from structural approach to functional and Communicative Language Teaching (CLT), and so on. Thus the history of English Education since Independence incorporates changes in two parallel layers – one on the level of policies and the other on the level of implementation by adopting new methods and techniques. 4.3 Education at the time of Independence When India wins freedom (1947) amidst tremendous riots and mass exodus, terrible misery and distress shatter the vision of millions, to whom Partition was a severe curse. But the rest were throbbing with enthusiasm to build up anew and afresh. The educational scenario was not at all satisfactory. The literacy rate was very low – a mere 14% or so. So it was a huge task to impart social education to the illiterate masses. But social education was the essential for development of newly independent nation. While inaugurating the first All India Educational Conference, in January 1948, Jawaharlal Nehru said, "Great changes have taken place in the country and the educational system must also be in keeping with them. The entire basis of education must be revolutionized"(Education in India: 127). However, there was a revival of the same fever and fervour that mark the National Education Movement in the early twentieth century. But there was neither any clear-cut goal nor any planning to meet the needs and aspirations of a new nation. The first attempt initiated was to set up the University Education Commission, under the Chairmanship of Dr, Sarvapalli Commission, on December 6, 1948. The recommendations of this Commission made the wheel of history of Indian education move. 4.4 Radhakrishnan Commission and English Education The University Education Commission (1948) is popularly known as Radhakrishnan Commission. The reason is obvious. The Commission submitted its report in August 1949. Although the Commission was concerned mainly with university education, its report encompasses all spheres of education in Independent India. The Commission admits the role of English in developing unity and nationalism. Regarding Medium of Instruction, as mentioned by J. C. Aggarwal, the Commission suggested: a. A federal language be developed through the assimilation of words from various sources; 52 NSOU ? PGELT-8A b. International technical and scientific terminology be adopted; c. In

d. Pupils at the higher secondary and university stages be made conversant with three languages – the regional language, the federal language and English; e.

This is how English, in absence of a potent national or federal language, started to continue and it was given its proper status. 4.5 The Constitution of India and the English Language In January 1950, India adopted her Constitution which has been amended from time to time. Article 343 states that

Later the Article was amended in 1963 to state that notwithstanding the expiration of the 15-year period,

English may continue to be used in addition to Hindi for all official purposes of the Union

for which it had been used previously and for transaction of business in Parliament. According to Article 348, the language of the courts and all Bills, Acts and Ordinances of Parliament should be English. It is evident that even after Independence English could not be replaced. Rather its importance has been recognized by lending it the status of the associated official language by the Constitution of India. 4.6 Secondary Education Commission and the Study of English In 1952 Secondary Education Commission was set up. This is also known as Mudaliar Commission, after the name of the Chairman Dr. A. L. Mudaliar. It surveyed Indian education during the British rule, looked into the ills of secondary education and

NSOU ? PGELT-8A 53 suggested measures to be taken for improvement. It reviewed the issue of study of language very carefully and recommended (Report: 194-95) 1. The mother-tongue or the regional language should generally be the medium of instruction throughout the Secondary school stage, subject to the provision that for linguistic minorities special facilities should be made available on the lines suggested by the Central Advisory Board of Education. 2. During the Middle school stage, every child should be taught at least two languages. English and Hindi should be introduced at the end of the Junior Basic stage, subject to the principle that no two languages should be introduced in the same year. 3. At the High and Higher Secondary stage, at least two languages should be studied, one of which being the mother-tongue or the regional language. Dr. Mudaliar's commission also takes into account the recommendations of the Conference of the

Professors of English, convened by the Government in New Delhi on the 23rd and 24th January, 1953, when 28 representatives of universities were present besides representatives of the Ministry of Education and a Member of the Union Public Service Commission. The

Commission's recommendations on development appropriate textbook, use of modern methods, training of English teachers, use of audio-visual aids, and examination reform played significant role in subsequent modifications in English teaching and establishment of English Institutes for Teachers' training all over the country. The Government of India accepted the report and brought about a change in secondary education since 1956. This new scheme continued till the implementation of the report of the Education Commission (1964-66). 4.7 Education Commission (1964-66) and English Education The Education Commission (1964-66), popularly known as Kothari Commission, is the first Commission in Independent India to look into all aspects of Indian education. Its task was to make a comprehensive review of the entire educational system for national development. The report was entitled 'Education and National Development'. So 54 NSOU ? PGELT-8A extensive a work it was that it gave Indian education a proper shape and momentum that has contributed a lot to national growth till today. The Government of India, while accepting the report, stated: "

The Government of India is convinced that a radical reconstruction of education on the broad lines recommended by the Education Commission is essential for economic and cultural development of the country, for national integration and for realizing the ideal of a socialistic pattern of society."

The Kothari Commission recommended a modified version of three-language formula: a) Lower Primary Stage (Classes I-IV): One language (Mother tongue or regional language) and Mother tongue as medium of instruction; b) Higher Primary Stage (Classes V-VIII): Two languages – mother tongue or the regional language + Hindi or English. A third language is optional. c) Lower Secondary Stage (Classes IX-X): Three languages (for non-Hindi areas the regional language, Hindi and English; for Hindi areas Hindi, English and a modern Indian language) d) Higher Secondary Stage (Classes XI-XII): Only two languages out of above three. The observations and recommendations of the Commission also include the following: 1. English will continue to enjoy a high status as long as it remains the principal medium of education at the university stage; 2. Teaching of English should begin in Class V; 3. The structural approach to teaching English be introduced; and 4. English should be taught for development of language skills, not as a content subject. 4.8 English Education in India (Since 1968) 4.8.1 National Policy on Education and the Programme of Action: The report of the Kothari Commission got partially reflected in the National Policy on Education (1968). It did much but much remained. A more comprehensive strategy was needed. It was finally the National Policy on Education (1986) that provided a Programme of Action (1986 & 1992) to gear up Indian education. It retained the

NSOU ? PGELT-8A 55 language policy suggested by the Kothari Commission, found the lacuna in implementation, and pleaded for overcoming the hurdles. 4.8.2 The Acharya Ramamurti Committee (1986-90): Appointed mainly to review 1986 Policy, the Acharya Ramamurti Committee placed its report on January 26, 1990. The Committee observed: "Whatever be the difficulties or unevenness in the implementation of the threelanguage formula, it has stood the test of time. It is not desirable or prudent to reopen the formula." The Committee attached importance to level of attainment and suggested that Central Institute of English and Foreign Languages (CIEFL) be activated to spell out modalities for the purpose of improvement of competency in English. 4.8.3 National Curriculum Framework and English Education in India The National Policy on Education (NPE, 1986) proposed the National Curriculum Framework as a means of evolving national system of education for national development. Information Technology brought a massive change in life towards the end of the last century. So it was felt necessary to modify school curriculum to meet the new challenges. Accordingly,

the National Council of Educational Research and Training (NCERT) prepared National Curriculum Framework (

NCF) in 2000. But this attempt could not bring about the change required in the new millennium. Naturally attempt was made to review the National Curriculum Framework for School Education (NCFSE -2000) in the light of the report, Learning Without Burden (1993). Later National Curriculum Framework (NCF) 2005 brought about a radical change in all spheres of teaching English in India. As all changes in teaching English today spring from the principles envisaged in National Curriculum Framework 2005, it is essential to take into account the guiding principles that shaped the textbooks, classroom transaction and evaluation system all over India.

In the Position Paper of National focus Group on Teaching of English (

NCF 2005) it is stated that

English in India is a global language in a multilingual country.

In India

a variety and range of English-teaching situations prevail because of teacher proficiency in English and learners' exposure to English outside school. The level of introduction of English has now become a political response to people's aspirations. 56

NSOU ? PGELT-8A 4.9 Language Policy in Post-Independence India Language issue in Post-Independent India is a major issue giving rise to heated debate and controversies, protest movement and bloodshed. Before independence Gandhiji observed that English as the medium of instruction created a permanent bar between the highly educated and the uneducated many. It prevented knowledge from percolating to the masses. After independence the political compulsion prompted the policy makers to break away from the legacy of English education. But in absence of a universally acceptable national language English could not be replaced by any means. When the British left India, the problem of English education gave rise to so much controversy. Although the Government of India declared Hindi in Devnagari script as the official language of the country, English retained its position for a variety of needs – as a library language, as a medium of higher education, and also as a link language. It enjoyed the status of associate official language. The Government was compelled to pass the 1967 Official Language (Amendment) Act to assure

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the continuity of English in addition to Hindi as the official language of the Union.

The anti-Hindi agitations made it clear that priority to one particular language for all Indians is not a solution. As English was associated with the colonial rule it was de-emphasized; at the same time its importance as a language of wider opportunities and international contact was recognized. Amidst this controversy more minority and tribal languages demanded their share in the State's educational and power structure. As a result, the three-language formula emerged to accommodate the interests of all concerned: linguistic group (mother tongue and regional language), national pride and unity (Hindi), and progress and prestige (English). In the National Education Policy 2020 three-language formula has been retained to address multilingualism: "The three-language formula formula will continue to be implemented while keeping in mind the Constitutional provisions, aspirations of the people, regions, and the Union, and the need to promote multilingualism as well as promote national unity. ... The three languages learned by children will be the choices of States, regions, and of course the students themselves, so long as at least two of the three languages are native to India" (National Education Policy 2020: 14). In the article " English in Post-Independence India" Agnihotri and Khanna deal with this swinging status of English: "It is unfortunate that in spite of a long series of committees, study groups and commissions, we have not been able to redefine the space called 'English' according to our sociolinguistic reality." Apparently, the status of English was reduced after independence but its pervasive presence was felt in all spheres. This NSOU ? PGELT-8A 57 ambivalent stand is the resultant of two contrary forces – one is linguistic diversity in India and the other is role of English as both national and international link language. Educationally, English is taught as the second language in India but socially, it is recognized as a mark of quality education, culture and prestige. The societal need for learning English is rising day by day. English is the language of trade and commerce. Because of its enormous potential at national and global perspectives, the policies undertaken since independence could not suppress the popular demand for English. Rather its importance has more been sublimated. 4.10 Indian English and Indian Writing in English Indianization of English is a consequence of prolonged colonial rule in linguistically and culturally pluralistic Indian subcontinent. It is an example of language acculturation. In India English has passed through a process of evolution to reach its present position since the missionary endeavour to proselytize. Through the efforts of Raja Ram Mohan Royand Rajunath Hari Navalkar the local demand for imparting education in English to give young Indian students exposure to the Western knowledge. Macaulay's Minute (1835) had a far-reaching consequence in establishing English as the language of opportunities. Thus the English language spread its deeper roots in Indian soil and made its authoritative presence in an alien cultural, linguistic, administrative and educational setting. With the spread of English in all spheres Indian literature in English began to develop slowly but inevitably. However, Indian English is not a homogeneous entity. It encompasses all sorts of variations: regional or geographical (such as Gujarati English, Marathi English, Tamil English etc.), ethnic (such as Anglo-Indian English) and proficiency. As observed by Kachru, in the article "Indian English: A Sociolinguistic Profile", there is a cline of Englishes in India ranging from crudite Indian English to varieties such as Babu English, Butler English, Bearer English and Kitchen English (Indian English: A Sociolinguistic Profile, 37). English used by those bilinguals who rank around the central point on the cline of bilingualism is considered the standard variety. In sound system, grammar, lexis, and semantic features Indian English has its own distinction. In choosing English in Indian education and mass communication the guiding principle is its intelligibility all over India. Indian Writing in English can be traced back to the publication of Shair and Other Poems by Kashiprasad Ghose in 1830. Poetry was followed by novel and drama.

58 NSOU ? PGELT-8A Bankim Chandra Chatterjee's Rajmohan's Wife (1885) is the first Indian English novel. Later many other writers like R. K. Narayan, Raja Rao, Mulk Raj Anand, Bhabani Bhattacharya, Anita Desai, Ruskin Bond, Khushwant Singh etc. contributed a lot to the development of fiction. Salmon Rushdie's Midnight Children (1980) has created history by lending new lease of life Indian writing in English. Writers like Amitav Ghosh, Vikram Seth, Arundhati Ray and many others have proved the strength of Indian English. In the realm of English writings Indian writing in English demands its distinctive position by dint of its creative impulse. Through the publication of a sound body of creative literature Indian English has its vibrant presence in the world. Like African, Australian or Canadian counterparts both Indian English and Indian Writing in English demand recognition of their respective place along with all the other Englishes and English Writings. 4.11 English for Empowerment The present age is marked by a knowledge revolution. Gobalisation and development of communication technology have changed the scenario in job market. Employment opportunity is now directly connected with the demands in the global market that. It is English that can empower the youth with good communication skills which the job market requires for entry, promotion, and position. As Graddol has pointed out "the English language appears to be the key ingredient in a new, IT-enabled economy which is everywhere transforming Indian society" (The English Next India: 9). English is now looked upon as the language of empowerment and for this English medium schools are flourishing in private as well as public sector. 4.12 Summary In the context of post-independent India it is very difficult to utter any exclusively conclusive word regarding the status and role of English. However, an attempt can be made by taking into consideration all the diverse courses of the spread of English in India after independence. While the commissions and committees, policy makers and implementing agencies always expressed their opinion in favour of giving English a secondary status, as opposed its status during the British rule, its importance could never

NSOU ? PGELT-8A 59 be hindered. Indian English has established itself as a new variety and Indian Writing in English has already got worldwide recognition as a distinct discipline. The three main drivers towards greater use of English, as identified by David Graddol, are: education (increasing demand for English-medium schools, widening access to higher education, incorporation of English training in vocational education); employment (many jobs in the organized sector now requires good English skills); social mobility (English is seen as an access route to the middle classes and geographical mobility within India and beyond). People of India, irrespective of any regional or social identity, now believe in the transformative power of English. It is a very powerful and useful social skill that can transform the wheel of fortune. It is a symbol of a better life and economic up liftment. Although its space is yet to be ascertained, it has emerged as a powerful agent for social change and progress in independent India. 4.13 Review Questions a. What was the system of education we adopted from the British when we became independent? b. What were the major recommendations of Radhakrishnan Commission? c. How did the schooling structure change with Kothari Commission? d. What major changes to language policy were made in 1986 (NPE). e. What is most recent modification to the education system in India? f. Discuss the Language policy in Post Independent India according to NEP 2020. g. Reflect on Study of English with accordance with Secondary Education Commission. h. Discuss on the methods and techniques recommended for ELT in the various commissions since independence. i. Write a note on Indian Writing in English j. Discuss the reasons behind greater use of English in the light of 'Énglish for empowerment'.

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NSOU ? PGELT-8A 61 MODULE-2 : ENGLISH FOR SPECIFIC PURPOSES Unit 5 Opportunities for Using English in India (Travel, Tourism & Trade) Structure 5.1 Objectives 5.2 Introduction 5.3 ESP – Characteristics 5.4 Branches of ESP 5.5 English for Tourism Purposes (ETP) 5.6 Characteristics and features of ESP and ETP courses 5.6.1 Curriculum Designing 5.6.2 Organizing Course 5.6.3 Learning Style 5.6.4 Selecting Material 5.6.5 English Efficiency 5.6.6 Types of Activities with Text 5.6.7 Evaluation 5.7 Teaching ETP 5.8 Summary 5.9 Review Questions 5.10 References 5.11 Reading List 62 NSOU ? PGELT-8A 5.1 Objectives This unit will enable the learner to: a) Use appropriately the spoken English in different situations of the tourist trade. b) Read and understand a variety of literature related to tourism. c) Write specific documents related to promotion of tourism. d) Listen and understand different styles of speaking English spoken by the tourists. e) Provide an overview of the purpose of teaching/learning ESP (English for Specific Purposes) and ETP (English for Tourism Purposes). 5.2 Introduction The quick development of the tourism and hospitality industry can directly influence the English language which is the most widely used and spoken language in international tourism in the twenty-first century. English for tourism has a major role in the delivery of quality service. Employees who work in the tourism and hospitality industry are well aware of its importance and strive to possess a good command of English at their workplace. 5.3 ESP – Characteristics English for tourism and hospitality has been categorized under English for the specific purpose (ESP). It is an important and dynamic area of specialization within the field of English language teaching and learning. The necessity of teaching English for professional purposes and specifically in the area of tourism is irrefutable. Language proficiency is very important and essential in all professional fields specifically in the tourism and hospitality industry due to its specific nature and concepts. Thus, it is required that the educators understand the practical applications of this approach. This unit aims to provide an overview of the purpose of teaching ESP (English for Specific Purposes) and ETP (English for Tourism Purposes) to the learners and users. In addition, characteristic features of ESP and ETP concerning course development, curriculum planning, learning style, material development, English efficiency, types of activities and evaluation are outlined. Determining the ESP concepts and elements provides

63 specific English instruction that could help the learners be well-prepared for meeting their work place requirements. Most of the time we hear the terms like English for Engineering, English for Computing, English for Music, English for Medicine, English for Business and other similar fields. English for Tourism and Hospitality is used for international tourism and service industry which is considered under the category of English for Specific Purposes (ESP). English has been dominated in many different fields such as education, business, technology, media, research, tourism, and medicine. Fast rise and demand for English for specific purposes needs to be achieved people for instrumental purposes. Learners invocational or academic situations come for ESP to meet the essential, specific and precise learning needs. ESP is thus designed with the purpose of addressing the definite needs of the learners. The methods and the content are based on the learning purposes. With the development of business management and communication technologies in the recent years, some changes have been made in the field of English language teaching. One of these changes is that the attention of course designers from teaching English for academic purposes has been altered and improved to teaching English for more specific purposes (ESP). In fact, differences between the ESP learners and ELT learners is that ESP learners are the ones who are nearly aware and familiar with English, however, they are still required to learn the language to perform particular job-related functions and to be able to communicate a set of professional skills. Three important reasons for the emergence of ESP are the new focus on its learners, request, and demand in the new world, and revolution in the field of linguistics. ESP has certain features and characteristics. The first characteristic explains that the particular need of the learners is identified through the ESP. The second characteristic is that ESP utilizes the specific activities of the discipline and principal methodology. Finally, the last characteristic states that ESP concentrates on the appropriate language learning for the skills of study, genre, lexis, grammar, and discourse. English for specific purposes is a term that refers to teaching or studying English for a particular career (like law and medicine) or for business in general. ESP is considered as a type of English Language Teaching, ELT and it is a kind of goal-oriented language learning. In goal-oriented language learning the learners are required to obtain a definite purpose in the learning process. In fact, ESP is considered as a main subject or topic that can promulgate competence into the hospitality and tourism preparation and training programs (Hsu, 2011). To make it clear, in the language learning process, 64 NSOU ? PGELT-8A English is not considered as the main purpose; it is only seen as a vehicle for its acquirement. According to Robinson, Pauline C., ed. Hywel Coleman (1989), students learn and study English because they are required to perform and complete a task in English not because of their interest in the English language. This edict of English language has to help them to attain a good and satisfactory level in their individual and professional subject studies. 5.4 Branches of ESP There are numerous of sub-divisions under the umbrella term of ESP. For example (EBP) which is called English for Business Purposes, (EAP) which is employed for English for Academic Purposes, English for Occupational Purposes (EOP), and English for Medical Purposes (EMP), and many others with new ones being added yearly to the list. In fact, EOP which is known as English for Occupational Purposes is more general and common in comparison with ESP. All of the main and fundamental English skills such as reading, writing, listening and speaking in EOP are exactly the same as ESP. In other words, its concentration is not in the particular profession disciplines; however, it is basically based on general skills that are essential for the learners to be prepared for their future workforce. The teaching process may begin with the general language skills. Specific fields, such as aviation, business, or tourism need to focus on EOP programs for developing communicative competence. Accordingly, the command of ESP and EOP must be such that the learners can reach a satisfactory level in their specialist subject matters and career. Huang (2008) constructed a complete and comprehensive model for the English for Specific Purposes curriculum which is applicable for hospitality and tourism English. Table 1. Model for tourism and hospitality English curriculum Dimension of the tourism and hospitality curriculum 1. English for Food and Beverage Services 2. English for Air Flight Services 3. English for Hotel Services 4. English for Tour Managers and Guides 5. English curriculum design for hospitality by Huang Chao-shain (2008).

NSOU ? PGELT-8A 65 English proficiency to fulfill job responsibilities in the tourism sector, involves interactive communication. Employees in tourism industry need to engage in specific professional conversations, for which they need a few language structures, special vocabulary and a proper speech accent when serving the guests. Much attention has been given to teaching English for tourism due to using English as a lingua franca in international tourism and travel contexts. Some studies on tourism and hospitality English have dealt with subjects such as checking out the effectiveness of courses and interventions in developing and expanding tourism students' language competence Moreover, there are some other studies investigating the language needs of students and employees in their studies have addressed the evaluation of language materials and course books from the perspectives of trainees, employees, and students. Laborda (2003, 2009) investigated the incorporation of computer-based activities in English courses for tourism students. Other issues investigated by the similar studies included teachers' perception on oral communication activities help developing tourism students' oral English (Jing, 2010). Diaz and Scholfield (2010) did a research on the relationship of general English high-frequency words and the most frequent tourism English vocabulary with the tourism students' reading comprehension of texts in their English courses. In the field of English for tourism and hospitality, many of the studies are focusing on the strategies, appropriateness of in structural materials and adequacy. Comparison between the communicative needs of tourism employees and personnel of the banks were done by Al-Khatib (2007) to assess the attitudes towards the needs and wants. In his study, he also investigated the participants' realization toward English to know what they need more to be included or what they considered less important to be excluded. In his study, he observed that in applying and evaluating staff English proficiency the type of work has a significant role. Travel agency staff believed that the most common reasons for communicating were writing and sending email and faxes, making on-line ticketing, browsing the internet, making online hotel booking and offering destination guides. Moreover, in this study, the most important skill for tourism employees was writing and travel agency employees used English more than banking staff at their workplace. Thus, developing and instructing an ETP course is an important issue that has to take into account. The reason is that using professional strategies and sufficient language learning is required in the tourism field. In fact, people who are required to use English at work for tourism and hospitality purposes need to improve their communicative abilities, language fluency, and accuracy.

66 NSOU ? PGELT-8A These people in international tourism and service industry have the opportunity to apply and utilize the target language in their activities and routine work. Mastering English for Tourism Purposes (ETP) prepares learners with necessary linguistic tools to work in the different chosen professions. 5.5 English for Tourism Purposes (ETP) Foreign language skills are necessary to work in the tourism and hospitality sector. The reason is that it is the means for having communication with foreign tourists and understanding cultural differences. In fact, for those who are seeking employment in the tourism, hospitality and service industry, it is essential to stay highly motivated in order to be accurately fluent in a high level of professional service language. They are required to become proficient in English for Tourism Purposes. English for tourism is viewed as an area of business English. This incorporates business English and English for academic purposes and bridges classroom use with workplace communication. This can help to increase the job opportunities in the international industry. English for tourism is known as one of the attractive subjects since many of the people will be a tourist at least once in their lifetime. Moreover, learning English for tourism purposes is crucial for those who are working in guest-host relation section such as hotels, travel agencies, restaurants, information centers and tourist attractions. English has recently become a core subject in industrial sectors and hospitality training programs. Employees can achieve English proficiency to fulfill the job responsibilities by the training programs. In comparison with other languages, English for tourism is examined by principal properties such as functions, structures, and tenses. In fact, English for tourism is a structured language and follows definite grammar rules. The vocabulary used in the English for tourism is of a specific kind and conveys messages through a conventional system of symbols and codes. For instance, the language used for checking into a hotel, giving information about hotel facilities, meal times, giving directions, requesting and giving tourist information, and other communicative activities that can take place in any hospitality setting. However, these are not fixed and vary from one country to another. Strutt (2003) in his introduction describes his textbook (English for International Tourism) as needing no specialized knowledge 'it is not technical or over-specialized in nature.' In fact, ESP textbooks are significantly similar to any general English textbook.

NSOU ? PGELT-8A 67 For instance, grammar in these books is used as a means of structure. However, all the examples are used within the tourism, medicine, or business context make a distinction from some ELT textbooks In fact, English for Tourism Purpose (ETP) is important for its learners since it helps to be equipped with the specific domains of language skills and knowledge. Consequently, the reason for learning the specific skills in English is to apply them properly and appropriately in the specific professions, workplace, and discipline. As a requirement to apply a successful language, a particular language need of the specified context has a critical role. 5.6 Characteristics and features of ESP and ETP courses 5.6.1 Curriculum Designing Learning tasks and activities should have a high surrender value when we design a curriculum for ESP courses in the field of ETP (English for Tourism Purposes), it means that learners could be able to use what they have learned to perform their jobs more effectively. Designing a course is based on the belief that it can enhance the learners' inherent motivation, which in turn can aid and support their learning process. All the decisions regarding designing ESP courses are to be based on the learners' rationale for learning. When we apply a curriculum design or syllabus on the learners, the target English situations have identifiable elements. Therefore, the process of curriculum design can proceed once the elements have been recognized. Unfortunately, these days many of the ESP courses are surrendered without a target situation analysis being carried out. Several factors have been considered and measured in teaching ETP by the educators in designing curriculum, individual courses, and classroom materials which can assist the learners to increase their motivation very rapidly and improve their language skills. Nunan states that educators engaged and responsible in using English for tourism purpose (ETP) as a theoretical framework have numerous roles and duties. Nunan tried to make several observations about educators who design and develop curriculum and noticed that improving the curriculum needs skill, time, and major support. The abilities required for successful communication in occupation settings, content language acquisition versus general English acquisition and those important issues in ESP curriculum design. In addition, the acquisition of English for tourism purposes (ETP) has to consider these main factors within an international context.

68 NSOU ? PGELT-8A 5.6.2 Organizing a Course One of the important steps to achieve a satisfying goal is organizing the ESP course. There are many factors that play a crucial role in organizing the ESP course. Without them, the learning processes would not lead to effectiveness. In ESP, the term specific refers to a specific purpose for which English is learned and teachers are required to be familiar with. The teachers have to be able to find a good response to what Hutchinson and Waters describe as language description. In fact, there are some questions that emerge from the language description, e.g. "What do the students need to learn?" "What topic areas are needed to be covered?" "What aspects of language will be required and how will they be described?" (Hutchinson & Waters, 1992). Finding the right answers to all of these questions will result in setting exact aims and objectives of the course. In fact, syllabus analyses designs regarding what the course is going to be about, objectives of the course and setting goals are unavoidable. Moreover, the way of the learning process is another feature of organizing a course. The theory of learning prepares the theoretical basis for the methodology. It will help to figure out how the people learn. In fact, the strategies of learning are different parallels with learners' level, age and the reason for the study. The way a group of beginners acquires language varies from the advanced, or the adult learners expect a different attitude from the children. Teachers are required to specify which aspects of ESP learning will be focused on to meet the learners' expectations and needs successfully. Hutchinson and Waters state another aspect affecting the ESP course. It relates to the discussion of the questions of 'why', 'who', 'when' and 'where' allied with the nature of learning situation and a particular target. They define them as needs analysis (1992: 22) .To establish and organize the ESP course effectively and consequently, achieving a satisfactory goal and having respect for all these factors is obvious. 5.6.3 Learning Styles Learning styles for the tourism, travel, and hospitality are different from other English programs. A learning style integrates people's affective, cognitive, and psychological traits. Conner (2007) believes that learning styles are mainly related to processes, learners' perception, organization, and present information developed during the past decades. In1987, Neil Fleming developed VARK, and its seminal publication appeared in 1992. Fleming showed that people have preferred sensory routes for learning based on learner

NSOU ? PGELT-8A 69 type. He classified them as the four learning style of the VARK model (Visual/seeing, Aural/listening, Read/Write, Kinesthetic/experiencing). Moreover, Honey and Mumford (1995) investigated four major learning styles in which learners have a preferred learning style that determines how they enjoy learning the theorist, pragmatist, activist, and reflector. Studies have indicated that learners are more attracted to practical activities rather than theory and reflection. As a result, educators are required to instruct and educate the learners through different teaching styles to increase their learning preference in certain programs 5.6.4 Selecting Materials Good ESP materials should assist the teachers in organizing the course or what is more it can function as an introduction to the new learning techniques. It will support teachers and learners in the process of teaching and learning. To make it clear, choosing ESP materials determines the running of the course and underlines content of the lesson. Furthermore, materials are also a kind of teacher reflection. They can truly mirror what you feel and suppose about the learning process. In fact, good materials are expected to be based on activities and various interesting texts providing a wide range of skills. Teachers are required to specify which aspects of ESP learning should be focused on. However, one piece of material can serve for expanding more than one skill, e.g. vocabulary, reading, writing, speaking, etc. "Teaching materials are tools that can be figuratively cut up into component pieces and then rearranged to suit the needs, abilities, and interests of the students in the course"(Graves, 1999: 27). It is the teachers' responsibility to be aware of the fact whether the selected materials are suitable not only for a specific discipline and answers are given course goals but also for learners and teachers themselves. Materials have to function as a link between already learned, existing knowledge and new information. Consequently, selecting a proper and appropriate material regarding the main criteria is a crucial part in organizing each ESP course. It might happen that learners' expectations and needs would not meet due to the wrong choice of material. Materials provide a stimulus to learning. Not only the good materials teach, but they also encourage learners to learn. 5.6.5 English Efficiency Effective language communication requires more linguistic knowledge. In the theory of second language learning (Spolsky, 1989) individual language learners through listening

70 NSOU ? PGELT-8A and reading generally develop prior to a higher level through speaking and writing. Indeed, the language domains modify the communication for the language proficiency levels. The language domains are speaking, listening, reading and writing. In speaking, a learner has to engage in oral communication in different situations purposely. Listening is the process of understanding, interpreting and evaluating spoken language in a variety of situations. Writing is being engaged in written communication in various forms purposely, and reading is the process of interpreting and evaluating the written language symbols and text with understanding and fluency. People who use English for Tourism Purposes (ETP) are expected to endeavor to maintain their communicative competence, accuracy, and fluency. Mastering English for the people who work in the international tourism and service industry is essential and provides them with the linguistic tools needed to travel and to work in different chosen professions. 5.6.6 Types of Activities with the Text In ESP course, text as a learning material can be used for learning and practice. In fact, it can be a source for reading or communicative skills and new vocabulary. Concerning the ESP activities, it is needed to keep in mind the context that should be consistent with studying subject matter. Different activities can be used in ESP teaching, e.g. warming-up activities, receptive activities, productive activities, and follow-up activities. Warming-up is a kind of preparing step. In warming-up activities, the teacher has to do pre-teaching, discussing questions concerning the topic and activation of new vocabulary or grammar structures. To raise the learners' interests and lead those to further problems various kinds of plays, collocation grids, puzzles and questionnaires can be used. Warming-up activities are very important and essential phase on which the text working process depends. Reading, listening and working with a text itself are the activities that belong to the receptive activities. Various reading strategies can be realized through the receptive activity, e.g. skimming, scanning, with or without translation, and informative. They have to lead to encouragement of the learners. In fact, language-based approaches e.g. gap- filling and jigsaw reading can also be identified or approaches relating to the content of the text. Both of them have to aim the learners to be as much active and reflexive as possible. Productive activities are practicing of the acquired knowledge. This activity is working in groups and pairs or individual with teacher assist who takes notice of using the target

language. To identify how the learners understand the given topic, summarization of the lessons should be done by the learners. In follow-up activities, appropriate using of learned and developing need to be recognized. It can be done in a form of exercises and creative homework. Making discussion and dramatic activities are skills that can be developed through the follow-up activities. 5.6.7 Evaluation Course evaluation is the necessary part of learning and teaching the process. Evaluation is a motivating factor and displays the learners' progress or effectiveness of the course. It also discloses possible inadequacies that are not successfully covered. Based on what we in fact evaluate, various ways can be performed. Two eminent levels of evaluation are learners' assessment and course evaluation. In ESP courses, a test can be the best way for learner assessment. Moreover, questionnaires, tasks, discussions and interview can be used for the purpose of learners' assessments. Since ESP is concerned with the ability to perform particular communicative tasks, teachers need to find whether the content of the course meets the learners' expectation and if the learners are able to dispose of the new information and perform learned skills in a particular situation. On the other hand, the same as learner evaluation, the course evaluation, aids to assess whether the characteristic features of designing the course were met. Course evaluation involves all those who share the learning process in making the ESP course as satisfying as possible to the learners and the teachers. Depending on course running and an individual situation, the evaluation can be done. This means that there is no specific time or priority for doing the evaluation. However, it is very important to be aware of giving feedback. 5.7 Teaching ETP In the modern world and with more emphasis on professional subjects and science at universities, language studies are often neglected. Consequently, English might remain a difficult language to major in spite the fact that the tourism service industry can benefit extremely from it and it can revive interest in learning languages. One of the major criteria in employing people in the tourism and hospitality sector is the English knowledge. Poor English proficiency and competency can result in hardness in attracting and entertaining

the tourists. Therefore, it is crucial to consider the English language taught as a core subject at tourism higher education institutions and universities all over the world. Future studies and research need to be conducted in order to analyze the English language needs of tourism. These studies would expand institutional perspectives on how the English language preparation for tourism purposes could be appropriately improved. Having looked at the learning tasks and textbooks in the teaching of English for the tourism and hospitality, we can figure out that each higher institute or university uses a different textbook that contains the materials collected by teachers from various sources. These sources include English for tourism and English for general purposes materials, and all of them comprise all the four English skills; speaking, listening, writing and reading. Vocabulary activities and grammar structures are also emphasized in these English sources. It is essential to have a variety of English learning activities that can assist the learners to improve their English skills for the tourism purposes. These activities can be letter writing, group discussion, role playing and etc. This can qualify and prepare them for their future occupations in international tourism. It is supposed that teaching English for tourism and hospitality industry is achieved through a topic-based focus. This method of teaching fulfills the double role of providing a meaningful framework, and learners can develop their language skills and knowledge. Moreover, it avoids the too-evident repetition of language items they have already seen. Topic-based approach aids that the language items covered are those truly required within the field chosen. 5.8 Summary The second language speakers of English who wish to be employed and work in the service industry and international tourism and those who aspire to learn English for tourism purposes (ETP) have to carefully regard the language they use and the context of the particular situation. Therefore, a complete and comprehensive curriculum of practical courses should be helpful and beneficial for them. A curriculum relating to English for the international tourism and service industry need to be carefully designed and created to suit the specific learners' needs and wants. The aim of this course is to provide the learners with a facility to cope with a variety of situations using language in their professional life. Methods and contents have to be specific to equip the learners for their job. Considering the international tourism and

NSOU ? PGELT-8A 73 hospitality, English will facilitate the tourism employees to meet up with their professional linguistic requirements in a satisfactory manner and finally to improve the quality service in international tourism. In ESP courses appropriate and related teaching materials are required to be designed and prepared based on different employees' duties. Mastering English for tourism purposes provide the individuals with the linguistic tools needed for travelling or for working in a variety of chosen professions in tourism and hospitality sectors. 5.9 Review Questions a. What is your understanding of ESP? b. How different is ESP from EGP? c. What are the salient features of ETP? d. What are the different uses of English for professionals in Tourism industry? e. Are there special materials to teach ETP? What are their features? f. What should be the role of teacher to teach ETP courses? g. What are the special strategies to teach ETP courses? h. Discuss the strategies for evaluating ESP learners. i. Discuss the branches of ESP. j. What are the characteristic features of ESP and ETP courses? 5.10 References Conner, M. L. (2007). Introduction to learning styles. Ageless Learner, 1997-2007. Retrieved July 30, 2012, fromhttp://agelesslearner.com/intros/lstyleintro.html Cravotta, J. S. (1990). English for Tourism Purposes. A new approach in the field of English for Specific Purposes. (Retrieved fromhttp://www.espfortourism.blogspot.my/2012/05/english-for-tourism- purposes.html) Diaz, C. A., &Scholfield, P. (2010). Reading comprehension and specialized vocabulary:

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76 NSOU ? PGELT-8A Unit 6 Opportunities for Using English in India (Education, Employment and Social Mobility) Structure 6.1 Objectives 6.2 Introduction 6.3 Concept of Social Mobility 6.4 Social Mobility and Strategies of Educational Selection 6.5 Equality of Educational & Employment Opportunity 6.6 Equality of Social Access: Myth or Reality 6.7 Schooling and Equality of Educational Opportunity 6.8 Some observations on Social Mobility 6.9 Relationship between Education and Social Mobility in Indian Society 6.10

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Summary 6.11 Review Questions 6.12 Reading List 6.1 Objectives After reading this unit students will be able to

comprehend the: a) Relationship between education, social mobility and nature of stratified society; b) Concept of equality of educational opportunity and its evolution; and c) Theoretical perspectives regarding the relationship between education and social mobility. 6.2 Introduction Education, as widely assumed, plays a positive role in enhancing a person's chances of social mobility. Why would one study otherwise? There is no doubt that education

shares an important relationship with social mobility. It would not only be overly simplistic but also fallacious, however, to assume that education ignores social differences among individuals and gives everyone an equal chance to climb the ladder of social stratification. In this Unit we begin with social mobility and strategies of educational selection. Having done that, we will delve into the theoretical perspective. Towards the end, we will look into the relationship between education and social mobility in the Indian context. 6.3 Concept of Social Mobility The term social mobility refers to the movement of individuals or groups from one position of a society's stratification system to another. Sociologists use the terms open class system and closed class system to distinguish between two ideal types of class societies in terms of social mobility. An open system implies that the position of each individual is influenced by the person's achieved status. Achieved status is a social position attained by a person largely through his or her own effort. In an open class system, competition among members of society is encouraged. At the other extreme of the social mobility system is the closed system, in which there is little or no possibility of individual mobility. Slavery and the caste system of stratification are examples of closed systems in such societies. As with other ideal types, the extremes of open and closed systems do not actually exist as pure forms, for example, in caste societies, mobility is occasionally possible through hypergamy -a woman's marriage to a man of a high caste. In the relatively open class system of the United States, children from affluent families retain many privileges and advantages. Hence, any class system should properly be regarded as being open or closed in varying degrees. Here the key questions concern the way in which achieved status is obtained and the degree of movement that can take place across generations. It is in these circumstances that social mobility becomes important, as sociologists examine the way in which individuals compete for unequal positions. In studying social mobility, sociologists compare the actual degree of social mobility with the ideal of free movement through equal opportunity. As a consequence, the social position that an individual achieves may bear no relationship to the positions he acquired at birth. Movement up or down the social scale is based on merit. Contemporary sociologists distinguish between horizontal and vertical social mobility. Horizontal mobility refers to the movement of a person from one social position to

another of the same rank, for example, a lecturer from Mogra College leaves Mogra to join as a lecturer in Scottish Church College. Most sociological analysis, however, focuses on vertical mobility. Vertical mobility refers to the movement of a person from one social position to another of a different rank. It involves either upward (teacher to Principal) or downward (chief managerto clerk) mobility in a society's stratification system. One way of examining vertical social mobility is to contrast inter-generational and intra-generational mobility. Inter-generational mobility involves changes in "the social position of children relative to their parents. 'Thus, a plumber whose father was a physician provides an example of downward inter-generational mobility. A film star whose parents were both factory workers illustrates upward inter-generational mobility. Intra- generational mobility involves changes in aperson's social position, within his or her adult life. A nurse who studies to become a doctor has experienced upward intra-generational mobility. A man who becomes a taxi driver after his firm becomes bankrupt has undergone downward intra-generational mobility. Another type of vertical mobility is stratum or structural mobility. These terms refer to the movement of a specific group, class, or occupation relative to others in the stratification system. For example, historical circumstances or labour market changes may lead to the rise or decline of an occupational group within the social hierarchy. Military officers and strategists are likely to be regarded highly in times of war or foreign policy crisis. 6.4 Social Mobility and Strategies of Educational Selection Turner (1961) distinguishes between two modes of social ascent: sponsored mobility and context mobility. His analysis of modes of social ascent with their accompanying strategies of educational selection is a careful framework for studying education as a process -of selection. Sponsored mobility refers to an education system in which elite recruits are chosen by the establishment or their agents. Elite status is assigned on the basis of some criterion of supposed merit that cannot be acquired by any degree of effort or strategy. Mobility is like entry into a private club where each must be sponsored by one or more of the members. Sponsored is characterized by those singled out from the rest, usually in separate institutions. This is typical of cases where the system for children of the poor is distinct from the system of education for the middle class. Contest mobility refers to a system in which elite status is a reward in an open contest and is achieved by the aspirants' own efforts. In these circumstances, there would be open access to all institutions that are of equivalent status. Here, there is no sharp separation

between students taking particular courses and where there is relatively open access to institutions of higher education. Control over selection relies upon assessment, examination and testing procedures. Contest mobility is like a race or other sporting event, in which all compete on equal terms for a limited number of prizes. Its chief characteristic is a fear of premature judgment and not only is early selection avoided, but any open selection is as far as possible avoided altogether. Although in theory, all those who complete the school - leaving diploma are eligible for higher education, in practice the competition is so keen that the entire spectrum of higher education can be highly selective. The institutions themselves have their own enhance examinations and there are variations in standards, despite theoretical equality of status. These modes of social ascent are based on ideal types using examples drawn from Britain and America respectively over almost30 Years- Their application therefore, rests on the kind of changes that have occurred within specific education systems. Another model that has attracted some attention is the one outlined by Boudon (1974:79) who explored the relationship between intelligence, scholastic attainment, social background and aspirations. On the basis of his analysis, he proposes a two - tier theory of attainment based on 'primary' effects of social background which are similar to intelligence and school achievement and 'secondary' effects which apply when children of equal intelligence and achievement have to choose between different kinds of curricula. Black, upper class students choose courses that lead to the same social status as their parents. Indeed, he maintains that a large degree of mobility takes place despite the bias of the education system in favour of the middle class and the fact that the hiring process gives the advantage to those who are more qualified- Given the competition that exists for places in the education system and the occupation system, however, there is no guarantee that the children from t-more privileged groups would be favoured. Indeed, he shows. How children of high status are demoted and low status children promoted. As a consequence, Bolldon's theory helps to explain why there is a degree of randomness in occupational attainment, why education does not seem to affect mobility and why Patterns of social ascent appear to remain stable across generations. 6.5 Equality of Educational & Employment Opportunity James Coleman (1968) considered five different positions on equality of educational opportunity. Broadly speaking, there were those positions that were concerned with 'inputs' into schools and those that focused on the 'effects' of schooling. As indicated

by Coleman, a key problem concerns whether equality implies equality of input or equality of output. He suggested, however, that neither inputs nor outputs are viable. He concludes that equality of educational opportunity is not a meaningful term. In the USA, the expression 'equality of educational opportunity' has, first meant the provision of free education up to the entry into the labour market; second, it has referred to the provision of a common curriculum for all children regardless of their social background; third, it has referred to the provision of education for children from diverse social backgrounds in the same school; fourth, it means providing for equality within a locality. On this basis, equality of education opportunity demands that all pupils be exposed to the same curriculum in similar schools through equal inputs. The evidence in the Coleman report showed that there was relative equality of education inputs but inequality of results. Accordingly, it is argued, if equality of educational opportunity is to be realized in the USA, it is not sufficient to remove legal disabilities on blacks, women and other disadvantaged groups instead provision has to be made to give them the same effective chance as given to white male members of the population. The term 'equality of educational opportunity' was also considered problematic in Britain. In particular, two problems were highlighted. The first concerns the way in which educational opportunities are achieved, while the second concerns that is meant by equal educational opportunity. After Halsey (1972), a great deal of sociological research and writing in Britain has been concerned with different aspects of equality of educational opportunity, some of which has had direct implications for social and educational policy. In particular, Habey identifies three trends in this work. First, a period in which research was concerned with access, lasting from about the turn of the century until the end of the 1950s when discussion was in terms of equality of access to education to all the children regardless of their gender, social class, religion, ethnic group or region of origin. The second phase occurred throughout the1960s when its scope chiefly consisted of equality of achievement. On this basis, equality of educational opportunity comes about if the proportion of people from different social, economic and ethnic categories at all levels of education is more or less the same as the proportion of these people in the population. Hence, positive discrimination in the form of compensatory education was suggested the main aim of which was to reduce education disadvantage and reduce the gap in educational achievement. This problem was tackled in the USA through Project Head Start programme, which was established to break the cycle of poverty by assisting pre-school children. In Britain, the Plowden Committee recommended the establishment of education priority areas where schools would be given greater resources and where attempts would be made to initiate change. Bernstein (1970) however, argued that compensatory

NSOU ? PGELT-8A 81 education carried with it the implication that something was lacking in the family and the child. Halsey argued that equality of educational opportunity is essentially a discussion about education for whom (access) and to do what (outcomes).The third phase was concerned with the reappraisal of the function of education in contemporary societies. The concept of equality of educational opportunity has undergone significant change over the decades. The core idea, that all the children should have an equal chance to succeed (or fail) in a common school system remains valid. What has undergone a change, however, is the understanding of the inclusive in terms of its implications. The scope of 'who is included' has widened to encompass blacks, women and other minorities, as well as white men. The emphasis has shifted from the provision of formal or legal equal educational opportunities to the requirement that educational institutions take active or affirmative steps to ensure equal treatment of different groups. Underlying this shift of emphasis as Coleman has argued, is the emergence of a conception of equality of educational opportunity, as 'equality of results', where educational institutions begin to be held partly accountable for gross differences in the attendance or success rates of different groups and are expected to take measures to reduce those differences. Until about 1950, equality of educational opportunity had a relatively simple band restricted meaning. It referred to the right then enjoyed by all except the black Americans to attend the same publicly supported comprehensive schools and to compete on formally equal terms with all other students, regardless of their class or ethnic background. Such rights, American educators pointed out, were not enjoyed by European students to. Anywhere near the same degree. In much of Europe, separate schools for the academically able were the rule, and in practice this meant a higher concentration of upper middle class students in the college preparatory schools. The twenty years following the Supreme Court's Brown vs. Board of Education decision in 1954 saw a steadily broadening of equality of educational opportunity. The court ruled that the maintenance of separate school system for black and white students was unconstitutional because such segregated schools were inherently unequal. Not only the meaning of equality of educational opportunity but the criteria on which it was based also broke new ground. Testimony established that segregated schools attended by blacks were inferior in their facilities and resources to schools attended by white students. In the ruling that segregated schools were unequal because they were inferior schools the Court opened

82 NSOU ? PGELT-8A the way to a much broader conception of equality of educational opportunity, one that stressed the communities' or the school's response to provide some rough equivalence of effective opportunity for all students and not merely the responsibility to make some opportunities available. Scholarships and financial aid programmes were implemented, enabling a larger number of poor and working class students to attend college. The courts also moved to a more activist conception of equality of educational opportunity during the 1960s. It meant that black and other minority students should have real rather than merely formal opportunities to attend the same schools as white students. It was during the seventies rather than the sixties that the most radical changes occurred in the concept of equality of educational opportunity. First, the term became still more inclusive in the groups to which it was thought to apply-attention was now paid to the handicapped and women. Separate colleges for male students also came under attack. Towards the end of the decade, a majority of previously all-male or all- female colleges had opened their doors to at least some members of the opposite sex. There was also controversy about the denial of equal opportunity implicit in the greater subsidies given to boys' school sports rather than to girls' sports. At the same time, a radical shift occurred in the criteria that were used to assess whether equality of educational opportunity existed. During the mid-1970s an increasing number of liberal and radical critics defined it as the existence of roughly proportional education outcomes for all groups, or as Coleman put it, as 'equality of results'. In this position, schools were held responsible for ensuring that blacks, women or other minority groups moved towards parity with white males across a whole range of educational outcomes. Differences in these outcomes from under-representation of whites in the Education, Social physical sciences to the over-representation of blacks among high school drop- processes and Institutions outs, tended to be taken as evidence of inequality of education opportunity. There is no simple answer to the question: do schools provide equality of educational opportunity? If we were to use as a criterion the activist definitions of the 1970s, then the answer would be an unequivocal no. Large differences still exist between the relative successes of different groups in education. For example, lower class black students in particular are much more likely to drop out of high school and to fail simple tests of literacy than white students. Adopting the pre-1960s criteria however will yield positive results. There is no doubt that there are far more formal opportunities available to disadvantaged students now than existed a few years ago. However, sociologists are interested in the degree to which changes in schooling have changed the relative chances

of different social classes and ethnic groups. The general issue is whether schools continue to reinforce or reproduce existing patterns of inequality among groups or whether schools have helped create a society that is open to individual talent and effort regardless of social background. 6.6 Equality of Social Access: Myth or Reality To what extent does schooling provide equal access to social groups from varying social, economic, linguistic, regional and religious backgrounds? The question here is not simply regarding access to educational institutions but the experiences that one undergoes in school, which determines the educational performance of such students. 'Theoretically speaking, even though, private schools may be open to children from various ethnic backgrounds, the very fact that they have a high fee structure restricts the entry of a large number of students to such schools. The hierarchy of educational institutions ensures the maintenance of socio-economic differences between groups in society. Blacks, women, lower caste or class groups, even after they enter the same school, have experiences which place them at a disadvantage vis-à-vis, their more advantaged counterparts. When secondary education is of different types, working class children can be shown to be less likely to enter the more academic schools and once there, to be more likely to leave early. There are also considerable social class differences in access to the universities. In the US, the pattern of class differences is much the same as in Europe, in spite of differences in the organization of secondary education. Dropping out of school before high school graduation is more characteristic of low-status families, measured in terms of income level and of the father's occupation. In Poland too, the children of the intelligentsia have a much greater chance of entering higher education than the children of workers and peasants' in spite of a system which allows extra points for social background. There is also considerable differentiation by choice of subjects. Thus the children of peasants are likely to enter a college of agriculture and the children of industrial workers a technical university. The teacher training colleges and academies of theology also recruit heavily from the children of working class and the peasantry. Apart from these differences between social classes which seem to persist indifferent societies, there are also widespread variations' between regions, particularly between urban and rural areas. There are also regional differences between countries, ethnic minorities. Women's enrolment in schools and colleges is lower as compared to men. In Europe,

universities are still largely a male preserve. There are however large variations between countries, dependent partly on the position of women in the employment market, partly, as in comparison between Britain and the United States, In the USSR, for example, men and women enter higher education in roughly equal numbers. There is some evidence that women tend to predominate in certain kinds of higher education rather than others. They are, for example, less likely to pursue post-graduate education and less likely to study science. They also join teaching and nursing professions in large numbers. Socio- economic background and gender interrelate with each other. Studies reveal that the disparity between the sexes widens, as one goes down the social scale, until at the extreme of the scale, an unskilled manual worker's daughter has a chance of only one in 500 or 600 of entering a university -a chance a 100 times lower than if she had been into a professional family. Some theorists suggest that the solution for such problems lies in the reservation system, in which the proportion of children from various social backgrounds -women, blacks (for example, reservation of seats in educational institutions for lower caste children in India) - is fixed. But this does not, in itself solve the problems of the student who is not adequately prepared for higher education or is poorly motivated so that unless the institutions involved are ready to accept a double standard they must provide remedial teaching or face a high wastage rate. According to Boudon (1973), inequality of educational opportunity is showing a slow but consistent decline. However, the value of higher education in terms of social mobility is depressed by the very process, which brings working class and other disadvantaged students into it in large numbers. At the same time, such students tend to be concentrated in shorter courses, or less prestigious institutions. As many observers have pointed out, a society based on strictly meritocratic principles would not necessarily be a more equal society. A rigid class structure is not compatible with a considerable measure of individual mobility and both Jencks and Boudon have argued, although in different ways that the way to equality of economic opportunity is through a more equal society rather than through equality of education opportunity. 6.7 Schooling and Equality of Educational Opportunity One of the more important controversies in sociology of education is one regarding the consequence of the schooling revolution and its effects one quality of opportunity. In the United States, school has been long seen as a great equalizer, as perhaps the single most important institution that works to erase the handicaps of birth and create a society truly open to the talented. More educational opportunities, it has long been

argued, are the key to create a meritocratic society, a society where talent and effort rather than privilege and social origins would determine an individual's status. Such arguments, stated in more formal and precise terms are part of the functional paradigm, and they continue to enjoy wide support, despite mounting evidence that the expansion of educational opportunities in recent decades has not had the dramatically meritocratic effects envisaged by the theory. Much of this work and writing has been concerned with two Linked concepts: meritocracy and equality of opportunity. In a meritocracy, individuals are rewarded on the basis of merit, as it is argued that the educational system allocates them to positions on the basis of ability. In a meritocracy, economic, social and political rewards are distributed according to performance in intellectual accomplishments. Those who do best in the educational system are allotted the most powerful, prestigious and best-paid positions in the occupational structure. This means, that selection takes place through the educational system, which provides an avenue of social and economic mobility. 6.8 Some observations on Social Mobility There have been several studies in Britain on social mobility, but out of all these studies, two have attracted most interest. The major one is the Glass study of 1949. The Glass team looked at a sample of 10,000 men who were 18 and over and lived in England, Scotland or Wales in 1949. Among the data collected were the respondents' age, marital status, schools attended, qualifications obtained and details of their own and their father's occupation. Such data were used to address two major questions. First, how open was British society? Second, was there equality of opportunity for those of equal talents? In addressing these questions, Glass looked at inter-generational mobility by comparing the occupational status of fathers and sons to examine the extent to which sons follow the occupation of their fathers. On the basis of this study, Glass (1954) found that there was a high degree of self –recruitment at the two ends of the social scale. Secondly, most mobility was short range as individuals moved mainly between lower white collar and skilled manual positions in both directions. Finally, that the middle of the occupational hierarchy was a buffer zone so that movement between manual and non-manual occupations was short range. Regarding inter-generational mobility, Glass found that less than a third of the men were in the same job as their fathers. Glass's data shows that inequality is not fixed at birth and there isa fair degree of fluidity of circulation. Although children from high status maybe downwardly mobile compared, with their fathers, they may still have a better chance than their working class peers of getting

to higher level jobs. The second is the Oxford mobility study and was conducted by Goldthorpe and his associates (Goldthorpe with Llewellyn and Payne 1980). It consisted of a small sample of 10,000 adult men aged 20-64 who were residents in England and Wales in 1972. Here, the respondents were required to provide data on their own occupational and educational biographies as well as those of their fathers, mothers, wives, brothers and friends. This study involved an examination of the impact of the post war reform and economic change on the degree of openness in British society. Furthermore, the team also wished to examine the impact of post-reform education policy and the degree of movement between generations of individuals from the same family. The focus was therefore on patterns of intergenerational mobility. The Glass team use da status classification based on the occupational prestige to categorize respondents, while the Oxford team used a seven-fold classification based on social class. These seven classes were grouped into three broader categories as follows: 1) Classes I and II of professionals, administrators and managers are a service class. 2) Classes III, IV and V of clerical, self - employed artisans and supervisors Are an intermediate class. 3) Classes VI, VII of manual workers and vice versa. The main trends that can be derived from this evidence concern patterns of social mobility among men. First, there has been a considerable pattern of self-recruitment (follow in father's footsteps). Second, there has been upward mobility as the upper socio- economic groups have recruited individuals from those of manual origins. This has been a consequence of a growth in professional, administrative, managerial occupations as shown by the census data from 1951 onwards. The fact that these positions have been filled by the sons of manual and non-manual workers undermines the ideas that there is a buffer zone or that there is any closure of the upper status groups. Women have been excluded from studies of social mobility and no comparable studies to those that have been reviewed have been conducted among women. 6.9 Relationship between Education and Social Mobility in Indian Society M. S. A. Rao (1967) systematically charted out the course of the relationship between education and social mobility in India from pre-British days till the introduction

of the modern system of education. According to him, in pre-British India and during the earlier phases of British rule, education was generally the monopoly of upper castes, although in some regions like Kerala, middle and Low castes also had access to it. Vedic learning was confined to savarnas, and even among Brahmins, only a section of the people had the right to study the Vedas and practice priesthood. The study of the Quran was open to all Muslims although Maulvis had the right to interpret and expound it in their own way. Similarly, among the Buddhists, education was open to all the followers of the religion. Certain literary professions such as medicine (Ayurveda) and astrology were also open to castes other than Brahmins. Members of castes that engaged in trade learnt accounting and book - keeping. In the courts of kings there were scribes who specialized in the art of writing and keeping records; in villages there were accountants who maintained land registers and revenue records. Other skills necessary to pursue occupations such as smithy, house building, chariot building, manufacture of weapons and fireworks, weaving, embroidery, leather work, pottery, barbering, laundering were passed on in the line of father or mother. Such a mode of acquiring skills restricted the choice of occupation. But certain occupations such as cultivation, tradeand commerce were open to many castes.

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With the introduction of the modern system of education, both the meaning and content of education underwent significant changes.

It became less religious and

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many new branches of learning were introduced. The printing press revolutionized the education system in that the emphasis shifted from personal, oral communication to impersonal communication of ideas through books, journals and other media. It brought the sacred scriptures within the reach of many castes that were not allowed by custom to read them. '

English education was also the medium for the

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spread of modern science and ideas of equality and liberty.

The western system of

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education was gradually thrown open to all castes, religious groups and to women. Formal education became the basis of exploiting new economic opportunities which were, to a large extent, caste-free. Education opportunities helped one to acquire the necessary skills outside caste. Occupation thus

became a relatively independent element of social status. The development of professions along with the salaried occupations led to the growth of the middle caste. This newly educated middle class in India could cut across different castes but frequently the advantages of English education accrued to upper castes because of the initial advantage of their high status. The British adopted a policy of reservation of low paid administrative posts for Processes and Institutions members of low castes. The awareness of economic and other

88 NSOU ? PGELT-8A advantages of English education gradually spread to the lower rungs of the caste hierarchy, and there was a widespread effort on their part to seek new education. In independent India also, the policy of reservation was continued for backward castes, scheduled caste and scheduled tribe by the government to give educational and other privileges to them. One of the major changes that the new system of education introduced was a gradual dissociation of occupation from caste. While occupations in the traditional caste system were rated in terms of ritual purity and pollution, they, are today rated, to some extent, in terms of the incomes they produce. 'The western type of education has also made possible the upward mobility of*individuals and groups in the framework of westernization, where membership of caste is not a decisive factor. Individuals get their children educated in public schools and convents, follow modern occupations, which are more remunerative and adopt a westernized style of life. Both the mechanisms of social mobility - sanskritization and westernization - are not mutually exclusive. People participate in both these and try to make the best of both the worlds. It can be said that Social mobility in the larger framework of students supported by themselves, i.e., self-help students concern more significantly the situation of intergenerational mobility. Those who are already employed to educate themselves further greatly benefit from the establishment of morning and evening colleges, correspondence courses and the professional and certificate courses leading to a degree or diploma, and the provision by some universities of admitting external students. These avenues of formal adult education act as an independent channel of social mobility. The pattern of mobility here is characterized by greater spontaneity and purposive motivation than those in the case of students supported by their parents. Individuals are able to work their way through higher education and move up the ladder of stratification during the span of their careers. 6.10 Summary The relationship between education and social mobility is complex and dynamic. After reading this unit, you would have realized that it is extremely difficult to draw generalizations that would be of universal relevance. While there is no doubt about the fact that education makes an important contribution towards social mobility of individuals and groups, there are several factors that sometimes significantly alter the direction and fate of such a relationship. In a society which is rigidly stratified, it becomes very difficult for the formal institution of education to remain unaffected or unbiased.

NSOU ? PGELT-8A 89 Under those circumstances, it ends up maintaining the status quo and reinforcing the socio-economic or cultural divide between people. In many cases, the stigma of belonging to lower castes, for example dalits, may remain even after attaining the highest educational status. At the same time, however, there have been occasions, when schools have been able to rise above those prejudices and give a fair chance to people, especially from disadvantaged backgrounds, to overcome their handicaps and move up the social ladder. 6.9 Review Questions a. What do you understand by social mobility? b. Give some examples of social mobility from your observation of the society around you. c. How many types of social mobility are there in our society? d. What is one good solution that can help reduce the inequality of opportunities that exist in our society? e. Does social mobility have some occupational implications to our society? f. In post-independent India, has the education system been successful in reducing these inequalities? g. Is social mobility a part of strategy in educational selection? Why? Why not? h. Compare the relationship between education and social mobility in Indian and British Societies. i. Reflect on schooling and equality of educational opportunity. j. What are the differences in social mobility for educational empowerment and social mobility for educational opportunity? 6.12 Reading List 1. Boudon, R., 1997. "Education and mobility: A structural model". In J. Karabel, A. H. Halsey (eds.). Power and Ideology in Education.New York: OUP 2. Christofer, J. 1993. The limits and Possibilities of Schooling: An Introduction to the Sociology of Education. USA :Allyn and Bacon 3. Rao, M.S.A. 1967. "Education, stratification and social mobility". 4. Desai and Chitnis (eds.). Papers on the Sociology of Education in India. New Delhi: NCERT

90 NSOU ? PGELT-8A Unit 7 Varieties of English with emphasis on Indian Varieties (Speaking + Writing) Structure 7.1 Objectives 7.2 Introduction 7.3 English as a Language of Communication 7.4 History of English Education - An Overview 7.5 What is Indian English? 7.6 Vocabulary Differences 7.7 Differences in Pronunciation 7.8 Supra-segmental features 7.9 Numbering system 7.10

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Summary 7.11 Review Questions 7.12 References 7.13 Reading List 7.1 Objectives After going through this unit you will be able to: a. Understand the

varieties of English that exist in the world. b. Understand the special features of Indian English. c. Differentiate the marked Indian pronunciation features. d. Understand ability to adapt vocabulary for regional purposes. e. Understand the types of errors that occur in comparison with the British standard.

91 7.2 Introduction Indian English is any of the forms of English with certain characteristics of the Indian subcontinent. These characteristics are especially evidenced in pronunciation, usage and also in vocabulary. English has slowly become the lingua franca of India, and is the language of their cultural and political elites, offering significant economic, political and social advantage to fluent speakers. 7.3 English as a Language of Communication According to Kachru's theory, the English language dominance has affected many countries' economic, cultural, linguistic lives. The way of its distribution can be noticed at different levels: "external", "expanding levels". In order to successfully communicate in all spheres of life, communicants, using English as a means of interaction as a second or third language, apply different speech strategies. They need to properly present information, negotiate, convince their communicants, agree, disagree, demand, apologize or perform any other function. Language contacts studies of the last three decades have raised several serious questions concerning the universal applicability of certain provisions of pragmatics, such as the theory of speech acts, the principles of politeness and other questions. In contrast to many theoretical studies, in which the authors only suggest that speech acts belong to the same social acts in all cultures, linguists like Firth and Brown openly declare the fact, although the language can vary depending on how and when to apply speech acts, each language provides the user with the same set of basic speech acts, the same strategies and semantic formulas for the implementation of one or another speech act. A number of linguists disagree with this opinion. Some of them object that speech and speech acts in different cultures and languages are not comparable at all. There is also an opinion which stresses the fact that just as well as different cultures have their differences, there is no equivalent or duplicating each other's vocabulary, and the speech acts are implemented in different cultures differently. B. Kachru claims that the principle of cooperation, the principle of politeness, the rules of politeness, strategies of politeness differ not only in different speech communities, but also within one society, depending on which social group uses them and in which

92 NSOU ? PGELT-8A situation it takes place. The question of the theory of speech acts applicability in the analysis of spontaneous dialogical speech has been raised by many linguists. According to Grice's theory, one should not take into account such parameters of dialogic speech as sequence and temporality, and therefore it cannot be fully applied in the analysis. In addition, the theory of speech acts is primarily based on the intentions of the speakers and, therefore, lack the crucial role of interaction between speakers and listeners during the communication process. Studies of this kind take into account a limited number of principles, such as social distance and dominance. The problem is also seen in the principle of distance and categorical(distance and imposition) factor, which seemed to B. Kachru simple and therefore may not be applicable to all cultures. Though English is one of modern India's twenty-two scheduled languages, only a few hundred thousand Indians have English as their first language. According to the 2005 India Human Development Survey, of the 41,554 surveyed households reported that 72 percent of men (29,918) did not speak any English, 28 percent (11,635) spoke some English, and 5 percent (2,077) spoke fluent English. Among women, the corresponding percentages were 83 percent (34,489) speaking no English, 17 percent (7,064) speaking some English, and 3 percent (1,246) speaking English fluently. According to the statistics given by the District Information System for Education (DISE) of National University of Educational Planning and Administration,(Ministry of Human Resource Development, Government of India), enrolment in English-medium schools increased by 50% between 2008-09 and 2013-14. The number of English-medium school students in India increased from over 1.5 crore in 2008-09 to 2.9 crore by 2013-14. Indian English generally uses the Indian numbering system. Idiomatic forms derived from Indian literary languages and vernaculars have been absorbed into Indian English. Nevertheless, there remains general homogeneity in phonetics, vocabulary, and phraseology between variants of the Indian English dialect. 7.4 History of English Education – An Overview English language public instruction began in India in the 1830s during the rule of the East India Company (India was then, and is today, one of the most linguistically diverse regions of the world). In 1837, English replaced Persian as the official language of the Company. Lord Macaulay played a major

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role in introducing English and western concepts to education in India. He supported the replacement of Persian by English as the official language, the use of English as the medium of instruction in all schools, and NSOU ? PGELT-8A 93 the training of English-speaking Indians as teachers.

Throughout the 1840s and 1850s, primary- middle- and high schools were opened in many districts of British India, with most high schools offering English language instruction in some subjects. In 1857, just before the end of Company rule, universities modelled on the University of London and using English as the medium of instruction were established in Bombay, Calcutta and Madras. During the subsequent Crown Rule in India, or the British Raj, lasting from 1858 to 1947, English language penetration increased throughout India. This was driven in part by the gradually increasing hiring of Indians in the civil services. At the time of India's independence in 1947, English was the only functional lingua franca in the country. After Indian Independence in 1947, Hindi was declared the first official language, and attempts were made to declare Hindi the sole national language of India. Due to protests from Tamil Nadu and other non-Hindi-speaking states, it was decided to temporarily retain English for official purposes until at least 1965. By the end of this period, however, opposition from non-Hindi states was still too strong to have Hindi declared the sole official language. With this in mind, the English Language Amendment Bill declared English to be an associate official language "until such time as all non-Hindi States agreed to its being dropped." This has never occurred, as English is now reckoned as all but indispensable. For instance, it is the only reliable means of day-to- day communication between the central government and the non-Hindi states. The spread of the English language in India has led it to become adapted to suit the local dialects. Due to the large diversity in Indian languages and cultures, there can be instances where the same English word can mean different things to different people in different parts of India. There are three different stages of English Language in India i.e. Cultivated, closely approximating Received Pronunciation and associated with younger generation of urban and sub-urban regions of metropolitan cities of the country; Standard, a social indicator of the higher education, and Regional, associated with the general population, and closely approximating the second-language Vernacular-English variety. They met each other. Despite the assumption that English is readily available in India, available studies show that its usage is actually restricted to the elite, by providing inadequate education to large parts of the Indian population. The employment of outdated teaching methods and the poor grasp of English exhibited by the authors of the guidebooks, serve to disadvantage students who rely on these books.

94 NSOU ? PGELT-8A 7.5 What is Indian English? The English spoken on the Indian subcontinent has some distinctive characteristics that set it apart from other international varieties of English such as RP (Received Pronunciation) and GA (General American).These differences arose as a result of a long period during which English was in constant contact with languages spoken natively in India. As a result, the variety of English spoken on the subcontinent is frequently called Indian English. One marked feature common to all varieties of English spoken in India is seen in replacing the diphthongs with long vowels. 7.6 Vocabulary differences When it comes to words, English spoken in India has been under the dominant influences of the native languages of the subcontinent, which is reflected in its lexicon. Many words from Indian native languages have been introduced into the global English language spoken worldwide; some notable examples being jungle, bungalow, punch, shawl, and veranda.What is more, there are some words which are unique to speakers from India and instances of misunderstanding are not uncommon. Such words are 'air dash' which is used for someone who is in a hurry, or badmash which denotes a hooligan. Sometimes, speakers of English in India add a new level of meaning to the existing words. For instance, if a person wears a hi-tech outfit, it does not mean that they are equipped with the latest digital gadgets. Instead, a hi-tech outfit stands for fashionable and modern, following the latest trends. It often happens that a word from Hindi replaces an English word. If you hear achchaa in the middle of conversation led in English, it is used to mean good or well. 7.7 Differences in Pronunciation Differences in vocabulary are not the only characteristics that make common communication more difficult. Certain differences in pronunciation are also distinguishable. For instance, the speakers of English in India do not make any difference when it comes to the sound /v/, which is produced using one's lower lips and top teeth (as a fricative); and sound /w/ in the production of which both lips are used (as an open approximant). Also, the two sounds /è/ and /ð/ are usually replaced by /d/ and /t/. NSOU ? PGELT-8A 95 The reason for this replacement is because these sounds do not exist in Indian languages and therefore, they are harder to master. Also, central vowels are /Y/ and / Œ/ most commonly disregarded and replaced by the vowel /a/. Another characteristic of the sounds used by speakers of English in India is the replacement of two adjacent vowels by a single long vowel followed by /r/sound. So beer becomes /bir/ and pear is pronounced as /per/. Following all this, there is no doubt that the English language spoken on the subcontinent bears its own special traits. It is vibrant and follows its own rules of development.However, in order to maintain proper communication and transmit the message in a correct manner, every speaker should try to follow the rules of the target language at least when it comes to pronunciation. There is no doubt that today's latest trends in digital technology can help us be better language learners and master our pronunciation skills. Some More Features of Indian English: English has a special status in India. Apart from having a place in the public institutions of the country, in the Parliament, the law courts, broadcasting, the press and the education system English has spread in our daily life. English plays a key role in professional relationships between foreign and Indian companies. English permeated

Actually 4% of Indian use English. Thus India ranks third in the world after USA and the UK to use English as spoken language. Indian English comprises several dialects or varieties of English spoken primarily in India. This dialect evolved due to British colonial rule of India for nearly two hundred years. English is the co-official language of India, which has the world's largest English-speaking population. After Hindi English is the most commonly spoken language in India. But usually Indians mingle English with Indian languages. Stylistic influence of Indian local languages is a particular feature of Indian literature in English. Indian English speakers often mix Hindi and other languages with English. Indians will often ask, "What is your good name?" which is translation of Hindi "ApkaShubhnaamkyahai?" Shub means auspicious or good, and it is basically used as a polite way of asking someone's name. SimilarlyIndians say "Today morning" (aajSubha) or "Yesterday night" (kalraat) to mean this morning and last night. Indians use shut up (chupbhait) which is generally used more causally in Hindi but it is an offensive term in America. Indians commonly use "you
96 NSOU ? PGELT-8A people" when they want to address more than one person. It is a simple translation of "aap log" or "tum log" but they do not realize that it carries with it a racial connotation. Some expressions such as "general mai" (in general) and "ek minute" (one minute) are prevalent in Indian English. Variations in the pronunciation of several phonemes are affected by the regional tongues. Several idiomatic forms crossing over from Indian literary and vernacular language also have made their way into the English used by the masses. Given India's diversity, however, there is indeed a general homogeneity in syntax and vocabulary that can be found among speakers across South Asia. In upper-class families, English is typically very close to Received Pronunciation, while still retaining hints of a uniquely Indian flavour. The form of English that Indians are taught in schools is essentially British English, Indian English had established itself as an audibly distinct dialect with its own quirks and specific phrases. However, due to the growing influence of American culture in recent decades, American English has begun challenging traditional British English as the model for English in the Indian subcontinent. The American English is spreading among Indian youth. American English spellings are also widely prevalent in scientific and technical publications while British English spellings are used in other media. British English or American English is the more practical dialect for emigrating Indians to adopt. It must be stressed, however, that British English retains its hold on the majority of Indians, particularly those of the older generation and the younger generation in smaller cities and towns. The distinct evolution of regional variations in contemporary usage has led to terms such as Hinglish (Hindi + English), Tanglish (Tamil + English) and Minglish (Marathi + English). Indian accents vary greatly from those leaning more towards a purist British to those leaning more towards a more 'vernacular' (Indian language) ? Use of yaar, machaa, abey, arey in an English conversation between Indians, mainly by people of native Hindi-speaking origin; 'da', 'machaa' is more frequently used in the South. ? The progressive tense in stative verbs: I am understanding it. She is knowing the answer; an influence of traditional Hindi grammar, it is more common in northern states.
NSOU ? PGELT-8A 97 ? Use of "off it" and "on it" instead of "switch it off" and "switch it on." ? Use of "current went" and "current came" for "The power went out" and "The power came back" Use of word "wallah" to denote occupation or 'doing of/ involvement in doing' something, as in "The taxi-wallah overcharged me." ? Use of "Can you drop me?" and "We will drop her first" instead of "Can you drop me off?" and "We will drop her off first" ? "Out of station" to mean "out of town". This phrase has its origins in the posting of army officers to particular 'stations' during the days of the East India Company. ? "Tell me": used when answering the phone, meaning "How can I help you?" ? "order for food" instead of "order food", as in "Let's order for sandwiches". Titles (of respect; formal) ? Referring to elders, strangers or anyone meriting respect as "'jee'"/"ji'" (suffix) as in "Please call a taxi for Gupta-ji" (North, West and East India) ? Use of prefixes "Shree"/"Shri" (Mr) or "Shreemati"/"Shrimati" (Ms/Mrs): Shri Ravi Shankar or Shreemati Das Gupta. ? As with Shree/Shreemati, use of suffixes "Saahib/Sâhab" (Mr) and "Begum" (Mrs) (Urdu) as in "Welcome to India, Smith-saahib." or "Begum Sahib would like some tea." ? Use of "Mr" and "Mrs" as common nouns. For example, "Jyoti's Mr stopped by yesterday" or "My Mrs is not feeling well". ? Use of "Ms" with first name. For example, Swathi Ashok Kumar might be addressed as "Ms Swathi" instead of "Ms Kumar". This is logical and perhaps the only possible correct usage in South India, especially in Tamil Nadu, where most people don't use a surname. ? Use of the English words 'uncle' and 'aunty' as suffixes when addressing people such as distant relatives, neighbours, acquaintances, even total strangers (like shopkeepers) who are significantly older than oneself. E.g. "Hello, Swathi aunty!" In fact, in Indian culture, children or teenagers address their friend's parents as Mr Patel or Mrs Patel (etc.) is considered unacceptable, perhaps even offensive —a substitution of Sir/Ma'am is also not suitable except for teachers. On the contrary, if a person is really one's uncle or aunt, he/she will

usually not be addressed as "uncle"/"auntie", but with the name of the relation in the vernacular Indian language, even while conversing in English. It is interesting to observe that calling one's friends' parents auntie and uncle was also very common in Great Britain in the 1960s and 70s but has is much rarer today. For example, if a woman is one's mother's sister, she would not be addressed (by a Hindi speaker) as "auntie" but as Mausi (Hindi). ? Use of Respected Sir while starting a formal letter instead of Dear Sir. Again, such letters are ended with non-standard greetings, such as "Yours respectfully", or "Yours obediently", rather than the standard "Yours sincerely/faithfully/truly". ? Use of "Baba" (father) while referring to an elderly male, such as "No Baba, just try and understand, I cannot come today". ? Use of interjections Arey! And acchha! to express a wide range of emotions, usually positive though occasionally not, as in "Arey! What a good job you did!", "Accha, so that's your plan." or "Arey, what bad luck, yaar!" ? Use of the word "chal" (Hindi for the verb "walk") to mean the interjection "Ok", as in "Chal, I gotta go now" at the end of a phone call. ? Use of T-K in place of O.K. when answering a question, as in "Would you like to come to the movie?" — "T-K, I'll meet you there later." ("theekhai", literally "fine is", meaning "okay") ? Use of oof! to show distress or frustration, as in "Oof! The baby's crying again!" ? Use of "Wah" to express admiration, especially in musical settings, as in "Wah! Wah! You play the sitar so well!" ? "Paining" used when "hurting" would be more common in Standard American and British: "My head is paining." These are some of the special features of Indian English which are accepted in India. 7.8 Supra-segmental features English is a stress-timed language, and both syllable stress and word stress, where only certain words in a sentence or phrase are stressed, are important features of Received Pronunciation. Indian native languages are actually syllable-timed languages, like

NSOU ? PGELT-8A 99 Latin and French. Indian-English speakers usually speak with a syllabic rhythm. Further, in some Indian languages, stress is associated with a low pitch, whereas in most English dialects, stressed syllables are generally pronounced with a higher pitch. Thus, when some Indian speakers speak, they appear to put the stress accents at the wrong syllables, or accentuate all the syllables of a long English word. Certain Indian accents are of a "sing- song" nature, a feature seen in a few English dialects in Britain, such as Scottish and Welsh English. 7.9 Numbering system The Indian numbering system is preferred for digit grouping. When written in words, or when spoken, numbers less than 100,000/100 000 are expressed just as they are in Standard English. Numbers including and beyond 100,000 / 100 000 are expressed in a subset of the Indian numbering system. Thus, the following scale is used: In digits In digits In words In words (International (Indian system) (long and short (Indian system) system) scales) 10 Ten 100 one hundred 1,000 one thousand 10,000 ten thousand 100,000 1,00,000 one hundred thousand one lakh 1,000,000 10,00,000 one million ten lakh 10,000,000 1,00,00,000 ten million one crore Thanks to educated representatives of the society, who are bilinguals and multilingual, many written traditions of the English-speaking and writing practices are borrowed, including the art of essay writing, which they adapt in accordance with their own cultural norms. The examples of such adaptation can be noticed in business correspondence, namely in a letter of request. The first letter (1) is writtenby an Indian and is addressed to a woman he requests information from, and the second letter (2) is written by a Japanese man and addressed to a non-Japanese man (1) requesting permission to use the addressee's materials in his work.

100 NSOU ? PGELT-8A (1) It is a letter by the Indian scholar (male) to Indian recipient (female): Madam, ... Now coming to the crux of the matter . . . I requestyou very humbly to enlighten me of the following points. So, with foldedhands I request you to help me by supplying the needed informationand names of any devotees and fans of E. I am writing to B. S. today. Ifyou want anything from my side just let me know. Waiting very anxiouslyfor your reply, Yours sincerely (2) Letter from the Director of the medical Institute (male) to a scientist (male): Dear Mr. X, Explanations of Kangri of Kashmir are written in some medical books in Japan and we know it literary [sic], but there is almost no people practically booking [sic] at the real Kangri. I would like to use to demonstrate Kangri while teaching in postgraduate medical students as well as for researchers working on Kangri cancer. I wrote to Consulate General of India, [City], Japan, so Mr. Y sent me your writing [Title of Book] with figure of Kangri, [Date]. I would like to have your permission to reproduce the figure of Kangri to my writing. Of course, I will explain the reproduction from your text. Your kind consideration on this matter will be greatly appreciated. Sincerely [10, ðp. 89−98]. The letter in Example 1 follows the tradition of writing letters in India, it corresponds in form to the letter of request in the Anglo-American correspondence. This fact is quite natural taking into consideration the mentioning that certified specialists in Asia have a high level of English, so they have the skills of competent writing in different genres. The first letter was written by an Indian and is addressed to an Indian, so it is written with the Indian courtesy strategy, according to which the request must be preceded by general information, and complete offer of cooperation or mutual assistance. The letter in Example 2, also written in English, was addressed to the recipient from an English-speaking country, so it immediately begins with a request and does not contain any emotive statements for the first letter. The above example of adaptation in style does not mean, however, that representatives of the academic sphere of External and Expanding levels are ready

NSOU ? PGELT-8A 101 to meet the expectations of their colleagues English teachers and follow a clear grammatically correct style of the Western model [4, p. 116]. The classic rhetorical triangle in the West, consisting of the speaker, the message and the audience, does not seem logical to representatives of cultures with a strong tradition of oratory [4, p. 127].It should be noted that the principle of politeness also affects the style of academic writing in countries outside the Inner level [4, p. 136]. There are four main features characteristic of the scientific style of English speakers outside the Inner circle. The first feature is in the indirect style, the vagueness demonstrated by the examples of B. Kachru, when Japanese students tried to cover both sides of the problem. According to the traditions of scientific essay (deliberative essay) in India, the author of the letter should outline all aspects of the problem, so that readers make their own conclusions [9, p. 76]. The second feature is the desire of the authors to adhere to a high style, which roots in the fact, that written speech is replete with exaggerations, quotations, idioms and metaphors. The third reason is extensive citation of previous studies and it is valued more than just a reference to the author, but as a customary characteristic feature of West philosophy. In addition, despite the fact that in the West scientific articles written by native English speakers in initiative and unoriginal ideas are considered, it is a mistake to believe that originality lies in novelty. In addition to cultural differences that affect the style of communication, the situation is complicated by the fact that not all societies have types of texts that are characteristic of the English-speaking world. In many cultures, despite the long history of writing, there are no such types of text as recipes and instructions for the production of something or on the technique of weaving, sewing, knitting, as in South Asia. 7.10 Summary To sum it all, speech acts, rhetorical strategies, organization of dialogue, principles of politeness and strategies for the communication of politeness in multicultural countries differ from those applied in countries with a predominance of the population of the same nationality, speaking the same language. In the countries of the External and Expanding levels, the interaction between English and local languages has led, on the one hand, to the nativisation of the English language, and on the other hand, to the angulation of indigenous languages. As a result of language and cultural contacts, traditional ways of

102 NSOU ? PGELT-8A expressing respect and intimacy have been partially changed, but this does not mean that Asian and African cultures are undergoing a process of total angulations. Illustrating the features of the communication process in multinational countries, we aim to stress and indicate the need for a fresh approach to the theory of speech acts, speech style and the principle of politeness. 7.11 Review Questions a. Have you examined your mother tongue and observed the varieties it has? Discuss the contexts of the varieties. b. Can you mention some features of varieties of your mother tongue that you are familiar with? b. What causes a language to change? c. What are the principles of politeness, and how do we express them? d. Do you think Indian English is a distinct variety? Why do you think so? e. What are the features of Indian English? f. Should we follow only the British model or the American model in India? What are your reasons for your answer? g. How did English become the official language of India? h. Are there any differences in pronunciations from Indian English and British English? Illustrate. i. Discuss 10 stylistic influences from Indian Languages in the oral discourse of the Language that you generally use. j. What are the reasons for adapting words from Indian Languages into Indian English? 7.12 References Baghana J., Prokhorova O.N., Voloshina T.G., Raiushkina M.Y., GlebovaY.A. (2018). Some Aspects of African Study in the Era of Globalization [Article@Algunosaspectosdelestudiodelidiomaafricano en la era delaglobalización]. RevistaEspacios. 39, pp. 1–7.

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104 NSOU ? PGELT-8A Unit 8 Place of English in Education Structure 8.1 Introduction 8.2 Objectives 8.3 Background of English Language in India 8.4 Importance of English 8.5 A Help in National Integration 8.6 Present Scenario 8.7 English in International Relationship 8.8 English for Higher Studies 8.9 English for Going Abroad 8.10 Medium for Higher Education 8.11 General people's Attitude 8.12 Summary 8.13 Review Questions 8.14 References 8.1 Objectives ? To enable to listen English with proper understanding ? To enable to speak English correctly. It means that producing sounds with the proper stress and intonation. ? To enable the students to read English and comprehend and interpret the text. ? To enable the students to write English correctly and meaningfully, i.e. for writing official & administrative correspondences, description and accounts of day to day events. ? To enable to acquire knowledge of the elements of English.

NSOU ? PGELT-8A 105 ? To enable to develop interest in English ? To increase students ability to use planning, drafting and editing to improve their work. ? To enable students to express themselves creatively and imaginatively. ? To enable students to speak clearly and audibly in ways which take account of their listeners. ? To enable students to become enthusiastic and reflective readers through contact with challenging and text level knowledge. 8.2 Introduction India is a very vast country or we should say a subcontinent. Her states are equal to or larger than many countries of European continent. Different languages are spoken in different states like Kashmiri, Urdu, Punjabi, Bengali, Bihari, Asami, Gujarati, Marathi, Tamil, Telagu, Kenner, Malayalam etc. Hindi is our national language .But it is spoken mostly in Uttar Pradesh, Uttaranchal, Madhya Pradesh, Chhattisgarh and Rajasthan only. In southern states like Tamil Nadu, Kerala, Andhra Pradesh, Telangana, Karnataka mostly many people do not understand Hindi. They communicate with each other in their vernacular languages. If you want to talk with them you must speak in English because many people there can understand English rather than Hindi. Hence English acts as the lingua franca. So according to constitution while Hindi is our national language, English is also an alternative Official language. 8.3 Background of English Language in India English came to India with British people. England ruled over India for about two hundred years. Lord Macaulay established the new education system in India with the view to prepare people who by cast, creed and colour were Indians but by Language, thinking, manners were like British people. British government wanted to rule over India for a long period, so they needed officers and workers in different areas like Railway, Courts, police, military, education, science and Technology etc. These English speaking Indian people worked according to British policies. English education was imparted in schools, colleges, universities, professional courses etc. Thus English became the medium of instruction and education in all stages.

106 NSOU ? PGELT-8A 8.4 Importance of English In those days Education was limited to a small circle of upper and middle-class people who leapt and rose to power and position due to the benefits of the English education. Knowledge of English language was regarded as the token of superiority, modernity, civilized and prestige. Education in English medium proved to be a blessing for India and Indian people in many ways. Due to knowledge of English language people can read many great books written by great thinkers of the world. They were influenced by the dignified and elevated thoughts of these great writers. People knew about the movements and activities took place in the various corners of the world to get liberty. It ultimately led to the stirring of national spirit in the educated people and those people inspired and motivated the common people. English education proved to be very helpful in national integration, binding the whole country- from Kashmir to Kanyakumari and from Gujarat to Assam in one string. After the rule of great emperors like Akbar and Ashoka India again integrated and emerged as one country in real sense due to English education. The freedom fighter leaders were able to make correspondence with all the people of India through English language. Gandhi ji, Nehru ji, Vallabh Bhai Patel and other national leaders had good knowledge of English. Actually in other words we can say that good knowledge of English made them National leaders. We can say that English language had made India united and integrated. Due to national unity and integrity the great imperial power of England was forced to leave India giving liberty to India and Indian people. We can also say that we used the great weapon of England herself (English Language) to drive British Government out of India. 8.5 A Help in National Integration English also should be learnt for national integration. If English be learnt in sound way it will be easy for integration with the different people in the nation. As regard for the place of English in the secondary school curriculum, INDIAN EDUCATION COMMISSION (KOTHARI COMMISSION) (1964-66) recommends that at the secondary stage the student will study their languages. To non Hindi speaking ones these are (i) the mother language or the regional language. (ii) Hindi (iii) English.

ii) English

NSOU ? PGELT-8A 107 and (iii) a modern Indian language other than Hindi. The recommendation is justified and so in the opinion of the central advisory board of secondary education admits that a pupil should before completing his school education acquire knowledge of three language where by English occupy the place of 2 nd language in the school curriculum. 8.6 Present Scenario After independence many people thought that since Britishers had quitted India, English language should also be packed off without any delay. According to them English language was a symbol of slavery. Those sentimental and emotional people uttered such things without thinking that what this language had given us and what it might give the children of this country. Mahatma Gandhi was very clear about this prejudice of such people.

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He said, "I do not want my house to be walled in all side and my windows to be stuffed. I want the culture of all the lands to be blown about my house as freely as possible."

Hindi is our national language. We respect Hindi just like we respect our mother, our tri coloured national flag and our national emblem Ashoka Stumbh. But here we are analyzing our views about the utility and importance of English for the growth and progress of our country. The great writers of Hindi language should coin new words and terms to be used in Research, Science and Technology field and thus make this great ancient language richer and more prosperous so that it may get recognition on international platform. Hindi is not yet the recognized language of U.N. platform. At present English language is not the language of Britain alone but it has taken the form of international language. It has been said that English is spoken by more people outside of England than within England herself. English language has become a global language making globalization possible in the world. English is said to be the gateway of the knowledge of several fields like Political Science, Philosophy, Psychology, Science, Technology, Economics, Social Science etc. Standard books on these fields are mostly found written in English. Many great non-English authors get important materials from the books written in English. 8.7 English in International Relationship Today no country can retain existence without the cooperation of other countries. Today the leaders of different counties meet and exchange their thoughts on various 108 NSOU ? PGELT-8A Platforms like UN, SAARC. The representatives of different countries communicate in English on these platforms. India cannot be isolated from the rest of the world if she want to develop herself as a great power of the world. English is one and only one medium of the communication on international level. English is not only an international language but essential language for interpersonal communication across the world. Learning English is as important as eating food for a living. English is the language for research in any field be it student life or for business. It is essential to learn, read, speak and write in English. It is an important language because as we go anywhere across the globe, English is the most common language which people overseas can speak and write without any hurdle. It plays an important role in spreading knowledge of any kind. One has to have a good knowledge of English to access the sources of any information. India is the third largest English book producing country after UK. 8.8 English for Higher Studies It is true that English is very important for higher studies as with the help of this language we become aware of new technologies as maximum details are available today in English language only. So, it is a must for everyone to have complete knowledge of this. When someone goes for higher studies English is the most common language used everywhere, if one does not have good English skills, he/she cannot opt for higher studies. Today, most of the publishing companies are publishing books in English language only for students who are studying for higher education. So, it is vital for every student to learn this as without this it would not be possible to study at a higher level. The UNO(UNITED NATIONS ORGANISATION) has given English the status of an official language. If English would not have been there, we would not have seen India's development. English plays an important role in Indian education system. One can achieve success in any field because of English as the vocabulary and terminology used in different fields like technology, medicine is available in English only. Apart from schooling many competitive exams also reflect importance of English. Through these exams, the language proficiency of a candidate is assessed. They test communication skills, vocabulary and pronunciations. Therefore, we can sum up in the following given points that why English is important for higher studies: ? Almost all books are available in English language only.

? Most of the pioneer publishing companies are publishing books in English. ? The terminology and vocabulary in any field like medicine, Technology Space etc. are available in English only. ? English has been given the status of official language by UNO. ? All competitive exams for higher studies are in English language only. ? Those students who wish to travel abroad for higher studies have to clear competitive exams in English language. 8.9 English for Going Abroad We all go through many formalities before visiting abroad like passport check and all others but is these formalities are enough to travel abroad. Well, the most important thing which we forget that - 'Are we capable enough to speak and write in English language?' It is the first and foremost thing that we all should possess good communication skills in English language for going abroad. English the most common language widely accepted all over the world. Since English is used in so many countries, one probably use English to communicate in many travel situations. Learning and speaking skilled English will also make us confident. It would be easier to communicate freely with everyone and it actually improves the quality of understanding when we express ourselves freely. Speaking English actually enables us to enjoy freedom while visiting abroad otherwise, one has to be dependent on guides or translator for communication. Understanding the local culture becomes easier because we can interact more effectively. ? It is easy to communicate without hitch If one has a complete knowledge for English language. ? While going abroad with good communication skills in English people can explore more and understand more about their culture. ? Speaking English properly can improve confidence. ? Situation becomes uncomplicated when we know the language of that country where we are visiting.

110 NSOU ? PGELT-8A When one is able to speak English going abroad and studying for higher education becomes more handy as major challenges and difficulties can be ameliorated. 8.10 Medium for Higher Education In higher education especially in the fields of Science, Engineering, Research, Medical. Management, Artificial Satellite or space research etc. no other language is so developed as to become a suitable alternative for English. We cannot deny that in these fields there is only rule of English alone. India is now at the third rank in the field of artificial satellite launching after America and Russia due to the knowledge of our scientists who are no doubt well versed in English. 8.11General people's Attitude Throughout India in all states people have great craze for English education for their children. They want to give admission to their children in good English medium schools. Because they know that in this age of information technology one cannot think of making progress without the knowledge of English. There is a wonderful awakening in our society towards the learning of English .Our government has also awakened to realize the importance of English in education curriculum. English has been introduced in syllabi right from the primary education. English medium schools are thriving even in rural and backward parts of the country. 8.12 Summary After independence at times dialogues and debates start among peoples. Some are deadly against English with their logic that every country has its own language. So the use of English should be completely abolished from the study .The person who has views in favour of English may argue that English should not be forced upon all students. Students are free to take admission in Hindi medium or in vernacular language .Our constitution also accepted three language formula .The first language is the mother tongue the second language is the national language i.e. Hindi and the third is library language i.e. English. So English cannot be abolished from India .A student who want to get further study in abroad must have sound knowledge of English.

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English is the language of our constitution itself, the supreme-court, the High-courts and

advanced offices. Countries like Japan and China also give due importance to English in their countries.
NSOU ? PGELT-8A 111 8.13 Review Questions 1. What is the role of English in national integration? 2. Why it is relevance of English in higher education? 3. What was the scenario of English education after independence? 4. Do you believe that there is a craze for English medium schools today? Give reasons for your answer. 5. Is education in regional medium better than English medium? Justify. 6. Write a note on the status of English in India. 7. 'English is an essential language for Interpersonal Communication' – Do you think so? Elaborate. 8. How was English introduced to India? 9. What was the medium of education in your school? What role did it play for your higher education and in your profession? 10. Where do you see English in the next decade? In what ways will it influence learners? 8.14 References 1) David Crystal :English as a Global Language. 2) I. A. Khan :'Teaching of English as a Second Language'. Vista International Publishing House, Delhi. 3) N. P. Ahuja : 'Teaching of English'. Anmol Publication Pvt. Ltd, New Delhi. 4) P. D. Pathak :'Teaching of English in India. Vinod PustakMandir, Agra-2 Thompson (ed): Directions in the Teaching of English, Cambridge,1969.

112 NSOU ? PGELT-8A MODULE-3 : ENGLISH FOR OFFICIAL PURPOSES Unit 9 English Loan words in Indian languages (Bangla) Structure 9.1 Objectives 9.2 Introduction 9.3 Origin of Loanword 9.4 Major Periods of Borrowing in the History of English 9.5 English loan words in Indian Languages 9.5.1 English loan words in Bangla 9.5.2 Bangla as a language 9.6 Types of Loans 9.6.1 Loan shifts 9.6.2 Loan words 9.7 Examples of borrowed words 9.7.1 English (Ingreji) 9.7.2 Bengali terms borrowed from English 9.8 Different categories of English loan words found in Bangla literature 9.8.1 Assimilated loan words 9.8.2 Hybrid words 9.8.3 Imperfect assimilation 9.8.4 Clipped words 9.8.5 Unchanged English loan words 9.8.6 Loan translation 9.9 Summary 9.10 Review Questions 9.11 Reading List

NSOU ? PGELT-8A 113 9.1 Objectives This unit will enable the learner to: a) Attain information about the concept of loan words b) Learn about the history of English loanwords in Indian languages (Bangla) c) Figure out the types loan words from Bangla d) Understand the different categories of loan words 9.2 Introduction A loanword is a word adopted from one language (the donor language) and incorporated into another language without translation. This is in contrast to cognates, which are words in two or more languages that are similar because they share an etymological origin, and calques, which involve translation. 9.3 Origin of Loanword Loanwords are words adopted by the speakers of one language from a different language (the source language). A loanword can also be called a borrowing. Borrowing is a consequence of cultural contact between two language communities. Borrowing of words can go in both directions between the two languages in contact, but often there is an asymmetry, such that more words go from one side to the other. In this case the source language community has some advantage of power, prestige and/or wealth that makes the objects and ideas it brings desirable and useful to the borrowing language community. Examples of loanwords in the English language include café (from French café, which literally means "coffee"), bazaar (from Persian bâzâr, which means "market"), and kindergarten (from German Kindergarten, which literally means "children's garden"). Popular loanwords are transmitted orally. Learned loanwords are first used in written language, often for scholarly, scientific, or literary purposes before they are adopted in common use. Task 1: Can you suggest five more loan words in English which are borrowed from your mother tongue? Your answer:

114 NSOU ? PGELT-8A 9.4 Major Periods of Borrowing in the History of English Loanwords are words adopted by the speakers of one language from a different language (the source language). A loanword can also be called a borrowing. The abstract noun borrowing refers to the process of speakers adopting words from a source language into their native language. "Loan" and "borrowing" are of course metaphors, because there is no literal lending process. There is no transfer from one language to another, and no "returning" words to the source language. They simply come to be used by a speech community that speaks a different language from the one they originated in. Borrowing is a consequence of cultural contact between two language communities. Borrowing of words can go in both directions between the two languages in contact, but often there is an asymmetry, such that more words go from one side to the other. In this case the source language community has some advantage of power, prestige and/ or wealth that makes the objects and ideas it brings desirable and useful to the borrowing language community. For example, the Germanic tribes in the first few centuries A.D. adopted numerous loanwords from Latin as they adopted new products via trade with the Romans. Few Germanic words, on the other hand, passed into Latin. The actual process of borrowing is complex and involves many usage events (i.e. instances of use of the new word). Generally, some speakers of the borrowing language know the source language too, or at least enough of it to utilize the relevant words. They adopt them when speaking the borrowing language. If they are bilingual in the source language, which is often the case, they might pronounce the words the same or similar to the way they are pronounced in the source language. For example, English speakers adopted the word garage from French, at first with a pronunciation nearer to the French pronunciation than is now usually foundin English. Presumably the very first speakers who used the word in English knew at least some French and heard the word used by French speakers. Those who first use the new word might use it at first only with speakers of the source language who know the word, but at some point they come to use the word with those to whom the word was not previously known. To these speakers the word may sound 'foreign'. At this stage, when most speakers do not know the word and if they hear it think it is from another language, the word can be called a foreign word. There are many foreign words and phrases used in English such as bon vivant (French), mutatis mutandis (Latin), and Schadenfreude (German).

However, in time more speakers can become familiar with a new foreign word. The community of users can grow to the point where even people who know little or nothing of the source language understand, and even use the novel words in themselves. The new word becomes internalised. At this point we call it a borrowing or loan word. Not all foreign words do become loanwords; if they fall out of use before they become widespread, they do not reach the loanword stage. English has gone through many periods in which large numbers of words from a particular language were borrowed. These periods coincide with times of major cultural contact between English speakers and those speaking other languages. The waves of borrowing during periods of especially strong cultural contacts are not sharply delimited, and can overlap. For example, the Norse influence on English began in the 8th century A.D. and continued strongly well after the Norman Conquest brought a large influx of Norman French to the language. It is part of the cultural history of English speakers that they have always adopted loanwords from the languages of whatever cultures they have come in contact with. There have been few periods when borrowing became unfashionable, and there has never been a national academy in Britain, the U.S., or other English-speaking countries to attempt to restrict new loanwords, as there has been in many continental European countries. 9.5 English loan words in Indian Languages English is one of the most widely spoken languages of the world. It also has a rich vocabulary with Oxford dictionary listing more than 273,000 words. The reason behind the extensive vocabulary is very simple. English has evolved by incorporating words from various languages from all over the world. Many Indian words have made it to the regular English vocabulary. Most of them were added during the British imperialistic rule over Indiaspanning from 16th to 20th century. More than five hundred words of Indian origin were absorbed into English during that period and it has grown ever since.Most of the Indian words that were incorporated into English had no equivalent in English for example yoga, swastika, khaki, sari, and sati. However unlike French and Latin words, Indian words were rarely substituted to English words. Some words, which already had meanings, were borrowed because they sounded different and trendy like pundit, guru, dharma etc.

† Here are few examples of Hindi words with English origin: ? botal from bottle ? kaptaan from captain ? aspataal from hospital ? rail from railways ? Santri from sentry Task 2: Give five examples of loan words form five other Indian Languages. Your answer: 9.5.1 English loan words in Bangla Indian English is linguistically a projection language i.e., a language in which speech patterns of a familiar language are projected into an unfamiliar linguistic environment. It follows then, that the English words uttered by Bengalis are influenced by Bengali speech patterns and that the phonology of Bengali assigns a different linguistic characteristic to the English words in the context of Bengali. 9.5.2 Bangla as a language Bengali (éîéyé,é¡éy Bangla) is one of the Magadhan languages, evolved from Magadhi Prakrit and Pali languages, native to the Indian subcontinent. [1] The core of Bengali vocabulary is thus etymologically of Magadhi Prakrit and Pali languages. However, centuries of major borrowing and re-borrowing from Arabic, Persian, Turkish, Sanskrit, Austroasiatic languages and other languages has led to the adoption of a wide range of words with foreign origins. Thus making the origins of borrowed and re-borrowed words in the Bengali vocabulary numerous and diverse, due to centuries of contact with various languages. 9.6 Types of Loans According to the degree of adaptation, assimilation and integration of Loan Word into the system of the borrowing language, two types of loans emerge. (a) Loan shifts (b) Loan words

9.6.1 Loan shifts Loan shift has been defined as (See Dictionary of Language and Linguistics 1972) "….the borrowing of a word or phrase from another language with a simultaneous modification of its phonological shape, so that it is taken for a native one." This definition is found to be inadequate in the sense that it considers phonology as the only criterion for determining a borrowed word as loan shift. Semantic criterion is also as important to classify an item as 'loan shift'. For example, the stem of the word 'mætʃaka:r' is still recognizable as the English verb 'massacre' meaning 'to kill' or 'to defeat', but semantically the word has undergone a drastic shift to mean 'confusion' or 'haphazard'. English loan shifts in Midnapuri Bengali are instances of early borrowing. Early borrowings were less in number and had greater value of usability then, as they filled in the gaps that existed in the Bangla lexicon. Perhaps, these attributes were conducive to the nativisation of those words. They have got so firmly knit into Standard Bangla that the uninformed Midnapuri native speaker is often not aware of their English origin. Examples: Loan Shifts (Midnapuri 'MB') Standard Bangla (SB) Gloss /ujil/ /uil/ 'will' /ph rom/ /f rm/ 'form' /eskelanti/ /ekʃilent/ 'excellent' /aintʃesto/ /p ket/ pocket' /a:pis/ /a:piʃ/ or / fiʃ/ 'office' This reveals that the above English words have been bengalicised to such an extent that they are easily mistaken for Bangla words. At the phonemic level, it may be observed that English segments have been replaced by Bangla segments. 9.6.2 Loan words Loan words, on the other hand, are borrowed words in Bengali, which have started (but have not yet finished) their adaptation and assimilation. Loan words have entered Bengali and further to Midnapuri Bengali as a result of strengthening of the contact between English and Bengali owing to various reasons. They preserve certain phonemic and phonological features of the English Language and they represent a phonetic c c c c

118 NSOU ? PGELT-8A compromise of some degree. The words /mætʃaka:r/ (massacre), / as lto:/ (aasault), and /meletari/ (military) come under the category of phonological loan words in Midnapuri, since these word are phonologically Bengalicised unlike the manner of loan shifts like 'eskelanti' from 'eks l nt'(excellent) and 'a:pis' from ' fis' (office) where the segments or phonemes are almost changed. Task 3: Mention whether the following are Loan shifts or loan words: /a:pil/ 'appeal'........................ /saman/ 'summons'........................ /benchi/ 'bench'.................. /kek/ 'cake'................................. /res/ 'race'.................... /futb l/ 'football'....................... 9.7 Examples of borrowed words Due to centuries of contact with Europeans, Mughals, Arabs, Persians, and East Asians, the Bengali language has absorbed countless words from foreign languages, often totally integrating these borrowings into the core vocabulary. The most common borrowings from foreign languages come from three different kinds of contact. After centuries of contact from Persia and the Middle East, followed by the invasions of the Mughal Empire, numerous Turkish, Arabic, and Persian words were absorbed and fully integrated into the lexicon. [5][6] Later, East Asian travellers and European colonialism brought words from Portuguese, French, Dutch, and most significantly English. Some very common borrowings are shown below: 9.7.1 English (Ingreji) Word Original form Word Original form Word Original form ofish office glas glass haspatal hospital jel jail cheyar chair kap cup óaktar doctor ñebil table astabol stable pulish police baksô box saikel cycle bank bank lônñhôn lantern iskul school bhoñ vote plàsñik plastic Kol[1]j college e e c c c

NSOU ? PGELT-8A 119 9.7.2 Bengali terms borrowed from English... 9.8 Different categories of English loan words found in Bangla literature We know that the loan-words that are incorporated into a language are subject to phonetic and morphological modifications. The sounds of these words are often changed so that they may fit the native phonetic habits. The words, too, undergo changes under certain circumstances, and are used with native morphological elements. Sometimes, new expressions are used in the language just by translating the foreign words and expressions literally. Taking all these modifying factors into consideration, the English loan-words used in Bangla Literature may be placed under the following categories.

120 NSOU ? PGELT-8A 9.8.1 Assimilated loan words The English loan-words which have been used in Bangla context and nativized to Bengali morpho-phonemics can be placed under this head. Thus, the English word, 'feel' /fi:l/, is retained in Bangla pronunciation as [fi:l] and in Midnapuri as /phi:l/. 9.8.2 Hybrid words These compound words are a combination of two different words belonging to two different languages. These words are formed in the following ways: a. By derivation, i.e. by taking an existing root (formant) of English, and combining with prefixes of Bangla. For example, the Bangla word /pion-giri/ 'profession of a peon', is a hybrid word, because the Bangla suffix '−giri' (to act like one/ to be one of the profession) is added to the English word 'peon' /pi: n/. In Midnapuri it is pronounced as /pija:n-giri/ , i.e, /j/ glide insertion and /a/ vowel substitution occur. b. By composition, i.e. putting together one word of English and another of Bangla (or bengalicised one). For example, the Bangla word /relgaçi/ 'train' is formed by compounding the Bangla (bengalicised) word /gaçi/ 'carriage' with the English word /reil/ 'rail' and pronounced as /rælga:çi/ in Midnapuri. 9.8.3 Imperfect assimilation The sounds and forms of the English words are sometimes altered due to imperfect assimilation of the words by the Bangla speakers. The words thus formed 'are pure and simple interpretations of misunderstood forms in terms of known forms.' This phenomenon of deforming words by people in general or 'folk' is called 'folk etymology'. In Bangla, the English word 'arm-chair', has been changed to /ara:mked/ara:/ 'the chair on which one can sit comfortably', in this way. The English word 'arm' changed to / ara:m/ 'comfort' in Bangla, and the English word 'chair' was translated to / ked/ara:/ 'chair' in Bangla. 9.8.4 Clipped words These words are formed by omitting certain sounds, or letters, or syllables from the original words, e.g. /bajik/ in Midnapuri ; /baik/ in Standard Bangla 'bike' (bicycle) or /phTto/ 'photo' in Midnapuri ; /foto/ in Standard Bangla (photograph), etc. e

NSOU ? PGELT-8A 121 9.8.5 Unchanged English loan words There are some English loan words which have been used in Bangla literature without any modification or change, e.g. /kæp/ 'cap', /bænk/ 'bank', etc. in this connection SukumarSen remarks that the English loan words which were adopted into Bangla after the 19th century have undergone very little changes and it is not difficult to recognize them as English words. 9.8.6 Loan translation In 'loan-translation', the separate constituents of the foreign words are literally translated into the native words of the borrowing language. Thus, many terms and expressions used in Bangla literature are mere literal translation of their English counterparts, e.g. [maÂrib h a:ʃa] (SB); /mat/iriva:sa/ (MB) 'mother-tongue', [b h alobaʃa nd/ h o] (SB); [valoba:sa: nd/ h] (MB) 'love is blind', etc. Task 4: Find out two other examples of loan translation. 9.9 Summary Loanwords, or borrowings, are a consequence of two languages in contact. When there is an asymmetry between the two languages, a language takes the missing term from the other word, and sometimes the borrowing is not just for lexicon, but also syntax, etc. Here are the reasons behind the incorporation of loanwords in a nutshell: 1. Social needs such as educational needs or social status of one language than the other 2. Borrowing due to the prestige of one language 3. To meet communication needs 4. To culturise the language, i.e. to relate it with the culture of other languages 5. Due to the advancement of science and technology 6. Borrowings might occur more likely from a nearby dialects, i.e. both languages are dialects of the same language This Unit throughout has given information about lone words, its origin and its implementation in language. cc

122 NSOU ? PGELT-8A 9.10 Review questions 1. What are loan words? 2. How are loan words incorporated in other languages? 3. What are the reasons behind loaning words? 4. Write about types of loan referring to the context of English loan words in Bengali. Give examples. 5. Write about two categories of English loan words found in Bengali literature. 6. Discuss examples of Loan words from dialects to standard language. 7. What is loan translation? Illustrate with five examples from the spoken discourse of your source language. 8. Distinguish between loan words and loan shifts. 9. What is a foreign word? What is the difference between a foreign word and a loan word? 10. What are clipped words? Discuss with examples from your source and target languages. 9.11 Reading List Durkin, Philip. 2014. Borrowed Words: A History of Loan Words in English. Oxford: Oxford University Press. Haspelmath, Martin and Uri Tadmor. 2009. "General Chapters". Loan Words in the World's Languages. Berlin: Walter de Gruyter.

https://books.google.co.in/books/about/Loanwords_in_the_ World_s_Languages.html?id =OYFMqEJ1KCgC&redir_esc=y

NSOU ? PGELT-8A 123 Unit 10 Code Mixing & Code Switching Structure 10.1 Objectives 10.2 Introduction 10.3 What are the Causes of Code Mixing and Code Switching? 10.4 Code Mixing and Code Switching Difference 10.5 Examples for Difference between Code Mixing and Code Switching 10.6 Code Mixing from News paper Advertisement 10.7

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Summary 10.8 Review Questions 10.9 References and Reading list 10.1Objectives This unit will enable the learner to: a) Understand the term

code as it is used in sociolinguistics. b) Attain information about the concept of Code switching in enriching the English Language. c) Learn about the use of Code Mixing in English Language Teaching (ELT). d) Differentiate the two terms and the purposes of using these in communication e) Appreciate the need for code-mixing for effective communication 10.2 Introduction Code in sociolinguistics simply refers to a language or a language variety. Both Code Mixing and Code Switching are in one way or another coming together of two or more languages or codes. Unlike Pidgins and Creoles, these are milder instances of language contact situation. By simple definition, Code Mixing is mixing of mostly words, but also

124 NSOU ? PGELT-8A phrases, clauses or even complete sentences of two languages or varieties. Code Switching is nothing but switching from one language to another to create a special effect. Note the addition of the phrase "special effect" in the definition of the latter. The key Difference between Code Mixing and Code Switching is indeed that Code Switching has a special, social pragmatic consequence while Code Mixing does not. 10.3 What are the Causes of Code Mixing and Code Switching? What is one of the major causes of Code Mixing and Code Switching in linguistics? Language contact is when two or more languages or communities speaking those languages come in contact with each other. Coming together of individuals or communities speaking distinct languages most often results in bilingualism within the communities or its members. In this age of wide spread global communication, you can imagine that a language or speech community can rarely be monolingual. Even if there were an isolated, monolingual community somewhere, it would still show bilingualism, although within the language varieties or dialects of that same language. Hence, language contact and bilingualism are the prime causes of code mixing and code switching in speech communities. This contact situation is not only brought by physical interaction of the speakers. It can also be social media interaction. Some other examples that facilitate language contact are academic or non-academic reading in a non- native language. 10.4 Code Mixing and Code Switching Difference Let us now go on and talk more about the Difference between Code Mixing and Code Switching with examples. Note that the terms code mixing and switching in sociolinguistics are so closely related that some linguists do not mind using them interchangeably. Both involve hybridization of words, phrases, clauses or even full sentences of two or more languages. The difference between Code Mixing and Code Switching is that switching is done in a particular setting or for a particular purpose. And code mixing is done more out of linguistic requirement. For example English 'master' and Bangla suffix '–i' together forms a new lexical item /masteri/ 'the teaching profession'. English 'rail' with an added word 'gari' forms / railgari/ 'the railway car'. This illustration is found in other Indian languages as well. Let

us look at some more examples: college Kobe 'when is [your] college', Summer vacation suru 'the beginning of summer vacation'. These are all examples of code mixing. Examples of code switching are: tomar smart phone ache? 'Do you have a smart phone?', Amader exam routine publish hoyeche 'our exam routine is published.' Task 1: State whether the following are code mixing or code switching and if not why: 'Choose your dress' /kapar choose karo'/......................... 'switch on the light' /light on koro/........................... 'lady canning' /ladykeny/ (name of a sweet) .... 'light house' / bati ghor/ .... 'University' /viswavidyalay/......................... 'Your face book admirers' /tomar face book-er admirer-ra/........................... The language user switches codes while speaking in a certain style in the presence of another person. In one way, we kind of change identities while talking to different people. However, code mixing is more unintentional that way. We can mix one code with another when we do not know the correct translation of a particular word in another language. In fact, over the time, many code-mixed words become so frequent that they form a part of the language as loan or borrowed words. It is important that we look at a language synchronically to better study code mixing. Also, language and cultures are closely related. Sometimes a concept expressed by one language is totally missing in another language. For example, look at the word jhootha in Hindi. The word is used for something like a utensil or food that someone has already used or tasted. This concept is totally missing in a language like English. So while speaking or writing in English, the user has no option but to use the word as it is. She can also choose to give a description of that word instead. However, if she knows that the other person knows Hindi as well, she will most likely use the word as it is without hesitation. Let us look at some illustrations: i-pad, android, uber, handloom etc. We do not have translations for these. But there are also instances where the translation is used. For example: 'neck tie' /gala bandho/,'women's day' /nari divas/, 'cottage industry' / kutir shilpa/. These are loan-translations. We have learnt on these in Unit 9.

126 NSOU ? PGELT-8A Task 2: Do you think the following are used as loan translations in Bangla? If yes, then give the words used in Bangla. Wrist-watch.................. Handcraft.. May I come in?... He will place his opinion now.. 10.5 Examples for Difference between Code Mixing and Code Switching Let us now try to understand the difference between Code Mixing and Code Switching by looking at some illustrative scenarios. While speaking Hindi, many people use the word "teacher" instead of the word adhyapak. This is because we use the Hindi word less frequently. In fact, it appears quite unnatural to use the Hindi word. Pure Hindi is spoken rarely these days. Many a time, it is humorous to speak pure Hindi. Sometimes we do not mix words just to sound natural. It also happens that we forget words in our language. Or we do not know them at all. For instance, do you know the Hindi word for the famous sport "Cricket"? How about the word "Computer"? Please write the correct answer in the comments below if you do. Your response: The thing is that English is the language of Education. We use it every day to achieve various purposes. We see it all around us. Hence, it is not unlikely that we remember more English words for common things. Code mixing of single words is very common in formal and informal speech. Code mixing of complete clauses and sentences is also done. Although it is a little less frequent. Now, let us move on to another scenario. A native Hindi speaker is speaking Hindi with his friends. All of a sudden, her boss comes and now she starts speaking in English. This is called switching. It is done intentionally because language users feel it appropriate to communicate in a certain way in certain situations. It could be code of conduct, style statement or a sign of social status.

NSOU ? PGELT-8A 127 The example given above is an example of inter-sentential code switching. Code switching of single words can also be done. This is called tag code switching. Let us look at an example of tag code switching also. Consider a native English person giving speech in front of Spanish audience. The audience understands both English and Spanish. But just to induce comfort, she greets them with Hola instead of "Hello", and says the rest of the things in English. She intentionally uses the word Hola to create a special effect in her speech. Hence, it would not be an example of code mixing but code switching. Examples of tag code switching between English and Bangla are: Stop writing, samay ses. 'stop writing, time is up.', We will meet next Sunday, thick ache? 'We will meet next Sunday, is that right?' Task 3: Give examples of five sentences with tag code switching in Bangla. 10.6 Code mixing from Newspaper Advertisement Code mixing is part of your repertoire and they are frequently found in advertisements from newpapers. The Times of India, Kolkata edition and Anandabazar Patrika, Kolkata are two popular reader's choice daily newspapers. The following three advertisement samples were collected from these publications. Let us analyse them one by one. a) Nature's magic Bharoter No 1 antiseptic brand Boroplus niye elo 100% organic aloevera Paraben ebong sulphate mukto ei gel ti Sabsadharan tak o chuler janno Natures magic solution Er halka non-sticky texture ebong Boroplus er prakrito gun bettor theke Sasthoujjal banaye Naturally! 1

128 NSOU ? PGELT-8A The translation this is: Nature's magic- India's number 1 antiseptic brand, Boroplus brings 100% organic aloevera this jel, [which is composed] without paraben and sulphate. For all general skin and hair – natures magic solution. Its light non-sticky texture and Boropluses natural features makes healthy bright from inside naturally. The 10 lines advertisement on 'Boroplus gel' in Bengali has individual words, phrases and whole sentences from English. The code mixed words are eye catchers for the reader. This is meant for the bilingual reader who can grasp the meaning of the code mixed structures easily. b) Puropuri Kolkatar janno Free delivery- pratham order Karun online shopping-er natun sutrapat Amazon-er sathe. 2 In translation it is – Exclusively for Kolkata. Free delivery [on] first order. Initiate a new beginning with Amazon. The 4 lines advertisement for the Bengali bilingual reader has all the important words code mixed from English. These words occur without translation and are modified with addition of genitive suffix '-er' to match the structure of the Bengali. Code mixing is at word level. c) Mother Diary Mishti Doi Protyekti chamoche sei Chottobela mone Pore jaye Mother Diary Rishton ka swaad Badhaye 3 In translation – Mother Diary sweet curd. Reminds of childhood with each spoonful. Mother Diary – Binds the taste of the family. The 6 lines advertisement for the English reader has three languages. Bengali, English and Hindi. Other than the brand name all other words are in Bengali for the first five lines. The sixth line is in Hindi. This appears more like a slogan. Here are two tasks for you on code mixing. Task 4: Analyse code mixing from the following advertisements:

NSOU ? PGELT-8A 129 i) Quick Fry er tarka 17 ti masala ke bye bye No need to add any other spices Just add salt. 4 Your answer: ii) Naba annoder swaad Suswadu Metro goru-r dudh Metro Cow Milk. 5 Your Answer: 10.7Summary To conclude the discussion on Code Mixing and Code Switching, it may be observed that CM and CS have over years been the areas of great concern for the linguists and the researchers. Their scope is not limited to one language or medium, one region or community, one field of knowledge or communication. In fact, their scope is extended over to several languages and mass media used for information and communication by users all over the world. A number of linguistic, socio-cultural and pragmatic factors contribute to their formation and usage. That also explains the researchers keen interest in the study of CM and CS in Indian English. 10.8 Review questions 1. What are the Causes of Code Mixing and Code Switching? 2. Cite Examples for Difference between Code Mixing and Code Switching 3. What are the differences in Code Mixing and Code Switching? 4. Why is Code Switching used in the classroom? 5. What are the purposes of code switching? 6. Cite 10 examples of Code mixing used by your students. 7. What is tag code switching? 8. What are the purposes for tag code switching for the oral discourse?

130 NSOU ? PGELT-8A 9. Discuss 10 examples of single word code mixing from formal language. 10. Discuss 5 examples each of phrases and complete sentence code mixing from your source language. 10.9 References and Reading List Gardner-Chloros, Penelope. (2009). Code Switching. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. Liu, Ping. 2008. Code-mixing and Code-switching. Germany: GRIN Verlag. https:// books.google.co.in › books Muysken, P. (2000) Bilingual Speech. A Typology of Code-Mixing, Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. Pennycook, A. (2010). Language as local practice. New York: Routledge. Notes 1. ABP Kolkata, 23 April 2021, Page 17. 2. ABP Kolkata, 18 April 2021, Page 1. 3. Times of India, Kolkata, 25 April 2021, Page 3. 4. ABP Kolkata, 27 April 2021, Page 3. 5. ABP Kolkata, 24 April 2021, Page 3. NSOU ? PGELT-8A 131 Unit 11 English in Mass Media (Radio, Television, Newspaper) Structure 11.1 Objectives 11.2 Introduction 11.3 Radio and Television 11.4 Using English by Radio and Television in the Classroom 11.5 Television Materials for ELT 11.6 Activities on Using Authentic Video in the Language Classroom 11.6.1 Interactive Language 11.6.2 Describe an ad 11.6.3 Giving advice 11.7 Summary 11.8 Review Questions 11.9 References 11.10 Reading List 11.1 Objectives This unit will enable the learners to: a. get exposure to a well-developed body of media theory and analysis. b. foster analytical skills that will allow them to view the media critically. c. attain information about the concept of Media in enriching the English Language. d. learn about the use of Media (Radio, Television, Newspaper) in English Language Teaching. (ELT) e. learn how to handle equipment a camcorder and recorder for a story.

11.2 Introduction Media facilitate learning for all kinds of learners and contribute to learning across all learning styles. Media can be classified as Mechanical, Non-Mechanical and other categories. Mechanical media is related to technological innovations such as interactive electronic white boards, e-learning, podcasting. Non-mechanical classifications are daily life objects adopted by the teacher according to students' level of proficiency and needs. These are print materials, audio and audio-visual materials. Other categories include technical (expensive) /non-technical (user friendly blogs, wikis), used alone/ multimedia, authentic/ not authentic, and commercial/ teacher produced materials. 11.3 Radio and Television Radio remains the central point of educational broadcasting despite the rapidly developing technologies harnessing sound and vision. There are two reasons for this, one economic and the other a matter of the learner's situation and consequent learning strategy. The economic factor may change, but it will be a long time before the cost of television allows it to replace radio as the really global medium of communication. In many of the poorest countries, where teachers, books, even newspapers are a luxury, a radio is owned by or is at least within the earshot of almost every family. Its use may be for information, as a means of political unity or for entertainment. Whatever its primary use, once the set is switched on there is an opportunity for the language teacher to exploit it fruitfully. Five minutes of English in between information and popular music will at least be heard and in many cases welcomed and carefully followed by large numbers of people in remote areas. A broadcast on teaching an English lesson may take the learner/teacher to books, to work in groups, to work by correspondence and other means of learning. Some can take advantage of these other means of learning, and a few may not, but vast numbers have access to and will make use of the broadcast medium. Television receivers, on the other hand, are still the possession of just a few. Technology is rapidly facilitating wider transmission coverage. The Indian Satellite Experiment (SITE -Satellite Instructional Television Experiment) is an example of television being made available over a vast area, with a minimum number of transmitters. Despite this, comparatively a few can view it in their own homes. Group viewing, though valuable, does not give the medium the day-long availability that is enjoyed by radio. Smaller,

cheaper sets will undoubtedly bring television one day into the present price range of radio. Video disc will give the provision of published video material the same simplicity of access as sound on audio tape. There remains the second factor: the learning strategy required by the medium. The television screen does not .necessarily provide more information in a given time than radio. Television does, however, provide information over a wide range. The combination of sound and vision can provide language in its context more realistically than sound alone. This demands a different learning strategy: the attention of the eye as well as the ear. This factor will inevitably set limits on the use of the medium. Good recorded classroom material (video or audio) may make a very bad broadcast and vice versa. The apparent similarity of and yet real difference between material recorded for use entirely within the classroom and material intended for broadcasting sometimes gives rise to misunderstandings between the objectives of the ELT producer and those of the classroom teacher. A good ELT producer will have considerable experience of the learner's situation, the classroom, and the individual learner. He/she will feel the tension between the needs and constraints of this situation and the possibilities and constraints of the medium. Motivation, attention span, the use of silence and many other factors often operate differently in using a radiobroadcast and, say, a language laboratory tape. The producer will be aware of the resulting tension and will produce to resolve it. Those of us who, as teachers, have made use of broadcasts but have not been involved in production may legitimately judge from results but we need to be aware of pre-judgment on an unsound basis. We may not have studied the sentence or discourse types particularly relevant to radio or to television. We are not always aware of the learning behaviour of the self-selecting audience of broadcasting. Above all, the whole motivating effect of broadcasting and its impact on learning through other media is something about which very little is known to date. Approaching the use of the media through newspaper, aspects of television, strategies for using broadcast programmes through Radio both as teachers and learners and as organizers in an ELT and theclassroom situation, contribute to this Unit. 11.4 Using English by Radio and Television in The Classroom English teachers all over the world cry out for materials which can make English live for their students in schools and colleges and for them the radio broadcasts and

134 NSOU ? PGELT-8A TV programmes of English by Radio and Television provide just such a resource. From Bush House in London some 30 hours a week of mainly fifteen minute broadcasts entirely in English are transmitted all over the world while there are also about 30 hours a week of broadcasts with teaching commentaries in 30 languages. Our English by Radio programmes are re-broadcast by national radio networks in 120 countries and our TV series are in use in educational institutions and on TV networks in upwards of 100 countries. What English by Radio and Television offer the teacher is a source of real English material for listening to and viewing both inside and outside the classroom, it's a reminder that English isn't limited to a forty-five minute period every Monday, Wednesday and Friday with an examination at the end of the year. Even those who are good at English and especially teachers find that our more advanced programmes on literature such as Booklist and Light Reading or on general English such as Deadline and The English of International Co-operation help them to upkeep their knowledge of the language. However, the great value of English by Radio broadcasts is in extensive listening outside the classroom and teachers have suggested several ways of bringing the results back into the classroom and using them as a basis for class work. BBC Programmes such as Sing-along, Catch The Word and Pedagogical Pop which teach the words of popular English songsare very useful in this respect. As a follow-up by bringing the record into theclass after the broadcast, the teacher can get the students to understand thesong. BBC Modern English providessummaries and background articles on many of the programmes to bebroadcast during the month of issue. Some subscribers use the articlesas reading comprehension in class and then get their students to listento the programme to consolidate what they have learned. Apart from series where the language points are presented in individual dialogues or episodes, there are also series such as The Weekly Echo or The English of International Co-operation where the dramatic situations are presented in the form of play lets lasting over two or three programmes. A number of other BBC programmes, especially the more advanced ones lend themselves to debate and discussion. This is particularly so of Point ofView in which listeners send in questions about British Life and socialissues which are discussed by a

NSOU ? PGELT-8A 135 panel. This series is also available oncassette. Teachers use Point of View, and similar programmes such asMy Week and Speaking of English, to stimulate discussion of pointsraised and the programmes offer excellent opportunities for listening,reporting, summarizing points made and debating them. 11.5 Television Materials for ELT Films and television programmes have been used for language learning and teaching since the 1930s, and in ELT for some fifty years. There are numerous claimants for the honour of being pioneers in this field, but probably the first ELT series to be seen widely on television screens (thus reaching a much larger public than the classroom use of films permitted)was produced and screened in Sweden in the early 1960's. Since then, thousands of hours of ELT materials have been produced for television transmission and classroom use, the programmes or films usually being accompanied by publications and sound recordings. Other than what is said so far, these things also should be taken into account. ? History of the development of Television materials and ELT internationally and in India. ? DD and the satellite revolution ? Prasar Bharati and broadcast regulations ? The proposed Convergence Bill ? Studying CNN as case study There are two reasons for this, one economic and the other a matter of the learner's situation and consequent learning strategy. The economic factor may change, but it will be a slower process for the cost of television to allow it to replace radio as the really global medium of communication. In many of the poorest countries, where teachers, books, even newspapers are a luxury, a radio is owned by or is at least is within the earshot of almost every family. Its use may be for information, as a means of political unity or for entertainment. There remains the second factor: the learning strategy required by the medium. The television screen does not .necessarily provide more information in a given time than radio. Television does, however, provide information over a wide range. The combination

136 NSOU ? PGELT-8A of sound and vision can provide language in its context more realistically than sound alone. 11.6 Activities on Using Authentic Video in the Language Classroom A typical lesson can be divided into 5 stages. a) information and motivation stage, where the topic and the relevant background information are presented, b) the input stage, that is the teacher ensures comprehension of the item or items presented or the preparation for an activity, c) the focus stage, where the learners practice the tasks and are provided with guided opportunities to manipulate items, till they are confident and comfortable, d) the transfer stage- where the learners are given opportunities to offer personal comments or share experiences relating to the given context, and e) the optional feedback stage, in which audio or video recordings of the students are used to guide the assessment of the student's performance (for example a student speech, an interview, a class discussion, a role play, a group activity etc). Let us look at some of the activities. 11.6.1 Interactive Language Aim: Focusing on interactive language Level: Lower-intermediate Material: drama clips Preparation: Known short scenes (from plays) with useful interactive language e.g.: ? Functional expressions ? Colloquial multiword verbs ? Expressions of doubt/ certainty/ opinion ? Modifiers and hedges (a bit, rather, sort of)

? Fillers (um, ah, well, yes, er) ? Talk about talk (references to, reports of other talks) ? Question tag Procedure: in the input stage, before viewing, the teacher prepares short scripts to establish the 'idea' of interactive language. The learners can workon another script of their own. After viewing, a well-known scene, the learners pick out some interactive language and say whether they use such language themselves. 11.6.2 Describe an ad Aim: Written description and evaluation of TV ads Level: Lower-intermediate Material: TV commercials Procedure: Students select study and describe a TV ad. You as the teacher may do one or two descriptions together in the class as models. Learners can write their own descriptions for homework. For the description, the learners can write on ? The name of the product and say what it is. ? The kind of ad: dramatic, atmospheric, comic or a mixture. ? What the ad tells us about the product (what it is, what it has, what it does). ? Describe the action: what we see and what we hear in present tense). ? How the ad concludes and gives the final stages if there is one. Along with this, the higher-level learners can write on: ? The general scales approach of the ad- its angle and its market. ? The explicit and implicit messages. ? The atmosphere, mood, tone of voice and show how the messages are conveyed. Comment on the language, word play. Visual devices and level of hype. ? Evaluate the ad for originality, persuasiveness, honesty, memorability and attractiveness.

11.6.3 Giving advice Task: a look at teenage problems and giving advice Level: Upper-intermediate and above Language: Revision of functions for giving advice, reported speech Time: 1hr (20 mins on the net) Site: www.teentalk.com www.teenadvice.org Preparation: In groups learners talk about and list the kinds of problems they have/ had as teenagers. What advice were they given? What happened in the end? Follow-ups: the teacher can divide the class into 2 groups and put the titles of the problems from the Teen Advice Archive on the board.Each group should have 4 titles. The students decide what they think the problems are about, who they think is involved and what advice they would give the people. Instructional media, in infinite variety of forms can play varied roles. There is no single medium ideal for teaching. Teacher creativity and adaptability makes learning authentic and meaningful. 11.7 Summary In this unit you have learnt how media can be used for language teaching. You have been introduced to various types of media – electronic and the non-electronic along with certain less known categories. You have also been told how to use various resources available on the media in the classroom along with their advantages and shortcomings. The unit towards the end has provided some sample tasks and materials which should encourage you to discover more materials of a similar nature. 11.8 Review questions 1. What are the Media Communications? 2. Discuss the kinds of media communications used for Language Teaching.

3. How is ELT incorporated in other languages? 4. What are the reasons for the popularity of Radio in ELT? 5. Write about two categories of English as taught through Radio & Television. 6. How do we use broadcast materials during the classroom? 7. What are the factors in designing activities on media for the language classroom? 8. Discuss the stages of a lesson based on media. 9. Design a task on Radio English for intermediate learners. 10. Design a task on Newspaper English for Graduate learners. 11.9 References Stanley, Graham. 2013. Language Learning with Technology- Ideas for Integrating Technology in the Language Classroom. Consultant and Ed. Scott Thornbury. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. 11.10 Reading List Holmes, Helen Kelly (ed). 2015. Language and the Media. Routledge. Jones, Rodney H., Sylvia Jaworska and Erhan Aslan. 2020. Language and Media: A Resource Book for Students. Routledge.

Unit 12 English for Official & Professional Purposes Structure 12.1 Objectives 12.2 Introduction 12.3 English - the global language 12.4 English across India 12.5 The concept of "official & professional use" of the English Language 12.6 Business Letters 12.7 Activities on different types of business letters 12.7.1 Inquiries. Replies to inquiries 12.7.2 Offers. Quotations 12.7.3 Revivers and Reminders. Follow up letters 12.7.4 Orders. Confirmation of Orders 12.8 Benefits of Knowing English at work place 12.9 Summary 12.10 Review Questions 12.11 Reading list 12.1Objectives This unit will enable the learner to: a) To attain information about the concept of "official & professional use" of the English Language. b) To learn about the use of various office correspondences in English Language.

NSOU ? PGELT-8A 141 c) The aim of the practical part is not only to acquaint students with the phrases used in business letters but to teach students how to write business letters taking into account all the peculiarities and specific character of their composing. 12.2 Introduction The fastest-spreading language in human history, English is spoken at a useful level by some 1.75 billion people worldwide—that's one in every four of us. There are close to 385 million native speakers in countries like the U.S. and Australia, about a billion fluent speakers in formerly colonized nations such as India and Nigeria, and millions of people around the world who've studied it as a second language. An estimated 565 million people use it on the internet. 12.3 English – the global language English is now the global language of business. More and more multinational companies are mandating English as the common corporate language—Airbus, Daimler-Chrysler, Fast Retailing, Nokia, Renault, Samsung, SAP, Technicolor, and Microsoft in Beijing, to name a few—in an attempt to facilitate communication and performance across geographically diverse functions and business endeavours. Adopting a common mode of speech isn't just a good idea; it's a must, even for an American company with operations overseas, for instance, or a French company focused on domestic customers. Imagine that a group of salespeople from a company's Paris headquarters get together for a meeting. Why would you care whether they all could speak English? Now consider that the same group goes on a sales call to a company also based in Paris, not realizing that the potential customer would be bringing in employees from other locations who didn't speak French. This happened at one company I worked with. Sitting together in Paris, employees of those two French companies couldn't close a deal because the people in the room couldn't communicate. It was a shocking wake-up call, and the company soon adopted an English corporate language strategy. Similar concerns drove Hiroshi Mikitani, the CEO of Rakuten—Japan's largest online marketplace—to mandate in March 2010 that English would be the company's official language of business. The company's goal was to become the number one internet services company in the world, and Mikitani believed that the new policy—which would

142 NSOU ? PGELT-8A affect some 7,100 Japanese employees—was vital to achieving that end, especially as expansion plans were concentrated outside Japan. He also felt responsible for contributing to an expanded worldview for his country, a conservative island nation. The multibillion-dollar company—a cross between Amazon.com and eBay—was on a growth spree: It had acquired PriceMinister.com in France, Buy.com and Free Cause in the U.S., Play.com in the UK, Tradoria in Germany, Kobo eBooks in Canada, and established joint ventures with major companies in China, Indonesia, Taiwan, Thailand, and Brazil. Serious about the language change, Mikitani announced the plan to employees not in Japanese but in English. Overnight, the Japanese language cafeteria menus were replaced, as were elevator directories. And he stated that employees would have to demonstrate competence on an international English scoring system within two years— or risk demotion or even dismissal. The media instantly picked up the story, and corporate Japan reacted with fascination and disdain. Honda's CEO, Takanobu Ito, publicly asserted, "It's stupid for a Japanese company to only use English in Japan when the workforce is mainly Japanese." But Mikitani was confident that it was the right move, and the policy is bearing fruit. The English mandate has allowed Mikitani to create a remarkably diverse and powerful organization. Today, three out of six senior executives in his engineering organization aren't Japanese; they don't even speak Japanese. The company continues to aggressively seek the best talent from around the globe. Half of Rakuten's Japanese employees now can adequately engage in internal communication in English, and 25% communicate in English with partners and coworkers in foreign subsidiaries on a regular basis. Adopting a global language policy is not easy, and companies invariably stumble along the way. It's radical, and it's almost certain to meet with staunch resistance from employees. Many may feel at a disadvantage if their English isn't as good as others', team dynamics and performance can suffer, and national pride can get in the way. But to survive and thrive in a global economy, companies must overcome language barriers— and English will almost always be the common ground, at least for now. The benefits of "Englishization," as Mikitani calls it are significant; however, relatively few companies have systematically implemented an English-language policy with sustained results. Through my research and work over the past decade with companies, I've developed an adoption framework to guide companies in their language efforts. There's still a lot to learn, but success stories do exist. Adopters will find significant advantages.

NSOU ? PGELT-8A 143 12.4 English across India English language skills are vital for official and professional use in India. An individual's suitability for a job is often assessed to communication skills and specifically to communicative competence in English. Possessing language skills on speaking, reading, and writing have impacts on individual performance with all stake holders within an establishment. English in India exists in the professional domain along with other Indian languages. The requirement of English in discussion is from the hospitality and health care sectors. In health care industry, reading English is required 100% of the time where as in hospitality roles it is 55-60 %. Reading in English requirement is thus different for different sectors. There exists as well, differing English language requirements for the same role. These are determined on the employment context and job content. For example, in the hospitality sector, speaking, and listening are more in focus than reading for people who attend customers, whereas writing and reading are important for people working at the front office. Similarly in the health sector, listening is more in focus for the general duty assistant, whereas, for the medical lab technician English is required for preparing reports and thus writing is more in focus. Many people working in the hospitality industry and health sector have a mix of front and back end roles. For them, all the four language skills are inclusive at workplace functioning. 12.5The concept of "official & professional use" of the English Language Letter writing is an essential part of communication, an intimate part of experience. Each letter writer has a characteristic way of writing, his style of writing, his way of expressing thoughts, facts etc. but it must be emphasized that the routine in writing of official business letters requires certain accepted idioms, set phrases, fixed patterns, grammar and even a certain arrangement of their parts on a sheet of paper. Therefore certain skills must be acquired by practice and details of writing must be carefully and thoroughly learnt. A cheque, a contract, a pure list or any other business paper sent by mail should always be accompanied by a forwarding letter. The letter says what is being sent so that the recipient should know exactly what you intended to send. It is a typical business letter.

144 NSOU ? PGELT-8A Letter writing is not only a means of communication and a contact, but also a record of affairs, information, events, complaints etc. So it is necessary to feel the spirit and trend of the style in order to write a perfect letter. Doing business means working out agreements with other people, some-times through elaborate contracts and sometimes through nothing but little standard forms, through exchanges of letters. Thus everybody who is involved in any kind of business should study thoroughly the complex science of writing letters and contracts.The language of business, professional and semi-official letters is formal, courteous, tactful, concise, expressive, and to the point. A neatly arranged letter will certainly make a better impression on the reader, thus good letters make good business partners. 12.6 Business letters This unit considers the most essential questions concerning of-ficial business letters such as obligatory and optional elements of business letters and their arrangement on a sheet of paper, arrangement and writing of addresses, classification of business legal letters according to their pragmatic purpose and detailed analysis of all these types, linguistic formalization of official letters in accordance with their communicative intention and pragmatic function and some changes of demands made on official correspondence at present, presence of cer-tain emotional means of expression in letters of influence, lexical composition and syntactical structure of letters, standard expressions, clichés, set phrases and fixed patterns used in business letters and some others. 12.7 Activities on different types of business letters Business letters can be used for ELT with the objective of learning from the written discourse. Learners can be asked to work on the structure of business letters. The structure and arrangement of business letters components to be utilized for tasks are: 1. To study the main parts of business letters and their arrangement. 2. To analyze and study different variants of each business letter component. 3. To arrange the proposed business letter parts in right order. 4. To study in detail a business letter body.

NSOU ? PGELT-8A 145 12.7.1 Inquiries. Replies to inquiries Similarly, letters of Inquiries and replies to inquiries can be utilized in the ELT classroom for the following: 1. To study the phrases frequently used in these types of business letters. 2. To translate some letters of inquiry and replies to inquiry in English 3. To write certain letters of inquiry in English. 4. To write certain letters of reply to inquiry in English. Activity 1 What are the types of business letters for the following: Business Letter 1 Dear Customer Name, Please accept our thanks and gratitude for accepting our offer. It was a great experience for us to server you. Here at ABC Company Ltd. we strive to provide the highest level of service possible. We hope to be of service to you again in future. As a customer your comments and opinions are important to us. If have any queries, feedbacks or questions, we hope that you will bring them to our attention. Yours sincerely, XXX Business Letter 2 Hi XYZ, I take a moment to express my appreciation for the wonderful job that you have done here (Company YYY). You have added value to everything that we are doing here with dedication, resourcefulness and teamwork. Thanks to your hard work, we have been able to keep up with the demands of the business. Best, ABC Your answer:

146 NSOU ? PGELT-8A Business Letter 1 is a letter of thanks. It includes the phrase 'thanks and gratitude' in the first sentence. Business Letter 2 is a letter of appreciation. The writer is expressing appreciation to an employee's services. Other than appreciation and thanks, the letters reflect on the inquiry present situations of the companies. Other types of business letters are letters of offers, reminders/ follow ups, orders and confirmation of orders. These can be used for the following. 12.7.2 Offers. Quotations 1. To study the phrases frequently used in these types of business letters. 2. To translate the proposed letters from English into Bengali or Hindi. 3. To write certain offer letters in English in accordance with the given task. 4. To write certain quotation letters in English in accordance with the given task. 12.7.3 Revivers and Reminders. Follow up letters 1. To study the phrases frequently used in these types of business letters. 2. To write certain letters of reviver and reminder in English according to the set task. 3. To write certain follow up letters in English according to the set task. 4. Some practical recommendation for writing correct and effective letters. 12.7.4 Orders. Confirmation of Orders 1. To study the phrases frequently used in these types of business letters. 2. To write certain order letters in English according to the set task. 3. To write certain letters of confirmation of orders in English according to the set task. Activity 2 Write two phrases each for letters of reminders and offers and discuss the differences. Your answer: a) Reminder: b) Offer:

NSOU ? PGELT-8A 147 Activity 3 Study the phrases from following letters and reflect on the letter types. Business Letter 3 Dear Mrs..... Thank you again for meeting me today at your restaurant to discuss the opening of a new section on fast food. I was so impressed with your setup and staff. I would love the opportunity to join you. I bring other things to the table besides by enthusiasm. I have 5 years of industry experience and hold a B.A. degree on Culinary Arts. I also have experience in leading and training teams ensuring customer satisfaction and trying on new items, all of which you mentioned as essentials for the job. Please let me know if you would like to know anything more or a list of references. Thank you for the consideration. Regards Ms Zen Business Letter 4 Dear (recipient), I am pleased that you have decided to place an order with us. This letter is simply a confirmation of that order. I am happy to provide you with all our products. Looking forward for a continued relationship with you. Please do call if there is anything more we can do for you. Thanking you XYZ. Your answer: At present, when international relations – economic, cultural and po-litical – are being rapidly developed, the role of business legal letters in this development is difficult to be overestimated. Any official business letter including legal letter serves for connection of

148 NSOU ? PGELT-8A institutions, organiza-tion and firms with each other and separate persons. The specific charac-ter of business legal letters is that they do not only serve as a means of delivering information or(and exerting influence on the addressee, but appear to be legal documents. They are a variety of official business docu-ments realizing official business style with all attributes inherent in it. Serving to business interrelations between people business legal letter passes into the sphere of international links (for example, transportation of cargo to different ports of the world, joint cruises with foreign compa-nies and concluding an agreement in this connection, certain agreement, contracts between interested parties (parties concerned); filing a suit for the damage done during a cargo carriage or for the failure to fulfill under-taken commitments according to the concluded agreements etc). Thus, the letter which fixes the whole process of negotiations for settlement of this conflict and the agreement reached by two parties as a result of these negotiations and in accordance with the letter of the law acquires signifi-cance and status of the legal document. Hence follows a specific charac-ter of its formalization, namely: strict sequence and accuracy in stating factual, space and time information, objectivity of estimation, precision in formulating proposed decisions. That is why the language of business legal letters is characteristic of traditional linguistic means namely: strictness of composition, the use of special phraseology and syntactical cli-chés, and refusal of all variety of expressive linguistic means because the language of a document demands, first of all, accuracy and impossibility of false interpretations. 12.8 Benefits of Knowing English at work place English language skills have numerous benefits at workplace. Besides allowing effective communication with colleagues and superiors, for the employee it showcases individual's interest to perform beyond the business standards. At the job interview or business event good communication creates a good first impression. It provides confidence while delivering presentation and speeches. English is the common language in a multilingual context and the language for high-end interpersonal and networking skills. For working in a state with different vernacular, English is of great assistance. English is the lingua franca for workers in multinational company and a necessity while travelling to a different country for official and business purposes.

12.9 Summary In India English is the language of trade and commerce. It is also the language of travel and tourism as well as hospitality. Today, the medical industry is also picking up and several foreigners are coming to India for treatment where English is the language of operations. In the hospitality sector, English language competences in India are higher for a front office associate than those of a room attendant and steward. The front office associates are from the organized sectors across the geographical locations of India. The language capabilities are more for the hospitality sector than health care. Even for the same job there are varying recruitment standards and varying requirements of English. 12.10 Review Questions 1. Discuss the concept : 'official' use of English. 2. What does the term 'professional use of English' signify? 3. What are your reflections on use of English in India? 4. Write a note on English as a global language. 5. What are the different roles of official business letters? 6. How can you use Business letters in language teaching? 7. Design a classroom activity on official business letter. 8. Discuss the differences in setting an activity on a letter of confirmation and a follow up letter. 9. Discuss the benefits of using English as a language of business. 10. Discuss the requirements of Indian English in the hospitality industry. 12.11 Reading List Hutchinson, Tom and Alan Waters. 1987. English for Specific Purposes. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. Knoch, Ute and Susy Macqueen. 2020. Assessing English for Professional Purposes. New York: Routledge.

MODULE-4 : PRACTICAL WORK AND CASE STUDIES Unit 13 Performance Execution (Writing & Speaking) Structure 13.1 Objectives 13.2 Introduction 13.3 Developing Writing Skills 13.3.1 How to differentiate Formal and Informal Writing 13.4 Developing Speaking Skills 13.5 The Art of Small Talk 13.6 Summary 13.1Objectives By the end of this unit you should be able to: ? Identify the differences in formal and informal styles of writing ? Assess the key elements of writing suitable to formal or informal style ? Understand the varieties of English with particular emphasis on the differences between British English and American English 13.2 Introduction This course introduces you to the functional aspects of English through self-check and an analysis of various activities on Listening, Speaking, Reading and Writing skills that would help you hone your English usage in terms of communication skills. It is to be understood, that, in no way does the course insist you to be the native speakers of the language. There are vast differences in the way English is spoken across the world.

In some cases, it is used as a first language (U.K., the USA, Canada) and in some other places like India, Sri Lanka, Pakistan it is spoken as a second language. The evolution of varieties of English is because of the fact that the language has spread world- wide due to colonization. There isn't just one correct form of English pronunciation. A number of 'Englishes' (refers to 'Different kinds of English', (Schneider, 2011:29)) have emerged in different locations around the world as a result of migration and borrowing. The term World Englishes is used to refer to the varieties of English spoken around the world, including British English and others such as Canadian English, American English, and Singaporean etc. The British and American English have made their way not only in our use of language, but in a variety of textbooks and pronouncing dictionaries. There are a number of dialects(a dialect is a different form of the same language used in a particular region or by a particular social group) of British English. They are: the dialect of southern counties of England, London English, Scottish English, Irish English, Welsh English etc. The variety of English spoken in the southern England by the educated people is called the Received Pronunciation, also referred as Standard British English (SBE). This has been considered the acceptable standard variety ("the standard accent of English"). We know that English not only serves as a 'link language' within the multilingual set-up of India but also performs the role of global language, where it is used for communication between different countries. The course aims to enable you to be a better practitioner in the classroom, entailing a practical orientation to the behaviours of participants directly involved in the teaching-learning process. The course is organized in four units. Unit 13 focuses on writing and speaking skills to help a learner to write with clarity and compactness with an understanding of the background- formal or informal, and also improve the pronunciation. We suggest you do the exercises as often as you can and practice them with your partners. 13.3 Developing Writing Skills 13.3.1 How to differentiate formal and informal writing For the purpose of this unit our focus would be different levels of formal and informal writing styles that one may encounter during their studies. We presume most of you have encountered the differences in writing styles.

PROFESSIONAL NON-PROFESSIONAL (formal) (in-formal) Reader Business/Academic/Official Family and friends Content Descriptive, substantiating, conversational explanatory, etc Style Complex sentences showing Mostly simple and compound considerable variety in sentences joined by construction conjunctions Organization Clear and well-planned Discursive Grammar Largely error free May not always use complete sentences Vocabulary Technical and professional use Use of short forms, idioms of diction and should be jargon and colloquial free Contractions Full forms (There is) Short forms (There's) Use of the Passive Active voice (e.g. have been done) (e.g. have done) Point of View Objective and impersonal Subjective and personal Does not use the first person Can use first or third person point of view (I or We) or point of view; likely to address second person (you) using second person (you and your) Activity 1: Know Your Writing Think about the questions below: a. What kind of writing do you do at work? (e.g. E- mail...). b. Do you write emails, faxes, letters, press releases, memos, reports, minutes or proposals? c. How frequently do you write these? d. What is your relationship with the people you write to (Colleague, friend, boss, supplier, customer, potential customer)?

NSOU ? PGELT-8A 153 Activity 2 The 5Cs of business writing Match the 5Cs of business writing (A-E) mentioned below to their definitions (i-v): I. avoiding duplications and repetition, A. Correct leaving out unimportant things II. using specific language and B. Concise a logical structure III. checking facts, figures, spelling, C. Clear grammar and punctuation IV. stating purpose, details, action D. Courteous required etc. V. being polite, choosing words wisely E. Complete keeping in mind the readers Stop and Think ! One of the best ways to improve your writing is to see it as a process. We can break this process down into series of steps that together lead to the final product. We can use the letters P-O-W-E-R to label each step of the process. P-– Plan (Brainstorm ideas/Decide exactly why you are writing/Collect information/Decide if all the information you have collected is relevant/Think about what your reader(s) know(s)) O – Organize (Order the content according to what your reader knows/ Put content into a logical sequence/Group ideas into paragraphs) W – Writing (Write according to your plan/ Check the document's layout is clear/Check the meaning of any words you are unsure of/Check your punctuation)

154 NSOU ? PGELT-8A E — Editing (Use your computer's spell-check/Check you have used plain English/Look for sentences that are too long or unclear/Rewrite sentences and paragraphs/Check grammar) R — Revise (Ask a colleague to read through and comment on your text/ Leave the document aside and read it again later/Re-order information to make it clearer to the reader) Activity 3 Read the sentences in the following table and tick (√√√√√) either F (formal) or I (informal) after each sentence. Make notes on which features helped you reach your decision. Sentences F I Notes I couldn't finish the interviews on time. The initial tests were completed and the results analyzed by June 2018. I'd like to start by drawing your attention to previous research in this area. In the 1990s, some researchers started to point out the problems with this theory. He agreed with me that this procedure didn't make much sense. We'll repeat the test sometime next year. While it is still too early to draw firm conclusions from the data, preliminary analysis suggests the following trends are present. In addition, the research attempts to answer two further related questions. Stop and Think ! Are the rules for academic writing in your mother tongue the same as, or different from, those for writing in English?

NSOU ? PGELT-8A 155 Note: A formal writing cannot be tagged as better than an informal style, in fact, each style serves its own purpose and needs careful understanding in choosing which style is suitable in each case. For e.g. professional communication is likely to require formal writing style, although individual communications could also make use of informal style provided you are familiar with the recipient. Activity 4 Match the informal and more formal expressions from the two columns below by writing the correct number in the spaces on the right: Formal Informal 1 I was wondering if you could … Re your … 2 We would like to remind you … Do you want me to …? 3 With regard to your … If you need to know anything else, … 4 I am afraid I will not be able Would you mind…? to attend as 5 Would you like me to ..? Tell me what you need. 6 If you require any further information,… I'm sorry to tell you … 7 Could you give me your exact Don't forget … requirements?… 8 I regret to inform you that … I'm sorry, I won't be able to come because.. Activity 5 Make these extracts from a Job application letter more formal. Rewrite the verbs in bold using a passive form of the verbs in brackets. 1. I wish to apply for the post of the Auditor, which I saw in the Times on 15 March. (advertise) 2. As you will see from the enclosed CV, I studied at Bristol Grammar School and the University of Manchester, where I got a first class honours degree. While at Manchester I gotto be President of the Debating Society. (Educate, award, elect)

156 NSOU ? PGELT-8A Activity 6 Write an email to a vendor who has delayed the delivery of consignments. [Tips –- Brainstorm first! Think of all the ideas you need to mention in the entire email. — Organize them logically. Remember to be polite.] Activity 7: Analysing a piece of business writing Reena works for ABC Ltd which is celebrating its 10 years of success. She writes an email to invite all the important clients to this occasion. Look at her email. Dear Ms. Sharma, Our company was founded 10 years ago this spring. A small start-up, we grew from strength to strength because of loyal clients such as yourself. We are hosting a cocktail party to mark the occasion. The details of the event are: ? Venue: Fullerton Hotel ? Date: 18 July ? Time: 6pm-9pm ? Dress: Smart casual Thank you for your continued support of our company. I am writing to invite you to join us in celebrating a successful decade in business. We hope you can celebrate this exciting occasion with us and look forward to future collaborations. Please let us know if you are able to attend by 15 March so that the caterers can plan accordingly. Kind regards, ReenaMalhotra Question: Did she follow the 5Cs of business writing in her email? Your comments:

_____
_____

NSOU ? PGELT-8A 157 Activity 8 7.1 How confident are you about email writing? Write an email on your choice of subject and label the components in an e- mail structure. 7.2 What about this? Assess the following extract from an email and write your comments underneath ——————————————————————————————
———————————————————— Add your comments:

_____
_____

158 NSOU ? PGELT-8A Activity 9 E-mail – Style task Look at the extracts from emails below, and decide: ? What is the relationship between the writer and the reader? ? Where would you place the email on the formality scale below? Extract 1 Thank you for your email requesting information about our services. I am attaching our brochure, which I hope will include all the information you need. If you have any further questions, please contact me again. Formal 1 ————————————5————————————-10 Informal Semi-formal Extract 2 Thanks for your help with this. I'll see you when I'm back from the meeting in Bangkok. Formal 1————————————5————————————-10 Informal Semi-formal Extract 3 I am delighted to announce that the winner of this year's 'Employee of the Year' Award is Ms HumaRiaz from our Customer Services Team. I am sure you will join me in congratulating Huma on this award, and I hope to see you all at the award ceremony in the Reception area on Friday, 18 September, at 15.00. Formal 1 ————————————5————————————-10 Informal Semi-formal 13.4 Developing Speaking Skills Aim of the activities – By the end of the activities, you should be able to a) Start a formal conversation

NSOU ? PGELT-8A 159 b) Change topic or interrupt someone politely during a conversation c) Use phrases to manage meetings Activity 10: Managing conversations A. Read this extract from a meeting. Which words show that the speaker wants to start the main part of the meeting? B. While speaking, we often use some expressions (Ok, Right, So) to balance conversations. Which expressions (ok, right, so) can you use in (i-vi) to start a business conversation in the following situations (a-c) : a. Introducing the topic b. Disturbing a busy person c. Starting a conversation when the topic is serious i. I was wondering, do we need a new test schedule? — Introducing the new topic. Ans.

160 NSOU ? PGELT-8A ii. Could I talk to you for a minute? Ans. iii. Could I have a word? (about health and safety)— Starting a conversation when the topic is serious. Ans. iv. Have you got/Do you have a minute/ a moment/a few minutes? Ans. v. I need to talk to you about/ I wanted to have a word with you about expenses.—Starting a conversation when the topic is serious. Ans. vi. Oh, can I ask you something? Is the IT seminar open to everyone? Ans. C. While speaking we often use some phrases to steer the conversation in a particular direction. Tick, which of the under mentioned phrases (i-ix) would be used to: a. change the topic —— b. bring someone else into the conversation —— c. interrupt the conversation —— d. go back to an earlier topic —— e. end the conversation i. OK, so I'll talk to Leena then. Are you going to the Berlin Conference? —— a / b / c / d / e ii. What about you/ What do you think, Sheerin? Should we eat in the hotel? ——-a / b / c / d / e iii. Right/So/Well/Anyway, good to talk to you. I'll call you tomorrow. Bye —— a / b / c / d / e iv. Can I (just) stop/interrupt you (for a moment)? —— a / b / c / d / e

NSOU ? PGELT-8A 161 v. Does anyone else want to comment/say anything? (in formal meetings) ——— a / b / c / d / e vi. Right/So/Well/Anyway/Now, what about new contracts ——— a / b / c / d / e vii. Getting back to market research, what about Japan? ——— a / b / c / d / e viii. Sorry, can I just say something / make a comment/ask a question? ——— a / b / c / d / e ix. Anyway, as I/you say / as I was saying as we/you were saying, this is a key project.. ——— a / b / c / d / e D. These days, as the organizations operate across international borders, conference calls are a crucial part of business. While managing a conference call, which expressions (i-vii) would you use for : a. managing the line —— b. managing speakers ——— c. ending the call i. So, is everyone here? Can you all / everyone hear me? Are you there, Roberta? ii. Could you speak up a little, Mohita? The line isn't very good. iii. So maybe we can have another call next week? iv. I want to bring Josef in at this point. v. Does anyone else want to come in and comment on this? vi. Well, thank you for your time, everyone. Good to talk to you. Bye vii. Just stay on/ hold the line while I try to get Rohit in Bangalore. Activity 11: Let's practice Complete the following conversations using the expressions you've learnt. Sometimes more than one answer may be applicable. 1. A: I need to have a word with you about a serious problem that has come up in Quality Control. B: Oh dear! What is it? Come in. Close the door.

162 NSOU ? PGELT-8A 2. A: Sorry, Lionel. Can I ask you something...............................Who should talk to about room bookings? B: It's Garry Walker, on, let's see...busy day...........he's on extension 2653. 3. A: Hi, Louise. Are you busy at the moment ?......could I talk for a minute B: Oh, you know, when am I not busy? 4. A: Hello Derek .... have you got a minute .... B: Yes, of course. Come in. Nothing too serious, I hope? 5. A: Bill,...I was wondering............................ , what happened to those photos you took at the Helsinki Expo? B: Oh, they're still on my computer somewhere. I'll find them and send them to you. 6. A: Hello, Kyoko. ...how's it going.. B: Fine, thanks. And you? 7. A: Hello, Eric. I know you're very busy. ...could I have a word with you .... B: Well, if it's quick. I have to go to a meeting in five minutes. II. Complete this extract from a conference call using suitable expressions from the presentation and the instructions in brackets. PIETRO: So, 1. Is everyone here (manage the line)? How are you all? ...., Can you all hear me? .... (manage the line)? ALL: Yes. Can everyone hear me? PIETRO: Good. Just .... 3. .....stay on the line..................(manage the line), everyone. I'm going to try to get Felix. 4. ..... Are you there....................................(manage the line), Felix? FELIX: Hi everyone.

PIETRO: Felix, we're all here and ready to start. 5. Ok, let's get started............................. (start main business) Penny, you're going to tell us about your visit to Ecuador. PENNY: Yes. It was very good. I had good discussions with the distributor. PIETRO: 6. .... Could you speak up a little........................ (manage the line), Penny? It's not a very good line. PENNY: Sorry, I'll sit closer. 7. Anyway getting back to my trip.....................................(go back to an earlier topic). I met our distributor and we talked about opening up in Guayaquil. NO ROBERT. 8. Sorry, can I just.............................(Interrupt) ask a question? Can I ask which city that is? I don't know Ecuador. PENNY: Guayaquil. It's actually the largest city and the main port. PIETRO: OK, Penny. We look forward to hearing all about that. 9. Ok. So............................. (change topic). 10. I want to bring in..............................(manage speakers) Jasmine at this point because she needs to talk to us first about schedules. JASMINE. Thanks. Well, I hope you all got my email? Stop and Think Do you feel improved from your understanding of the exercises solved above?

13.5 The Art of Small Talk Activity 12 Work in small groups or pairs. Read the following tips and decide which five (from 1-10 in the boxes) are the most useful in a conversational context. Provide your reasons for the choice/s made. 1. Introduce yourself and use a 'tag line', e.g. Hi, I'm Jules from Munich. This can get the conversation started as your colleague can ask a question about your home town or your rip. 2. When your colleague introduces himself/herself, try to repeat his/her name when you reply, or use their name later in the conversation. 3. Break the ice with a comment about a current news story or a remark about the event you're at, its location and the weather. 4. Avoid these topics of conversation: your health, your private life, gossip. The best conversation topics are sports, books, theatre, movies, food, museums and travel. Try and find a shared experience or something else you have in common. 5. Keep your conversation flowing by not monopolizing the conversation. Ask a question and really listen to your colleague's reply. Then respond with comments from your own personal experience and ask another question. 6. Ask open questions which require more than a one-word answer. If your colleague asks a Yes/No question, give some extra information. 7. Sounds like hmm and phrases like really can be used to indicate that you are listening and interested, and will encourage your colleague to tell you more. 8. Share information about yourself but keep it positive. People don't like colleagues who are negative, depressed or who complain a lot. 9. Remember your exit strategy. Have some phrases ready for excusing yourself politely and moving to another group of people, e.g. It was nice talking to you. I'll see you later. 10. If you've enjoyed talking with your colleague, tell them so, e.g. I've really enjoyed talking with you. I hope we have the chances to talk again soon. Leave a positive final impression.

Activity 13 Work with a partner. Think of questions to ask in cases of following situations: 1. You're waiting for an interview and make conversation with the person next to you. 2. You're at a Conference and meet someone who went to the same college (or branches of the same Institute) as you (may be in the same city/state or at different locations). Frame your questions and the probable answers of the respondent and then arrange them in order. i. Me: ii. Respondent: iii. Me: iv. Respondent: v. Me: vi. Respondent: vii. Me: viii. Respondent: Activity 14 Work with a partner. Think of two direct and two indirect questions to ask for each of the following situations. Work in pair/group. 1. You are waiting at a station for a train that is over an hour late. You think it may have been cancelled and go to the information desk to find out. 2. You are arranging a product delivery for an important client. You want to know whether morning, afternoon or evening would be the most convenient time for delivery. 3. A customer is very much upset and agitated. You can see that something is wrong, but it is difficult to understand what s/he is trying to say.

13.6 Summary In this unit you have helped yourself to understand what variety in a language means, and we have provided you with samples of variety the English language exhibits. We have also tried to help you realise that no single variety is better than the other. Much depends on why we use English. Similarly, we have looked at the formal and informal styles of writing and speaking. We have provided some guidelines to help you grasp this concept and this is supported with a variety of activities to help you understand the concept better. This unit is practical and should give you enough confidence to use English both for writing and speaking.

Unit 14 Business Communication Skills Structure 14.1 Objectives 14.2 Introduction 14.3 From Basic English to Business English 14.4 Teaching Business English 14.4.1 Activity for Teachers 14.5 British English and American English 14.6 Summary 14.1Objectives This unit aims to ? Help you communicate more effectively and competently in real work situations ? Help you express more clearly in real work situations through practising multifarious tasks ? Consider some of the errors teachers make when trying to understand the entry level behaviour of the learners and developing a lesson plan in accordance to that ? Raise awareness of the aspects of your own behaviour that may inhibit effectiveness of proper lesson planning 14.2 Introduction This unit focuses on business communication skills. It is an attempt to capture your attention to reflecting on the subtle nuances in terms of sub-skills or components of each skill and initiate thinking on the classroom in organized ways.

168 NSOU ? PGELT-8A 14.3 From Basic English to Business English Business English is a more formal version of basic English. Business English is somewhat the same as basic English. There is not much difference between the two other than use of formal vocabulary. For example, in basic English, one would say, 'I got your letter', where as in Business English it would be 'I received your letter'. Similarly, 'make sure you would be there' is 'ensure you would be there', 'need your help' is 'require your help', and so on. Let us take up a task. Give the words from Business English for the following. The initial letters are given as clues. Task 1 Formal English Business English 1 Please 'get in touch' with him. Please '..keep.........................' with him. 2 You can 'let them know'. You can i..................... them. 3 Tell why you have done this. E..................... why you have done this. 4 Can you 'talk more' on the topic? Can you e......................... on the topic. 5 Will you 'fix the problem'? Will you s................... the problem. Answers: 1.contact, 2. Inform, 3. Explain, 4. Elaborate, 5. solve Activity 1 Consider the following situations. Record at least 2 audio clips of your own answers and reactions to each situation. Next, take turns and work in pairs/group. Scenario 1 – Your colleague and you are at an official dinner. You see a potential client nearby. You definitely want to speak to the new client. But you've never met before, only spoken over the phone once. What should you do next? What are some things you can say while talking to him/her for the first time? What are some things you should avoid saying/doing in this situation? Scenario 2 – You are the team leader. You have 5 people in your team. You called for a meeting on Monday morning at 9 AM. However, you're running late and all the others are already at work. What would you do in this situation? What sentences would you use to apologise or inform them?

NSOU ? PGELT-8A 169 Scenario 3 – There's a colleague of you, who you've worked with for close to 4-5 years. You share a friendly rapport. However, this colleague seems to enjoy gossiping about other people at work. You don't really enjoy engaging in gossip. What can you tell your colleague so he stops talking about other people to you? Scenario 4 – You're in a meeting with a client from the UK. The client has really a strong accent and it's difficult for you to understand every word he is saying. What are some things you can do in this situation to understand him better? In case you're really not able to understand a couple of sentences, what can you tell/ask him? Scenario 5 – Your superior has just shared some ideas for a new project. He then asks you what you think about these ideas and whether they'll work or not. How honest can you be if you don't like his/her ideas? What sentence would you say to disagree with the ideas or suggest new ones? Activity 2 Complete the questionnaire by matching 1-7 to a-g Customer Service Questionnaire (for a reputed restaurant) 1 What do you do to meet _____ a feedback about service from your customers? 2 What new procedure might help b customer satisfaction and service you to exceed.... quality? 3 In what ways do you measure....... c existing customers or to win new ones? 4 Have you introduced....... d your customers' expectations of the service you provide? 5 Do you think it is easier to e customers to your competitors? keep .... 6 How do you try and get........ f your customers' needs and keep them satisfied? 7 How do you avoid losing.......... g any unpublicized rules to improve customer service?

170 NSOU ? PGELT-8A Now, work in small groups. Based on your understanding of the questions and concerned areas of customer service of a reputed restaurant decide on the five most important factors in good customer service. Standing on your choices can you describe your experience as a customer of a restaurant that you have visited in recent times? Activity 3 Work with your partner. Take turns to thank each other and respond in the following situations. Make sure you choose an appropriate phrase for the situation. Add your comments 1. A colleague brings you a cup of coffee. 2. A taxi takes you to the station after work. 3. A stranger holds the door for you. 4. Your manager supports you at a difficult meeting. 5. Someone on a train lends you their mobile phone because your mobile phone has been stolen and you desperately want to inform some important news home. 6. A client invites you to present your new project to their team. Add your comments: _____ _____ _____ Activity 4 Work with a partner and discuss changes affecting your own lives, in or out of work. Talk about rapidly-changing technologies how it was in the past, in the present and future ability when using them.Also talk about the following in list: Electronic equipment Vehicles Work practices Education Travel

NSOU ? PGELT-8A 171 Activity 5: Language at work Match the indirect questions (a-e) to the equivalent direct questions (1-5) Indirect question Equivalent direct question a Can you tell me when you sent it 1 Why is it doing this?.... to us? b Could you explain exactly what 2 How long will it take?..... the problem is? c Do you know why it's doing this? 3 Have you got an order number?... d Can you tell me if you've got an 4 When did you send it to us?.... order number? e Could you let me know how long 5 What exactly is the problem?.... it will take? Activity 6 Compare the following situations, using as many of the phrases in the list as you can: ? Communicating by email and text vs. communicating face to face ? Working with an experienced colleague vs. working with a trainee (too) many, (not) many, (a) few, fewer, very few Lots of, plenty of, more, most, some, (not) enough, hardly any, (not) any (too) much, (not) much, a little, less, very little Activity 7 You are staying at a hotel in New Delhi. Ask at reception for suggestions for things to do in the city. Find out about: i) Places of interest ii) opening hours iii) cost of entrance iv) how to get there

14.4 Teaching Business English Teaching Business English is about teaching words and expressions commonly used in formal situations. These are the expressions that we require in expressing ourselves at the office, with peers, colleagues and boss, at interviews, and in speaking exams. Business English brings variety in the Classroom. Let us look at some expressions as examples- 'to get back on track' (I had missed a few classes and have to get back on track.), 'train of thought' (The call came when she was speaking and she lost her train of thought.), 'flat out' (He is working all week and completely flat out by now.), to bring to the table (She has brought her experience and skills to the table), 'wing it'(She has left her work in the laptop and has to wing it.), 'to bank on' (he sounds good but I would not bank on him.), 'to bring up' (I have lots to speak, but will bring up the main points here.), etc. 14.4.1 Activity for Teachers I. Let us take a tour of the classroom situation. We, the educators, need to consider an important aspect of our classroom, namely, variety in the classroom. Some of the factors that learners bring to the language classroom are ? Different language background (mother tongue, degree of exposure to language) ? Different language skills ? Different age levels ? Different experiences ? Different world views (could be religious, aesthetic, colonial) 1. Can you think of other differences? List them and add a short note about them 2. As a facilitator of a language classroom how do you think you can control the individual differences without any of the learners being affected? II. What kind of problems do you think Indian speakers have and state which problems would you like to correct in your classroom and which ones would you leave out and why? III. How do you think the background of the learners affect their learning?

14.5 British English and American English Let us take a look at some of the distinctive features of BE and AE. 1. In British English, people often use Shall I ...? to offer to do something and/or Shall we ...? to make a suggestion. It is very unusual for speakers of American English to use shall. They normally use an alternative like Should/Can I ...? or Do you want/Would you like ...? or How about ...? instead. British English American English It's hot in here. It's hot in here. Shall I open the window? Can I open the window? Shall we meet in the café at 5? Do you want to meet in the café at 5? Shall we try that again? How about we try that again? 2. In British English, the past participle of the verb get is got. In American English, people say gotten. ** Note that have got is commonly used in both British and American English to speak about possession or necessity. have gotten is not correct here. British English American English You could have got hurt! You could have gotten hurt! He's got very thin. He's gotten very thin. She has got serious about her career. She has gotten serious about her career. BUT: BUT: Have you got any money? Have you got any money? (NOT Have you gotten ...) We've got to go now. We've got to go now. (NOT We've gotten to ...)

3. Verb forms with collective nouns In British English, a singular or plural verb can be used with a noun that refers to a group of people or things (a collective noun). We use a plural verb when we think of the group as individuals or a singular verb when we think of the group as a single unit. In American English, a singular verb is used with collective nouns. ** Note that police is always followed by a plural verb. British English American English My family is/are visiting from My family is visiting from Pakistan. Pakistan. My team is/are winning the match. My team is winning the match. The crew is/are on the way to the The crew is on the way to the airport. airport. BUT: BUT: The police are investigating the The police are investigating the crime. crime. 4. have and take In British English, the verbs have and take are commonly used with nouns like bath, shower, wash to speak about washing and with nouns like break, holiday, rest to speak about resting. In American English, only the verb take (and not the verb have) is used this way. British English American English I'm going to have/take a shower. I'm going to take a shower. Let's have/take a break. Let's take a break. 5. Spelling differences British and American English have some spelling differences. The common ones are presented below.

British English American English -oe-/-ae- (e.g. anaemia, diarrhoea, -e- (e.g. anemia, diarrhea, encyclopaedia) encyclopedia) -t (e.g. burnt, dreamt, leapt) -ed (e.g. burned, dreamed, leaped) -ence (e.g. defence, offence, licence) -ense(defense, offense, license) -ell- (e.g. cancelled, jeweller, marvellous) -el- (e.g. canceled, jeweler, marvelous) -ise (e.g. appetiser, familiarise, organise) -ize (e.g. appetizer, familiarize, organize) -l- (e.g. enrol, fulfil, skilful) -ll- (e.g. enroll, fulfill, skillfull) -ogue (e.g. analogue, monologue, -og (e.g. analog, monolog, catalog) catalogue) *Note that American English also recognizes words spelled with –ogue -ou(e.g. colour, behaviour, mould) -o (e.g. color, behavior, mold) -re (e.g. metre, fibre, centre) -er (e.g. meter, fiber, center) -y- (e.g. tyre) -i- (e.g. tire) 14.6 Summary In this unit we have attempted to familiarise you with some aspects of Business communication in English. Using a set of activities covering different aspects of communication, we have allowed you to infer the principles and become familiar with usage.

Unit 15 Case Studies on Resource Management Structure 15.1 Objectives 15.2 Introduction 15.3 Case Study 1 15.4 Case Study 2 15.5 Case Study 3 15.6 Case Study 4 15.7 Case Study 5 15.7 Summary 15.1Objectives This unit aims to ? Develop students' organizational skills and encourage collaborative learning ? Develop analytical, problem solving skills as well as critical thinking and reflective learning 15.2 Introduction In teacher education, the case study method is a motivating, student-centered approach in which theoretical models and concepts are illustrated through their application to practical situations. Engagement in case studies promotes active involvement, participation, and critical thinking among participants. Case studies offer a pedagogically sound approach to engage participants in applying critical thinking skills to the identification and evaluation of problems. In this unit, I would be uploading some cases from practical classroom situations under anonymous feedback as received from students at UG and PG levels of Humanities, Management and Engineering domain. The feedback was collected from the students under the mentioned domain in order to make a need analysis of undertaking a language

NSOU ? PGELT-8A 177 (here, L2 English) course or as part of curriculum requirement and its specific purpose in their respective practical situations. In most cases, the questions were open ended that allowed them to respond freely. The cases are now let open for your understanding of their need and you are required to make an analysis of the challenges faced by the students. Also include your would be measures to deal with the situations. 15.3 Case Study 1 15.3.1 Context: The students undertake Business Communication course under their curriculum. Business Communication course has some specific objectives for the study. It has been observed by the Facilitator that students suffer from nervousness, anxiety and low confidence while communicating in English (L2). Hence, it was felt necessary to go to the root cause. A questionnaire was designed for the purpose some of which are presented here for further analysis on your part. 1. Do you dream? Yes No I. What do you think is the objective of this question in relation to the learners and the issues so mentioned? II. How do you think the question can further be modified keeping intact its objective? 15.3.2 Your observation: - ——————————————————————————————— ——————————————————————————————— ——————————————————————————————— 2. Is it your own cherished dream or pushed by someone (may be parents or as applicable)? I. How would you justify the purpose of this question to that of need analysis?

178 NSOU ? PGELT-8A 15.3.3 Your observation: - ——————————————————————————————— ——————————————————————————————— 1.1 If yes (pursuing your own dream), are you happy with your decision? Yes No I. What is your take on the proposition of students making self decisions about their career and how do you think it could, perhaps, redress the issues as mentioned in the case context? 15.3.4 Your observation: - ——————————————————————————————— ——————————————————————————————— 3.2. If No, please state the reasons that pull you back? Some of the answers are verbatim excerpted as follows: a. "No, I am not happy with all the decisions that I made in my career. Some of the decisions that I took, backfired and I feel responsible for it, as I was not hard working though…" b. "I have studied science in H S and pursued with Arts in college. Both are my own choices. But yes, it may be wrong. Sometimes I become fickle minded. I have faced failure through it. But, I'm responsible for my own decision. From my school days I had a dream to study **** and now I'm studying that…." I. What are the strengths and weaknesses, according to you, from your understanding of the above responses? 15.3.5 Your observation: ——————————————————————————————— ———————————————————————————————

NSOU ? PGELT-8A 179 15.4 Case study 2 15.4.1 Context: Students while making public speech often found suffering from lack of vocabulary. They complain of their inability to construct correct sentences, appropriate word applicable to the situation as a result of which they fumble and are unwilling to speak in public, especially, in presence of peers. 1. What would you recommend to address this problem? 2. From the perspective of your own classroom situation/s identify the three main problems that is/are responsible for such inability. I. II. III. 15.5 Case Study 3 15.5.1 Context: Soft skills—buzz phrase or something you should be focused on? There's debate floating around about whether or not soft skills training are valuable. For an employee to effectively perform in the workplace, s/he needs to have a specific and unique set of vital technical skills. But, the question that plays havoc in our mind is what about non-technical skills? Skills that govern an employee's ability to communicate, form relationships, and prioritize tasks are often overlooked in education and training. Unquestionably, these "soft skills" are just as crucial to business success as the more recognized "hard skills." Today's recent graduates and employees just beginning their careers have the highest level of formal education of all time, yet they're lacking when it comes to soft skills. The development of interpersonal and communication skills isn't something colleges focus on. A Sales force study showed that of all new hires who fail at their position within the first 18 months, for 89 percent it's due to soft skills issues. Sales Force reports 77

180 NSOU ? PGELT-8A percent of employers say these skills are just as important as hard skills. Sales Force research has demonstrated that 60 80 percent of all problems or issues within an organization are the result of difficult relationships between employees. A study looking at 500 global organizations showed when people scored highest in terms of emotional intelligence the business was also a top performer. 15.5.2 Thought for the day: When you're hiring new employees, what is it that you look for? You want someone who is capable of completing the tasks you assign them. What is your reflection on the following thoughts from the above case context? 1. Should you hire inexperienced new recruits? 2. If yes, how would you plan your training design? 3. And, how do you think the training so offered would promote trust? 4. How would you assess and/or evaluate the feedback from the training so received? 15.6 Case Study 5 15.6.1 Context: As owner, he had grown the business from a start-up and had been responsible for every decision. Now he felt trapped because every time he was away from the business or took a little time off, something went wrong and cost him money. He was becoming increasingly frustrated by his workforce, as he felt that they were capable of far more than they were doing yet were not showing any initiative or taking any responsibility to prevent mistakes and costly errors. His previous attempts at developing a more participatory workforce had failed and in spite of taking a highly respected leadership course at a nearby University, he was not seeing any improvement. As he put it - "it wasn't fun anymore". In fact it had reached the point where he felt the only way out might be to sell the company. 1. From your understanding of the above situation attempt a SWOC (Strengths, Weaknesses, Opportunities, and Challenges) analysis to offer solution/s to the crisis so aroused in the above situation?

NSOU ? PGELT-8A 181 15.7 Case Study 6 15.7.1 Context Big Bazaar, a hypermarket from Pantaloon Retail (India) Ltd., emerged as a success story in the Indian retail scenario. Big Bazaar came out with innovative marketing schemes which attracted the middle class consumers to the retail store. Big Bazaar went into tie-ups with some of the manufacturers, which helped the company offer goods at low prices to its customers. "We are not in the business of selling ambience, but in the business of giving the best possible deals to our consumers," said Kishore Biyani, Managing Director, PRIL. Biyani opined that Big Bazaar was focused on giving the best possible deals to its customers, rather than focusing on the ambience of the store. Share your views on 1. Is ambience irrelevant for discount stores? 15.8 Summary The purpose of the case studies was to help you explore your own beliefs and understandings of your students and situations while trying to impart trainings on the functional use of life skills to your students and in doing so, it would also enable self-assessment leading to further scope of improvement and development of analytical and higher order thinking skills. List in the space below that you feel has actually helped you in developing your skills a step further.

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182 NSOU ? PGELT-8A Unit 16 Case Studies on Writing Skills Structure 16.1 Objectives 16.2 Introduction 16.3 Rubrics in test items of writing 16.4 Common Mistakes in Writing 16.5 Editing a Manuscript 16.6 Summary 16.1Objectives This unit aims to: 1. Enable writing with purpose, meaningfully and with understanding of the context 2. Develop expression of ideas to be applied with effective use of writing conventions, appropriate grammatical usage and cohesive devices 16.2 Introduction In continuation to the Unit 15, this Unit 16 discuss issues as cases pertaining to the learning and teaching of the skills in the classroom and/or sociological and psychological perspectives on language teaching and learning. It aims to seek your professional attitude in the process of evaluation of the cases and consequently, for constructive learning. Writing is a complex process and it involves meticulous care in organizing one's thoughts on a topic arranging them in a logical order that precede the actual writing. The words, phrases, sentences, structures, discourse features like coherence linkers and all other devices of writing are to be properly arranged to make writing effective, meaningful and must suit the purpose in a given context. The context or the settings of writing is governed by purpose, reader, topic and writer which in turn determine the level, style and tone of writing. In a similar way, academic (here, classroom) writing

NSOU ? PGELT-8A 183 would also depend on the background, individual differences of the learners of English (ESP). But, in a generic sense, they are aimed at professional writing and functional uses in their respective field. "Good writing does not just happen. The writers spend a great deal of time thinking, planning, editing." – Elizabeth West Let us browse through some of the specimens of writing for the purpose of analyzing the most common issues that concerns our knowing the error to help our learners improve their writing skills. Before we take a look at the common mistakes in a learner's writing we need to look at the elements of assigning a writing task and these are rubric (instructions for carrying out the task), prompt (the stimulus the student must respond to or the situation) and expected response (what the student is expected to do with the assigned task). Let us examine few examples of rubrics found in test items of writing: 16.3 Rubrics in test items of writing 1. Your institute has decided to present a programme on the AIR from the AIR stadium of your city, in the popular programme "Meet the Young Artists". Write a notice in not more than 50 words for your institute notice-board, inviting talented students to appear for different items on 20 December 2019 in the institute's 'Open Theatre'. You have invited Mr. Sandeep Maheswari, the famous presenter on the AIR. You are the Secretary, Cultural Activities Society. What do you think about the rubric (highlighted part) here? Do they indicate clarity in framing the writing task for the learners? The first part might not be troublesome and the situation described forms the prompt. But, does the middle part confuse a little? Let us reorganize the matter and relook at the rubric. Your institute has decided to present a programme on the AIR from the AIR stadium of your city, in the popular programme "Meet the Young Artists". An event for selecting talented students is being organized on 20 December 2019 in the institute's 'Open Theatre'. You are the Secretary, Cultural Activities Society. You have invited Mr. Sandeep Maheswari, the famous presenter on the AIR. Write a notice in not more than 50

184 NSOU ? PGELT-8A words for your institute notice-board, inviting talented students to present items during the event. Would you try and attempt to make it more clear and compact?

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_____ Examine the rubrics of the following test items. 2. Write an application for the post of a Sales Executive in a well-known firm attaching your Curriculum Vitae. Or, 3. Describe a person whom you like/dislike very strongly explaining the reasons for your feelings. In Case 2, the instruction seems very general. We do not find sufficient information about the position one is applying for. Moreover, the kind of firm/organization is also not specified. It is also not clear whether or not a Curriculum Vitae is to be written and attached to the application (covering letter). Shall we attempt an improved rubric of Case 2? Let's do it. The following advertisement appeared in last Sunday's The Telegraph (followed by a real advertisement). Read the advertisement and apply for the post advertised. Prepare your Curriculum Vitae and a covering letter stating your suitability for the post. Note. Care must be taken that the learners are aware of the differences between a curriculum vitae and a resumé and accordingly, the choice of advertisement with respect to the desired conditions for application to the post should be made. In Case 3, the word 'describe' is confusing as what to describe? Physical characteristics or personality attributes or behavior or all of these could be meant by the unclear use of 'describe'. The purpose for writing the description and for whom it is to be written is also not specified. Perhaps, we could rewrite the rubric in the following way: Describe the qualities that you value in a human being. Give examples of people who display these qualities from among the people you know.

NSOU ? PGELT-8A 185 You may also attempt an even better framing of the above rubric.

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_____ In a similar way, we, the facilitators need to be careful while building up instructions that we send to our target learners, which if faulty, would pass on a confusing signal to our learners. This is applicable not only in preparing formative or summative or any assessment papers but equally applicable in day-to-day formal classroom situations or informal instructions in conducting activities or providing clear feedback as an important part of assessment. Feedback is an important part of the assessment process. It has a significant effect on student learning and has been described as "the most powerful single moderator that enhances achievement" (Hattie, 1999). It helps to guide learners on what steps to take to improve and thus motivate them to take action on their assessment feedback. We, the Facilitators, frequently come across a variety of errors, visible in both printed and online material, of which some are common and some are individually different. In our next section, we will take a look at some of the common areas of mistakes made by the learners at UG/PG level across curriculum. This would help us to provide an effective and constructive feedback that would enable them to recognize the errors and avoid them in the future. 16.4 Common Mistakes in Writing Let's have a look at some of the common mistakes noticed in writing: Activity 1. Spot the errors in the following sentences and rewrite the correct ones. 1. I went to the India in 1967. Correct: 2. I have been in the United States since a year. Correct:

186 NSOU ? PGELT-8A 3. I used to having a horse. Correct: 4. I'm used to get up early. Correct: 5. I love a lot the animals that live in Australia. Correct: 6. She must has been on holiday. Correct: 7. I wish I am not fat. Correct: 8. When I was in Russia last year, I wish I went to Moscow. Correct: 9. The sun is very strong. I wish I didn't leave my sun cream in the hotel. Correct: 10. I am not used to do the housework. Correct: 11. I hate doing mistakes. Correct: 12. I live here since 1997. Correct: 13. He knows her for ten years. Correct: 14. I've been cutting my finger today. Correct:

NSOU ? PGELT-8A 187 15. My house is built in 1567. Correct: 16. Spinach is said to being very good for your health. Correct: 17. I went to work with the bus. Correct: 18. At this time tomorrow, I'll be fly to Tokyo. Correct: 19. I'm not agree: this exercise is very easy. Correct: 20. I am knowing all the grammar, but it's difficult to remember. Correct: 16.4.1 Findings Looking at the above sentences and our experiences indicate most of the common mistakes could be figured out in the areas of: ? Tense shifts (an affinity towards the use of progressive/continuous even when not required) ? Determiners like articles and prepositions or words such as this, that, every, each ? Contractions like its and it's, they're, their and there, we're and were, could've or I've and we've ? Homophones like affect-effect, site-sight, won-one ? Run-on sentence ? Sentence sprawl ? Use of apostrophe or superfluous commas ? Spellings

188 NSOU ? PGELT-8A Activity 2 Directions: Read the passage below. Then answer the questions about errors, as numbered, in the passage. Susanna came home 1) from a work. She 2) putted the key in the lock of the 3) apartament door. She opened the door. She clearly heard a 4) voise inside her apartment. Was it the TV? Was it the radio? Was it her neighbor? 5) She not know if she should 6) go in or run away! She couldn't move. She 7) couldnt think. She heard the soft sound of footsteps. She couldn't breathe. The door slowly opened. "Mom! What are you doing 8) here" Susanna said, when she caught her breath. "Hi Honey! Dad and I are cooking dinner for you!" 1) A. from work B. from the work C. from the working D. Correct as is 2) A. put key B. put the key C. putted a key D. putted the key 3) A. apartment B. apartement C. apartamente D. apartemente 4) A. boise B. boce C. voice D. voce 5) A. She did not knew B. She didn't knew C. She was not knowing D. She didn't know 6) A. go out B. go up C. go through D. Correct as is 7) A. couldn't think B. not could think C. could not think D. Both A and C are correct. 8) A. here?" B. here"? C. here". D. here"! 16.5 Editing a Manuscript Below is attached a manuscript which was offered for proofreading. The editor has pointed out the mistakes in the manuscript. Take your turn and relook at the entire proofread manuscript. Review the manuscript (given in parts) for mistakes; try it on your own first and then cross check with the solution provided: 16.5.1 Part I of the proofread manuscript Dear Ms. Adams; We've recieved your manuscript and have read enough of it to offer this constructive

NSOU ? PGELT-8A 189 critique, which we hope you'll take unto consideration before sending us another sample of your work, we do value you're time. List your observation:

_____
_____
_____ Now, let us review the first part of the proofread manuscript together: Dear Ms. Adams: We've received your manuscript and have read enough of it to offer this constructive critique, which we hope you'll take into consideration before sending us another sample of your work. We do value your time. 16.5.2 Part II of the manuscript after proofreading by the editor (1-12): 1. The beginning of your story is week. Try to evoke an emotional response within the first few paragraphs. 2. You use to many semicolons. Its distracting. 3. You use third person omiscient POV, which in our humble opinion, weakens the impact of your main characters painful situation. 4. You tell more then show what your characters are feeling. As Anton Checkov wrote: "Dont tell me the moon is shining, show me hte glint of light on broken glass." 5. You switch points of view, jumping from one persons head to another without warning, it's confusing and you risk loosing your reader's trust end attention 6. The dialogue feels forced and unathentic: the southern accent is overdone and painful too read. 7. Your use of ellipsis is... awkward. And you use them quite a lot. Consider removing most of them. No one pauses that much.. 8. Your love of dashes is evident. Please eliminate most of them, and and make your sentences shorter clearer, and less wordy.

9. Please please please stop using dialog tags like "he grinned" or "she sighed". You can't sigh or grin words. It can't be done. Stick with "said" but try to make it more obvious who is saying whom without using dialog tags for every quote. If you must indicate sighs, grins, and other nonverbal gestures set them apart from teh quotes with periods rather than commas. 10. Your main character launches into a stream of conscience monologue and his dialogue partner somehow doesn't lapse into a coma before he finishes this is wishful thinking and makes it hard to sympathize with the mane character who's soliloquy is way too long to keep you're readers attention. We tired but had to skip to the end wear he finally sums it up nicely. 11. We don't really get to know your secondary character well enough to care about what happens to her. She listens to the main character and throws in a few responses hear and their but is otherwise bland and two dimensional. Her boyfriend the main character, does most of the talking, and she stairs out the window a lot and I mean a LOT. Yet we never find out weather she's waiting for someone or something or if shes just really board. She's certainly stiff as a board (see what i did they're?). 12. My fellow editers here at Proper Publishing House agree with all the statements in this letter which I spent hours perfecting ought of sincere gratitude for your efforts and true dat concern for yore development as a writer. 16.5.3 Let us now crosscheck our proofreading task so undertaken 1. The beginning of your story is weak. Try to evoke an emotional response within the first few paragraphs. 2. You use too many semicolons. It's distracting. 3. You use third person omniscient POV, which, in our humble opinion, weakens the impact of your main character's painful situation. 4. You tell more than show what your characters are feeling. As Anton Chekhov wrote, "Don't tell me the moon is shining; show me the glint of light on broken glass." 5. You switch points of view, jumping from one person's head to another without warning. It's confusing, and you risk losing your reader's trust and attention. 6. The dialogue feels forced and inauthentic; the Southern accent is overdone and painful toread.

7. Your use of ellipses is... awkward. And you use them quite a lot. Consider removing most of them. No one pauses that much. 8. Your love of dashes is evident. Please eliminate most of them, and and make your sentences shorter, clearer, and less wordy. 9. Please, please, please stop using dialogue tags like "he grinned" or "she sighed." You can't sigh or grin words. It can't be done. Stick with "said," but try to make it more obvious who is saying what without using dialogue tags for every quote. If you must indicate sighs, grins, and other nonverbal gestures, set them apart from the quotes with periods rather than commas. 10. Your main character launches into a stream of consciousness monologue, and his dialogue partner somehow doesn't lapse into a coma before he finishes. This is wishful thinking and makes it hard to sympathize with the main character, whose soliloquy is way too long to keep your reader's attention. We tried but had to skip to the end where he finally sums it up nicely. 11. We don't really get to know your secondary character well enough to care about what happens to her. She listens to the main character and throws in a few responses here and there but is otherwise bland and two-dimensional. Her boyfriend, the main character, does most of the talking, and she stares out the window a lot — and I mean a LOT. Yet we never find out whether she's waiting for someone or something or if she's just really bored. She's certainly stiff as a board (see what i did they're?). 12. My fellow editors here at Proper Publishing House agree with all the statements in this letter, which I spent hours perfecting out of sincere gratitude for your efforts and true datconcern for your development as a writer. 16.6 Summary Ideally, any kind of communication is not just about transmitting or imparting information. It implies shared knowledge and establishing understanding of the subject between the sender/addresser and the addressee or the receiver or between the parties involved. Thus, as facilitators in language teaching we need to be cogent about transmission of meaningful message in a given context in order to be credible and make a deliberate effort to enable our learners attain communicative competence for functional usage.

Hit and source - focused comparison, Side by Side

| Submitted text | As student entered the text in the submitted document. |
| Matching text | As the text appears in the source. |

1 PREFACE In the curricular structure introduced by this University for the students of Post- Graduate degree programme, the opportunity to pursue Post-Graduate course in a subject is equally available to all learners. Instead of being guided by any presumption about ability level, it would perhaps stand to reason if receptivity of a learner is judged in the course of the learning process. That would be entirely in keeping with the objectives of open education which does not believe in artificial differentiation. I am happy to note that this university has been recently accredited by National Assessment and Accreditation Council of India (NAAC) with grade 'A'. Keeping this in view, the study materials of the Post Graduate level in different subjects are prepared on the basis of a well laid-out syllabus. The course structure combines the best elements in the approved syllabi of Central and State Universities in respective subjects. It has been so designed as to be upgradable with the addition of new information as well as results of fresh thinking and analysis. The accepted methodology of distance education has been followed in the preparation of these study materials. Co-operation in every form of experienced scholarship is indispensable for a work of this kind. We, therefore, owe an enormous debt of gratitude to everyone whose tireless efforts went into the writing, editing, and devising of a proper layout of the materials. Practically speaking, their role amounts to an all-out involvement in 'layout of the materials and an involvement in 'invisible teaching', as well. For, whoever makes use of these study materials would virtually derive the benefit of learning under their collective care without each being seen by the other. The more a learner would seriously pursue these study materials, the easier will it be for him or her to reach out to larger horizons of a subject. Care has also been taken to make the language lucid and presentation attractive so that they may be rated as quality self-learning materials. If anything remains still obscure or difficult to follow, arrangements are there to come to terms with them through the counselling sessions regularly available at the network of study centres set up by the University. Needless to add, a great deal of these efforts is still experimental—in fact, pioneering in certain areas. Naturally, there is every possibility of some lapse or deficiency here and there. However, these do admit of rectification and further improvement in due course. On the whole, therefore, these study materials are expected to evoke wider appreciation the more they receive serious attention of all concerned. Professor (Dr.) Subha Sankar Sarkar Vice-Chancellor First Print : March, 2022 Printed in accordance with the regulations of the Distance Education Bureau of the University Grants Commission. Netaji Subhas Open University Post Graduate Degree Programme M A in

1 PREFACE In the curricular structure introduced by this University for the students of Post- Graduate degree programme, the opportunity to pursue Post-Graduate course in a subject is equally available to all learners. Instead of being guided by any presumption about ability level, it would perhaps stand to reason if receptivity of a learner is judged in the course of the learning process. That would be entirely in keeping with the objectives of open education which does not believe in artificial differentiation. I am happy to note that this university has been recently accredited by National Assessment and Accreditation Council of India (NAAC) with grade 'A'. Keeping this in view, the study materials of the Post Graduate level in different subjects are prepared on the basis of a well laid-out syllabus. The course structure combines the best elements in the approved syllabi of Central and State Universities in respective subjects. It has been so designed as to be upgradable with the addition of new information as well as results of fresh thinking and analysis. The accepted methodology of distance education has been followed in the preparation of these study materials. Co-operation in every form of experienced scholarship is indispensable for a work of this kind. We, therefore, owe an enormous debt of gratitude to everyone whose tireless efforts went into the writing, editing, and devising of a proper layout of the materials. Practically speaking, their role amounts to an all-out involvement in 'layout of the materials and an involvement in 'invisible teaching', as well. For, whoever makes use of these study materials would virtually derive the benefit of learning under their collective care without each being seen by the other. The more a learner would seriously pursue these study materials, the easier will it be for him or her to reach out to larger horizons of a subject. Care has also been taken to make the language lucid and presentation attractive so that they may be rated as quality self-learning materials. If anything remains still obscure or difficult to follow, arrangements are there to come to terms with them through the counselling sessions regularly available at the network of study centres set up by the University. Needless to add, a great deal of these efforts is still experimental—in fact, pioneering in certain areas. Naturally, there is every possibility of some lapse or deficiency here and there. However, these do admit of rectification and further improvement in due course. On the whole, therefore, these study materials are expected to evoke wider appreciation the more they receive serious attention of all concerned. Professor (Dr.) Subha Sankar Sarkar Vice-Chancellor First Print : March, 2022 Printed in accordance with the regulations of the Distance Education Bureau of the University Grants Commission. Netaji Subhas Open University Post Graduate Degree Programme M A in

English Language Teaching (PGEL) Course Code : PGEL- 8

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| 2/67 | SUBMITTED TEXT | 110 WORDS | 93% | MATCHING TEXT | 110 WORDS |

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| 3/67 | SUBMITTED TEXT | 31 WORDS | 68% | MATCHING TEXT | 31 WORDS |

Elective Course) Course Title: English as Language of Empowerment : Opportunities & Survival 3 Netaji Subhas Open University Post Graduate Degree Programme M A in English Language Teaching Course Code: PGEL- 8A (Elective Course) Course Title:

Elective Course) Course Title: Application of Theories of ELT 3 Netaji Subhas Open University Post Graduate Degree Programme M A in English Language Teaching Course Code: PGEL-8B (Elective Course) Course Title:

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| 4/67 | SUBMITTED TEXT | 20 WORDS | 57% | MATCHING TEXT | 20 WORDS |

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No Unit No Course Content Writers Course Editors 1 1–4 Dr Niladri S Dash 2 5–8 Dr Niladri S Dash Prof S Mohanraj Professor of ELT, NSOU 3 9–12

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| 5/67 | SUBMITTED TEXT | 23 WORDS | 72% | MATCHING TEXT | 23 WORDS |

a sum of one lac of rupees in each year shall be setapart and applied to the revival of literature and education of the

SA acc-111.pdf (D17251357)

| 6/67 | SUBMITTED TEXT | 18 WORDS | 100% | MATCHING TEXT | 18 WORDS |

It shall be lawful for the Governor General-in-Council to direct that out of any surplus which may remain

SA acc-111.pdf (D17251357)

| 7/67 | SUBMITTED TEXT | 81 WORDS | 99% | MATCHING TEXT | 81 WORDS |

rents, revenues, and profits arising from the said territorial acquisitions, after defraying the expenses of the military, civil, and commercial establishment and paying the interest of the debt, in manner hereinafter provided, a sum of not less than one lac of rupees in each year shall be set apart and applied to the revival and improvement of literature and encouragement of the learned natives of India and for the introduction and promotion of a knowledge of the sciences among the inhabitants of the British territories in India.

SA acc-111.pdf (D17251357)

| 8/67 | SUBMITTED TEXT | 28 WORDS | 81% | MATCHING TEXT | 28 WORDS |

revival and improvement of literature, the encouragement of learned natives in India, and the introduction and promotion of knowledge of science among the inhabitants of the British territories in India.

SA acc-111.pdf (D17251357)

| 9/67 | SUBMITTED TEXT | 12 WORDS | 100% | MATCHING TEXT | 12 WORDS |

promotion of Indian education through the medium of Sanskrit, Arabic and Persian.

SA acc-111.pdf (D17251357)

SUBMITTED TEXT   34 WORDS   **64%**   **MATCHING TEXT**   34 WORDS

It (English) is a language which is rich in literature – humanistic, scientific and technical. If under sentimental urges we should give up English, we would cut ourselves from the living stream of ever growing knowledge." ?

SA   40 Thesis Chapter Sadiya Jalal GC9915 English AMU.doc (D111902710)

SUBMITTED TEXT   76 WORDS   **97%**   **MATCHING TEXT**   76 WORDS

Throughout India there is an extraordinary belief, amongst almost all castes and classes, in both rural and urban areas, in the transformative power of English.English is seen not just as a useful skill, but a symbol of a better life, a pathway out of poverty and oppression. Aspiration of such magnitude is a heavy burden for any language and for those who have responsibility for teaching it, to bear. The challenges of providing universal access to English are significant, and 32

SA   acc-111.pdf (D17251357)

SUBMITTED TEXT   29 WORDS   **100%**   **MATCHING TEXT**   29 WORDS

many are bound to feel frustrated at the speed of progress. But we cannot ignore the way that the English language has emerged as a powerful agent for change in India.

SA   acc-111.pdf (D17251357)

SUBMITTED TEXT   51 WORDS   **100%**   **MATCHING TEXT**   51 WORDS

English in India today is a symbol of people's aspirations for quality in education and fuller participation in national and international life. … The level of introduction of English has now become a matter of political response to people's aspirations, rendering almost irrelevant an academic debate on the merits of a very early introduction." (

SA   acc-111.pdf (D17251357)

| 26/67 | SUBMITTED TEXT | 25 WORDS | 98% | MATCHING TEXT | 25 WORDS |

A first language is the mother tongue or native language of a person while a second language is a language a person learns in order

SA 34 SLM Mohammad Ashyam Assistant Prof CODE AMU.docx (D143249960)

| 27/67 | SUBMITTED TEXT | 30 WORDS | 100% | MATCHING TEXT | 30 WORDS |

The first language is like an instinct which is triggered by birth and developed with the experience of being exposed to it. A second language is a personal choice of a

SA 34 SLM Mohammad Ashyam Assistant Prof CODE AMU.docx (D143249960)

| 28/67 | SUBMITTED TEXT | 37 WORDS | 92% | MATCHING TEXT | 37 WORDS |

There is no other alternative to a first language. A person cannot decide his/ her first language. It comes to him/her as an inheritance/legacy/birth right. On the other hand, a second language is always fixed by the person

SA 34 SLM Mohammad Ashyam Assistant Prof CODE AMU.docx (D143249960)

| 29/67 | SUBMITTED TEXT | 28 WORDS | 100% | MATCHING TEXT | 28 WORDS |

The acquiring process of the first language is very rapid while the learning process of the second language can vary from language to language and from person to person. ?

SA 34 SLM Mohammad Ashyam Assistant Prof CODE AMU.docx (D143249960)

The first language is 'acquired' and the second language is primarily 'learned'. The difference between these two words describes the qualities of the two languages. 'Acquire' means "to come into possession or ownership of" which indicates that the first language is like a dynamic and abstract property which comes into possession of a person. On the other hand, 'learn' means "to gain knowledge or skill by study, instruction, or experience" which indicates that there is nothing passive in second language learning. ? A first language is acquired reasonably well within the first six years from the birth. However, a second language can never be learned as efficiently as a first language; though good competence can be achieved in the second language. ? The first language acquisition is always natural and there is no need for instruction in acquiring it. But

SA 34 SLM Mohammad Ashyam Assistant Prof CODE AMU.docx (D143249960)

second language is not natural and it needs continuous guidance and instruction. ? The first language acquisition begins with telegraphic speech. The term 'telegraphic speech' deriving from the word 'telegram' was coined by Roger Brown, an American psycholinguist, in 1963. It refers to the two-words a child can utter when s/he is 18 to 24 months of age. Examples of telegraphic speech: Mom see, Dad go, No ball, Daddy walk, Mommy milk, etc. On the other hand, the second language acquisition begins with a full sentence. A child cannot start learning the second language without being fully efficient in the first language. ? The first language is a natural part of a person's everyday life. But the second language is a new aspect of the person's life if s/he chooses it to be. ? The first language does not require any conscious effort; the acquisition process of the first language is subconscious. The second language requires constant conscious effort so that the learners can internalize the structures of the second language. ?

SA 34 SLM Mohammad Ashyam Assistant Prof CODE AMU.docx (D143249960)

32/67	SUBMITTED TEXT	12 WORDS	95%	MATCHING TEXT	12 WORDS

language?
_____
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_____ The first language is 'acquired'
and the second language is 'learned'.

SA 34 SLM Mohammad Ashyam Assistant Prof CODE AMU.docx (D143249960)

33/67	SUBMITTED TEXT	37 WORDS	97%	MATCHING TEXT	37 WORDS

A first language is the mother tongue or native language
of a person ? A second language is a language a person
learns in order to communicate with the native speaker
of that language. ? The first language is '

SA 34 SLM Mohammad Ashyam Assistant Prof CODE AMU.docx (D143249960)

34/67	SUBMITTED TEXT	22 WORDS	47%	MATCHING TEXT	22 WORDS

Oxford University Press. Ellis, R. (1986). Understanding Second Language Acquisition. London. Oxford University Press. Krashen, Stephen D. (1987). Principles and Practice in Second Language | Oxford University Press. [7] Ellis, R. (2008). The study of second language acquisition. Oxford: Oxford University Press. [8] Feez, S. (2002). Heritage and innovation in second language

SA PGEL- 8B (Elective Course).pdf (D165254848)

35/67	SUBMITTED TEXT	13 WORDS	76%	MATCHING TEXT	13 WORDS

The first language is 'acquired' while the second language
is 'learned'"- Justify the

SA 34 SLM Mohammad Ashyam Assistant Prof CODE AMU.docx (D143249960)

36/67	SUBMITTED TEXT	14 WORDS	89%	MATCHING TEXT	14 WORDS

Larsen- Freeman, D. (2000). Techniques and Principles in
Language Teaching. New Delhi. Oxford University Press.

SA GJ7942 (Thesis) - chapter 2, part 1.docx (D24618328)

| 37/67 | SUBMITTED TEXT | 15 WORDS | 89% | MATCHING TEXT | 15 WORDS |

Larsen- Freeman, D. (2000). Techniques and Principles in Language Teaching. New Delhi. Oxford University Press.

SA   GJ7942 (Thesis) - chapter 2, part 1.docx (D24618328)

| 38/67 | SUBMITTED TEXT | 12 WORDS | 100% | MATCHING TEXT | 12 WORDS |

English in India is a global language in a multilingual country.

SA   acc-111.pdf (D17251357)

| 39/67 | SUBMITTED TEXT | 11 WORDS | 87% | MATCHING TEXT | 11 WORDS |

a symbol of people's aspirations for a quality in education and

SA   acc-111.pdf (D17251357)

| 40/67 | SUBMITTED TEXT | 11 WORDS | 100% | MATCHING TEXT | 11 WORDS |

Some in India claim it is a burden, others a liberation" (

SA   Nibedita Phukan.doc (D26263046)

| 41/67 | SUBMITTED TEXT | 12 WORDS | 96% | MATCHING TEXT | 12 WORDS |

higher education English be replaced as early as practicable by an Indian language;

SA   sabitha_elt_20-09-2020_prefinal_1.docx (D84218279)

| 42/67 | SUBMITTED TEXT | 25 WORDS | 94% | MATCHING TEXT | 25 WORDS |

English be studied in high schools and in the universities in order that we may keep in touch with the living stream of ever growing knowledge.

SA   Nibedita Phukan.doc (D26263046)

| 43/67 | SUBMITTED TEXT | 35 WORDS | 68% | MATCHING TEXT | 35 WORDS |

the official language of the Union shall be Hindi but for a period of fifteen years (from the commencement of the Constitution), English shall continue to be used for all the official purposes of the Union.

SA acc-111.pdf (D17251357)

| 44/67 | SUBMITTED TEXT | 17 WORDS | 88% | MATCHING TEXT | 17 WORDS |

English may continue to be used in addition to Hindi for all official purposes of the Union

SA acc-111.pdf (D17251357)

| 45/67 | SUBMITTED TEXT | 38 WORDS | 94% | MATCHING TEXT | 38 WORDS |

Professors of English, convened by the Government in New Delhi on the 23rd and 24th January, 1953, when 28 representatives of universities were present besides representatives of the Ministry of Education and a Member of the Union Public Service Commission. The

SA acc-111.pdf (D17251357)

| 46/67 | SUBMITTED TEXT | 42 WORDS | 96% | MATCHING TEXT | 42 WORDS |

The Government of India is convinced that a radical reconstruction of education on the broad lines recommended by the Education Commission is essential for economic and cultural development of the country, for national integration and for realizing the ideal of a socialistic pattern of society."

SA acc-111.pdf (D17251357)

| 47/67 | SUBMITTED TEXT | 13 WORDS | 76% | MATCHING TEXT | 13 WORDS |

the National Council of Educational Research and Training (NCERT) prepared National Curriculum Framework (

SA acc-111.pdf (D17251357)

| 48/67 | SUBMITTED TEXT | 13 WORDS | 100% | MATCHING TEXT | 13 WORDS |

In the Position Paper of National focus Group on Teaching of English (

SA VAS-Chapter urkund.docx (D23395681)

| 49/67 | SUBMITTED TEXT | 12 WORDS | 100% | MATCHING TEXT | 12 WORDS |

English in India is a global language in a multilingual country.

SA acc-111.pdf (D17251357)

| 50/67 | SUBMITTED TEXT | 36 WORDS | 75% | MATCHING TEXT | 36 WORDS |

a variety and range of English-teaching situations prevail because of teacher proficiency in English and learners' exposure to English outside school. The level of introduction of English has now become a political response to people's aspirations. 56

SA acc-111.pdf (D17251357)

| 51/67 | SUBMITTED TEXT | 15 WORDS | 90% | MATCHING TEXT | 15 WORDS |

the continuity of English in addition to Hindi as the official language of the Union.

SA sabitha_elt_20-09-2020_prefinal_1.docx (D84218279)

| 52/67 | SUBMITTED TEXT | 14 WORDS | 91% | MATCHING TEXT | 14 WORDS |

Publishing House. Agnihotri, R.K. and Khanna A.L. (1997). Problematizing English in India. New Delhi: sage Publications.

SA acc-111.pdf (D17251357)

| 53/67 | SUBMITTED TEXT | 15 WORDS | 86% | MATCHING TEXT | 15 WORDS |

Kachru, B. B. (1983). Indianization of English: The English Language in India. Delhi: Oxford University Press.

SA GJ7942 (Thesis) - chapter 2, part 1.docx (D24618328)

| 60/67 | SUBMITTED TEXT | 19 WORDS | 97% | MATCHING TEXT | 19 WORDS |

Summary 7.11 Review Questions 7.12 References 7.13 Reading List 7.1 Objectives After going through this unit you will be able to: a. Understand the

Summary 15.9 Review Questions 15.10 References and Reading List 15.1Objectives After going through this unit, you will be able to: a. Understand the

SA PGEL- 8B (Elective Course).pdf (D165254848)

| 61/67 | SUBMITTED TEXT | 41 WORDS | 93% | MATCHING TEXT | 41 WORDS |

education was gradually thrown open to all castes, religious groups and to women. Formal education became the basis of exploiting new economic opportunities which were, to a large extent, caste-free. Education opportunities helped one to acquire the necessary skills outside caste. Occupation thus

SA acc-111.pdf (D17251357)

| 62/67 | SUBMITTED TEXT | 47 WORDS | 83% | MATCHING TEXT | 47 WORDS |

role in introducing English and western concepts to education in India. He supported the replacement of Persian by English as the official language, the use of English as the medium of instruction in all schools, and NSOU ? PGELT-8A 93 the training of English-speaking Indians as teachers.

SA VAS-Chapter urkund.docx (D23395681)

| 63/67 | SUBMITTED TEXT | 12 WORDS | 100% | MATCHING TEXT | 12 WORDS |

symbolizes in Indian minds better education, better culture and higher intellect.

SA acc-111.pdf (D17251357)

| 64/67 | SUBMITTED TEXT | 15 WORDS | 89% | MATCHING TEXT | 15 WORDS |

In Hindi speaking areas these will be (i) the mother tongue or the regional language (

SA Nibedita Phukan.doc (D26263046)

SUBMITTED TEXT 36 WORDS **90%** **MATCHING TEXT** 36 WORDS

He said, "I do not want my house to be walled in all side and my windows to be stuffed. I want the culture of all the lands to be blown about my house as freely as possible."

SA acc-111.pdf (D17251357)

SUBMITTED TEXT 17 WORDS **55%** **MATCHING TEXT** 17 WORDS

Summary 10.8 Review Questions 10.9 References and Reading list 10.1Objectives This unit will enable the learner to: a) Understand the term

Summary 11.10 Review Questions 11.12 References and Reading List NSOU ? PGELT-8B 213 11.1 Objectives After going through this unit, the learners will be able to: a. Understand the term

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SUBMITTED TEXT 13 WORDS **80%** **MATCHING TEXT** 13 WORDS

English is the language of our constitution itself, the supreme-court, the High-courts and

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1 PREFACE In the curricular structure introduced by this University for the students of Post- Graduate degree programme, the opportunity to pursue Post-Graduate course in a subject is equally available to all learners. Instead of being guided by any presumption about ability level, it would perhaps stand to reason if receptivity of a learner is judged in the course of the learning process. That would be entirely in keeping with the objectives of open education which does not believe in artificial differentiation. I am happy to note that this university has been recently accredited by National Assessment and Accreditation Council of India (NAAC) with grade 'A'. Keeping this in view, the study materials of the Post Graduate level in different subjects are prepared on the basis of a well laid-out syllabus. The course structure combines the best elements in the approved syllabi of Central and State Universities in respective subjects. It has been so designed as to be upgradable with the addition of new information as well as results of fresh thinking and analysis. The accepted methodology of distance education has been followed in the preparation of these study materials. Co-operation in every form of experienced scholarship is indispensable for a work of this kind. We, therefore, owe an enormous debt of gratitude to everyone whose tireless efforts went into the writing, editing, and devising of a proper layout of the materials. Practically speaking, their role amounts to an all-out involvement in 'layout of the materials and an involvement in 'invisible teaching', as well. For, whoever makes use of these study materials would virtually derive the benefit of learning under their collective care without each being seen by the other. The more a learner would seriously pursue these study materials, the easier will it be for him or her to reach out to larger horizons of a subject. Care has also been taken to make the language lucid and presentation attractive so that they may be rated as quality self-learning materials. If anything remains still obscure or difficult to follow, arrangements are there to come to terms with them through the counselling sessions regularly available at the network of study centres set up by the University. Needless to add, a great deal of these efforts is still experimental—in fact, pioneering in certain areas. Naturally, there is every possibility of some lapse or deficiency here and there. However, these do admit of rectification and further improvement in due course. On the whole, therefore, these study materials are expected to evoke wider appreciation the more they receive serious attention of all concerned. Professor (Dr.) Subha Sankar Sarkar Vice-Chancellor

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3 Netaji Subhas Open University Post Graduate Degree Programme M A in English Language Teaching Course Code: PGEL-8B (Elective Course) Course Title: Application of Theories of ELT Module No Unit No Course Content Writers Course Editors 1 1–4 Dr Niladri S Dash 2 5–8 Dr Niladri S Dash Prof S Mohanraj Professor of ELT, NSOU 3 9–12 Dr Suvarna Lakshmi 4 13–16 Dr S Mohanraj Dr J S Basu Associate Professor of ELT, NSOU NSOU Board of Studies Dr Sumana Bandyopadhyay Dr Jaysankar Basu Assistant Professor in ELT Associate Professor in ELT Netaji Subhas Open University Netaji Subhas Open University Dr S Mohanraj Mrs Syamashree Chakraborti, M.Litt, Professor in ELT, NSOU Former Head of the Department of English, Bethune College, Calcutta (External Member) Dr Swapan Kumar Banerjee Professor Manan Kumar Mandal Former Director, School of Humanities & Director, School of Humanities, NSOU Social Sciences (External Member), NSOU Notification All rights reserved. No part of this Study material shall be reproduced in any form with- out permission in writing from Netaji Subhas Open University. Kishore Sengupta Registrar

5 Netaji Subhas Open University PGEL - 8B ELECTIVE PAPER PGELT- 8B : Elective paper Course Title: Application of Theories of ELT Module-1 : Applied Linguistics-1 Unit 1 Concept of Applied Linguistics 9-20 Unit 2 Evolution of Applied Linguistics 21-36 Unit 3 Factors Affecting Applied Linguistics 1 (Psychology) 37-53 Unit 4 Factors Affecting Applied Linguistics 2 (Education Sociology) 54-70 Module-2 : Applied Linguistics -2 Unit 5 Usages of Applied Linguistics 71-98 Unit 6 Interlanguage and Errors of Interference 99-132 Unit 7 Identifying and Remedying Errors in Speech 133-163 Unit 8 Identifying and Remedying Errors in Writing 164-192

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NSOU ? PGELT-8B 9 MODULE-1 : APPLIED LINGUISTICS-1 Unit 1 Concept of Applied Linguistics Structure 1.1 Objectives 1.2 Introduction 1.3 Preliminary Idea of Applied Linguistics 1.4 Definition of Applied Linguistics 1.5 Concept of Applied Linguistics 1.6 Expert's Views on Applied Linguistics 1.7 Scope of Applied Linguistics 1.8 Review questions 1.9 Summing up 1.10 Glossary 1.11 Books Recommended 1.1 Objectives Having worked through this unit you should be able to: (a) define applied linguistics (b) become aware of its scope and theories, and (c) understand its relationship with language pedagogy. 1.2 Introduction The purpose of this unit is to understand what Applied Linguistics means, how it is treated as a discipline, the sources of knowledge that fed into it, and in particular, its

10 NSOU ? PGELT-8B implications for English Language Teaching (ELT). This unit will also serve as a general background to the other units in this module. 1.3 Preliminary Idea of Applied Linguistics Applied Linguistics is a classroom activity. It involves interaction among the learners and language teachers. The aim is to bring about a change in linguistic skills in the learners. This happens through a network of three-directional interactions: learners, teacher, and text materials. The teacher mediates between the learners and the learning materials in the process of interacting with the learners as well as the learning materials. During the process, the teacher and the learner participate in various activities, which may or may not contribute to the final outcome. During this process, the same things may go wrong and break down, while other things may operate smoothly, without any hitch. This relationship is diagrammatically represented as follows: As an everyday practitioner, a language teacher has to keep in sight the ultimate outcome and at the same time be alert to what is taking place in the classroom and have to handle it instantaneously. This may be for controlling the classroom, rewarding or praising the learner, rebuking or punishing him, transacting techniques, facilitating the teaching objective, or for repairing the damage that has taken place within the process or activity. These activities not only involve verbal interactions but also 'doing' things within the classroom. Just as a person who is able to drive a car may not be able to identify the fault if the car breaks down and may be completely at a loss as to how to repair the damage. Similarly, a classroom teacher may be able to handle the interaction between the learner and the teacher but may feel helpless if things begin to go wrong. Just as repairing a car requires the knowledge of how the parts of the vehicle operate individually and collectively and how they are interlinked, in the same way, the ability to control guide, and repair the teaching activity requires enough knowledge and insights of a teacher far

NSOU ? PGELT-8B 11 beyond the obvious activities within the classroom. In other words, one needs to have a holistic view of the process, and this is known as systems approach to language teaching. The science of applied linguistics helps one gain such insights. What is the nature of this knowledge and insights? Is it systematic? Is it based on certain principles? If so, where do these principles derive from? It is believed that Applied Linguistics is an interdisciplinary area that provides systematic and informed answers to the questions raised in the previous paragraph. In the following sections, you will gather some ideas of how this discipline came to exist and what it is expected to contribute to language pedagogy in particular and the total field of language teaching in general. 1.4 Definition of Applied Linguistics Oxford English Dictionary (2002) Applied Linguistics is the branch of linguistics concerned with practical applications of language studies, for example, language teaching, translation, and speech therapy. Since applied linguistics is concerned with language problems as experienced in the real world, it might appear that the two areas of inquiry in effect converge into one. Linguistics Society of America The term 'applied linguistics' refers to a broad range of activities that involve solving some language-related problem or addressing some language-related concerns. It appears as though applied linguistics, at least in North America, was first officially recognized as an independent course at the University of Michigan in 1946. In those early days, the term was used both in the United States and in Great Britain to refer to applying a so- called 'scientific approach' to teaching foreign languages, including English for non-native speakers.Early work to improve the quality of foreign language teaching by Professors Charles Fries (University of Michigan) and Robert Lado (the University of Michigan, then Georgetown University) helped to bring definition to the field as did the 1948 publication of a new journal, Language Learning: A Quarterly Journal of Applied Linguistics.During the late 1950s and the early 1960s, the use of the term was gradually broadened to include what was then referred to as 'automatic translation'. In 1964 following two years of preparatory work financed by the Council of Europe, the Association Internationale de Linguistique Appliquée (the International Association of Applied Linguistics usually referred to by the French acronym AILA) was founded

12 NSOU ? PGELT-8B and its first international congress was held in Nancy, France. Papers for the congress were solicited in two distinct strands—foreign language teaching and automatic translation. British Council Applied linguistics is a field of study that looks at how linguistics can help understand real-life problems in areas such as psychology, sociology, and education. It can be compared with theoretical linguistics, which looks at areas such as morphology, phonology, and lexis. Areas of applied linguistics of interest to teachers of languages include language acquisition, corpus studies, and sociolinguistics.For example, Linguistic Anthropology is a field of applied linguistics that links the analysis of linguistics and socio-cultural issues.The classroom studies in applied linguistics, which inform the ELTclassroom, include bilingualism, conversation and discourse analysis, sociolinguistics, language assessment, and language teaching itself. 1.5 Concept of Applied Linguistics As the term Applied Linguistics implies, initially it referred to rather direct application of linguistic principles to either the analysis of language or to language pedagogy. The earliest illustrationsof such an application are the three books of Harold E. Palmer of England, namely, The Scientific Study and Teaching of Languages (1917), The Oral Method of Teaching Languages (1921), and The Principles of Language Study (1922). All these books made an attempt to base language pedagogy on the theoretical disciplines of linguistics and psychology. In this sense, the structural linguistics in America, from the very beginning, was concerned with the application of linguistic principles for analysis and description of the fast disappearing American-Indian languages. During World War II, guided by the belief that linguistic scholars could provide solutions to the language teaching problems faced in the learning of exotic languages, the Army called in linguists for their wartime language programmes known as the Army Specialized Training Programme (ASTP). Faced with such a task in language teaching, the linguists broke away from the traditions of conventional language teaching and developed certain approaches and sets of models and techniques derived from linguistic principles. The approaches can be expressed in the form five tenets stated here: (a) Language is primarily speech, not writing

NSOU ? PGELT-8B 13 (b) A language is what the native speakers say; not what someone thinks they ought to say (as opposed to the 'hate mate fallacy') (c) Languages are different (hate mate fallacy) (d) A language is a set of habits (how languages are learnt) and (e) Teach the language, not about the language(Language is a skill, not knowledge) The set of techniques that are developed for the programme included mimicking the spoken model, memorization of the structures through repetition, and intensive practice on language drills.Apart from providing a specific framework for the Army Specialized Training Programme (ASTP), the five principles mentioned above influenced the content and design of teaching materials, classroom techniques, and specially teacher training till the sixties. For instance, the 'structural analysis of the language to be learnt' becomes the basis for the graded teaching materials used in teaching English.Oral skills were emphasized and practiced intensively. For the use of such materials and techniques teachers needed to be trained. 1.6 Scope of Applied Linguistics Applied linguistics exhibits many disciplinary characteristics.These points reflect commonalities that most applied linguists would agree on.Applied linguistics has many subareas which generally define applied linguistics in ways quite similar to the problem- based list previously provided. Applied linguistics recognizes that linguistics must be included as a core knowledge base in the training and work of applied linguistics, although the purpose of most applied linguists' work is not simply to apply linguistics to achieve a solution. Moreover, direct applications of language knowledge is not necessarily a criterion that defines applied linguistics work. How one trains effective language teachers may involve research that does not refer directly to aspects of language knowledge, but rather to aspects of learning psychology (cognitive processes), educational practice (task developmentand sequencing), and social interactions (autonomy, status, turn-taking). Applied linguistics is grounded in real-world language-driven problems and issues (primarily linked by practical matters involving language use, language evaluation, language contact and multilingualism, language policies, and language learning and teaching). There is also, however, the recognition that these practically driven problems have an extraordinary range, and this range tends to dilute any sense of common purpose or common professional identification among practitioners. It typically incorporates other

14 NSOU ? PGELT-8B disciplinary knowledge beyond linguistics in its efforts to address language-based problems. Applied linguists commonly draw upon and are often well trained in areas of anthropology, computer programming, education, economics, English, literature, measurement, political science, psychology, sociology, or rhetoric. Applied linguistics isan interdisciplinary field because many practical language issues are addressed through the knowledge resources of any single discipline, including linguistics. For example, genuinely to influence language learning, one must be able to call upon, at the very least, resources from educational theory, ethnomethodology (sociology), and learning theory as well as linguistics. It commonly includes a core set of issues and practices that are readily identifiable as work carried out by many applied linguists (e.g., second language assessment, second language curriculum development, second language learning, second language teaching, and second language teacher preparation). Applied linguistics generally incorporates or includes several identifiable subfields: for example, corpus linguistics, forensic linguistics, language testing, language policy and planning, lexicography, second language acquisition, second language writing, and translation and interpretation. It often defines itself broadly in order to include issues in other language-related fields (e.g., first language composition studies, first language literacy research, language pathology, and natural language processing). The great majority of members in these other fields do not see themselves as applied linguists; however, the broad definition for appliedlinguistics licenses applied linguists to draw upon and borrow from these disciplines to meet their own objectives.Theseindicate the developing disciplinary nature of applied linguistics. There are certain difficulties for the field, and there are problems in attempting to define and differentiate the core versus the periphery. There are also problems in deciding how one becomes an applied linguist and what training (and what duration of training) might be most appropriate. But these problems are no more intractable than those faced by many disciplines, even relatively established ones. The coming decades of research and inquiry in applied linguistics will continue thelines of investigation. Applied linguists will need to know more about computer technologies, statistical applications, sociocultural influences on research, and new ways to analyse language data. Testing and assessment issues will not be limited to testing applications but will also have a much greater influence on other areas of applied linguistics research. Issues such as validity, fairness, and ethics will extend into other areas of applied

NSOU ? PGELT-8B 15 linguistics. These issues will also lead to continued discussions on the most appropriate research methods in different settings. Additionally, applied linguistics will direct more attention to issues of motivation, attitudes, and affect because those factors potentially influence many language-based problems. Similarly, learning theories (as discussed and debated in educational and cognitive psychology) will become a more central concern in language learning and teaching. Finally, neuro linguistic research will undoubtedly open up new ways to think about language learning, language teaching, and how language is used.All of these issues also ensure that applied linguistics will remain essentially interdisciplinary. The resolution of language-based problems in the real world is complex, dynamic, and difficult. It seems only appropriate that applied linguists seek partnerships and collaborative research if these problems are to be addressed in effective ways. 1.7 Expert's Views on Applied Linguistics Several experts have offered definitions of applied linguistics in recent decades, includingCrystal (1980: 20), Widdowson (183: 122), Richards et al. (1985: 29), Brumfit (1995: 27),Rampton (1997: 11) and others.Some of the recent views of the experts are summarised below. Over the past decade, Henry Widdowson(2005) has argued consistently that applied linguistics is not an interdisciplinary discipline as much as a mediating field or domain between the theoretical plane of linguistics and language knowledge on the one hand and its applications to problems that arise in a number of real-world settings. As such, applied linguistics is problematic as a discipline or as an interdisciplinary field. Rather than create unique knowledge or work within unique disciplinary principles and resources, it is identified by its role mediating between theoretical knowledge from disciplines and practitioners who encounter real-world language problems. According to Jack C. Richards, applied linguisticsfirst emerged as an attempt to provide a theoretical basis for the activities of language teaching. Later, it became an umbrella term for a variety of disciplines which focus on language issues in such fields as law, speech pathology, language planning, and forensic science. In the meantime, language teaching has evolved its own theoretical foundations, and these include second language acquisition, teacher cognition, pedagogical grammar, and so on. Richard Hudson, applied linguistics (AL) provides theoretical and descriptive foundations for the investigation and solution of language-related problems, especially those

16 NSOU ? PGELT-8B of language education (first-language, second-language, and foreign-language teaching and learning), but also problems of translation and interpretation, lexicography, forensic linguistics, and (perhaps) clinical linguistics. Another noted scholar, Susan Hunston argues thatapplied Linguistics is the study of language in order to address real-world concerns. Another is that it is the study of language, and language-related topics, in specified situations. The real-world concerns include language learning and teaching but also other issues such as professional communication, literacy, translation practices, language and legal or health issues, and many more. Applied linguistics is practically-oriented, but it is also theory-driven and interdisciplinary. Models of how languages are learned and stored, for example, are 'applied linguistics', as are descriptions of individual language varieties that prioritize actual and contextualized language use. According to Vivian Cook, another scholar of applied linguistics, the language teaching view of applied linguistics parallels TESOL or TEFL, by looking at ways of improving language teaching, backed by a more rigorous study of language. To many, however, applied linguistics has become synonymous with Second Language Acquisition (SLA). Some people are concerned with classroom language acquisition because of its teaching implications, drawing mostly on psychological models of language and language processing and social models of interaction and identity; others are concerned with SLA in natural settings. In sum, applied linguistics is a discipline which explores the relations between theory and practice in language with particular reference to issues of language use. It embraces contexts in which people use and learn languages and is a platform for systematically address problems involving the use of language and communication in real-world situations. Applied linguistics draws on a range of disciplines, including linguistics. In consequence, applied linguistics has applications in several areas of language study, including language learning and teaching, the psychology of language processing, discourse analysis, stylistics, corpus analysis, literacy studies, and language planning and policies. 1.8 Summing Up In this Unit, we have dealt with the definition of applied linguistics. Also, we have briefly discussed the rudimentary concepts of applied linguistics, referred to some expert's views on applied linguistics, and defined the scope of applied linguistics. We hope this Unit will help you make informed decisions relating to applied linguistics.

NSOU ? PGELT-8B 17 1.9 Review Questions [1] What is the basic assumption behind applied linguistics? [2] Give a complete definition of applied Linguistics. [3] What are the major scopes of Applied Linguistics? [4] How does applied linguistic relate to language pedagogy? [5] In what ways does language description contribute to language pedagogy? [6] What are the basic concepts of applied linguistics? [7] What are the various influences that helped Applied Linguistic formulate its principles [8] What are the five tenant of Applied Linguistics as stated by ASTP? [9] Does Applied Linguistics help a teacher in teaching languages? [10] Having read views from 5 experts, if you are asked to define the scope of Applied Linguistics, how would you do it? 1.10 Glossary of Terms Bilingualism: It is the phenomenon of speaking and understanding two or more languages. The term can refer to individuals (individual bilingualism) as well as to an entire society (social bilingualism). Corpus Analysis: It is a form of text analysis that allows one to make comparisons between textual data in one or across many languages based on large scale language data. Discourse Analysis: It is a research method for studying written or spoken language in relation to its social context. It aims to understand how language is used in real-life situations. When you do discourse analysis, you might focus on the purposes and effects of different types of language. English Language Teaching: It refers to the activity and industry of teaching English to non-native speakers. Many large editorial companies have ELT sections that publish books for English teachers and learners to use. Foreign Language Learning: It is a process by which people learn languages in addition

18 NSOU ? PGELT-8B to their native language(s). The language to be learned is referred to as the 'target language' (L2). Interpretation: It is an explanation or a set of statements that are usually constructed to describe a set of facts that clarify the causes, context, and consequences of those facts. This description may establish rules or laws and may clarify the existing rules or laws in relation to any objects, or phenomena examined. Language Planning: It is an attempt to influence how a language is used. This is usually done to make it possible to use the language for more subjects. Goals, objectives, and strategies are made to change the way a language is used. For many languages, there are special organizations that look after the language. Language Policy: It is what a government does either officially through legislation, court decisions, or policy to determine how languages are used, cultivate language skills needed to meet national priorities, or to establish the rights of individuals or groups to use and maintain languages. Language Processing: It is an intricate cognitive function that appears to be sensitive to different sorts of information, some linguistic, some not. It interacts with other cognitive functions, such as attention and memory, and on some accounts, these cognitive functions are embedded in language processing itself. Language Testing: Its main focus is the assessment of first, second, or other languages in the school, college, or university context; assessment of language use in the workplace; and assessment of language in the immigration, citizenship, and asylum contexts. The assessment may include listening, speaking, reading, writing, an integration of two or more of these skills, or other constructs of language ability. 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. Multilingualism: It is the ability of an individual speaker or a community of speakers to communicate effectively in three or more languages. It contrasts with monolingualism, the ability to use only one language. A person who can speak multiple languages is known as a polyglot or a multilingual. Rhetoric: It is the art of persuasion, which along with grammar and logic, is one of the three ancient arts of discourse. Rhetoric aims to study the capacities of writers or speakers needed to inform, persuade, or motivate particular audiences in specific situations.

NSOU ? PGELT-8B 19 Second Language Acquisition: It is a process by which people learn a second language. Second-language acquisition is also the scientific discipline devoted to studying that process. 1.11 Books Recommended [1] Allen, P.B. and Corder, S.P. (Eds.) (1973-1977). The Edinburgh Course in Applied Linguistics (Vol. 1. Readings in applied Linguistics (1973); Vol. 2. Papers in Applied Linguistics (1975), Vol. 3. Techniques in Applied Linguistics (1974); Vol. 4. Testing and Experimental methods (1977). London and Oxford: Oxford University Press. [2] Brumfit, C. (1995) "Teacher professionalism and research". In: Cook, G. and Seidlhofer, B. (eds.) (1995) Principles and Practice in Applied Linguistics. Oxford: Oxford University Press, pp. 27-42. [3] Cook, V. 2016. Second Language Learning and Language Teaching. London: Routledge. [4] Corder, S. P. (1973) Introducing Applied Linguistics. Harmondsworth: Penguin. [5]

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20 NSOU ? PGELT-8B [12] Widdowson, H.G. (1979) Exploration in Applied Linguistics. Oxford: Oxford University Press. [13] Widowson, H.G. (1983) Learning Purpose and Language Use. Oxford: Oxford University Press. [14] Widdowson, H.G. (2005) 'Applied linguistics, interdisciplinarity, and disparate realities'. In: Bruthiaux, P., D. Atkinson, W.G Eggington, W. Grabe and V. Ramanathan (Eds.) Directions in Applied Linguistics. Multilingual Matters. Pp. 12-2. [15] Wilkins, D.A. (1972) Linguistics in Language Teaching. London: Arnold [16] Wilkins, D.A. (1976) Notional Syllabuses. London: Oxford University Press.

NSOU ? PGELT-8B 21 Unit 2 Evolution of Applied Linguistics Structure 2.1 Objectives 2.2 Introduction 2.3 Origin of Applied Linguistics 2.4 Applied Linguistics in Twentieth Century 2.5 Changes in Perspective in the Last Century 2.6 Trends in Applied Linguistics in the Twenty-First Century 2.7 Evolution of Concepts of Applied Linguistics 2.8 Summing Up 2.9 Review Questions 2.10 Glossary of Terms 2.11 Books Recommended 2.1 Objectives After going through this unit, the learners will be able to: a. understand how Applied Linguistics has been established as a discipline today. b. the various allied disciplines that promoted the growth of Applied Linguistics c. appreciate the research in the field across the globe especially in America and Europe. d. trace the development over a period of time and delineate its contemporary characteristic features 2.1 Introduction The purpose of this unit is to have a clear understanding about how Applied Linguistics developed and evolved as a discipline over the years. In this Unit, we shall try to gather some ideas onhow the discipline originated nearly a century ago; how it

22 NSOU ? PGELT-8B has been treated by earlier scholars on either side of the Atlantic Ocean; how it has evolved as a major domain of research and application; how information, theories, and insights of many other disciplines have been incorporated here; how in the course of gradual change it has acquired the present shape and significance in a global perspective. 2.3 Origin of Applied Linguistics In the first half of the last century, a group of linguists in America was demonstrating the use of linguistics in the teaching of English as a second language. This was being done at the English Language Institute of the University of Michigan in 1941 under the leadership of Charles C. Fries. Here, for preparing new teaching materials, an attempt was made "to interpret is a practical way for teaching the principles of modern linguistic sciences and to use the results of scientific linguistic research." Fries himself demonstrated how the sound system, the structures of the language, and the most useful lexical material, could be derived from existing linguistic knowledge and organized for language teaching purposes. According to Fries, the contribution of linguistics to pedagogy comprises the descriptive analysis of a language which forms the basis for building teaching materials. He further insisted that the descriptive analyses of both, the language to be studied and the native language of the learners are needed. The comparison of such descriptions formed the basis of contrastive linguistic principle which then could provide a clue to the learning difficulties of the learner. The comparative study could identify similarities and differences between the two languages and linguists could then predict which areas of learning would be difficult or easy for the language learner. Robert Lado applied the principles of contrastive linguistics systematically to the teaching of English as a second language. It

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was not meant to offer a new method of teaching but was a form of description that was applicable to curriculum development, the preparation and evaluation of teaching materials, the diagnosis of learning problems, and testing. Lado

in fact outlined procedures for making comparisons in phonology, grammar, vocabulary, and the cultural aspects of languages. Following such procedures, after the establishment of the Centre for Applied Linguistics in Washington in 1959, there was a spurt of contrastive studies, almost with all the major European languages and the Japanese. In the early sixties, contrastive linguistics became one of the most important means of relating linguistics to language teaching.

NSOU ? PGELT-8B 23 2.4 Applied Linguistics in Twentieth Century Over the years, the term applied linguistics has been defined and interpreted in several different ways. In the following paragraphs we shall summarize the following characteristics of applied linguistics for each decade: (a) In the 1950s: ? The term was commonly meant to reflect the insights of structural and functional linguists that could be applied directly to second language teaching. ? It was also used, in some cases, to refer to first language (L1) literacy and issues of language arts as well. (b) In the 1960s: ? The term continued to be associated with the application of linguistics to language teaching and related practical language issues. ? At the same time, applied linguists became involved in matters of language assessment, language policies. ? The new field of second language acquisition (SLA) focuses on language learning, rather than on language teaching. ? By the late 1960s, we see a reinforcement of the centrality of second language teaching as applied linguistics, as well as an expansion into other realms of language use. ? Applied linguistics began to emerge as a genuine language-centred and problem- solving enterprise. (c) In the 1970s: ? The broadening of the field of applied linguistics continued, accompanied by more overt specification of its role as a discipline that addresses real-world language-based problems. ? Although the focus on language teaching remained central to the discipline, it additionally took into its domain the growing subfields of language assessment, SLA, L2 literacy, multilingualism, language-minority rights, language policy and planning, and language teacher training.

The notion of applied linguistics is driven by real-world language problems rather than by theoretical explorations of internalized language knowledge and (L1) language development. ? It acquires a separate identity which is different from formal linguistics and sociolinguistics. (d) In the 1980s: ? The trends of the 1970s took hold and evolved as major points of departure from an earlier, no longer appropriate, 'linguistics applied' perspective. ? The central issue remained the need to address language issues and problems as they occur in the real world. ? Of course, because language is central to all communication, and because many language issues in the real world are particularly complex and long-standing, the emerging field has not simply been reactive, but rather, has been and still is, fluid and dynamic in its evolution. ? Definitions of applied linguistics emphasized both the range of issues addressed and the types of disciplinary resources used in order to work on language problems. ? Applied linguistics extended in a systematic way beyond language teaching and language learning issues to encompass language assessment, language policy, and planning, language use issues in professional settings, translation, bilingualism and multilingualism, lexicography, language and technology, and corpus linguistics. (e) In the 1990s: ? A common trend was emerging to view applied linguistics as incorporating many subfields (e.g., education; English studies—including composition, rhetoric, and literary studies; modern languages) ? It also started to draw on many supporting disciplines in addition to linguistics (e.g., anthropology; policy studies; political sciences; psychology; public administration; and sociology). ? Combined with these two foundations (subfields and supporting disciplines) was the view of applied linguistics as problem-driven and real-world based rather than theory-driven and disconnected from real language use data.

Applied linguistics evolved still further during the 1990s and 2000s, breaking away from the common framing mechanisms of the 1980s. ? A parallel co-evolution of linguistics itself needs to be commented upon to understand how and why linguistics, broadly defined, remains a core resource for applied linguistics. 2.5 Changes in Perspective in the Last Century From the 1960s to the early 1990s, generative linguistics dominated the linguistics landscape. Although other competing formal theories (i.e., tagmemics, systemic- functional linguistics, descriptive grammar, and others) were always available, and sociolinguistics claimed language variation, spoken discourse analysis, and social uses of language as descriptive areas of inquiry, Chomsky's linguistics, and its offshoots, almost defined linguistics. This situation was especially true for many practicing applied linguists during that time. However, the growing abstractness of generative linguistics, the assumption of a language acquisition device (LAD, an innate language-learning mechanism), and the assumption that a theory should be universally applicable to all languages have, for the most part, taken generative linguistics out of the running as a foundation for language knowledge that is relevant and applicable to real-world language uses and real-world language problems. In its place, applied linguists have been turning back to the following perspectives: (a) More cognitive and descriptive approaches to language knowledge, (b) Language explanations that are explicitly driven by attested language use rather than intuitions (corpus linguistics, descriptive grammars, sociolinguistics), and (c) Theories of language representation that have more realistic applicability to the sorts of language issues explored by applied linguists. Linguistics, viewed from this larger perspective, is still central to the overwhelming majority of applied linguistic areas of inquiry that are generally recognized as falling under the umbrella discipline of applied linguistics. After all, applied linguists, and training programs for applied linguists, universally recognize that language knowledge of various types is crucial for careful description and analysis of language, language learning, language uses and abuses, language assessment, so on and so forth.

Applied linguists has drawn on knowledge bases of phonetics, phonology, morphology, syntax, semantics, pragmatics, and written discourse because they are relevant to an applied linguistics issue, even if a given area of applied linguistics may not draw specifically on this knowledge at all times (e.g., L2 teacher training, language policy, and planning). What has changed is the recognition that linguistic foundations do not need to be narrowly prescribed in a theoretical fashion. Rather, they must be relevant to language description in specific contexts and provide resources that help address language-based problems and issues in real-world contexts. In applied linguistics research, the focus on discourse analysis, descriptive data analysis, and interpretation of language data in their social/cultural settingsindicate a shift in valuing observable language data over theoretical assumptions about what should count as data. One of the most useful perspectives that have arisen out of this evolution of more relevant linguistics has been the development of register analysis, genre analysis, and the resource of corpus linguistics as they apply to a wide range of language learning and language use situations. All of these approaches to linguistic analysis, along with more refined techniques for discourse analysis, are now hallmarks of much-applied linguistics research. In fact, many applied linguists have come to see the real-world, problem-based, socially responsive research carried out in applied linguistics as the genuine role for linguistics, with formal linguistics taking a supporting role. It is the applied linguist who works with language in the real world, who is most likely to have a realistic picture of what language is, and not the theoretical linguist who sifts through several layers of idealization. 2.6 Trends in Applied Linguistics in the Twenty-First Century Various developments have emerged over the last 20 years. These will continue to define applied linguistics in the coming decades. Some ideas about the new trends may be gathered from the following signposts: Emphasis Area 1: Research in language teaching, language learning, and teacher education is now placing considerable emphasis on notions of language awareness, attention and learning, 'focus on forms' for language learning, learning from dialogic interactions, patterns of teacher- student interaction, task-based learning, content-based learning, and teacher as a researcher through action research.

Research in language learning has shifted in recent years toward a focus on information processing. This has been due to the importance of more general cognitive learning principles, the emergence of language ability from extended meaningful exposures and relevant practice, and the awareness of how language is used and the functions that it serves. ? Instructional research and curricular issues have centered on task-based learning, content-based learning, strategies-based instruction, and a return to learning centered on specific language skills. ? Language teacher development has also moved in new directions. Widdowson has argued forcefully that certain communicative orientations, with a pervasive emphasis on natural language input and authenticity, may be misinterpreting the real purpose of the language classroom context and ignoring effective frameworks for language teaching. He has also persuasively argued that applied linguists must support teachers throughout their mediation with all aspects of Dell Hymes's notion of Communicative Competence, balancing language understanding so that it combines grammaticality, appropriateness, feasibility, and examples from the attested. ? A further emphasis on language teacher education has been the move to engaging teachers in the practice of action research. The trend to train teachers as reflective practitioners inquiring into the effectiveness of teaching and learning in local classroom settings will increase in the coming decade. Emphasis Area 2: Emphasis is noted in discussions among applied linguists themselves on the role of critical studies. This term covers critical awareness, critical discourse analysis, critical pedagogy, student rights, critical assessment practices, and ethics in language assessment and language teaching. ? There are a number of criticisms of this general approach and its impact on more mainstream applied linguistics that highlights weaknesses in much of the critical studies theorizing. ? At present, the notion of critical studies also constitutes an emphasis that has not demonstrated strong applications in support of those who are experiencing 'language problems' of various types. The coming decade will undoubtedly continue this debate.

28 NSOU ? PGELT-8B Emphasis Area 3: Emphasis is on language uses in academic, disciplinary, and professional settings. ? This research examines ways in which language is used by participants and in texts in various academic, professional, and occupational settings. ? It also emphasizes how language can act as a gate-keeping mechanism or can create unfair obstacles for those who are not aware of appropriate discourse rules and expectations. ? In academic settings, the key issue lies in understanding how genre and register expectations form the basis for successfully negotiating academic work. Emphasis Area 4: Emphasis centres on descriptive (usually discourse) analyses of language in real settings and the possible application of analyses in corpus linguistics, register variation, and genre variation. ? A breakthrough application of corpus linguistics remains the Longman Grammar of Spoken and Written English (Biberet al. 1999). It is based entirely on attested occurrences of language use in a very large corpus of English. (BNC) ? The key of the book does not lie in the corpus data themselves but in the innovative analyses and displays that define the uniqueness of the grammar. ? Other important applications of corpus linguistics include more teacher- and learner-directed resources. Emphasis Area 5: Emphasis in applied linguistics research addresses multilingualism and bilingual interaction in school, community, and work and professional settings or policy issues at regional and national levels. ? Because the majority of people in the world are to some extent bilingual, and because this bilingualism is associated with the need to negotiate life situations with other cultural and language groups, this area of research is fundamental to applied linguistics concerns.

NSOU ? PGELT-8B 29 ? Multilingualism covers issues in bilingual education, migrations of groups of people to new language settings, equity and fairness in social services, and language policies related to multiple language use or the restriction thereof. Emphasis Area 6: Emphasis is on the changing discussion in language testing and assessment. ? During the past decade, the field of language assessment has taken on a number of important issues and topics that have ramifications for applied linguists more generally. ? Validity remains a major theme for language testers, and it has been powerfully reinterpreted over the last 10 years. ? In its newer interpretation, validity has strong implications for all areas of applied linguistic research and data collection and is not merely an issue for assessment practices. ? An additional shift in language assessment with significant implications for applied linguistics more generally is the greater emphasis being given to assessment for learning (sometimes discussed as formative assessment). ? Goals for assessment have shifted from assessing what students can do at a given moment to using assessment as a way to improve learning effectiveness on an on-going basis. The goal is to see continuous learner assessment for learning purposes. This trend is likely to grow considerably in the coming decade. ? More generally, emphases on technology applications, ethics in assessment, innovative research methodologies, roles of standardized assessment, standards for professionalism, and critical language testing are all reshaping language assessment and applied linguistics. Emphasis Area 7: Emphasis is paid to the resources and perspectives provided by neurolinguistics and brain studies associated with language learning and language use. ? The potential and the benefits of research in neurolinguistics and the impact of language learning on brain processing is perhaps not an immediate concern of applied linguistics. However, significant advances in the relations between brain function in gand language learning suggest that research insights from neurolinguistics may soon become too important to ignore.

30 NSOU ? PGELT-8B ? The impact of literacy training, literacy learning in different languages, and training with language disability learners on brain processing have accelerated in recent years. A sure sign of this change is the extraordinarily accessible explanations relating neuroscience to reading ability and the inclusion of neuroscience and reading comprehension on comprehension instruction. ? This emphasis will probably become an important sub-area of applied linguistics within the decade. 2.7 Evolution of Concepts of Applied Linguistics A realistic history of the field of applied linguistics would place its origins at around the year 1948 with the publication of the first issue of the journal Language Learning: A Journal of Applied Linguistics. The journal referred directly to the activities of Fries, Lado, and other members of staff of the Institute.Although there are certainly other possible starting points, particularly from a British perspective, this dating still accords roughly with most discussions of the beginning of applied linguistics.It is from these activities that we get a picture of applied linguistics as a field of activity. Charles Fries sees applied linguistics as a hierarchical model. (a) A descriptive linguist produces descriptions of the source and the target languages. An applied linguist then takes over in a dual role. First, he has to select and grade the structures taken from the original description to suit the relevant pedagogical purposes and prepare a contrastive description of the source and target languages so that areas of potential difficulty may be pinpointed. (b) An applied linguist writes teaching materials illustrating patterns of the new language and providing special practice on difficult points. Emphasis is thus paid on the content, derived from the descriptions of the languages, and the methodology is not influenced in any direct way. The description categories are taken over, but organizing principles of the materials are derived from outside linguistics: relevance and pedagogy. What has been described so far may be referred to as the first or earliest phase of the development of applied linguistics where linguistics is seen to apply directly to second language teaching, mainly in providing its content.

NSOU ? PGELT-8B 31 The second phase of development is one exemplified mainly by Pit Corder, associated with the Centre for Applied Linguistics at the University of Edinburgh. He diverges from the first phase in two ways. First, he acknowledges that the relationship between linguistics and classroom activities is an indirect one; and that the application can take place at various levels. He demonstrates this by distinguishing between three orders of application of linguistics, contributing in three different ways to language pedagogy (see Fig. 1 below). Application Theory Process Data First order linguistic and Description ? Language utterance sociolinguistic ? Second order linguistic and comparison and ? description of sociolinguistic selection languages ? Third-order linguistic socio- Organization and ? content of syllabus linguistic and presentation psycholinguistic ? teaching materials Fig. 1: Pit Corder's view of the application of linguistics However, he accepts the basic view that applied linguistics involves an application of linguistics. He looks upon it as an activity and asserts categorically that it is not a theoretical study, but something which makes use of the findings of theoretical studies. The second point of divergence from the earlier phase lies in the fact that Corder envisages disciplines other than linguistics contributing to applied linguistics. We can see this cleanly from Fig. 1. At the first level of application, the concepts of theoretical linguistics are used to analyze language data leading to the description of a second language. On this basis, the second order of application determines the section of items. Such selection is helped by contrastive analysis and error analysis and will yield an

32 NSOU ? PGELT-8B inventory or list of items from which the linguistic content of the syllabus as well as the teaching materials can be determined at the third level of application. Corder, in effect, maintains a paradoxical position. By denying any theoretical status to applied linguistics, he assigns a narrow definition to it. At the same time, he is unable to maintain the stance that linguistics contributes significantly to the principle of designing a teaching programme. Consequently, he attempts to broaden the base of applied linguistics by conceding that other disciplines also feed into it. The third phase in the development of applied linguistics is characterized by an attempt to establish it as a field in its own right, a discipline with an independent body of knowledge, one with an evolving methodology of its own- a theory independent of other disciplines to the extent that any theoretical formulation can be independent of the total body of human knowledge. 2.8 Summing Up In this unit, we have discussed the origin and growth of applied linguistics as a separate area of study. The study of the evolution of applied linguistics as an independent discipline has contributed to a large extent to form and develop theories and models of applied linguistics and to understand how other disciplines play crucial roles in language pedagogy. We hope this unit will help us make informed decisions relating to language pedagogy. 2.9 Review Questions [1] Name two issues which were debated during the evolution and development of applied linguistics as a discipline. [2] What are the major contributions of Charles Fries in the development of Applied Linguistics as a separate discipline? [3] What is the contribution made by Robert Lado? Is it useful today? [4] If you are translating a text from one language to another, which aspect of Applied Linguistics is helpful to you? [5] What are different systems of grammar that were in vogue when Applied Linguistics was emerging?
NSOU ? PGELT-8B 33 [6] What departures did Chomsky make to the development applied linguistics? How effective are they [7] How does the approach of applied linguistics in the 1960s differ from that of the 1980s? [8] How can you define Pit Corder's model of applied linguistics? [9] What are the major advantages of Pit Corder's model? [10] Does Applied Linguistics help a classroom teacher in teaching and testing his students? 2.10 Glossary of Terms Approximative System Hypothesis: According to William Nemser (1971) who introduced this hypothesis,

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the acquisition of a second language includes systematic stages with an approximative system at each stage.

A second language learner in different stages goes through different interlanguage, with each stage approximating to the Target Language by Nemser, and emphasizes the continual development of language through systematic stages. What a learner learns may undergo modifications and may be restructured gradually. The main difference between interlanguage and Approximative system hypothesis lies in the fact that the former believes the learner's language is a phenomenon between the first and second languages (intermediate status), while the latter emphasizes the dynamic essence of the learner's language (transitional and developmental) Content: It refers to the terms, topics, etc. listed for teaching in a course or syllabus. Contrastive Linguistics: It is a systematic comparison of the similarities and differences of two languages in their sound system, vocabulary and grammatical systems, following the principles of linguistics. Curriculum: It is a technical term, usually in contrast with the term 'syllabus'. A curriculum usually includes a statement of the objectives, content, methodology and the scheme of evaluation procedures of a course of study. Interlanguage: It is a linguistic system used by second language learners. Learners create this language when they attempt to communicate in the target language. Interlanguage is affected by the learner's native language as they use their native language knowledge to understand and organize the second language or to compensate for existing competency gaps.
34 NSOU ? PGELT-8B Language Pedagogy: Methods of teaching languages. It takes place as a general school subject, in a specialized language school, or out of school with a rich selection of proprietary methods online and in books, CDs, and DVDs. There are many methods of teaching languages. Some have fallen into relative obscurity and others are widely used; still, others have a small following but offer useful insights. Lexicography: The art and craft of dictionary-making. It is divided into two important groups. Practical lexicography is the art or craft of compiling, writing, and editing dictionaries. Theoretical lexicography is the scholarly discipline of analyzing and describing the semantic, syntagmatic, and paradigmatic relationships within the lexicon (vocabulary) of a language, developing theories of dictionary components and structures linking the data in dictionaries, the needs for information by users in specific types of situations, and how users may best access the data incorporated in printed and electronic dictionaries. Systemic-Functional Linguistics (SFL): It is a theory of language centeredaround the notion of language function. While SFL accounts for the syntactic structure of language, it places the function of language as central (what language does, and how it does it), in preference to more structural approaches, which place the elements of language and their combinations as central. SFL starts at the social context and looks at how language both acts upon, and is constrained by, this social context. Tagmemics: A tagmeme is the smallest functional element in the grammatical structure of a language. The term was introduced in the 1930s by the linguist Leonard Bloomfield, who defined it as the smallest meaningful unit of the grammatical form (analogous to the morpheme, defined as the smallest meaningful unit of the lexical form). The term was later adopted, and its meaning broadened, by Kenneth Pike and others beginning in the 1950s, as the basis for their tagmemics. Translation: It is the communication of the meaning of a source language text by means of an equivalent target language text. The English language draws a terminological distinction between translating and interpreting; under this distinction, translation can begin only after the appearance of writing within a language community.
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NSOU ? PGELT-8B 37 Unit 3 Factors Affecting Applied Linguistics 1 (Psychology) Structure 3.1 Objectives 3.2 Introduction 3.3 Nine Factors that Influence Language Learning 3.4 Factor Types in Second Language Learning 3.5 Students' Psychological Factors in SLA 3.5.1 Anxiety 3.5.2 Aptitude 3.5.3 Attitude 3.5.4 Motivation 3.6 Types of Motivation 3.7 Approaches to Help Students to Cope 3.8 Summary 3.9 Review Questions 3.10 Glossary of Terms 3.11 Books Recommended 3.1 Objectives After going through this unit, the learners will be able to: a. identify factors that affect learning. b. classify these factors according to their nature c. realise the importance of psychological in learning language.

38 NSOU ? PGELT-8B 3.2 Introduction Psychological factors play an important role in a learner's success or failure in acquiring and using a second language. A learner is one who is able to deal with learning situation employing his personal style because of the character traits he possesses. Individual and psychological factors affect the way we acquire a second language and the way we communicate with people. The purpose of this unit is to gather a deeper knowledge and understanding of specific psychological and personal factors affecting second language acquisition and the ability to manage them in order to be effective in our daily communication and interactions. In this Unit, we describe the psychological factors in a human being who learns a second language. There are two types of factors that can affect second language learning: (a) External factors, and (b) Internal factors. It is found that external factors (e.g., characteristic of a teacher, quality of teaching materials, physical or technical facilities, classroom, and school condition, etc.) have consistently no relation with the success of learning a foreign language. On the other hand, internal factors have a powerful impact on the overall learning effort and progress of a student. The student's psychological conditionsform a part of the internal factors, and influence foreign or second language acquisition. The psychological factor is a factor that is mentally or spiritually concerned with the aspects of students' acquisition. At least, there are four factors (e.g., anxiety, attitude, aptitude, and motivation) that influence the students' effort in second language acquisition. However, to cope with the psychological problems of learning a second language, scholars suggest a few strategies for managing language learning anxieties. Among them are preparation strategy, relaxation, positive thinking, peer-support, and labelled resignation are of high importance. Therefore, in maximizing the result of second language acquisition, these five strategies are considered important as an alternative solution. 3.3 Nine Factors that Influence Language Learning Watching a student learn a second language is a lot like seeing them swim for the first time. Some students dive right in and are soon paddling around the deep end. Others take their time, dipping a toe in the water and gradually venturing out from the shore. It is common to believe that a student's skill in learning a second language comes naturally. This is not true. Some students pick up language skills faster than others. But

NSOU ? PGELT-8B 39 that does not mean that the ability to learn a new language is an attribute possessed by only a lucky few. When students start learning an additional language, some do soak up the knowledge faster than others. Yet it is not just the natural ability at work. We find that many internal and external factors influence how fast students pick up a new or second language. Nine factors that influence the process of language learning are summarized below. [1] Motivation: When students realise the importance of understanding a language and can see how it directly affects their life, they learn it faster. We have found that a contextual, theme-based curriculum can help get students more excited to dive into language learning. When they are interested in learning a new language and they see meaningful connections to their lives, they begin to take risks to produce language, which helps them to acquire it, faster. [2] Support at Home: It is found that exposure is an important factor in language comprehension and acquisition. If a student's family only speaks one language, they are not able to provide help when the students need it. It also matters how much value parents place on learning an additional language. Parents who prioritize language learning are more likely to push their children to keep trying even when it feels difficult. [3] Prior Linguistic Knowledge: Once students have studied and acquired a language, their skill at learning another will increase. Language learners can transfer skills from one language to another because they can recognize the rules and patterns of language, even if the vocabulary is different. [4] Learning Environment: Another key factor is how comfortable students feel in their language learning environment. Does their classroom feel cold and tense, or positive and relaxing? What arethe school's culture and beliefs about language learning? It is found that students' learning environment has an impact on their motivation—a low anxiety language learning environment increases the chance for acquisition. [5] Teaching Strategies: The strategies a language teacher uses have a major impact on language learning. How does the teacher help students understand the concepts of a language? How does the teacher take different learning styles into account, as well as different levels of comprehension? For example, watching a film in the target language and writing and performing skits in the

40 NSOU ? PGELT-8B target language reach multiple learning styles. Offering an immersion experience helps students connect language learning to their everyday lives, but rote vocabulary memorization and grammar drills create 'meaningless' language lessons. [6] Comprehensible Input: How attainable does the language feel to the student? Linguist Stephen Krashen developed the 'input hypothesis' of second-language acquisition. In this context, the titular 'input' is the language curriculum. Krashen argues that teaching at just any level of difficulty is not sufficient: the input received by a student must be comprehensible. In other words, the curriculum must reach students at their current level and challenge them with activities and just one level beyond their current stage. If the students feel the material is out of reach, they tend to 'shut down' and have trouble engaging with the lesson. To make sure that students feel motivated to learn, it is important to ensure that they feel like they can progress to the next level of learning. [7] Student Personality: Is the student an introvert or an extrovert? Students' personalities can affect how they learn a second language. Introvert students have been shown to take longer to acquire a language because they are more hesitant to make mistakes. Extrovert students, on the other hand, are more likely to go out on a limb and try out their newly learned vocabulary. To ensure that both personality types succeed, it is important to create an environment where students understand that mistakes are part of the learning process and it is more important to speak than to be perfect. [8] Student's Age: How old are students when they start learning a foreign language? While students of all ages can learn a foreign language, there is a consensus that certain aspects are affected by the age of the learner. It becomes harder for students to have native pronunciation past their teen years. Some students also find that it is more difficult to fully acquire a foreign language as they get older, but this is not true of everyone. [9] Comfort in their Country of Residence: How happy are students in the country where they are studying a language? A final factor in language learning is the learner's comfort in the current country of residence. Most children move to a new country because of a parent's job, not by choice. As a result, their motivation to learn a new language can depend on whether they are happy to be in a new place or if they have come kicking and screaming. Luckily, even

NSOU ? PGELT-8B 41 if a learner is unhappy at first, their attitude can shift if they feel welcomed by their teachers and supported by their parents. TASK: Now that you are familiar with some of the factors that influence second language learning, could you recall your language learning experience (learning English) and state how many of these factors you had in your favour? Your response: 3.4 Factor Types in Second Language Learning We will quickly revise what we have said so far before moving forward. Second Language learning ultimately occurs in the mind of a learner, in other words, it is a cognitive affair. The mental structure or the mechanisms help organize the components of the language to which the learner is exposed. Looking at the phenomena of the teaching and learning process in general, the problem which is commonly faced by the students is not only in terms of linguistic problems, but it is also concerned with non- linguistic problems, which are mostly psychological. Besides, many factors influence the success of learning, especially learning English as a foreign language. It is observed that these factors can be classified into two groups, namely, Internal and External factors. The internal factor commonly involves the internal aspects of the learners such as physical condition, psychology or mental orientation, and anxiety, while external factors may cover any aspects out of the learners' point of view, such as environment, school, family, etc. Some recent studies in second language acquisition suggest positive views towards the importance of exposure to linguistic input in promoting acquisition. It implies that teachers are required to use the target language and provide input as much as possible since the learners are at the initial stages. In practice, however, to use the target language in the classroom process teachers are not free from the dilemma, particularly when they are to teach beginners who still have low language proficiency. The dilemma is that on the one hand teachers are required to use the target language, while on the other hand, the learners still have inadequate language proficiency. Therefore, teachers are required to modify their language in such a way to be approximate with the level of the learner's proficiency. What characteristics do the teacher's language consist of when they are in such a dilemma? That question has been one of the crucial issues in second language learning. Researchers found that external factors such as the behaviour of the teacher, classroom facilities, and school condition, teaching materials had consistently no relation

42 NSOU ? PGELT-8B with the success of learning a foreign language. On the other hand, student's psychological conditions, as one of the internal factors, were the potential to influence foreign or second language acquisition. It is stated that the most important factor that influences the result of the study is the students' characteristics themselves. Scholars agree that affective variables such as attitude and motivation play a strong role in determining students' linguistic performance in class. Moreover, it is noted that the affective side of the learner is probably one of the most important influences on language learning success or failure. The affective factors which are dominantly related to a second language or foreign language learning are anxiety, attitude, aptitude, and motivation. In this Unit, our discussions are focused on how psychological problems such as anxiety, attitude, aptitude, and motivation influence the students in learning English as a foreign language. 3.5 Students' Psychological Factors in SLA The psychological factor is a factor that is mentally or spiritually concerned with the aspects of students' language acquisition processes. It, at least, involves four factors, such as anxiety, attitude, aptitude, and motivation since they have been proved through some research findings. 3.5.1 Anxiety Language anxiety is conceptualized as a situation-specific personality trait having two psychological components: emotional arousal and negative self-related cognition. It is noted that these components ostensibly interfere with the behaviour of students instrumental to language learning, and are more intense in people who possess high levels of language anxiety. Scholars state that second or foreign language learning is a complex task that is susceptible to human anxiety, which is associated with feelings of uneasiness, frustration, self-doubt, and apprehension. In addition, it is also found that the anxiety is provoked in the students while speaking English affected by their mother tongue. This happens especially when they speak the target language in public, in the presence of native speakers. Sometimes extreme anxiety occurs when English as Foreign Language (EFL) learners become tongue-tied or lost for words in a situation, which often leads to discouragement and a general sense of failure. Studies show that adults, unlike children, are concerned with how they are judged by others. They are very cautious about making errors in what they say, for making errors would be a public display of ignorance that would be an obvious occasion of 'losing face' in some cultures such as in India, China, and in other oriental countries.

Clearly, the sensitivity of adult learners in making mistakes has been the explanation for their inability to speak English without hesitation. Certain personality patterns will cause students to react negatively to verbal instructions and commands. For example, students with high anxiety levels do not respond to motivational instructions such as "it is important that you do well," and "this will count double on your grade," etc. as well as people with lower anxiety levels. Most personalities respond more positively to praise than to punishment and blame. Thus, avoid saying "why can't you learn this? It is so simple. My other classes didn't have any trouble with it at all. Tomorrow you take the test whether you know it or not," otherwise the students will get frustrated. 3.5.2 Aptitude Aptitude is defined as the desire or orientation to learn asseen in someone. It is stated that 'aptitude is consistently the best predictor of language learning success'. The existence of aptitude in foreign or second language learning is very influential. There is evidence in the research literature that some individuals have an exceptional 'aptitude' for language learning. A study shows that an American student who took a major in French, German, Russian, and Spanish shows that language aptitude is significantly associated with success in foreign language study. It is reported that a man, who is a native speaker of English and grew up in an English home, had his first true experience with a second language at the age of 15 with formal instruction in French. He also studied German, Spanish, and Latin while he was in high school. At age 20, he made a brief visit to Germany. It is reported that just listening to German spoken for a short time was enough for him to recall the German he had learnt in school. Later, the person worked in Morocco where he learned Moroccan Arabic through both formal instruction and informal immersion. He also spent some time in Spain and Italy, where he apparently 'picked up' both Spanish and Italian in a matter of weeks. There may be few learners like him, but many research works show that human beings exhibit a wide range of aptitude for learning a second language. The work on developing Foreign Language Aptitude Tests has provided extensive evidence that there is a special factor or an aptitude for learning a foreign language. Studies have identified four factors that serve as components of an aptitude for foreign languages as follows: [1] Phonetic decoding. This is an ability to discriminate among foreign sounds and to encode them in a manner such that they can be recalled later. This

would certainly seem to be a skill involved in successful second language learning. [2] Grammatical sensitivity. This is the ability to recognize the function that words fulfil in sentences. It does not measure the ability to name or describe the function, but rather the ability to discern whether or not words in different sentences perform the same function. It appears logical that skills in being able to do this help in learning another language. [3] Inductive language-learning ability. This is the ability to infer, induce, or abduct rules or generalizations about language from the sample of the language. A learner proficient in this ability is less reliant on well-presented rules or generalizations from a teacher or materials. [4] Memory and Learning. Originally this was phrased in terms of association: the ability to make and recall associations between words and phrases in a native language and a second language. It is not so clear whether this type of association plays a major role in language learning, but the memory for language materials is clearly important. It has been claimed that two of these factors (i.e., phonetic decoding and memory and learning), do not correlate highly with intelligence. Foreign-language learners may be better endowed in one or two of the factors. Certainly, the variance in aptitude that exists among foreign-language learners is as great as that of shoe size. In other words, every foreign language learner differs in degrees of aptitude one has. It varies from one to another. 3.5.3 Attitude Attitude is defined as a manner of acting, feeling, or thinking that shows one's disposition, opinion, etc. An attitude develops as a result of experiences, both direct and vicarious, which are greatly influenced by people in the immediate environment: parents, teachers, peers; attitude toward self, in the target language and the people who speak it (peers in particular), and the teacher. It has been assumed that if we have a positive attitude toward the language learned, we will try hard to learn that language seriously. Some studies show that there is a positive relationship between attitude and second language acquisition. It is found that the learner's ethnocentric tendencies and his attitude

toward the target language determine the success in learning a new language.In1949, a pioneering study was done on the topic of 'attitude toward learning a second language' and a year later, findings clearly showed many positive correlations between measures of attitude and attainment as a second language. One of the conclusions of this study was that the strength of the correlation between attitude and attainment tended to increase. Student's attitude toward the language he learns may vary. He may feel excited, happy, confident, and adequate, or he may feel bored, frustrated, angry, and inadequate. For example, when he becomes confused in a pattern drill, he may feel frustrated. After having repeated the same sentence a number of times, he may feel bored. While composing a conversation with a fellow student, he may feel excited and elated. Having been handed back a test he failed, he may feel angry and inadequate. Those conditions may influence a student to decide whether he participates actively in the class or not; he does his homework or not; he continues his foreign language study or drops it. An English teacher should have a big concern on the unfavourable students' attitudes by finding the causes and the possible solutions. Smith (1975) classifies some unfavourable students' attitude on foreign language learning as Dumbbell attitude, Irrelevant attitude, and Bored attitude. (a) The Dumbbell Attitude Probably one of the most prevalent negative aptitudes is what Smith calls the 'Dumbbell attitude'. The students meet with nothing but failure. He sees himself as a 'dumbbell' which may be something totally new for him, and certainly totally disagreeable. Studies on under-achievement in foreign language indicates that nearly 20 percent of FL students can be placed in this category, that is, the grade they get in a foreign language is at one letter-grade lower than what they ordinarily get in other subjects. No one's ego can endure consistent failure. The student will naturally react negatively to the cause of his feelings of stupidity and inadequacy. He will dislike foreign languages. (b) The Irrelevant Attitude Another kind of attitude is what Smith calls 'Irrelevant attitude'. The students with this attitude may have enrolled in a foreign language class for strictly utilitarian reasons: it meets the requirement, it brings him prestige or recognition in the community or among his friends, and it has certain vocational applications. Since he has little or no interest in

46 NSOU ? PGELT-8B the study of language, he may become impatient with the slow process of language acquisition and feel that the meagre returns he is getting for all the effort expended are not meeting his expectations. He does not see the connection between what goes on in the foreign language class and the practical demands of his existence now or later. (c) The Bored Attitude There is the uninterested, bored attitude that students with this attitude find it difficult to tolerate the routine that often settles in the classroom. When we ask any youngster what he learned in school today, the response given may be "oh, the same old stuff" – in spite of the fact that it probably was not the same old stuff. It was just presented in the same way. Routine is expedient and often necessary for the overworked teacher who has neither time nor energy to innovate and to be creative. 3.5.4 Motivation The socio-psychological factor that is frequently used to account for differential success in learning a second language is motivation. This has an intuitive appeal. It makes sense that individuals who are motivated will learn another language faster and to a greater degree. Furthermore, numerous studies have provided statistical evidence that indicates that motivation is a predictor of language-learning success. In some studies at the University of Western Ontario, USA, it was observed that motivation is a primary figure in the field of second language learning. "Motivation involves four aspects, a goal, effortful behaviour, a desire to attain the goal, and favourable attitude towards the activity in question" (Gardner, 1985). He differentiates between two types of motivation: integrative and instrumental. Integrative motivation refers to motivation that comes from a desire to integrate with the target language (TL) community; instrumental motivation comes from the rewards that might come from the learning (e.g. learning English in order to study mathematics in an English-speaking university). Integrative motivation is hypothesized to be a better predictor of a second language success than instrumental motivation. Meanwhile, scholars divide motivation into (a) primary motivation, and (b) secondary motivation. Primary motivation lies in the interest that comes from the learner himself, and not from outside the learner. To get this type of response from learners should be a must for all teachers. If the teacher can make the learners feel that they want to learn, that they are interested, the subject they are studying is exciting. Secondary motivation, on the other hand, refers to the feeling of the learners that they must learn in order to pass a test, to avoid punishment, or to please their parents or their teachers.

NSOU ? PGELT-8B 47 Fostering student's motivation to attain a foreign language achievement is very important. Scholars advise teachers for fostering motivation as follows: (a) Freedom from fear: Learners should not be embarrassed if they have not done their assignment, if they make an error in production, or if they cannot respond immediately. (b) Understanding: Teachers must consider the socio-economic, cultural, and emotional background of the learners in order to help them maintain their pride in themselves. (c) Experiences: Learners must engage in a wide variety of activities in order to fulfill their need for thinking, learning, doing, or choosing. (d) Love: A teacher often has to take the role of substitute parents and be aware of the hunger for the affection of the learner who, rightly or wrongly, feels rejected by family or peers. (e) Belonging: Learners should participate in the class 'community' in all facets of planning and decision making during the learning process. (f) Achievement and Actualization: Learners should be helped to perfect today what they might have been able to do only haltingly yesterday. They should receive continuous feedback about their own aspirations and ideas. (g) Grouping and Individualization: A teacher should be aware of the level at which each student is capable of operating at any moment in time, of his or her optimal way of learning, of the time he or she needs to learn and should gear classroom group and individual activities to take all these factors into account. (h) Success: Learners should experience numerous small intermediate successes and attain short term goals which will then motivate him or her to continue working toward individual, school, community, or nation-wide goals (depending on his or her age level and learning). To a large extent, motivation demands a well-balanced combination of the teachers' art and skills. It is not enough for the teacher to make use of psychological principles of whether schools to motivate learners. The teacher can also foster motivation through his or her own sense of security resulting from adequate linguistic and methodological preparation.

48 NSOU ? PGELT-8B TASK: You have looked at four factors: Anxiety, Aptitude, Attitude and Motivation. Analyse yourself with respect to your language learning situation, and say how you were influenced by these factors. Your response: 3.6 Types of Motivation As a whole, motivation in second language acquisition may be thought of as the incentive, the need, or the desire that the learner feels to learn the second language. With regard to motivation, like all types of learning, motivation to learn a language is undoubtedly important in the success or lack of success in learning. According to scholars,there are three kinds of motivations that affect language acquisition: integrative motivation, instrumental motivation, and social group identification. (a) Integrative motivation: It is defined as the desire to achieve proficiency in a new language in order to participate in the life of the community that speakers the language. It reflects a sincere and personal interest in the people and culture represented by the other group. The problem that occurs, in this case, is that if the learner feels that he is able to communicate with the intended society, usually he will stop to learn the language although the acquisition is considered low and not enough for a standard of acquisition. (b) Instrumental motivation: It is defined as a desire to achieve proficiency in a new language for utilitarian reasons, such as getting a job. It reflects the practical values and advantages of learning a new language group. It is stated that attitude and motivation are related to achievement in second language learning and that integrative motivation orientation, in particular, makes more successful learning than the motivation of instrumental orientation. Students whose motivation to study a language as an instrument to get something, those who are categorized as having instrumental motivation, tend to have lower achievement than students whose integrative motivation. (c) Social group identification: It is defined as the desire to acquire proficiency in a language or language variety spoken by a social group with which the learners identify. Conversely, the lack of identification with a given group may result in a learner not wanting to acquire the language or language variety spoken by that group. It is stated that the social group identification motive is similar to the integrative motive, but in our interpretation, goes beyond it.

Learners with an integrative motive for learning a new language would wish to participate in the social or cultural life of the target language speakers while retaining their identification with their own native language group. 3.7. Approaches to Help Students to Cope It is argued that when students are confronted with a situation that they think will make them anxious, the most expected response is to avoid the situation and thus avoid the discomfort. However, in most language acquisition, avoidance is not a viable option; they are expected to find some way to cope with the anxiety. Three intervention approaches provide the basis for considering the types of strategies that the students use to cope with their language anxiety. If they think that their cognition (worry, preoccupations, and concerns) creates the anxiety, they may attempt to suppress or alter the thought processes related to language learning. Those who believe that emotional arousal (physiological responsiveness) is the primary concern may take steps to alleviate bodily reactions and tension. If students presume that anxiety occurs because they lack the requisite skills, they perceive that their anxiety is too much to cope with; they may not invest enough effort to reduce the anxiety. Scholars suggest further that there are five strategies for coping with language anxiety, among of them are preparation strategy, relaxation, positive thinking, peer support, and labelled resignation. (a) Preparation. It refers to attempts at controlling the impending threat by improving learning and study strategies (e.g., studying hard, trying to obtain good summaries of lecture notes). Use of these strategies would be expected to increase students' subjectively estimated mastery of the subject matter, and hence reduce the anxiety associated with the language class. (b) Relaxation. It involves tactics that aim at reducing the somatic anxiety symptoms of the students. Typical terms are "I take a deep breath and I try to calm down". (c) Positive thinking. It is characterized by it its palliative function of suppressing problematic cognitive process that underlies students' anxiety (e.g. imagining oneself giving a great performance, trying to enjoy the tension). These strategies are intended to divert attention from the stressful to positive and pleasant cues and bring relief to the anxious student.

(d) Peer support. It is distinguished by students' willingness to look for other students who seem to have trouble understanding the class and/or controlling their anxiety. For the anxious students, the realization that others are having the same problem may serve as a source of emotional regulation by social comparison. (e) Labelled resignation. It is characterized by students' reluctance to do anything to alleviate their language anxiety (e.g. giving up, sleeping in class).Students reporting examples of resignation seem on minimizing the impact of anxiety by refusing to face the problem. 3.8 Summary The description of student's psychological factors, such as anxiety, aptitude, attitude, and motivation contribute to the success in learning English as a second language. Those factors have significant evidence proved by some research findings mentioned earlier. In addition, three kinds of motivations also affect language acquisition: integrative motivation, instrumental motivation, and social group identification. Five strategies are significantly considered for coping with language anxiety; among them are preparation strategy, relaxation, positive thinking, peer support, and labelled resignation. Preparation, refers to attempts at controlling the impending threat by improving learning and study strategies, relaxation, involves tactics that aim at reducing somatic anxiety symptoms, positive thinking, is characterized by it its palliative function of suppressing problematic cognitive process that underlies students' anxiety, peer seeking, is distinguished by students' willingness to look for other students who seem to have trouble understanding the class and/or controlling their anxiety, and students' reluctance to do anything to alleviate their language anxiety. Finally, to maximize the result of second language acquisition, the five strategies illustrated above are important as an alternative solution for foreign language teachers. And, the second language teachers must have a great concern for the student's psychological factors during the process of language acquisition. 3.9 Review Questions (a) What are the two types of factors that can affect second language learning? (b) What are the nine factors that Influence Language Learning?

(c) What do you understand by Prior Linguistic Knowledge in Second Language Learning? (d) What is the 'input hypothesis' of second-language acquisition? (e) What are the students' Psychological Factors in SLA? (f) What are the four factors in Foreign Language Aptitude Test? (g) What are the three major types of Attitude of learners in SLA? (h) What are the major means of motivation in SLA? (i) What are the major types of motivations? (j) What strategies are adopted to help learners in SLA? 3.10 Glossary of Terms Disposition: Disposition is a quality of character, a habit, a preparation, a state of readiness, or a tendency to act in a specified way that may be learned. Disposition is not a process or event in some duration in time, but rather the state, preparation, or tendency of a structure 'in waiting'. Foreign language anxiety: It is also known as Xenoglossophobia. It is the feeling of unease, worry, nervousness, and apprehension experienced in learning or using a second or foreign language. The feelings may stem from any second language context whether it is associated with the productive skills of speaking and writing or the receptive skills of reading and listening. Research has shown that foreign language anxiety is a significant problem in language classrooms throughout the world especially in terms of its strong relationship to the skill of speaking in a foreign or second language. Inductive language learning: An inductive approach to teaching language starts with examples and asks learners to find rules. It can be compared with a deductive approach that starts by giving learners rules, then examples, then practice. Learners listen to a conversation that includes examples of the use of the third conditional. The teacher checks that the students understand the meaning of its use through checking learners' comprehension of the

listening text, and only after this focuses on the form, using the examples from the text to elicit rules about the form, its use, and its pronunciation. Inductive approaches to presenting a new language are commonly found in course books and form part of a general strategy to engage learners in what they learn. Some learners may need an introduction to inductive approaches since they may be more familiar, and feel more comfortable, with a deductive approach. Parental interference in learning: Parents' involvement in children's education has several forms. Parents who are behaviourally involved participate in activities such as attending school functions and volunteering at the school. Parents who are cognitively involved expose their children to stimulating activities and materials, such as reading books or visiting cultural institutions. Parents who are personally involved communicate positively with their children about school matters. They convey that they value school and expect their children to as well. Many studies report on the effects of parent involvement on children's standardized achievement test scores, school grades, and school-based behaviour. As a whole, research suggests parents can have a positive effect on children's learning. Phonetic decoding: Also known as 'Phonics'. It is a method for teaching people how to read and write an alphabetic language (such as English, Arabic, and Russian). It is done by demonstratingthe relationship between the sounds of the spoken language (phonemes), and the letters or groups of letters (graphemes) or syllables of the written language. This is also known as the Alphabetic principle or the Alphabetic code. 3.11 Books Recommended [1] Ameto, P. (1988) Making It Happens: Interaction in the Second Language Classroom. New York: Longman. [2] Bartly, D. (1990) Factors Affecting Second Language Learning. Foreign Language Learning, Vol. 29, No. 2, August. [3] Brown, H. D. (1981) Affecting Second Language Learning: The Second Language Classroom. Oxford: Oxford University Press. [4] Gardner, R.C. (1983) Learning another language: A true social psychological experiment. Journal of Language and Social Psychology, 2, 219–239.

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54 NSOU ? PGELT-8B Unit 4 Factors Affecting Applied Linguistics 2 (Education Sociology), Structure 4.1 Objectives 4.2 Introduction 4.3 Toward A Critical Approach: Some Assumptions 4.4 Applied Linguistics and Language Teaching: Kinds of Relationships 4.4.1 First Phase 4.4.2 Second Phase 4.4.3 Third Phase 4.4.4 Fourth Phase 4.5 Possible Reasons for Changes and their implications 4.6 Summing UP 4.7 Review Questions 4.8 Glossary of Terms 4.9 Books Recommended 4.1 Objectives After going through the unit, you will be able to ? trace the changes in the view of relationship between theory and practice in Applied Linguistics ? explain the reason for the changes ? discuss the implications for language teaching 4.2 Introduction It has been an intriguing area of study to explore the relationships between Applied Linguistics and other related disciplines concerning language use and language teaching

NSOU ? PGELT-8B 55 issues. Scholars trace the changes in the view of the relationship between theory and practice in Applied Linguistics, to explain the reason for those changes, and to discuss the implications for language teaching. Some general assumptions that serve as a context for this interface are also explored over the years. Such studies show possible forms of interaction between basic and applied science (linguistics in this case) and practical activities as well as present some implications to teacher education and the way these visions have permeated language education and foreign language teaching practices. No matter how theorists differ regarding the scope and coverage of Applied Linguistics, it is noted as a way of relating basic disciplines with practical language use concerns. Foreign Language Teaching (FLT) is considered one of its typical domains. McCarthy (2001), in the foreword of his book, defined applied linguistics as the "relationship between knowledge, theory, and practice in the field of language". But a question that arises is "what kind of relationships we are dealing with?" (a) For a long time, teachers, as well as other professionals, have turned to language science, psychology, sociology, and education theories to seek insight for possible solutions to some language teaching and learning problems. (b) Among other tendencies in education, in general, and in language pedagogy in particular, critical approaches have been attempting to bridge the gap between theory and practice. (c) One of the great new challenges for teachers, researchers, and theorists in the language field is not only to discover other ways of creating interaction between knowledge and practice but most important, how they can transform each other. In this Unit, we shall present a set of general assumptions that will serve as a context and reference point for the dialogue for which we want to establish a critical approach. Second, we shall show four forms of interaction between basic, applied, and practice. Third, we shall present some implications for teacher education and the way these visions have permeated language education and foreign language teaching practices. 4.3 Toward A Critical Approach: Some Assumptions For reasons of constraints of space we cannot explain in detail, what critical approaches are, where they come from, the way they have evolved, their tendencies

56 NSOU ? PGELT-8B and strands, and how exactly they differ from traditional approaches. It is important, however, to state a set of basic ontological and epistemological assumptions because this set constitutes an essential requirement and a framework for our understanding. According to Pennycook (2001: 5-8), there are different ways of being critical. From his perspective, being critical implies a set of characteristics: praxis, as a way of continuous reflexive integration of thought and action; a problematic stance, drawing connections between the macro and micro relations, seeing them as a problematic matter, understanding their historic evolution; looking for a possible change; self-reflexivity ("raising a host of new and difficult questions about knowledge, politics, and ethics" offering a vision of "what is preferable, and 'heterosis' or new and different ways of doing politics. In our opinion, whatever the meaning of 'critical' could be, it would not be reduced to academic traditions and schools of thought. 'Critical' does not mean a simple theoretical stance or, even less so, a simple intellectual posture. Critical would mean true commitments and personal involvement with transformations. We would add that besides true commitments, personal involvements, wisdom, understanding, action, and reflection are requisites sine qua non (an essential condition; a thing that is absolutely necessary) for a real transformation. As in the 19th century, Karl Marx stated that the aim of philosophers must be the transformation of the world and not a simple understanding of it. Wisdom is a mix of human instinct, intuition, common sense, inquisitive thought, knowledge, and imagination. Knowledge and reality (natural and social and human) do not map each other, in a one- to-one correspondence. Social and human phenomena, as well as natural ones, are systems or complex structures (made of different things or parts that are connected). Given their complex nature, social, natural, and human realities can, and should, be seen from different and complementary perspectives. No one perspective, discipline, model, theory, or approach is able to account for social reality as a whole. Social and human realities cannot be reduced to either general or particular principles. This does not mean that social and human systems lack principles. The uniqueness of social systems and human beings would consist of a perfect combination, a synthesis, of general and particular characteristics. Hence, human beings can understand part of our difficulties, as social actors, to grasp them. Descriptions, explanations, comprehension, and understanding of phenomena are attempts to approximate reality. They all are partial and incomplete products of human knowledge seen from our experiences in our context and our position in the world. Human knowledge is a dialectical process that involves a certain level of abstraction, much intuition, creativity, and imagination, as well as logical

inference (induction, deduction) and a permanent contrast with reality. It is neither a mechanical reflection of the natural, social, and human world nor is it a linear process. A holistic view of social and human reality is a process in permanent construction, a double way spiral. Each process and its corresponding product are a means and not an end in itself. They complement each other heuristically: analysis and synthesis processes; bottom-up, top-down, micro and macro, general and particular perspectives; simple and complex; inner and outer; patent and latent realities. Therefore, a holistic view is a permanent task and a challenge for all involved in research, theory, and practice. And a very definite characteristic of human knowledge is that it is socially constructed and that all people involved can contribute to it with their viewpoint from their own experience. It means that everybody has a role and a differentiated responsibility in the construction of a holistic view of the world. And all knowledge, even the most sophisticated, is subject to questioning and critics. It is in this frame that a fruitful dialogue could be established between theorists, practitioners, and applied linguists in language education. 4.4 Applied Linguistics and Language Teaching: Kinds of Relationships Different terms have been used to refer to the idea of being 'applied' as well as different perspectives regarding its relationship to theory and practice. Stern (1992: 8) uses the terms 'buffer', 'intermediary', and 'interlevel' to refer to the role of applied linguistics. McDonough (2002: 17) uses the terms 'middle ground' and 'mediating position' and 'mediator'. On one hand, we may question whether it is just a semantic distinction, or whether it reflects any kind of ontological or epistemological assumption or stance. On the other hand, we wonder about the meaning of each of these words and their connotations. Does the meaning of the terms have any incidence in the way of seeing theory and research interaction and the role given to each other in the interaction? McCarthy (2001: 4) wonders about the kind of relationships between linguistics and applied linguistics. He establishes a dichotomy between hierarchy and partnership. McDonough (2002: 23) explores the relationship between theory and practice and points out that such relationships have "worried many workers in all areas of research, scholarship, teaching, and testing". We see four different kinds of relationships between applied linguistics and the teaching profession: (a) co-existence, (b) complementariness, (c) compatibility, and (d) collaboration.

58 NSOU ? PGELT-8B Table 1: Aspects, models, actors/roles, relationships in applied linguistics to language teaching Aspects Stern's model Campbell's Social Actors/ Relationships model 1 Roles Practice Methodology Pedagogy Teachers Objectives Students Practical Content Research activities (P) Procedures teachers Materials Evaluation Organization Planning and administration.... Practitioner Level 3 Interlevel Context Applied Applied Language Linguistics linguists Applied Teaching And sciences (A) Learning Researchers Educational linguistics theory Mediator and research Level 2 Foundations History of Linguistics language teaching And (???) Basic Linguistics sciences (B) Sociology ... Theoretician Level 1 In order to trace the way in which the relationships between theory and practice have been considered in applied linguistics, let us refer to Table 1. It is based on the general model that Stern (1983: 44) presents as a conceptual framework for second language teaching. There, it is possible to identify three aspects (theory, application, and practice), social actors and their 'roles', i.e. theorists (theoreticians), applied linguists (mediators), and teachers (practitioners). We can separate the right column to show a set of possible relationships, represented by arrows. (B), (A), and (P) stand for BASIC, APPLIED, and PRACTICE, respectively. According to our guiding framework, the use ↑↑↑↑↑↑↑↑↑↑↑

NSOU ? PGELT-8B 59 of the 'basic' instead of 'theory' will allow us to think of the possibility that theory, as one way of knowledge, can be generated at each level and to question some assumptions, which would be an exclusive responsibility of theoreticians. Stern (1992: 8) has traced various stages in the history of language teaching and the different factors that have influenced its development. 4.4.1 First Phase The first stage in the relationship between theory and practice can be subdivided into three different periods. In the first period, language teaching was directly influenced by phonetics (from 1880 until World War I). A second period (1928-1940) relates to the growth of educational psychology and research in education (Stern, 1992: 8). A third period (1940-1965) is "characterized by the increasing influence of linguistics on language teaching." What do these three moments have in common? They are characterized by a unidirectional and hierarchical relationship and a lack of mediation. We can represent this relationship as (B) → (P). The problems arise at the practice level. But it is on the basic level where the questions are posed, and the solutions are given in terms of techniques and methods to be followed by practitioners. We can see the lack of an 'interlevel' in the following quote by Stern (1992: 8): "Just as there was a constant shift from one teaching method to another, the language-related sciences seemed to necessitate periodic changes from one underlying discipline to another or from one theory to a newer and better theory. It was in response to this concern that educational or applied linguistics evolved in the early 1960s as a buffer between linguistics and language teaching". 4.4.2 Second Phase A second phase is characterized by a monodisciplinary, unidirectional, and hierarchical relationship, which has its starting point on the basic disciplinary or fundamental level; there, theorists developed theoretical knowledge. This knowledge constitutes the basis on the intermediate level where applied scientists mediate it in designing methods, techniques, and materials. These materials, along with directions, are given for implementation on the practice level. It could be considered as a way of preventing problems when theoretical principles go straight from the basic level to the practitioners without any filter, and with disappointing results. Practitioners are trained and they put models and approaches into practice. It seems to have been the mainstream vision in the case of applied linguistics for a long time. The first model proposed by the U.S.

60 NSOU ? PGELT-8B linguist Campbell in 1980, by Stern (1983: 36) is a sample of that stage. The view of Campbell (1980), according to Stern (1983: 36), is that the mediator between the practitioner and the theorist has applied linguistics. Summing up we can represent it as follows: (B) → (A) → (P). This unidirectional and hierarchical vision between applied linguists, linguists, and language teachers could be traced in Corder's thought (1973). According to Byram (2000: 33), Corder's view is explicitly set out in his book, Introducing Applied Linguistics, a classic text. In this school of thought, a division of work is made and even the applied linguist is considered a consumer or user, and not a producer of theory. Corder believed that there was a clear hierarchy of responsibility between three groups of people. (a) Linguists produced descriptions of languages. (b) The immediate consumer of these descriptions was the applied linguist, whose job was to mediate the work of the linguist, by producing pedagogical grammars. (c) These pedagogical grammars were turned into textbooks and teaching materials, and eventually reached the teachers, whose job it was to actually teach the language. 4.4.3 Third Phase A third phase is represented by the model of Stern (1983: 44). In this conception, three important differences can be recognized. (a) A multidisciplinary fundamental level, where other disciplines serve along with linguistics as basic sciences: the history of language teaching, sociology, sociolinguistics and anthropology, psychology and psycholinguistics, and educational theory. (b) A two-way relationship exists between each of the levels, i.e. a basic level and an applied one, as well as between an applied level and a practical one. Both, theoreticians and applied linguists can produce theory, although this work is differentiated according to the nature of the two levels. (c) On the most concrete level, practitioners continue to be users. This model is theory-driven, and above all, the interlevel's role is to mediate (act as a buffer)

NSOU ? PGELT-8B 61 between theory and practice, but not prescriptively, as in the previous stages. Summing up, we can represent it as follows: (B+C+D+E+F) ← → (A)• ← → (P). The hierarchical relationship in this model is only partly broken. First, in Stern's view (1992), a kind of knowledge about language pedagogy derived from an objective, systematic, general, and comprehensive vision of reality would be the fundamental element to define the parameters for teaching choices and practices and to guide teachers to success. Second, it involves the way teaching practitioners and their questions are represented. One of the most interesting aspects of this model is the way in which the practitioner is represented. In Stern's view, teachers need some 'parameters' to act. They do not fancy themselves as great theoreticians. They tend to believe in intuitive and practical approaches. They ask for recipes. They are quite negative about anything described as theoretical and often look askance at ivory tower research. Also, they do not seem to be aware that being practical does not mean being thoughtless. We wonder if such an image of teachers would explain the need for training them and if such interlocutors would be considered able to develop their own knowledge and to participate in a real dialogue with theorists and applied linguists. Knowledge would be an instrument of power. Would teachers be, in this image, empty recipients while those able to produce it in the more abstract levels deliver knowledge? 4.4.4 Fourth Phase The fourth stage is represented by a triangular relationship between theory, application, and practice. They define these three types of research to carry out in the second language area. Diagram 1 is based on their proposal. Diagram 1: Triangle relationships

62 NSOU ? PGELT-8B The hierarchical relationship can be completely broken, as well as the dependence relationships. Each actor will have a high level of autonomy. Here, differing radically from the previous stage, everyone involved, theorists, applied linguists and mainly teachers, research-teachers, and teacher-researchers will have the opportunity to test theories and principles, to question them, and to discover new factors and relationships, and to formulate their own hypotheses. The mediation process remains functional, but it is not the exclusive role of any of the participants. Practitioners, applied linguists, and theorists can pose their own questions, decide where to ask or answer them: in the basic sciences, in the applied linguistics, or even the possibility of developing knowledge-based on reflection and action processes. In the field of language studies, the autonomy of basic disciplines has been guaranteed. McDonough (2002: 11) defines applied linguistics as an autonomous problem-solving discipline, with a similar status to linguistics and the other basic disciplines. Everybody seems to agree that the problems applied linguistics is concerned with are real problems, of the real world, arising in practice. However, so far, it would seem to be that the questions posed and the answers given have been those ones of the theorists and the mediators and not those of the practitioners. This can be reflected in the claim of McDonough (2002: 12) that only until recently, challenging questions (what to teach, how to introduce vocabulary, why students make such type of errors, etc.) have had the chance to be posed and answered by teachers. In his view, bottom-up and grassroots questions posed by teachers have found expression in the activities of teachers doing research themselves. Despite the fact that these questions have been features of applied linguistics, they have been, to a certain degree, remained 'underrated' (McDonough, 2002: 12). This last stage could be characterized as a reaction against the theory-driven model. As well it would seem to be originating a reaction in two different strands in applied linguistics in terms of the relationship of theory and practice. One of these strands maintains that applied linguistics is essentially a problem-driven discipline rather than a theory-driven one. McCarthy, a staunch supporter of this stand, broadens his stance in the following terms: "Applied Linguistics can (and should) not only test the applicability and replicability of linguistic theory and description but also question and challenge them where they are found wanting. In other words, if the relationship between linguistics and its applications is to be a fruitful partnership and neither a top-down imposition by theorists on practitioners [...] nor a bottom-up cynicism levelled by practitioners

NSOU ? PGELT-8B 63 against theoreticians, then both sides of the linguistics/applied linguistics relationship ought to be accountable to and in regular dialogue with each other with regard to theories as well as practices" (McCarthy 2001: 4). McCarthy refers to the phase 'bottom-up cynicism levelled by practitioners against theoreticians'. It relates with an epistemological aspect of the discipline, the forms of constructing knowledge, the nature of the inquiry, and the aims and the alternative methodological strategies. Applied linguistics, as an autonomous discipline, is concerned with different research methodologies in order to solve the problems and the questions posed. According to McDonough (2002), despite the existence of many traditions in applied linguists, two approaches can be distinguished, and these approaches complement and balance each other. The first, and perhaps the older one, is the pursuit of the interpretation and explanation, bringing to bear the theory, methods, and research results of other disciplines on the problems that present themselves; and the other is the collection of the results of direct research on the problems and the subsequent construction of theories around them (McDonough, 2002: 13). The other strand is reflected in the critical stance assumed by critical applied linguistics. Pennycook, in the introduction of his book, refers to the critical applied linguistic concerns; address the distinction between theory and practice; and points out that he prefers to see theory and practice "as more complexly interwoven" and "to avoid the theory- into- practice direction" (Pennycook (2001: 3). This vision is represented with this spiral form or a permanent cyclical process. 4.5 Possible Reasons for Changes and their Implications The term 'explanation' is very hard to use in the social sciences. Concerning human beings and social realities, the act itself of explaining becomes more difficult. Even more complicated is the case of human changes. We seem to perceive and interpret the external factors of the objective world as well as ourselves through a complex system in which our schemes of thought and subjective conditions interact. So the diversity and complexity lie in the ways by which we perceive, act, think, feel, behave, and express ourselves. One way to explore the changes in viewing the relationships between theory, application, and practice in the field of applied linguistics could be by tracing the way forms of thinking have evolved within the discipline itself. This would be called an

64 NSOU ? PGELT-8B 'immanent change'. Another possibility is trying to relate it with external pressures that have modified certain traditions in the disciplines. A third possibility, related to the second one, is to see the changes that have occurred in a related field. We choose this last alternative. The reason to choose this alternative might sound simplistic. Knowledge is a product of human beings. So we are not alone. We are part of social structures, and we participate in social events and interact with others in diverse forms. McDonough (2002: 7) states that the expansion of applied linguistics is due to four main reasons: (a) The rise of the language teaching industry. (b) The explosion of research in second language learning and acquisition is motivated by some of the same factors and by theoretical interest. (c) The incorporation of more and different areas of research with relevance to language over the years. (d) The ever-changing array of language problems in our societies. Due to the factors stated above, change is the way of seeing the relationships between theorists, practitioners, and applied linguists. It is necessary to explain these changes and the implications for language teaching based on the theory of three cognitive interests proposed by Habermas for the human sciences. Grundy (1987) mapped Habermas's theory in the study of curriculum, in the general context of education. Education, linguistics, and applied linguistics are framed within the social sciences area. Language teaching is framed in the general context of education. Micro and macro relationships can be seen here. Grundy's work (1987) about the curriculum is based on Habermas's work about knowledge and interest relationships in social sciences. Schematically speaking, Habermas conceptualizes that knowledge serves different interests and those interests are socially constructed (Cohen et al. 2002: 29). Also, Habermas identifies three kinds of interest: Technical, Practical, and Emancipatory. Depending on our cognitive interest, our aims and our forms of constructing knowledge vary. Based on the terminology used in the table (Table 2), it is difficult to understand why the first, second, and third moment of applied linguistics and education could be associated with technical interest. However, it is important to remember that the most influential discipline in applied linguistics has been linguistics. Linguistic structuralism, both empiricism, and cognitive strands claims for a scientific objective description of language

NSOU ? PGELT-8B 65 Table 2: Cognitive interests, epistemology, LT curriculum, and AL Cognitive Aims Epistemology Curriculum Applied interest Linguistics Language Teaching (A) Prediction and Positivism and Controlled and First, second Technical control Success scientific style controllable and third Laws Uniform and phase Rules Pre-determined Prediction Purposes Theory driven Control Predictable Passive research purpose-oriented objects experiences Instrumental Ordered Knowledge Experiences Quantitative effectively Approaches Organized Outcome evaluation (B) Understanding Hermeneutic Opening process Fourth phase Practical interpretative Styles Diverse Problem- methodologies Qualitative Multidimensional drivenstrand Interpretation approaches Fluid Acting subjects Less monolithic Interacting and power language Problematic Meanings and Relational intentions (C) Emancipation Ideology Critical Social Four phase Emancipatory and freedom Style Praxis emancipation Critical (action informed Equity Applied by reflection) Democracy linguistics Freedom Interwoven Individual and collective empowerment

66 NSOU ? PGELT-8B realities. Generative grammar tries to discover the rules and principles that determine the properties of languages. Tollefson (1995: 1) claims that until recently, the socio-political and economic contexts had not been included in the preparation of most language education and ESL (English as a Second Language) teacher programmes. As a result, teachers and applied linguists could not establish links between educational practices and socio-political factors. In the preface of his book, Tollefson (1995: 1) attributes a great responsibility in widening the gap between teachers, who are interested in the pedagogy of language teaching and learning, and the researchers, who are interested in theories of language and society, to the development of applied linguistics as a distinct academic discipline. In teaching practices, we can associate with curriculum planned, organized, and structured in advance, in general in a bureaucratic way and are imposed in an institutional hierarchy (some design and make decisions and others implement). (a) Curriculum planning is unidirectional: beginning on a foundation level (where the philosophical and theoretical concepts are developed: conceptions about language, society, learning, and teaching are stated); (b) It is followed by the policy level (where all decisions are made in advance: objectives, content, experiences, strategies, timing, levels, resources, as well as the criteria, ways, mechanisms, and moments of evaluating): (c) It ends at the implementation level. Just at this point, the process of evaluation starts. Quasi-experimental validation methods are used and quantitative methods are applied to validate curriculum proposals. Teachers in general participate only on the implementation level. Their participation is reduced and the criteria of effectiveness and efficacy are imposed. The evaluation is standardized and is carried out in general by an external agent. Training is on the basis of their education and the updating process. Technical rationality is imposed. Innovation is reduced to the implementation of techniques and strategies and the introduction of new resources. Theory precedes action. Practical rationality opposes instrumental rationality. Practical interest is reflected here. An emergent model arises with the development of alternative forms to knowledge and research. This is associated with the fourth stage in the relationship between theory and practice in applied linguistics to language teaching. Hermeneutical procedures and a subjective logic substitute the objectivist one. Small-scale projects are developed with the personal involvement of the research teachers along with the people involved in a

NSOU ? PGELT-8B 67 specific situation. The purpose is the understanding of the actions. Based on the definitions of the situation, teachers and students attempt to interpret the specific context and assign meanings to their learning and teaching actions. Research processes in the classroom could promote the reflection of all participants. Teachers' actions are re-dimensioned, giving origin to new processes of awareness. Action research projects promote student participation. The climate and the relationships between the participants improve motivation. Action research projects permit teachers to carry out contextualized processes of observation, reflection, action, and evaluation in a different number of cycles. Any phase of the cycle could be the starting point. The theory is taken here just as a point of reference and can succeed or precede the practice in any stage of the cycle. Inductive processes could be taking place and new interpretations and meanings can arise. If possible, the participation of an external observer is important. The triangulation of information could contribute to a better interpretation of the experiences. The emancipatory interest is associated with freedom and critical styles and approaches. The concept of ideology as well as action and reflection are central here. Teachers, students, and those involved in the process concerning equality and democracy. Understanding and interpreting are considered previous phases to the transformation of reality. Individual and collective empowerment and emancipation are promoted. Many conflicts can arise in these kinds of projects. The opening of the process, the lack of outcomes defined in advance, the diversity of interests as well as the multidimensionality of aims can have negative effects on the participants: many of them feel they are wasting time because the process has more value than the results. Some teachers miss their capacities and possibilities of power and control over others. The general tendency is an attempt to go backward, retake control and power. Tradition exerts great pressure on the participants, especially in those contexts that reject the possibility of change. It is not a linear process: one step forward could be accompanied by two steps backward. 4.6 Summing UP We have traced four stages in the way of viewing the relationships between theory and practice in applied linguistics. The predominant vision can be associated with technical interest. A new vision emerges with two strands. This vision can be related to practical and emancipatory interests. The most important consequence of this change of vision is

68 NSOU ? PGELT-8B that practice achieves its autonomy. This permits new relationships between the three levels. Disciplines evolve. Paradigmatic changes bring with them a shift in ontological and epistemological assumptions. Changes in one discipline could be mapped on others. Changes dealing with a specific aspect (i.e., conceptual, methodological, philosophical) go hand-in-hand with a set of implications and consequences with different aspects. Changes are reflected in the discourse and can be traced through it. Explanation of the conceptual or theoretical level demands a theory on a higher level, meta-conceptual and meta-theoretical. Sciences, their products, and practices are social in nature. So, they must be socially contextualized. Given the influence on language teaching today, it will be interesting to analyze the ways of seeing the relationship between theory and practice in the case of sociolinguistics and psycholinguistics. 4.7 Review Questions [1] Why scholars are interested to explore the relations between Applied Linguistics and other related disciplines? [2] What, according to Pennycook, are different ways of being critical? [3] What, according to Karl Marx, are the aims of philosophers? [4] What do you understand by 'buffer', 'intermediary' and 'interlevel' as used by Stern (1992) to refer to the role of applied linguistics? [5] What are the four different kinds of relationships between applied linguistics and the teaching profession? [6] Based on Stern (1992), explain the four phases in the history of language teaching. [7] According to Corder, what kind of hierarchy of responsibility do you find between three groups of people involved in Applied Linguistics? [8] Define the 'triangular relationship' between theory, application, and practice in applied linguistics. [9] According to McDonough (2002), what are the main factors behind the expansion of applied linguistics? [10] According to Habermas, what are the three kinds of cognitive interest do you find in applied linguistics?

NSOU ? PGELT-8B 69 4.8 Glossary of Terms Emancipatory: The definition of emancipatory is something that relates to liberation or giving freedom. Emancipation is any effort to procure economic and social rights, political rights, or equality, often for a specifically disenfranchised group, or more generally, in the discussion of many matters. Foreign Language Teaching (FLT): It involves teaching a foreign language at several levels concurrently, from beginning speakers of foreign languages to students who are approaching fluency. Instruction in foreign languages includes vocabulary, spelling, grammar, and accent, as well as the evolution and history of the language. Hermeneutical procedures: Hermeneutics is the theory and methodology of interpretation especially the interpretation of biblical texts, wisdom literature, and philosophical texts. Hermeneutics is more than interpretive principles or methods used when immediate comprehension fails and includes the art of understanding and communication. Modern hermeneutics includes both verbal and non-verbal communication as well as semiotics, presuppositions, and pre-understandings. Hermeneutics has been broadly applied in the humanities, especially in law, history, and theology. Hermeneutics was initially applied to the interpretation, or exegesis, of scripture, and has been later broadened to questions of general interpretation. Hermeneutics and exegesis are sometimes used interchangeably. Hermeneutics includes written, verbal, and non-verbal communication while exegesis focuses upon the word and grammar of texts. Heterosis: It refers to the phenomenon that progeny of diverse varieties of a species or crosses between species exhibit greater biomass, speed of development, and fertility than both parents. Various models have been posited to explain heterosis, including dominance, over-dominance, and pseudo-over-dominance. Intermediary: It refers to a person who acts as a link between people in order to try and bring about an agreement; a mediator. Monodisciplinary: It is a kind of research or activity that refers to research within a single discipline or body of specialized knowledge (such as medical versus dental).

70 NSOU ? PGELT-8B Praxis: It is the process by which a theory, lesson, or skill is enacted, embodied, or realized. Praxis may also refer to the act of engaging, applying, exercising, realizing, or practicing ideas. Self-reflexivity: As a process, reflexivity implies activity whereby the act of self- consciousness is determined or posited. Self- A reflexivity is a superior form of self-activity in which self-consciousness is produced, and it is sustained by any form of self-consciousness. Unidirectional: Pertaining to only one direction where all component parts are aligned in the same direction in space. 4.9 Books Recommended [1] Byram, M. (2000) Ed. Routledge Encyclopaedia of Language Teaching and Learning. London, Routledge. [2] Chouliaraki, L. and Fairclough, N. (1999) Discourse in Late Modernity: rethinking critical discourse analysis. Edinburgh, Edinburgh University Press. [3] Cohen, L. et al. (2000) Research Methods in Education. 5th Edition. London, Routledge Falmer [4] Grundy, S. (1987) Curriculum: Product or Praxis. London, Falmer Press [5] McCarthy, M. (2001) Issues in Applied Linguistics. Cambridge, Cambridge University Press. [6] McDonough, S. (2002) Applied Linguistics in Education. London, Arnold. [7] Pennycook, A. (2001) Critical Applied Linguistics: A Critical Introduction. Mahwah, NJ, Lawrence Erlbaum Associates. [8] Seliger, H. and Shohamy, E. (1989) Second Language Research Methods. Oxford, Oxford University Press [9] Stern, H.H. (1983) Fundamental Concepts of Language Teaching. Oxford, Oxford University Press. [10] Stern, H.H. (1992) Issues and Options in Language Teaching. Edited by Allen P and Harley B. Oxford, Oxford University Press. [11] Tollefson, J. (1995) Power and Inequality in Language Education. Cambridge. Cambridge University Press.

NSOU ? PGELT-8B 71 MODULE-2 : APPLIED LINGUISTICS -2 Unit 5 Usages of Applied Linguistics Structure 5.1 Objectives 5.2 Introduction 5.3 Usage of Applied Linguistics 5.3.1 Language Programme Evaluation 5.3.2 Literacy Acquisition 5.3.3 Pedagogical Grammar 5.3.4 Workplace Communication 5.3.5 Critical Pedagogy 5.3.6 Language Planning 5.3.7 Language Teaching Curriculum 5.3.8 Second Language Acquisition 5.3.9 Clinical Linguistics 5.3.10 Language Proficiency Testing 5.3.11 Forensic Linguistics 5.3.12 Lexicography 5.3 Summing UP 5.4 Review Questions 5.5 Glossary of Terms 5.6 Books Recommended 5.2 Objectives At the end of the unit the learners will be able to a) understand Applied Linguistics as a discipline

72 NSOU ? PGELT-8B b) be aware of the different applications of the discipline c) learn the relevance of Applied Linguistics in Language Teaching d) understand the contributions of Applied Linguistics to other disciplines 5.2 Introduction Applied linguistics is an interdisciplinary field that identifies, investigates, and offers solutions to language-related real-life problems.Some of the academic fields related to applied linguistics are education, psychology, communication research, anthropology, and sociology.The term applied linguistics refers to the interdisciplinary field that aims to seek out, identify, and provide solutions to real-life problems that result from language-related causes. This research encompasses a wide variety of fields including language acquisition, language teaching, literacy, literary studies, gender studies, speech therapy, discourseanalysis, censorship, professional communication, media studies, translationstudies, lexicography, and forensic linguistics. Some of these areas are briefly addressed in this Unit. The study and practice of applied linguistics are specifically geared toward addressing practical issues as opposed to theoretical constructs. The fields, in which applied linguistics routinely comes into play, are education, psychology, communication research, anthropology, and sociology.General linguistics or theoretical linguistics, on the other hand, deals with language itself, not as that language applies to the people who are using it. One of the main goals of applied linguistics is to determine practical applications for linguistic theories as they apply to the evolution of everyday language usage. Initially targeted toward teaching, the field has become increasingly far-reaching since its inception in the late 1950s. According to Alan Davies (2007), there is no finality: the problems such as how to assess language proficiency, what is the optimum age to begin a second language, [and the like] may find local and temporary solutions but the problems recur.As a result, applied linguistics is a constantly evolving discipline that changes as frequently as the modern usage of any given language, adapting and presenting new solutions to the ever-evolving problems of linguistic discourse.

5.3 Usage of Applied Linguistics Instead of trying to define applied linguistics, it is useful to look at what is actually going on institutionally. Applied Linguistics defines itself by actions rather than by definitions. Scholars run into definition problems and constantly avoid giving a definition. They rather propose to include the followings: Applied linguistics and literacy in Diaspora; Content and language integrated learning; Discourse analysis; Language and migration; Language in the media; Language policy; Learner autonomy in language learning; Multilingualism at the workplace; Multilingualism: acquisition and use; Standard language education; Task complexity; Translating and interpreting. This open-ended list is a better definition than any sentential definition. Its danger is that it leads to anything linguistics, in which any kind of activity remotely connected with language, can be brought under the applied linguistics umbrella. It is otiose and unscholarly. Some steady view is necessary and it must appeal to theory. We turn to several case studies so as to provide an illustration of the range of activities that applied linguists are involved in. They will serve as an indication of the extent to which we think of applied linguistics as a coherent discipline rather than as a collection of unconnected language projects. What these examples illustrate is that projects in applied linguistics typically present as 'problems' for which explanations are desired, explanations which allow the researchers and teachers to make sense. The case study, 'critical pedagogy', offers a problem of a different kind in that it represents an alternative applied linguistics, known as Critical Applied Linguistics (CAL). It does this in two ways, first by offering a critique of traditional applied linguistics; and second, by exemplifying one way of doing CAL, namely critical pedagogy. The CAL may represent an ethical response to traditional applied linguistics. 5.3.1 Language Programme Evaluation Accountability has traditionally been left to professionals to determine for themselves. It has been manifested through such stakeholder satisfaction criteria as client numbers, student successes on examinations and in employment, earnings, and reputation. Such amorphous criteria are no longer acceptable. For the sake of the stakeholders and to make the participants better informed, as well as to improve the activity if repeated, language-programme evaluation is now widely practiced. What it does is (a) to determine to what extent the project/programme is meeting the original blue- print,

74 NSOU ? PGELT-8B (b) to examine the changes brought about by the project/programme, and (c) to question the extent to which this type of project is generalizable and should be generalizable. In 1990, CIEFL Hyderabad and the University of Edinburgh carried out an evaluation study of four projects in South India (Davies 1991). The four projects were based in Anna University, Madras (English Department), Kerala University, Trivandrum (Institute of English); Indian Institute of Science, Bangalore (Foreign Languages Section); and Osmania University, Hyderabad (English Department and ELT Centre). The purpose of the evaluation was to determine what success such a project using short-term consultancies had had and to consider whether or not such a model could be applied in other developmental situations. These projects, institutionally separated from one another, were all concerned with curriculum change. The terms of reference were as follows: [1] the overall design of the projects and their relevance to the Indian situation; [2] the effectiveness of the UK consultancies and of local input/support; [3] the appropriateness of materials produced and their usefulness to the target audience; [4] the extendibility of the ELT materials to other situations in India; [5] the changes that were brought about as a result of the project; and [6] the extent to which local expertise could take over and sustain the work of the project. The range of undergraduate/postgraduate, compulsory/special, full-time/part-time, general/specific, large/small departments against an underlying policy of curriculum change compelled the researchers to consider urgently the need to generalize beyond the context of anyone setting. What became clear early on was the difficulty of determining any single criterionof project success, thereby supporting views widely expressed in the literature. Success in a project may be achieved in a variety of ways and depends on a combination of factors, such as context and personal interactions, not all of which can be manipulated. For that reason, scholars are less concerned with the analysis of past achievement and more concerned with the diagnosis of project experience so as

NSOU ? PGELT-8B 75 to inform future policy. Scholars have proposed 4 criteria for determining the success of a project: [1] Product: It was meant some public expression of a project outcome. At its most informal such a public expression could be a circulated syllabus document; at its most formal a published textbook. What they looked for was some product indicative of project completion; they did not attempt to estimate the professional quality of the product. [2] Teacher development: It is essential to the continuation of an institution. While the language-teaching profession is more concerned with research output, administrators are probably more well-disposed to the professionalism of their institution's teaching staff. It was on a number of indicators to show professional development, such as recognition of the necessary link between materials and methodology, appointment as consultants to other institutions, stated intention to update their materials. [3] Sustainability: It has to do with the ability and willingness to continue without the support of the consultant. It was decided on indicators such as being responsive to the need to change aims while the project was still ongoing, team cohesion shown by a strong sense of professional interaction, and a sense of ownership of the project. [4] Extendibility: It concerns the relevance of a project to other contexts and therefore is determined by indicators such as an understanding at a theoretical level among the project team members of why they did what they did in the project, and awareness by professionals in other institutions of the seriousness of the project, and a capacity bythe project staff to continue as a research team and mount new projects on their own, not simply continue the existing project. In addition to these four project outcomes, it was also necessary to take account of a set of pre-conditions and inputs during the life of the project. In this way, they developed a model for project evaluation which would permit both generalisability across ELT activities and at the same time allow for some measure of prediction of likely success based on the presence of the pre-conditions and the amount of input during the project. Evaluation of language-teaching projects is a good example of the kind of activities applied linguists are called on to perform. What makes their contribution special is that applied linguistics brings to the evaluation a readiness to generalize through model-making.

5.3.2 Literacy Acquisition In addition to critical comments on currently received opinions on language learning and teaching issues, applied linguistics also contributes its careful reading of published results in these fields. The study on the critical literature review of bi-literacy illustrates the applied-linguistic contribution to the ongoing debate on literacy in education. As part of a project investigating schooled literacy in the second language (e.g., English in Australia for speakers of other languages) a critical literature review from an applied linguistic perspective was commissioned in 1997. Given the prevailing view among English as a Second Language (ESL) practitioners of the need to establish prior literacy in the first language (L1), it was important to sift the published evidence carefully. During the 20th Century, literacy has broadened its scope beyond reading and writing. The term 'multiple literacies', expresses one type of broadening by validating the often unacknowledged skilled language practices. A plausible interpretation of the broadening to more and more domains is that literacy has extended its province from the apparently straightforward sense of learning the skills of reading and writing to the more all-embracing sense of the demands of contemporary education. According to this interpretation, contemporary literacy and schooling are synonymous. What this means is that traditional ideas of schooling have also adapted so as to incorporate these wider demands. Much of the discussion about becoming literate, both in the narrower sense of acquiring reading and writing skills and in the broader sense of schooling, emphasizes the 'rules of the game' aspect, that is seeing (and accepting) what it's for(where 'it' encompasses reading/writing and schooling). An issue of concern in schools with multilingual populations is that of the role of the first language (L1), and particularly of L1 literacy, in the acquisition of the second language(L2) literacy, that is of literacy in the school language. Applied linguists become involved with this type of literacy question in two ways: (a) First in helping define literacy in such a way that it is possible to distinguish between the skills of reading and writing and the wider sense of 'reading the world' (Olson 1994), and (b) Second in clarifying what is meant by being literate in the traditional skills, that is at what point or cut-off a learner is not literate. In discussions of the relationship between the L1 and the L2, the consensus seems to be that since literacy skills transfer from L1 to L2, L1 literacy should be taught prior

to, or simultaneously with,L2 literacy. There is a weak version of this view and a strong version. The weak version states that for full L2 literacy development it is desirable that there should be prior adequate development in L1 literacy. The strong version goes further, claiming that unless there is an adequate base of L1 literacy there can be no L2 literacy development. Those taking up the strong position emphasize one of two values of prior L1literacy: (a) the first is that literacy in a second language is easier because learners know what literacy is from their first-language experience. (b) The second value makes the knowledge argument, that proper cognitive development is possible only where literacy has been acquired in the L1.There is of course a skeptical view. That is that what is needed to acquire literacy in an L2 such as English is more and better instruction in that L2, in this case, English. The underlying argument here is that there is no general connection between L2 literacy and the L1 and that a case-by-case approach should be taken when considering a policy. School success depends on a number of factors, including attitude to schooling. In the morass of individual variation, the school turns out to be uniquely powerful. What this suggests is that the good school can make all the difference to the acquisition of literacy in an L2, while the bad school can jeopardize the L2 student's chances. Interestingly, of course, it places the responsibility for an L2 learner's success as much on the school as on the student's attainments in the L1. If there is a moral to the study of schooling in a second language, it is that there is no homogeneity, except for the school. Languages differ, learners differ, contexts of learning differ, and the L1–L2 relationship differs. Therefore, it is incumbent on researchers and teachers to take account of previous learning and at the same time not to assume that all previous learning in the L1 is necessarily what matters most for subsequent learning in the L2.The contribution of applied linguistics to a study of schooled literacy in a second language is to demystify the role of the first language and to examine carefully just what influence it has, motivationally, cognitively, and linguistically.

5.3.3 Pedagogical Grammar A pedagogic (or pedagogical) grammar can be defined as a grammatical description of a language which is intended for pedagogical purposes, such as language teaching, syllabus design, or the preparation of teaching materials. A pedagogic grammar might be based on: (a) a grammatical analysis and description of the language; (b) a particular grammatical theory; and

(c) the study of the grammatical problems of learners or on a combination of approaches. Pedagogical grammars are distinguished from analytical grammars. A pedagogical grammar is a grammatical description of a language specifically designed as an aid to teaching that language, such as the grammar textbooks used in foreign language classes or the grammar instruction offered to trainee teachers. An analytical grammar attempts to account formally and logically for the structure of a language without reference to pedagogy, sequencing, levels of difficulty, or ease of explanation. Few analytical grammars are suitable for pedagogy but developments in generative grammar, including case grammar, generative semantic models of language, and accounts of linguistic discourse, indicate a renewal of interest in language as it is actually used in human interaction. Such grammars are therefore much more relevant to language learning and language teaching because they are less abstract than previous generative grammars. However, even these less abstract, more communicative grammars are still not intended to be pedagogic in the sense in which we are using the term, since the purpose of a pedagogic arrangement for grammar is to afford the students tightly controlled practice in writing sentences and thereby to locate the source of their own writing errors. The successful textbook employing a pedagogical grammar approach will ensure that the items and exercises are arranged so as to promote understanding of how different grammatical devices combine with context so as to allow the writer (and speaker) to express the variety of intended meanings. A pedagogical grammar, therefore, needs to be distinguished both from analytic grammar and from other types of textbooks. It differs from an analytic grammar in terms of purpose, which is to teach the language rather than about the language. It differs from other types of textbooks in terms of organization, in that it is arranged on pedagogical principles. Using the technique of pedagogical grammar in response to a language problem facing him in designing communicative language teaching materials, Keith Mitchell(1990) describes his attempt to produce a description which anticipates learners' communicative needs 'by adopting meaning and use – semantics and pragmatics –rather than grammatical structure as its main principle of classification' (1990: 52).Mitchell explains why Jespersen's analysis of the English comparative was inadequate (while praising him for his far-sighted approach to language teaching, anticipating communicative ideas sixty years before they became fashionable). In doing so he demonstrates why the classic

analysis which claimed that the following two sentences are equivalent in meaning was wrong: 1. Mary is as tall as her father. 2. Mary and her father are identical in height. Mitchell points out that they are not equivalent because (1) means that Mary is either equal to her father in height or taller, while (2) means only that she is equal to her father in height. Mitchell's analysis ranges from the logic of comparative structure through semantics and pragmatics to the lexicogrammatical possibilities inherent in the English language. In general terms, his argument concerns the different ways in which the same concept may be expressed and at the same time the different but related concepts that are expressed in similar ways. Mitchell concludes that: "..'identity of degree', together with 'the average degree' and 'the ideal degree' are concepts that language users have not hitherto had much occasion to express, witness the relative grammatical and/or lexical complexity of the devices that have to be resorted to if one does want to express them. These can hardly be concepts that play any great part in the everyday categorization of human experience, otherwise, speakers would have made it their business over the ages to ensure, as it were, that language provided a straightforward means for giving expression to them. It seems that when it comes to making comparisons quantifying properties of things in the world around us we tend to perceive these primarily in terms of differences, and even when we do perceive similarities we appear to like to leave room for the possibility of difference … It seems therefore that everyday language operates with a much looser and more ambivalent concept of 'equality' than does mathematics".(Mitchell 1990: 70) Let us remind ourselves of Mitchell's purpose in dealing with this language problem, namely the 'design of a communicative-pedagogical description of English' which would meet the needs of the syllabus designer and the materials writer. What he has reported on is clearly a small part of a larger task. In other words, the 'problem 'of how to teach learners how to express comparisons in English is only a very small part of the larger 'problem' of how to enable learners to access the resources of the English language. But in this small-scale reporting what Mitchell succeeds in doing is to show how questions of this kind require the applied linguist to bring together recurring practical

demands (how best to teach the language) with major theoretical issues (how the language deploys itself in order to permit meanings to be expressed). This particular engagement of theory and practice draws more heavily on linguistic theory than the examples of programme evaluation and schooled literacy. The outcome of such an engagement is three-fold: (a) it offers are source to the syllabus designer and textbook writer; (b) it informs our understanding of the ways in which pedagogy reflects learning and so assists with the theorizing of applied linguistics; and (c) it informs our understanding of the grammatical resource of the language and so has the potential to impact the linguistic theory itself. 5.3.4 Workplace Communication Away from education, the workplace is probably the major setting for necessary communication. Typically, it is the migrant for whom communication at work presents at the least misunderstandings and hostility and at the worst loss of job (or failure to obtain one). Those applied linguists who study communication in the workplace have three purposes: (a) to extend our knowledge of language genre so as to add to the theoretical base of language variety; (b) to provide input to the design of language-teaching materials for use in training courses on workplace communication for migrants, and (c) to provide advice for administrators about how to minimize miscommunication. Those who work in settings which (during the past twenty years) have been the research sites for studies of workplace discourse include doctors, psychologists, commodity dealers, and personnel managers. These studies have contributed to our understanding of institutional discourse and communicative relationships in the workplace. The problem for applied linguists who work in these settings is their tendency to underestimate the complexity of working with non-language professionals while avoiding being seen as both patronizing and as irrelevant outsiders. To be successful in these settings, applied linguistics needs a set of conceptual and analytic tools which are sensitive to the particular work contexts in which they work. Developing these tools is possible only by interaction between applied linguists and field professionals, the ambition being to achieve the integration of theory with practice (Roberts et al. 1997). The 1979 film Crosstalk sets out to analyze and remedy cross-cultural communication in the workplace, with particular reference to the experience of Asian migrants in the UK. The film and its accompanying training methods are based on the analysis of differential features in the English of Asian-born speakers of English and the English of UK-born speakers of English. What this analysis shows is that there are distinct cultural conventions used to infer meaning and attitudes. The use of such features (on both sides) causes misunderstandings and break-downs of communication: It is at the level of grasping the overall significance of what is being said and of drawing the correct inferences, that is of reading between the lines as to what is really intended, that the Asian-English system and the English- English [communication between two native speakers of British English] system of linguistic signals for information and attitude differ most (Gumperzet al. 1979: 9-10). For example, English-English people are confused by Asian-English lack of stress patterns and by their wrong use of turn-taking, while Asian-English people are confused by apologetic or polite and repetitive uses of English and by their appearance of not listening to what is being said. For example, in a job interview in which an Asian is applying for a post as a librarian in a college, a number of 'indirect' questions were raised with the candidate concerning his reasons for his interest in this particular job. The point of this type of question was to determine whether the candidate saw the post for which he was being interviewed as part of a strategy of careful career development. The candidate, however, interpreted all questions of this sort as direct rather than indirect and therefore as challenging his right to want a job at all. As a result, he found this line of questioning insulting. The professionals involved in the interview were officials of the college where the applicant sought employment. They were the Vice-Principal, the Head of Department and the Chief Administrative Officer. The film and materials are based on the combined analysis by these officials and the project applied linguists of the form and purpose of typical job interviews and how these are linguistically encoded. 5.3.5 Critical Pedagogy This last example differs from those previously described in that it reports a general approach rather than a project grappling with a specific issue. The approach is indeed so general that it offers an alternative way of doing applied linguistics. In addition to permeating the whole field of applied linguistics, critical pedagogy (itself an aspect of critical applied linguistics) is a project in itself since it occupies space for both teachers and students of applied linguistics in their studying and their research. Critical pedagogy, and more generally critical applied linguistics, represents a kind of postmodern version of critical discourse analysis. As such it places the onus of action

82 NSOU ? PGELT-8B firmly on the subject, in this case, the learner, student, and reader. Alastair Pennycook (1994a) describes the approach in Chapter 9 in his book Towards a Critical Pedagogy for Teaching English as a Worldly Language (1994).He takes as his point of departure: 'it is impossible to separate English from its many contexts and thus a key tenet of the discourse of English as an International Language – that it is possible to "just teach the language" – is equally untenable' (Pennycook 1994a: 295).Pennycook is concerned to make clear that he is not proposing a prescriptive set of teaching practices; what he is doing is 'to lay out some general concerns in developing critical pedagogies of English' (pp. 300). He recognizes that his stance is ideological but points out that all education is political while usually pretending it is not: 'I would argue that all education is political, that all schools are sites of cultural politics' (pp. 301). Pennycook emphasizes the importance of 'voice' which is used to refer to 'a contested space of language use as social practice. It suggests a pedagogy that starts with the concerns of the students, not in some vapid, humanist 'student-centered approach that requires students to express their 'inner feelings', but rather through an exploration of students' histories and cultural locations, of the limitations and possibilities presented by languages and discourses ... a critical practice in English language teaching must start with ways of critically exploring students' cultures, knowledge and histories in ways that are both challenging and at the same time affirming and supportive' (pp. 311).As a specific instance of the working out of critical pedagogy, Pennycook reports an experience when he was teaching English in China. He became aware that numbers of foreigners who purported to be teachers of English were in fact Christian missionaries. He decided that his students needed to be given the opportunity to consider this situation: In a course on 'British and American culture', a course that had always previously consisted of lectures on the political and education systems, festivals, and holidays of the United States and the UK, I decided to add a section on American fundamentalism to the curriculum ... it was important to make available to my students alternative readings of the United States that drew links between fundamentalism and right-wing politics and showed how the vast expansion of English language learning was being used by those who sought only to 'convert' their students and preach their right-wing politics. The object here was to give my students ways of thinking about connections between the language they were so busily engaged in learning and other cultural and political complexes about modernity, Christianity ... anti-abortion campaigns ... Chinese population problems and family policies, freedom of speech, and so on.(pp. 313-14)

NSOU ? PGELT-8B 83 Pennycook is at pains to point out that this approach does not detract from his responsibilities to ensure his students' 'success' as normally defined. He sets out his creed: I am suggesting that first, we need to make sure that students have access to those standard forms of the language linked to social and economic prestige; second, we need a good understanding of the status and possibilities presented by different standards; third, we need to focus on those parts of the language that are significant in particular discourses; fourth, students need to be aware that those forms represent only one set of particular possibilities; and finally, students also need to be encouraged to find ways of using the language that they feel are expressive of their own needs and desires, to make their own readings of texts, to write, speak and listen in forms of the language that emerge as they strive to find representations of themselves and others that make sense to them so that they can start to claim and negotiate a voice in English(pp. 317–18). It is important to note that unlike those who argue the case for 'linguicism'(Phillipson 1992), Pennycook does not oppose the spread of English as long as itis approached critically: 'I believe that the spread of English if dealt with critically, may offer chances for cultural renewal and exchange around the world' (Pennycook1994a: 325). 5.3.6 Language Planning Populations are natural resources. We can enhance their abilities, qualifications, and skills through education. One such ability is the languages spoken in the community and those which the community wishes to promote. Whether the community has an explicit view of its language situation or not it will inevitably have a language policy that determines such matters as which language(s) are to be recognized as the official language(s) of the state, which languages are to be used as a medium of instruction in schools, as the medium of broadcasting, in the legal system and so on. Official intervention by the state in some cases requires the institutionalizing of a state body that oversees prescriptive issues, bodies such as the National Language Board. Even where there is no such official state body there will be some para-statal body (e.g., BBC in the UK or Door Darshan in India), publishing houses, and newspapers that shape attitude and emphasize norms. Further, there will be a policy, again explicit or not, indicating the official attitude towards minority languages used in the community and determining which languages are to be taught as foreign languages in schools. Such community (usually national) policies come under the general label of language planning.

84 NSOU ? PGELT-8B The need for a national language plan is acute in newly formed communities which are faced with immediate decisions about which language(s) to select as the official state language. Newly independent states in the 1950s, 1960s, and 1970s are faced with such a decision. In the main the majority chose to continue with the existing situation, which explains why so many former British colonies still use English as their official language, however many other languages may be current within their borders and however few nationals actually use English as their main means of communication. Inertia, the continuation of their British connection, scarcity of resources to provide the necessary materials (textbooks, study materials) in an indigenous language, unwillingness to compel a choice among the competitor indigenous languages for selection as the new official language, reasons such as these have tended to continue the language status quo. While the need always exists for language planning on a small scale, such as which languages to offer in a school curriculum over the next period, it is rare to be given the opportunity to develop a national language plan. Such an opportunity did arise in Australia in the 1980sto develop a National Policy on Languages. Australia was not a newly emerging state, but like Canada, which had some years earlier produced its own national policy of bilingualism, Australia did need to come to terms with its new multi-racial (and multilingual) population, following the large scale immigration of the 1950s. At the same time, it needed to adjust to its geo-economic reality of being a 'European' country in the Asian-Pacific region. And very late in the day, there was the abiding recognition of the injury to indigenous communities whose languages were dying if not dead. What was needed was an informed view of the linguistic ecology of Australia which would allow practical and ethical decisions to be made. This is a classic applied linguistics problem since it required a balance of political, educational, and linguistic understanding. The activity of language policy formulation is known as language planning when explicit statements and programs are made and enacted to respond to urgent problems of a linguistic nature. Choices and priorities need to be made and set since language pervades all of public and private life. The context means that the federal nature of Australia, consisting of at least eight governments, influences the type of language planning possible in Australia. Therefore it is necessary that broad statements with clear principles be enunciated so that the language problems which face the country as a whole can be tackled at the various relevant levels by the appropriate authorities. The proposed policy is comprehensive and takes account of what is called the 'language problems which confront Australia'. The National Policy on Languages has been very influential in Australia. It is probably the case that it would not have had the impact it has had without its overarching applied-linguistic vision.

5.3.7 Language Teaching Curriculum The term 'curriculum' is used in its widest sense to include purpose and objectives as well as content (or syllabus) and method. An explicit curriculum can be seen as a statement of the means by which a set of objectives is to be achieved and at the same time an operational definition of how we should understand those objectives. Thus English for Specific Purposes (ESP) curriculum will contain the content of a teaching programme, possible guidance on how to present that programme and at the same time represent by its instantiation what is meant by ESP. The applied linguistics of curriculum studies may therefore be regarded as the language teaching specialism, which is "a matter of identifying, developing, and articulating particular perceptions of teaching and learning on the one hand and seeking ways in which perceptions can be shared and sharpened through professional debate in the teaching community on the other" (Prabhu 1987: 107). Essentially it is an attempt to develop a fresh perception of second language teaching and learning. It draws on a pedagogic intuition arising from earlier experience and deliberately seeks further sustained experience, both to test the strength of the intuition and to be able to articulate it in the form of principles and procedures. The development of competence in a second language requires not systematization of language inputs or maximization of planned practice, but rather the creation of conditions in which learners engage in an effort to cope with communication. Scholars distinguish between communicational competence and communicative competence, which is the ability to achieve social or situational appropriacy as distinct from grammatical conformity. The focus is not on communicative competence but on grammatical competence itself, which is hypothesized to develop in the course of meaning-focused activity. The philosophy behind this is that learners are meaning seekers. Grammar– competence – is best learnt through purposeful communication; the analogies used at various times. (a) First, a child learns his or her mother tongue where learning takes place through the search for meaning and not through formal instruction; and, (b) Second, the learner is engaged in a content task such as a mathematics task. The desire and determination to solve the mathematics problem are so strong that learners will assist one another to negotiate their way to a solution. When tasks similar to a mathematics problem that use language but which are not language focused are presented then the challenge to find a solution will encourage

language negotiation and hence language learning: learners, when focused on communication, are able to deploy non-linguistic resources and, as a result, not only achieve some degree of communication but, in the process, some new resources, however small, in the target language. In other words, language is best learnt when it is being used as a means, not as an end. This idea develops a fresh perception of second- language learning as pedagogic innovation is viewed as an act of renewing contact with innovation and re-interpreting experience through a fresh perception. It works in applied linguistics as it elaborates our thinking about language learning. It offers some insights and helps us think again about our normal practice. The role of applied linguistics in curriculum development is likely as much in offering new insights based, however distantly, on theoretical underpinnings from other disciplines as in offering ways of changing practice and method. 5.3.8 Second Language Acquisition The example selected to illustrate development in second-language acquisition studies is that of the Lexical Frequency Profile, a measure of vocabulary in the writing of second-language learners. There has been interest in such measures for two reasons – they can be used to help distinguish some of the factors that affect the quality of a piece of writing, and they can be used to examine the relationship between vocabulary knowledge and vocabulary use (Laufer 2005). The development of a computerized instrument can be seen as a response to the common need to evaluate the role of vocabulary in language learning. Such studies likely build upon the revival of interest in vocabulary among second-language teachers. This revival represents a return to a more traditional applied linguistics view of the importance of vocabulary as against the centrality of grammar. At the same time, what vocabulary control indicates is a concomitant awareness of genre, of those words that group together in a discrete domain. The Lexical Frequency Profile uses a frequency list against which to match the vocabulary of the submitted written work. Profiles based on running texts of 200+words have been shown to provide stable results. The measure is valid and reliable. Furthermore, the computer program allows for different frequency lists to be used and it is, therefore, possible to produce a different profile for different proficiency levels. Scholars propose two different measures, one for less and one for more proficient students. The Lexical Frequency Profile appears to be a robust response to the need

for quick, reliable, and valid estimations of writing proficiency and at the same time a useful indicator of the role of vocabulary in language learning. Second language learning is expensive. Many learners who embark on a course of this type abandon it before they reach some useful take-off point. Whether there is an optimum age to start learning a second language is of practical importance. It is also of theoretical importance because it bears on the question of the critical or sensitive period for engaging with a new cognitive load. Moreover, it relates to our understanding of what it means to be a native speaker. It is assumed that only those exposed to a language in early childhood are native speakers of that language. It is further assumed that if there is exposure to more than one language during early childhood, then it is equally possible to be a native speaker of more than one language. Later exposure, it is thought, cannot produce a native speaker. There are serious problems in defining a native speaker so narrowly for two reasons. First, some exceptional learners start learning a second language in later life and who do somehow attain native-like mastery, in some cases so perfect that their provenance cannot be distinguished from that of a birthright native speaker. Second, those birthright native members differ among themselves. Not only do they have different accents, but they also have different grammars, quite apart from their very different control over performance skills in the language: in writing, speaking, and so on. However, the sensitive period position has been difficult to counter for second language acquisition, even though its legitimacy properly belongs to the acquisition of the first language. Scholars have challenged the view that the ultimate attainment of native-speaker ability is not possible for exceptional second-language learners. The general success of younger learners in acquiring a second language is true and it points out that the evidence does not mean that this advantage is the reflection of a sensitive period in learning. It is observed that only exceptional learners can overcome the problems of reaching ultimate attainment after the sensitive period. Indeed it is prudent to assume that successful second language acquisition remains a possibility for all those who have learnt a natural language in childhood and can organize their lives to recreate some of the social, educational, and experiential advantages that children enjoy. 5.3.9 Clinical Linguistics The goal of clinical linguistics is to formulate hypotheses for the remediation of abnormal linguistic behaviours. Clinical linguistics can help clinicians to make an informed

88 NSOU ? PGELT-8B judgment about what to teach next and to monitor the outcome of an intervention, hypothesis, as treatment proceeds.(Crystal 2001: 679) The terms 'remediation' and 'teaching' suggest that clinical linguistics is very definitely applied work since it sets out to diagnose what problems there are in an individual's communication system and then attempts to provide appropriate remedies. The best- known practitioner is the speech therapist (or pathologist) who works with childhood speech defects (caused for example by a cleft palate) and with adult aphasias (caused by strokes and by road and other accidents). But there is more to it. The speech therapist's work draws on descriptive work in language acquisition and language loss, including sophisticated speech synthesis using state of the art computer technology, on phonetic and grammatical accounts of deficit, what we call a deficit grammar, that is to say, an algorithmic inventory was drawn up to exemplify the areas of loss most likely to be experienced by the therapist's patients. The linguist's interest is primarily in change: (a) to what extent is non-acquisition (as exemplified by the child with some speech impairment) systematic in that it relates regularly (but negatively) to so-called normal acquisition. Similarly with loss (whether through age, illness, or trauma): (b) to what extent does loss mirror acquisition so that it is possible to establish a relationship between the two? While such research is of obvious applied interest since it allows swifter and more precise diagnosis both of children's defects and of adults' traumas, it also is of profound concern to the linguist's understanding of what language is through knowing what it is not. The path is through changed states to failure of changed states to what it is that causes language to exist at any one time as a system and which enables it to change into another system. An applied linguist finds interest in clinical linguistics in achieving stable states and in improving (and ameliorating) communication. Thus the applied linguist has two roles in clinical linguistics. The first role is that of the speech therapist him/herself. And the second is that of the trainer of speech therapists. Indeed the two go together, because once we accept that the applied linguist has a role in the training of speech therapists then the trained speech therapist becomes, by definition, an applied linguist. 5.3.10 Language Proficiency Testing Testing is more a normal part of language teaching than of other curriculum subjects

NSOU ? PGELT-8B 89 because the language teacher is concerned with skill as well as with knowledge. This means that there is more need for testing. Testing is further complicated by the unusual presence of a living criterion, the native speaker. In many language teaching operations the goal is the native speaker, but increasingly testing comes under criticism as to which native speaker. What language proficiency testing is about is the setting of appropriate targets for varying levels and uses of language. Such tests aim to provide the rigours of test guidelines while ensuring that the right kinds of language behaviour are included and in appropriate quantities. The applied linguistic interest in language proficiency testing is now central but that was not always the case. What has become clear over the last thirty years is the role of the test in encapsulating both what the learner needs to know for a particular purpose and what amount of that knowledge counts as success. This is a major contribution both to the practice of language learning and teaching and to the theoretical understanding of language learning and language need. Language proficiency tests model the native speaker and provide an alternative means of setting goals for learning. They operationalize language learning precisely by setting explicit goals, which is another way of stating that language tests make language learning accountable by establishing what it means to 'know' the language. They do this by sampling the relevant areas of language to be learned and guarantee that their sampling is correct through their documentation on reliability and validity. There are major distinctions of 'proficiency' and 'tests of achievement' (or attainment): (a) tests of proficiency sample the language that is being learned; (b) tests of achievement sample the teaching programme (syllabus, course, textbook, etc.) that has already been agreed, a sample than of an existing sample. We can distinguish six kinds of use of information that language testing provides. [1] The first use that it provides hypotheses in relation to our understanding of language and language learning. The status and concept of language proficiency, the structure of language ability, and the natural order of language acquisition are much discussed by language testers using language testing techniques to produce data which furthers the discussion. Such issues are primarily intended to add to our knowledge and understanding of language and language learning. They also have an applied potential in language teaching programmes. [2] The second use of language testing in experiments is a subset of the first use, in research. But there is an important difference. In the research use, we are

90 NSOU ? PGELT-8B thinking of research into language testing; in the experimental use, we are thinking of tests as criteria for language teaching experiments, for example in method comparison. [3] The third use is the washback effect on the syllabus of language testing (Clapham et al. 1997). The implications of test results and their meaning are employed as a critique of the syllabus and the teaching; while the testing structure, the content, and method of the tests themselves influence the teaching. We are concerned here with teaching to the test, for it is always the pejorative aspect of washback that is implied, but we stress that there is a positive side to this. The implications are, first, that teaching is influenced by testing and, second, that testing has an important responsibility – to ensure that its influence is constructive. [4] The fourth use of language testing is measuring progress among learners, the most common type of test being the achievement test. [5] The fifth use is in the selection of students on the basis of either previous learning or in terms of some more general language learning ability or aptitude for the next stage of education or a particular vocation. What is of interest here is the interaction between use for progress and use for selection, that is to what extent a valid test of progress is in itself a valid test for selection purposes. [6] The sixth use is concerning the evaluation of courses, methods, and materials. This is a special use of testing which must cope with the learner variable, distinguishing itfrom the evaluation of the materials, programme, and so on. Language assessment provides three types of message: (a) Message about skill: to what extent learners have reached adequate proficiency. It is defined and the role of language tests in developing more specific and detailed indicators of adequate proficiencies. (b) Message about development: It suggests progress along a very clear and obvious path towards ultimate attainment. Attached to this message about development for all language learners is an indication of the identity which the learner chooses. Information about development indicates assessment to both psycholinguistic and sociolinguistic provenance of the learner. (c) Message about knowledge: Language users, both native speakers and non native speakers distinguish themselves in terms of their awareness of language. This shows itself both in the range of acceptability judgments they are prepared

to make and in the extent of their conscious metalinguistic reflecting upon language, which in turn demonstrates itself in knowledge about language and areas of ludic creativity. Such reification of language does seem to discriminate both among native speakers and among non-native speakers; it does, of course, have some bearing on our first message, that of skill, since there may well be an element of knowledge within skill which determines differential proficiency. 5.3.11 Forensic Linguistics Forensic linguistics is defined as the stylistic analysis of statements made to the police by those accused of criminal activity. The applied linguist who works on languages for specific purposes (e.g. English for chemical engineers, tourist guides, or musicology) must seek advice on the content of those disciplines from specialists in these fields. Similarly, with forensic linguistics, the applied linguist needs advice about the workings of the law, insofar as they affect how evidence is to be given. Such advice will of course be given by the relevant specialist, in this case, the lawyer for the defense or prosecution, depending on which side the applied linguist is appearing for. In addition, if the case concerns an area with its own specialism (financial probity, aircraft parts), the applied linguist will need information from specialists in these areas on how to interpret the content of the transcripts which he/she is analyzing stylistically. Since the applied linguist is called on to support one or other counsel as an expert witness rather than as the chief investigator in forensic language problems, it is likely to be the linguistic and phonetic factors that he/she must concentrate on. What is typically at issue here is whether it is probable that the accused said or wrote what he/she is recorded as having said or written. Such assessment requires a careful judgment of the accuser's level of English proficiency as well as a thorough stylistic analysis of the transcripts so as to infer whether someone at the proficiency level of the accused was likely to have made those statements and whether the transcript showed consistency of proficiency. In the case in question, the applied linguists' evidence was accepted and the accused acquitted. 5.2312 Lexicography Lexicography is called a branch of applied linguistics. A lexicographer needs theoretical knowledge that includes more than linguistics. For would-be lexicographers, learning linguistics boils down to choices. Each topic in linguistics has more or less importance according to the types of dictionaries involved, the intention of the authors,

and above all the target: learners, native or non-native speakers, children or grown-ups, etc. Applied linguistics is defined and promoted as a didactic domain, along with applied rhetoric, applied ethnology, applied literary studies, for the benefit of lexicography. Such a domain centre on semantics (not only lexical) and morphology, but it does not leave out syntax, phonetics, and/or phonemics. It is close to sociolinguistics and anthropology and will include part of terminology, LSP, and documentary content analysis (Rey 1984: 95). Applied linguists will be lexicographers in the tradition of the application of linguistics. We learn up about semantics, syntax morphology, phonetics, and phonemics (or phonology).There is a common core of knowledge and skill that all applied linguists need and thereafter they may specialize in one or more areas of interest. There is a central aspect of lexicography which is applied linguistics, a normative intervention on language in use. As such it is not primarily of interest to theoretical linguistics, which is not concerned with language in use. Applied linguistics for lexicography becomes applied linguistics which lexicographers need. As do language testers, language teachers, language planners, speech therapists, and so on. They will all need the further specialist input peculiar to their own vocation, just as lexicographers do. It has been noted that many good or excellent theoreticians and scholars in linguistics proved unable to cope with such specific tasks as analyzing the sub-classes of occurrences of a word or lexical unit in a given corpus that would provide a lexicographically satisfactory structure; writing good definitions and choosing the right examples from a corpus. Many good linguists may well ignore everything relevant to producing a text about words, idioms, and phrases that were supposed to be used by, and useful to, somebody besides their fellow linguists. The necessary professional skills that are needed for lexicographers involve epistemology, etymology, technology, anthropology, history of culture, theory of literature, and many others. Such an expanded view of the linguistics necessary to the lexicographer matches our view of applied linguistics. After a course at the graduate level in applied linguistics, a successful student covers all the applied linguistics needed for the profession of lexicography. Lexicographers compile dictionaries. But what is a dictionary? A dictionary is a systematically arranged list of socialized linguistic forms compiled from the speech habits of a given speech community and commented on by the author in such away that the qualified reader understands the meaning of each separate from, and is informed of the relevant facts concerning the functions of that form in its community(Berg quoted in Green 1996: 22).Further definitions examine the characteristics with the following criteria: a list

of separate graphic statements; a book designed for consultation; a book with two structures (word-list and contents); a book in which items are classed by form or content; a repository of information that is linguistic in nature; a repository of information that is explicitly didactic; a source of information about signs; a place where the word-list corresponds to a pre-determined set and is structured if not exhaustive. Such technical definitions make clear just how complex is the task of the lexicographer and what sorts of knowledge and skills are necessary. But such a complex list has many holes, in that many collections that not only are labeled dictionaries but are referred to by that appellation does not conform in all characteristics. And what the list does not include is the crucial problem of selection. It is always the case that in any intervention on language which aims to capture its characteristics for whatever purpose (teaching, testing, listing its vocabulary) a selection must be made since the whole of the language can never be captured. The selection of items for a dictionary brings into sharp focus the problem and eventually the impossibility of distinguishing the descriptive and the prescriptive. As we have just seen, all description inevitably involves some measure of prescription. 5.4 Summing UP Over the years, the focus of attention of applied linguistics has continued to broaden. Today applied linguistics is described as a means to help solve specific problems in society. Applied linguistics focuses on the numerous and complex areas in society in which language plays a role. There appears to be a consensus that the goal is to apply the findings and the techniques from research in linguistics and related disciplines to solve practical problems. To an observer, the most notable change in applied linguistics has been its rapid growth as an interdisciplinary field. In addition to foreign language teaching and machine translation, a partial sampling of issues considered central to the field of applied linguistics today includes topics such as language for special purposes (e.g. language and communication problems related to aviation, language disorders, law, medicine, science), language policy and planning, and language and literacy issues. For example, following the adoption of English as the working language for all international flight communication by the International Civil Aviation Organization (ICAO), some applied linguists concerned themselves with understanding the kinds of linguistic problems that occur when pilots or flight engineers from varying backgrounds communicate using a non-native language and how to better train them to communicate in English more effectively.

Some applied linguists are concerned with helping planners and legislators in countries develop and implement a language policy (e.g. planners are working to specify and to further develop roles in education and government not only for English but also for indigenous languages) or in helping groups develop scripts, materials, and literacy programs for previously unwritten languages (e.g. for many of the 850+ indigenous languages of Papua New Guinea). Applied linguists have been concerned with developing the most effective programs possible to help adults many of whom have limited if any prior education, develop literacy in the languages which they will need for survival and occupational purposes. Other topics currently of concern to applied linguists are the broad issue of the optimal role of the mother tongue in the education of culturally and linguistically diverse students, the language of persuasion and politics, developing effective tools and programs for interpretation and translation, and language testing and evaluation. In the United Kingdom, the first school of applied linguistics is thought to have opened in 1957 at the University of Edinburgh. In the United States, a non-profit educational organization (Center for Applied Linguistics) was founded in 1959. The Center's mission ("promote the study of language and to assist people in achieving their educational, occupational, and social goals through more effective communication") still remains pertinent. The organization carries out its mission by collecting and disseminating information through various clearinghouses that it operates, by conducting practical research, by developing practical materials, and training individuals such as teachers, administrators, or other human resource specialists to use these to reduce the barriers that limited language proficiency can pose for culturally and linguistically diverse individuals as they seek full and effective participation in educational or occupational opportunities. 5.5 Review Questions [1] What are the major areas of applied linguistics? How do they help in the growth and expansion of the domain? [2] How can you make distinctions between applied linguistics of the 1960s and that of the 2020s? [3] What are the basic criteria for determining the success of a language development project? [4] What are the main arguments of Language proficiency testing? How it is done?

[5] Why literary acquisition is considered an essential component of applied linguistics? [6] What is pedagogy grammar? How does it differ from a general reference grammar? [7] What is workplace communication? How does it relate to English for specific purposes? [8] What is language planning? What role does an applied linguist play in language planning? [9] How does Applied Linguistics contribute to forensic studies of language? [10] What is lexicography? What kinds of applied linguistic information are required for developing a learner's dictionary? 5.6 Glossary of Terms Critical pedagogy: It is a philosophy of education that has developed and applied concepts from critical theory (Kincheloe and Steinburg1997). It views teaching as an inherently political act, rejects the neutrality of knowledge, and insists that issues of social justice and democracy itself are not distinct from acts of teaching and learning. By creating appropriate conditions, teachers enable students to become cultural producers who can rewrite their experiences and perceptions. In a classroom setting, it requires teachers to give more power to the students to decide what are they studying, from what sources, and why. Learner's dictionary: A dictionary that is specially designed for learners. It is designed to meet the reference needs of learners learning mother language or second language. These dictionaries are based on the premise that language-learners should progress from a bilingual dictionary to a monolingual one as they become more proficient in their target language, but that general-purpose dictionaries are inappropriate for their needs. Dictionaries for learners include information on grammar, usage, common errors, collocation, and pragmatics, which is largely missing from standard dictionaries because native speakers tend to know these aspects of language intuitively. While the definitions in standard dictionaries are often written in difficult language, in learner's dictionaries, these are written in simple and accessible vocabulary. Linguicism: It refers to a situation that generates discrimination based on language or dialect. It is 'linguistically argued racism'. It is also known as 'linguistic

discrimination'. The term was first coined in the 1980s by linguist Tove Skutnabb-Kangas, who defined linguicismas" ideologies and structures that are used to legitimate, effectuate, and reproduce an unequal division of power and resources between groups which are defined on the basis of language." Linguistic discourse: In linguistics, discourse refers to a unit of language longer than a single sentence. The word discourse is derived from the Latin prefix dis- meaning "away" and the root word currere meaning "to run". Discourse, therefore, translates to "run away" and refers to the way that conversations flow. To study discourse is to analyze the use of spoken or written language in a social context. Discourse studies look at the form and function of language in conversation beyond its small grammatical elements such as phonemes and morphemes. This field of study is interested to understand how larger units of language— including lexemes, syntax, and context—contribute meaning to conversations. Metalinguistics: It refers to the branch of linguistics that deals with relations between language and other elements of a culture. It is the study of the internal relation between languages and the cultural systems they refer to. It also involves the study of dialogue relationships between units of speech communication as manifestations and enactments of co-existence. Some scholars describe Mikhail Bakhtin's interpretation of metalinguistics as "encompassing the life history of a speech community, with an orientation toward a study of large events in the speech life of people and embody changes in various cultures and ages."Metalinguistic skills involve an understanding of the rules used to govern a language. An essential aspect of language development is focused on the students being aware of language and the components of language. Miscommunication:It is defined as a failure to communicate adequately and properly. It is one of the types of communication barrier. It is an instant where either the speaker is unable to provide the proper and adequate information to the hearer or the hearer misperceived and could not recognize the communication from the speaker. The cases of miscommunication vary depending on the situation and persons included in it but often result in confusion and frustration. Miscommunication may, in some cases, even open up the triangle of other factors that inevitably leads to a conflict. Multiple literacies: The term 'multiple literacies' (also called 'New literacies' or 'Multi-literacies') recognizes that there are many ways to relay and receive information, and students need to be proficient in each one. The four primary

areas of multiple literacies include visual literacy (ability to understand pictures, photographs, symbols, and videos), textual literacy (ability to analyze and respond to books, blogs, news articles, or websites),digital literacy (ability to locate, evaluate, and interpret information found through digital sources, such as websites, smartphones, and video games), and technological literacy (ability to use technologies such as social media, online video sites, and text messages appropriately, responsibly, and ethically) Parastatal body: It refers to any company, management board, association, or statutory body in which the Government has a majority or controlling interest and includes a city, a municipality, or a district council established under the Local Government Act. That means it refers to a company, agency, or intergovernmental organization, that possesses political clout and is separate from the government, but whose activities serve the state, either directly or indirectly. Speech impairment: Speech impairments or speech disorders are a type of communication disorder where normal speech is disrupted. It refers to an impaired ability to produce speech sounds and may range from mild to severe. It may include an articulation disorder, characterized by omissions or distortions of speech sounds; a fluency disorder, characterized by atypical flow, rhythm, and/or repetitions of sounds; or a voice disorder, characterized by abnormal pitch, volume, resonance, vocal quality, or duration. Speech pathology: Speech-language pathology is a field of expertise practiced by a clinician known as a speech-language pathologist (SLP)or a speech and language therapist, both of whom may be known by the shortened description, speech therapist. Speech-language pathology is considered a 'related health profession' or 'allied health profession' along with audiology, optometry, occupational therapy, rehabilitation psychology, physical therapy, behavior analysis, and others. SLPs specialize in the evaluation, diagnosis, and treatment of communication disorders (speech and language impairments), cognitive- communication disorders, voice disorders, and swallowing disorders. 5.7 Books Recommended [1] Bright, William (ed.) (1992) International Encyclopaedia of Linguistics, vol. 1, New York: Oxford University Press. [2] Brumfit, Christopher (1995) "Teacher Professionalism and Research" in "Principles and Practice in Applied Linguistics: Studies in Honour of H.G. Widdowson." Oxford: Oxford University Press.

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University Press.
NSOU ? PGELT-8B 99 Unit 6 Interlanguage and Errors of Interference Structure 6.1 Objectives 6.2 Introduction 6.3 Definition of Interlanguage 6.4 Understanding the Concept 6.5 Characteristics of Interlanguage 6.5.1 Stability 6.5.2 Systematicity 6.5.3 Mutual Intelligibility 6.5.4 Backsliding 6.6 Variable Shapes of Interlanguage 6.6.1 Developmental Sequence 6.6.2 Interlanguage Continuum 6.7 Language Devices 6.7.1 Fossilization 6.7.2 Psycholinguistic Processes 6.7.3 Human Cognition in Acquisition 6.8 Strength and Weakness of Interlanguage 6.9 Error Analysis 6.9.1 Significance of Errors 6.9.2 Error and Language Interference 6.9.3 Contrastive Analysis as a Predictor of Error 6.9.4 Errors vs. Mistakes 6.9.5 Error Analysis Approach
100 NSOU ? PGELT-8B 6.9.6 Types of Error 6.10 Summing Up 6.11 Review Questions 6.12 Glossary of Terms 6.13 Books Recommended 6.1 Objectives At the end of this unit, the learners will be able to: a. understand the concept of interlanguage as defined in linguistics b. visualise how interlanguage can be exploited in language teaching situations c. appreciate the place of errors in the process of language learning d. understand the need to develop tolerance towards learner errors. 6.2 Introduction Second language (L2) learning involves a gradual advancement from the learner's first language (L1) towards the target language (TL). During this process of learning, a learner naturally develops an intermediate language between his L1 and L2. It is neither L1 nor L2, rather a separate language having its own grammar and linguistic system. This inherent learner system is widely referred to as Interlanguage.The emergence of Interlanguage caused the shift in psychological perspectives of second language learning from a behaviourist approach to a mentalist one. In fact, the concept of Interlanguage, in many ways, has borrowed some of its major assumptions directly from the mentalist theories. This psycholinguistic concept was first introduced by the well-known theorist of the Second Language Acquisition (SLA), Larry Selinker in 1972. Since then, Interlanguage has become a major subject of scrutiny in the field of second language learning theories. Although Selinker was the chief proponent of the theory, subsequently, a few other theorists came forward to explain the same notion under different terms, such asApproximativeSystem (Nemser 1971),Transitional Competence (Corder 1967), and Idiosyncratic Dialect (Corder 1973).

101 6.3 Definition of Interlanguage Selinker introduced the idea of Interlanguage in 1972. It is built on Pit Corder's 1967 article The Significance of Learners' Errors. The principle behind interlanguage theory is that the language of second-language learners is governed by systematic rules and that these rules are different from those of the language being learned and from those of the learner's native language. Hence at every stage of learning, language learners do not merely copy what native speakers do but create an entirely new language system unique to themselves. Selinker named this interim language system an interlanguage. In his paper, he proposed that interlanguages have all the normal properties of natural languages. In other words, they are systematic and bound by rules in the same manner as any other language. Furthermore, he proposed that interlanguage is based on three basic principles: (i)over-generalization from patterns found in the language being learned, (ii) transferfrom patterns found in the learner's native language, and (iii) fossilization, the phenomenon of a learner's language ceasing to develop. (a) In a broader sense, Interlanguage is defined as the second language learner's present knowledge of the language he is learning. (b) In a general sense, Interlanguage is defined as the interim grammars constructed by the learner of a second language on his way to the target language. (c) In a narrower sense, Interlanguage refers to the intermediate status of the second language learner's system between his mother tongue and the target language. 6.4 Understanding the Concept Interlanguage is a term for the linguistic system that underlies learner language. We can find this system when a learner tries to use learner language in unrehearsed communication. In Error Analysis (EA), we look at learner language in terms of deviance from the target language norms; we call that deviance as 'error.' In Interlanguage analysis, we look at the same learner language but from a different perspective. We now ask what kind of system the learner might be using to produce the patterns we observe then to use. From a functional perspective, Interlanguage is usefully viewed as a transitional linguistic system (at all levels: phonology, morphology, syntax, semantics, pragmatics) that is different from the target language system (TLS) and also different from the learner's native language system (NLS). We can describe it in terms of evolving linguistic patterns and norms, as well as can explain it in terms of specific cognitive and sociolinguistic processes that shape up this system called Interlanguage.

102 NSOU ? PGELT-8B To illustrate the difference between Error Analysis (EA) and Interlanguage Analysis(IA) we may say that an Error Analysis might tell us that a learner makes a lot of errors in marking, say, gender features in French, while an Interlanguage Analysis, may alternatively show that a learner is using a system where masculine gender is used for all nouns and noun modifiers. This gender marking system results in some errors (e.g., when referring to females) but also some seemingly correct forms (e.g., when referring to males).The cognitive process of overgeneralization that leads to this pattern is very typical of Interlanguage. Interlanguage is the type of language produced by second-and

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foreign- language learners who are in the process of learning a

second or foreign language. In language learning, learner errors are caused by several different processes. In general, these processes include the followings: (

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a) Borrowing patterns from the mother tongue (b) Extending patterns from the target language (c) Expressing meanings using the words and grammar which are already known

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Interlanguage refers to the separateness of a second language learner's system, a system that has a structurally intermediate status between the native and the target

language. Interlanguage

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is neither the system of the native language nor the system of the target language, but instead, it falls between the two. It is a system that is based upon the best attempt of learners to provide order and structure to the linguistic stimuli surrounding them.

By a gradual process of trial and error and hypothesis testing, learners slowly, gradually, and tediously succeed in establishing closer and

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closer approximations to the system used by native speakers of

the language. Based on Selinker's view, we can say that Interlanguage
refers

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to the systematic knowledge of an L2 which is independent of both these learner's L1 and the target language.

In recent times, the term has come to be used with different but related meanings, such as the followings: (1) To refer to the series of interlocking systems which characterize acquisition, (2) To refer to the system that is observed at a single stage of development (an interlanguage), and (3) To refer to particular L1/L2 combinations(e.g., L1 French/L2 English v. L1 Japanese/L2 English).
NSOU ? PGELT-8B 103 Selinker suggests that Interlanguage, as the transitional process between L1 and L2,

He considers Interlanguage as a 'dialect whose rules share characteristics of two social dialects of languages whether these languages themselves share rules or not'. According to him, the notion of Interlanguage can be illustrated in the following diagram (Fig. 1) Fig. 1: The notion of the Interlanguage (From Corder, 1981: 17). LA represents Learner's L1. Pit Corder (1981), on the other hand, states that the learner's language could be considered as a dialect in the linguistic sense. He means that two languages that share some rules of grammar become dialects. Based on this claim, he states that language A and language B as illustrated in Fig. 2 are in a dialect relation which leads to Interlanguage (Fig. 2) Fig. 2: The notion of dialect relation in language learning (Corder, 1981: 14) In the first case, teachers can give appropriate feedback after checking out the learner's interlanguage. Learners need not worry so much about making mistakes. They can assume that making mistakes is a procedure of development from mother tongue to Second Language.The core assumptions underlying Interlanguage are as follows:

104 NSOU ? PGELT-8B ? Second language learning is a gradual progression from L1/NL/MT towards the L2/TL/FL. ? At every stage of learning the learner develops a system of rules that

The process of learning consists of rule formation or hypothesis-testing. ? The mistakes made by the learners are a natural procedure

Many learners do not achieve the full L2/TL/FL competence. 6.5 Characteristics of Interlanguage There are four characteristics or observable facts of Interlanguage theory. These characteristics are discussed and examined below (Taroneet al., 2001). 6.5.1 Stability Stability is the feature that shows consistency for using a certain rule or form over time in the field of Interlanguage learning. In other words, stability can be seen in using the same form twice by L2 learners. Scholars argue that it is not clear for us that a new language hypothesis is needed for more explanation about the human propensity to keep making the same errors or mistakes, and to learn things gradually. This feature of Interlanguage becomes less interesting when we find that one can differentiate between two types of Interlanguage users. Type one is associated with those whose Interlanguage is distinguished by stability, whilst the other type is characterized by instability. The main problem comes from deciding which type a student is. Deciding is based on the stability of a learner's Interlanguage. 6.5.2 Systematicity Interlanguage is characterized as being systematic and not a random collection of rules or items. It follows a particular system of rules which makes it systematic. Although the rules are not essentially the same as the rules of the target language, Interlanguage, however, has a specific set of rules that are required by learners. Despite the variability of Interlanguage, it is probable to detect the rule-based nature of a learner's use of an

NSOU ? PGELT-8B 105 L2/FL. It is believed that that L2 speech can be called systematic when it reveals an internal consistency in the use of forms at a single point in time. As a point of criticism, we may say that it is not very clear to us as to how internally consistent FL/L2 speech should be there before considering it systematic. More specifically, when a student learns an FL, he/she uses a smaller range of styles than the styles that are being used by the native speakers of the language. This is due to the native speakers' ranges of styles which are much more, compared to the L2 learner who has just acquired a few styles and command at his/her reach. Such a person is said to have more styles in his/her native language, which is the L1 they acquired and are familiar with. 6.5.3 Mutual Intelligibility Scholars claim that Interlanguage can, by and large, be used for the sake of communication among the speakers. They can share different functions of communication with natural languages. Linguistically, mutual intelligibility is regarded as a relationship between dialects or languages, in which speakers of different languages can, to some extent, interchange and understand each other without extraordinary effort. Intelligibility among languages could be asymmetric as well. Mutual intelligibility is the inherent property of the Interlanguage which makes them to become members of the human language. The need to establish whether the learners of FL can communicate verbally with other languages other than their native language is put into consideration here. If this is found to be so, then the students are found to be able to share an Interlanguage and can be considered to be efficient. If the students are found not able to communicate with other languages, then they will be considered to possess the non-native grammar that causes them not to have the ability to make the emergence of an Interlanguage native. The need to establish whether a learner in one first language class is able to communicate with and understand another student from another class being taught the first language is crucial. If this is found to be so, then students will have reached the Interlanguage. And if not, then they will be assumed not to having it. Accordingly, if students can understand each other, then they should have an Interlanguage. In case that they cannot, it is obvious that they will not have one. If they had one, they might be able to understand each other. 6.5.4 Backsliding Backsliding is another feature of Interlanguage. All first language teachers are familiar

106 NSOU ? PGELT-8B with the concept of backsliding. It means the linguistic mastery of a certain form in the target language, followed by loss, non-use, or misuse of the form. Selinker argues that backsliding is neither haphazard nor towards the speaker's native language but is toward an Interlanguage norm. He states that backsliding may happen when a L2 learner focuses on the meaning and makes or produces a formerly learnt Interlanguage form. Fossilized forms or structures continue in spite of error correction, explicit grammatical instruction, or explanation; and even if they are eradicated, they might occur again in spontaneous production. Such a phenomenon is called backsliding. In fossilization, no alternative rule of the target language can be available to the learner, whereas, in backsliding, there is always an alternative rule, but because of some contextual and emotional factors, the learners fail to use the right alternative rule. Therefore, scholars assert that the speaker should have intuitions about the correct rule or form, whereas, in the case of fossilization, he may not have that rule or form. This seems to us to imply that backsliding is evidence of a function in Interlanguage that has almost lost its permeability. 6.6 Variable Shapes of Interlanguage The concept of Interlanguage has had a major impact on the field of second language acquisition. Studies on Interlanguage have often focused on the linguistic and psychological aspects of second language acquisition research. The Interlanguage concept is not only important for the development of the internal grammar system of students, but it also applies to other components of language. We also focus on the consequences of the concept for the teachers and their works in the classroom. Before the 1960s, language was not considered to be a mental phenomenon. Like other forms of human behaviour, language was believed to be learnt by the processes of habit formation. A child learns his mother tongue by imitating the sounds and patterns he hears around him. By approval or disapproval, adults reinforce the child's attempts and lead the efforts to the correct forms. Under the influence of cognitive linguistics, this explanation of first language acquisition was severely criticized. Language cannot be verbal behaviour only, since children are able to produce an infinite number of utterances that have never heard before. This creativity is only possible because a child develops a system of rules. A large number of studies have shown that children actually do construct their own rule system, which develops gradually until it corresponds to the system of the adults. There is also evidence to prove that children pass through similar stages of acquiring grammatical rules. Through NSOU ? PGELT-8B 107 the influence of cognitive linguists and first language acquisition research, the notion developed that second language learners, too, could be viewed as actively constructing rules from the data they encounter and that they gradually adopt these rules in the direction of the target language. However wrong and inappropriate learners' sentences may be produced, which in regard to the target language system, are grammatical in their own terms since they are the products of the learner's own language system. This system gradually develops towards the rule-system of the target language. The various shapes of the learner's language competence are called Interlanguage. The term draws attention to the fact that the learners' language system is neither that of his mother tongue nor that of the second language, but contains elements of both. Therefore, errors need not be seen as signs of failure only, but as evidence of the learner's developing system. While the behaviourist approach led to teaching methods that use drills and consider errors as signs of failure, the concept of Interlanguage liberated language teaching and paved the way for communicative teaching methods. Since errors are considered a reflection of the students' temporary language system and therefore a natural part of the learning process, teachers could now use teaching activities that did not call for constant supervision of the student's language. Group work and paired work became suitable means for both first and second language learning. 6.6.1 Developmental Sequence One way we can see systematicity in learner language is in the common developmental sequence followed by learners from different native language backgrounds when they acquire such linguistic structures as questions or negation in English L2 or German L2. For example, videos in Tarone and Swierzbin (2009) show learners of English L2 producing the same stage 3 questions as they speak in unrehearsed communication tasks. In stage 3 questions, these learners start with a question word like "what" or "why" and then use declarative word order (Q + subject + verb + object): Xue: What he is doing? Antonio: Why this guy say, stop? Catrine: Why the bus driver can't stop for him? Though the 3 learners above have different native languages (Chinese, Spanish, and French), they all produce stage 3 questions in English. Notice that stage 3 questions do not appear in English input from native speakers or English grammar books. Yet they

108 NSOU ? PGELT-8B are part of a seemingly universal developmental sequence for second language acquisition of English questions. 6.6.2 Interlanguage Continuum During L2 acquisition, the learner formulates the hypotheses about the system/rules of the target language. The rules are viewed as mental grammars that construct the Interlanguage system. These grammars are permeable. They are exposed to influences both from outside the learner and from the learner's internal processing. This suggests that the learner's performance is variable. These grammars are transitional. The learner changes his grammar from one time to another by adding rules, deleting rules, and restructuring the whole system. Thus, in every stage of learning, there is an Interlanguage. Through the gradual process of checking and rechecking hypotheses, the learner keeps changing his Interlanguage until the target language system is fully acquired/ shaped. This gradual progression naturally implies to an Interlanguage Continuum (Fig. 3). Fig. 3: Interlanguage Continuum as visualized in Interlanguage The above figure (Fig. 3) suggests that Interlanguage is a dynamic phenomenon which can be illustrated with a continuum, of which one end is L1 and the other end is L2. The learner constantly moves along the Interlanguage continuum of which the destination is the complete mastery of the target language. 6.7 Language Devices Interlanguage can proceed by adopting two types of mechanisms: 1. L1 Mechanisms: L2 learners can utilize the same mechanisms as L1 learners adopt during language acquisition:

NSOU ? PGELT-8B 109 (a) Universal Grammar (UG): This device is postulated by Chomsky. Chomsky asserts that there are certain principles that all possible natural human languages have. These principles are biologically determined and specialized for language learning. (b) Latent Language Structure (LLS): This device is a counterpart to Universal Grammar. It was proposed by Eric Lenneberg. The proponent assumes that the child's brain has an innate propensity for language acquisition and that this propensity is lost as maturation takes place. Originally, both theories were associated with L1 acquisition. Their principles were adopted by the researchers of second language acquisition in order to provide explanations for the existence of developmental sequences in Interlanguage and to view L2 acquisition as a natural process. 2. Alternative Mechanisms: L2 learners can use other mechanisms too. (a) Latent Psychological Structure (LPS): This device is postulated by Selinker. He argues that 5% of L2 learners attain mastery in their target language by using the Latent Language Structure (LLS). On the other hand, 95% of L2 learners achieve competence in their target language by using the Latent Psychological Structure (LPS).The Latent Psychological Structure is different from that of the Latent Language Structure with respect to the following facts: (a) It has no direct genetic time table (i.e., not subject to a critical period) (b) It has no direct connection with any grammatical concept (e.g., Universal Grammar) (c) It has no guarantee of activation or realization into particular grammar structures of the L2. (d) Although this device is considered independent, possible overlapping may occur between this structure and other areas of the brain. Within the Latent Psychological Structure there exist several important notions: 6.7.1 Fossilization Selinker recognizes fossilization as an important mechanism of the Latent Psychological Structure. He assumes that many learners will not achieve the total mastery of L2, but will stop somewhere in the middle with their language still affected by errors.

110 NSOU ? PGELT-8B Fossilization can take place at any stage of the learning process, even at a very early age. According to him, out of all the L2 learners, only 5% of them are thoroughly successful as to be able to reach the end of the Interlanguage Continuum. And when the learners stop progressing any further, their Interlanguage is said to have fossilized. However, the successful learner does not fossilize, rather, constantly moves along the Interlanguage continuum. 6.7.2 Psycholinguistic Processes Selinker points out five psycholinguistic processes which determine the fossilized forms: I. Overgeneralization: fossilization due to the use of an L2 rule in those contexts where it is not required. II. Transfer of Training: fossilization due to certain features found in the instruction via which the learner is taught the second language. III. Strategies of Second Language Learning: fossilization due to some approach to the learning of L2 material adopted by the learner. IV. Strategies of Second Language Communication: fossilization due to some approaches used by the learner when communicating with L2 native speakers. V. Language Transfer: fossilization due to L1 influence. The above processes can be visualized through a diagram (Fig. 4) in the following way: Fig. 4: Fossilization-Determining Processes (Adapted from Krzeszowski, 1977:77)

NSOU ? PGELT-8B 111 6.7.3 Human Cognition in Acquisition Researchers believe that developmental sequences in second language acquisition result from the cognitive processes in the human brain. Language processing is a process that all human beings can be expected to use whenever they learn a second language. Research and studies now suggest that it is common for learners to form over generalized rules at first, and also (as we have already seen) that there are developmental sequences that learners can be expected to move through on their own if they are provided with adequate input in the language, the opportunity to use the language to communicate, and corrective feedback from more knowledgeable users of the language. In other words, Corder's (1967) construct of the learner's 'built-in syllabus' has some research supports. 6.8 Strength and Weakness of Interlanguage From the above discussion, it is apparent to us that the interpretation of Interlanguage is partially undertaken by investigating and interpreting the errors produced by the L2 learners. Hence, Error Analysis (EA) has become a prevailing learning method in Interlanguage development. The theory of Interlanguage is significant for a number of reasons: (a) Strengths (a) The study of Interlanguage is systematic and universal by nature. Like the Innate Theory of L1 acquisition, Interlanguage theory considers the learner as an active participator, since he is capable of constructing rules from the data he encounters. (b) The study of Interlanguage helps to determine what the learner already knows at a certain point of time and what he has to be taught when and how in a particular second language teaching programme. (c) The concept of Interlanguage has liberated language teaching methods. It has paved the way for the Communicative Teaching approach. Since errors are considered a natural part of a learning process, teachers now tend to use those teaching activities which do not require constant supervision of the learner's language. Consequently, group work and paired work have become suitable means for language learning these days.

112 NSOU ? PGELT-8B (b) Weakness Despite many positive sides, some of the assumptions of Interlanguage have been criticized for their weaknesses: (a) A major Interlanguage criticism relates to its limited explanatory power. The theory assumes that the linguistic stage that a learner belongs can be predicted by way of analyzing his errors. However, Error Analysis as a mode of inquiry is limited in its scope as it concentrates on what the learner did wrong rather than on what made him successful. It is often impossible to identify the unitary source of an error. (b) Error Analysis gives the learner the required base for improvements of his Interlanguage rules. But researches confirm that too much correction can lead to a lack of motivation and thereby leading many correct utterances to be unnoticed. Thus the learner needs to be restricted to important errors only. (c) The theories of Interlanguage cannot determine how the exact position of the learner in between L1 and L2 will be interpreted. Interlanguage is, by far, the strongest contender amongst the second language learning theories. The theory of Interlanguage was the first major attempt to explain the process of second language learning in terms of mentalist perspectives. After its introduction by Selinker, it has been gradually developed by the hands of numerous researchers. At this time, it has become much refined and also contributed a lot in developing many other theories. Although vague in many points, it has been able to provide significant suggestions for the theories of second language learning. 6.9 Error Analysis Error Analysis (EA) emerged as a reaction to Contrastive Analysis (CA) theory which considered native language interference as the major source of errors in second language learning.

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An error is the use of a word, speech act, or grammatical items in such a way it seems imperfect and significant of incomplete learning.

It is considered

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as a systematic deviation that happens when a learner has not learnt something, and consistently gets it wrong.

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However, the attempts made to put the error into context have always gone

hand in hand with either language learning or second-language acquisition processes. Errors are 'signals' that indicate how an actual learning process
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taking place and that the learner has not yet mastered or shown a well- structured competence in the target language.

All the definitions seemed to stress either on the systematic deviations triggered in the language learning process or its indications of the actual situation of the language learner themselves which will later help the monitor be it an applied linguist or particularly the language teacher to solve the problem respecting one of the approaches. The occurrence of errors doesnot only indicate that the learner has not learned something yet, but also it gives the linguist the idea of whether the teaching method applied was effective or it needs to be changed. 6.9.1 Significance of Errors According to Pit Corder (1976) errors are significant of the following three things: (a)

or she undertakes a systematic analysis,
how far towards that

Third (and in a sense, this is their most important aspect)
they

There have been two schools of thought when it comes to Errors Analysis and the philosophy behind it. (a) The first one, according to Corder (1967), linked the errors commitment with the teaching method arguing that if the teaching method was adequate, the errors would not be committed. (b)

that error correction is something real and the applied linguists cannot do without it no matter what teaching approach they may use. Corder proposed a hypothesis

habits. He argued
that studying student's errors also has immediate practical applications
114 NSOU ? PGELT-8B for foreign language teachers.
Errors
provide necessary

Errors enable him to decide

the information for designing a remedial syllabus or a programme of re- teaching the course. According to the state of the art of errors in language teaching, itis important for teachers to be aware of the basic position that errors, as a natural and indispensable part of the learning process, should neither be tolerated nor corrected excessively. Therefore, the main objective of L2 teaching is to develop the ability of the learner to communicate in the target language. What are certain are that errors are an integral part of learning a second/foreign language; these are natural parts of the learner's gradual movement toward the development of communicative competence, and he/she should be allowed to make certain types of errors which do not greatly affect their communication. It indicates that errors are a part of the learner's language development, a sign of the learner's learning. What is important is that errors can be guided to help the students, language teachers, syllabus designers in acquiring second language acquisition. It is acknowledged that Error Analysis is one of the major important topics of Applied Linguistics and it can be used to promote and improve language teaching strategies in ELT classrooms. What is remarkable in Error Analysis is that the teachers should be familiar with the difference between the first and the target language. 6.9.2 Error and Language Interference Error, which is always a central concern in language teaching, becomes the central concern in audio-lingual approaches to language teaching. The collections of frequently occurring errors already existed. Traditional textbooks had long paid attention to what were felt to be the errors most likely to occur and tried to guard learners against particular pitfalls in phonology, morphology, syntax, and lexis. These areas of special difficulty might derive either from intra-lingual or inter-lingual factors. At the lexical level, for example, intra-lingual lexical difficulties were mooted where minimal formal differences in the foreign language involved major semantic differences (e.g., 'bowl' and 'bowel').On the other hand, inter-lingual lexical difficulties were mooted typically when a form in the foreign language was very similar to a form in the learner's native language, but the meaning was different (e.g., German 'blamieren' and English 'blame'). NSOU ? PGELT-8B 115 For a long time, there was no principled approach to language teaching based on error. In the late1950s and 1960s this situation started to change. The focus shifted very much towards inter-lingual errors rather than intra-lingual ones. The highly influential factor, in this regard, was the publication of Languages in Contact(1953) by Uriel Weinreich. In this book, Weinreich displayed his prodigious knowledge of European languages. He was primarily interested not in classroom language learners, but in the way, languages influence each other when they come in contact. This is the phenomenon of language interference, with the influence usually being from the stronger language to the weaker language. Weinreich's great contribution was to posit a psychological or psycholinguistic explanation for language interference. He suggested that any speaker of two languages will tend to identify sounds, words, structures, and meanings in one language with corresponding elements in the other language, that is to say, speakers of two or more languages are engaged in a process of making 'inter-lingual identifications' (Weinreich 1953: 7). Many speakers of two languages are thus working with a linguistic repertoire which is more extensive than the repertoire of either of the languages individually, but less extensive than the sum of the two repertoires together, because of the process of inter-lingual identification which replaces two distinct forms or meanings from the two languages with a single form or meaning which does service for both. These are instances of 'compound bilinguals', in Weinreich's terms, in contradistinction to 'co-ordinate bilinguals', who in theory at least, have two complete languages separately stored in the brain without any kind of cross-lingual influence operating. For the foreign language learner, the usual direction of the influence will be from the mother tongue to the foreign language. At the phonological level, this will produce typical foreign pronunciations. The German learner of English may, for example, replace the English weak alveolar [r] sound with a German uvular [r] in English. At the level of structures, the German perfekt may be identified with the English present perfect tense, for example, and the learner may use the present perfect when he or she would use the perfekt in German. At the lexical level, English irritatedmay be used to mean the same as German irritiert, book made to correspond semantically to buch, house identified with haus, and so on. In the case of long-standing immigrants, however, the 'new' language may actually begin to influence the mother tongue. Thus, long-standing immigrants are sometimes said to speak their mother tongue with anL2 accent, or to use L2 structures or lexical items when they are using L1, and not just vice versa. Weinreich's differentiated insights into cross-lingual influence became simplified by those applying them to language teaching, who gave them a deterministic turn. Scholars

116 NSOU ? PGELT-8B maintained that the grammatical apparatus programmed into the mind as the first language interferes with the smooth acquisition of the second. The influence of Eric Lenneberg's (1967) Biological Foundations of Language perhaps underlies this observation. Lenneberg suggested that there is a 'critical period' for language acquisition, which ends at puberty, that "foreign accentscannot be overcome easily after puberty" and that "automatic acquisition from mere exposure […] seems to disappear after this age" (Lenneberg 1967: 176). Lenneberg was a neurologist, and his book was concerned with aphasia based on clinical studies, but his totally unsupported observations on foreign language learning were, mysteriously enough, highly influential on language teaching theory and served to strengthen the already prevalent emphasis on error prevention and eradication. 6.9.3 Contrastive Analysis as a Predictor of Error The main idea of contrastive analysis, as propounded by Robert Lado in his book Linguistics Across Cultures(1957), was

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that it is possible to identify the areas of difficulty a particular foreign language will present for native speakers of another language by systematically comparing the two languages and cultures.

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Where the two languages and cultures are similar, learning difficulties will not be expected, where they are different, then learning difficulties are to be expected, and the greater the difference, the greater the degree of expected difficulty.

On the basis of such

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analysis, it was believed, teaching materials could be tailored to the needs of learners of a specific first language.

Lado himself was an English and Spanish bilingual, who was born in America of Spanish parents, grew up in Spain, and then went to college in the USA. He was all too aware of the importance of cultural differences in mastering a foreign language. However, his appeal to compare cultures was not taken up, and in practice contrastive analysis focussed on a surface comparison of languages, starting with the sounds, then the grammar, and finally—and only selectively—the vocabulary. This emphasis reflected the focus of American linguistics at the time, which was still very much under the influence of structuralism as espoused by the great American Structuralist Bloomfield in Language(1933). Structural linguistics

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viewed language as a rule-governed system which could be separated into hierarchically arranged sub-systems, each of which had its own internal patterns and structure.

The lowest level in the hierarchy was phonology, then morphology, then the syntax. The lexicon received scant attention from the Structuralist and the discourse level of language was quite ignored. In NSOU ? PGELT-8B 117 fact, structural linguistics coped best with closed or finite linguistic systems, and, for this reason, deliberately excluded semantics from its description. Bloomfield's (1933: 140) conclusion that "the statement of meanings is, therefore, the weak point in language study, and will remain so until human knowledge advances very far beyond its present state" is often quoted. In the period immediately after World War II, there was renewed interest in language learning and language teaching in the United States, and efforts were made at the University of Michigan to apply the ideas of structural linguistics to language teaching, perhaps most influentially by Charles Fries (1945). The approach to language teaching advocated by the Michigan School laid great emphasis on the principled selection and grading of linguistic items for instruction. It was essentially an analytic, atomistic approach, which took a language apart in order to then put the parts back together again in their logical order during the teaching process, and in this sense, it claimed to be scientific. Lado himself actually studied at the University of Michigan with Fries, and contrastive analysis became the basis for the strict selection and grading of material for teaching which was characteristic of language courses at the time. Fries advocated a bottom-up approach to language learning from phonology to morphology to syntax with the vocabulary being held to a minimum: [...] the chief problem is not at first that of learning vocabulary items. It is, first, the mastery of the sound system[...]second, the mastery of the features of arrangement that constitute the structure of the language. (Fries1945: 3) This Structuralist emphasis of the Michigan School found its expression in audio- lingual language teaching, which sought to drill structural patterns, proceeding from the simple to the complex, while filling the slots in the patterns with a limited number of lexical items and insisting on correct pronunciation (e.g. I brush my teeth with a tooth- brush, I brush my shoes with a shoe-brush, I brush my hair with a hair-brush). The contrastive analysis became associated with behaviourist psychology, which was another separate influence on language teaching, particularly on audio-lingual language teaching, and especially in the United States. Behaviourism

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was a general theory of learning. It viewed learning as habit formation brought about by repeated patterns of stimulus, response, and reinforcement.

For language teaching, this fitted in nicely with the pedagogue's piece of folk wisdom that "practice makes perfect". In other words, learners should be provided with a linguistic stimulus (for example a question to answer, 118 NSOU ? PGELT-8B a sentence to put into the negative form, a word to put into the plural form) and be told whether their answer was right (positive reinforcement) or wrong (negative reinforcement). They should be encouraged to repeat correct forms, and, by careful selection and grading of material, possible mistakes should be minimized by the course designer. If mistakes did occur, they were to be immediately corrected by the teacher so that bad habits were not formed. Particular emphasis was placed on the idea that error was to be avoided at all costs, and the idea that one can learn from one's mistakes found no place in language teaching theory and practice at this time. As time went on, various shortcomings of the contrastive analysis approach became apparent. (a) Although Lado sought to identify areas of language learning difficulty, in practice contrastive analysis was used to predict error. This assumes that error and difficulty can be equated. This may not necessarily be true since language difficulty is a psycholinguistic concept, whereas error is part of language product. Learners may focus a lot of attention on those aspects of the language they perceive as difficult so as not to make mistakes, and may actually make mistakes in areas where they do not perceive great difficulty. These are 'careless mistakes' in traditional language teaching terms. The contrastive analysis does not provide for the possibility that the learner actively sets about the learning task, but rather sees the learner as a passive recipient of language interference operating in a mechanistic fashion outside the learner's control. (b) The contrastive analysis assumed that error derives exclusively from first language interference. Error analysis studies, however, have indicated that certain errors recur among language learners of various L1 backgrounds and seem to be more related to the intrinsic difficulty of the subsystem involved than cross-lingual influence. No matter what your first language is, whether it has prepositions or not, almost certainly find it very difficult to make no mistakes in English prepositions. Similarly, even if your language has the category of verbal aspect, you will find it difficult to make no mistakes in the choice between simple and progressive verb forms in English. These errors, which learners tend to make regardless of their first language background, are termed 'developmental errors'. (c) There have been controversies in the literature concerning what proportion of errors learners make are attributable to first language influence. Contrastive analysis cannot predict these developmental errors. For example, German

119 learners persist for some time in making erroneous choices between 'much' and 'many' despite the fact that German also makes a formal distinction between singular viel and plural viele. This is not predicted by contrastive analysis of English and German. The fact that errors may not tell the whole story about learning difficulty was exemplified with respect to avoidance in a study of relative clauses used by learners from various language backgrounds. It was found that learners whose native languages had (e.g., Persian, Arabic) actually made more, not fewer, errors in relative clauses than those learners whose languages did not have relative clauses (i.e., Japanese, Chinese). However, the Japanese and Chinese learners in the study used fewer relative clauses than Arabic- speaking and Persian-speaking learners. In the case of relative clauses, the learning difficulty which the contrastive hypothesis would predict was manifested in avoidance rather than error, probably because there are various structural alternatives to relative clauses. (d) Other flaws in the predictive power of contrastive analysis have been identified. Not only does contrastive analysis fail to predict some errors, it actually predicts some inter-lingual errors which do not occur. One category of this phenomenon is related to the uni-directionality of some contrastive errors. It is found that differences between English and French may not necessarily predict error both for English learners of French and French learners of English. An example is the position of direct pronoun objects, which are placed before the verb in French (le chienle mange) but after the verb in English (the dog eats it). English learners of French are more likely to say *le chien mange le than French learners of English are likely to say *the dog it eats. This is possibly because English learners of French hear lots of examples of SVO in French (where the object is not a preposition), whereas French learners of English never hear SOV order in English and so are less tempted to follow the word order of their native language. Advanced learners seem to have hunches about which elements of their language are transferable. In a study with advanced Dutch learners of English, it is found that they were more willing to transfer patterns from their native language to English where the meaning was literal and unwilling to do so in idiomatic or metaphorical environments. Also, it is found that advanced German learners unwilling to accept idioms like 'you have a screw loose', precisely because German uses the same metaphor. Learners' knowledge of the general patterns of the foreign language may actually lead them into

120 an error where the foreign language unusually follows the pattern of their mother tongue. Thus, an advanced English-speaking learner of German may produce erroneous plural forms such as *Streikefor Streiks, although the German, in this case, follows the pattern of English plural morphology. The contrastive analysis assumed that errors have only one cause, namely influence from the mother-tongue. However, it has since been found that intra-lingual and inter- lingual factors often combine to produce an error. For example, in the acquisition of English sentence negation all learners, regardless of language background, go through the same stages, and at an early stage all learners will use pre-verbal negation (e.g., no understand). However, Spanish or Italian learners, whose native language has pre-verbal negation, are likely to persist with pre-verbal negation longer than German learners, whose language does not have it. At a later stage of development, all learners will tend to place the negative after the auxiliary. At this stage, however, German learners, under the influence of their L1, which has post-verbal negation, may overgeneralize the English rule of negative placement after auxiliaries and produce post-verb negation with main verbs (e.g., *They come not home), which follows German word order. The contrastive analysis model works best in predicting phonological error. However, errors of morphology, syntax, lexis, and discourse are imperfectly predicted by the contrastive analysis. Above the phonological level, language planning is far more under the control of the learner, who may adopt certain strategies to cope with difficulty, more or less consciously. These include avoidance of difficult forms and simplification of subsystems of the foreign language. Learners may also make informed guesses about a form not yet acquired (inferencing) and, on the basis of such inferences, try things out in the foreign language (hypothesis testing). These hypotheses are likely to be based on knowledge of the foreign language, the mother tongue, and indeed other foreign languages which the learner may know. All this behaviour is ignored by contrastive analysis, which, in keeping with the Structuralist linguistic model which underpins it, refuses to admit the possibility of variegated. 6.9.4 Errors vs. Mistakes Chomsky made a distinguishing explanation of competence and performance on which, later on, the identification of mistakes and errors will be possible, Chomsky stated that we make a fundamental distinction between competence (the speaker-hearer's knowledge of his language) and performance (the actual use of language in concrete

121 situations). In other words,

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errors are thought of as indications of an incomplete learning, and that the speaker

or hearer has not yet accumulated a satisfied language knowledge which can enable them to avoid linguistics misuse. Relating knowledge with competence was significant enough to represent that the competence of the speaker is judged by means of errors that concern the amount of linguistic data he or she has been exposed to, however, a performance which is the actual use of language does not represent the language knowledge that the speaker has.

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According to scholars, people may have the competence to produce an infinitely long sentence but when they actually attempt to use this knowledge (

to 'perform')

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there are many reasons why they restrict the number of adjectives, adverbs, and clauses in any one sentence. The actual state of the speaker

somehow

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involves and influences the speaker's performance by either causing a good performance or mistakes.

Thus, it is quite obvious that there is some kind of interrelationship between competence and performance. Somehow, a speaker can perform well if he or she has had already satisfied linguistic knowledge. As a support to this, Corder mentioned

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that mistakes are of no significance to 'the process of language learning'.

There has been a great deal of discussion in language teaching over errors and related terms of errors among language scholars in recent years. However, every learner makes mistakes, even when speaking his mother tongue. It is mentioned that for a foreign language learner who knows his target language quite well, when he makes mistakes, he has the ability to recognize and to correct them, but sometimes he does not recognize his mistakes. Mistakes are quite different from errors. Error is defined as a lack of a learner's knowledge of the language which he uses. Scholars suggested a distinction between errors at the level of performance from errors at the level of competence. They mentioned that mistakes are errors of performance and unsystematic. They are potentially correctible by their author or speaker. Whereas, errors of competence are errors which reveal the underlying knowledge of the language and they are systematic and part of the transitional competence of the learner. Pit Corder distinguished between 'lapses', 'mistakes', and 'errors'. According to him, errors are divided into two categories: first is the performance category which is comprised of 'lapses' and mistakes, and the second is the competence category which is comprised of 'errors'. Slips of the tongue, false starts, confusion of structures, etc., are termed 'lapses'. In addition to the fact that

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errors differ from lapses and mistakes in that they are breaches of the code, that is, they offend the grammatical rules of the 122

NSOU ? PGELT-8B language and result in 'ungrammatical' and '

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unacceptable' utterances; errors occur because the learner has not internalized the grammar of the second language in the

way that it is required. 6.9.5 Error Analysis Approach Before the rise of error analysis approach, contrastive analysis had been the dominant approach used in dealing and conceptualizing the learners' errors. In the 1950s, this approach had often gone hand in hand with the concept of L1 interference and precisely the inter-lingual effect. It is claimed that the main cause of committing errors in the process of second language learning is the L1, in other words, the linguistic background of the language learners badly affects the production in the target language.

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The contrastive analysis hypothesis claimed that the principal barrier to second language acquisition is the interference of the first language system with the second language system and that a scientific, structural comparison of the two languages in question would

enable people to predict and describe
which are the problems and which are not. Error analysis approach overwhelmed and announced the decline of the Contrastive Analysis which was only effective in phonology. Error Analysis approach developed as a branch of Linguistics in the 1960s and it came to light

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to argue that the mother tongue was not the main and the only source of the errors committed by the learners.

In addition, it is mentioned that the language effect is more complex and these errors can be caused even by the target language itself and by the applied communicative strategies as well as the type and quality of the second language instructions.The aim of error analysis is, therefore, should include the following processes: (a) First, to identify strategies that learners use in language learning, in terms of the approaches and strategies used in both teaching and learning. (b) Second, to try to identify the causes of learners' errors, that is,

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investigating the motives behind committing such errors as the first attempt to eradicate them. (c) Third, to obtain information on common difficulties in Language Learning,

as an aid
to teaching or in the preparation of
the teaching materials. Error analysis in Second Language Acquisition was established in the 1960s. It was an alternative approach

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to contrastive analysis, an approach influenced by behaviourism through which applied linguists sought to use the formal distinctions

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between the learners' first and second languages to predict errors. Error analysis showed that contrastive analysis was unable to predict a great majority of errors, although

it is

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more valuable aspects have been incorporated into the study of language transfer. A key finding of error analysis has been that many learner errors are produced by learners making faulty inferences about the rules of the new language. (a) Error analysts distinguish between errors, which are systematic, and mistakes, which are not. They often seek to develop a typology of errors. (

b) An

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error can be classified according to basic type: omissive, additive, substitutive, or related to word order. They can be classified by how apparent they are: overt errors such as 'I angry'are obvious even out of context, whereas covert errors are evident only in context.

Closely related to this is the classification according to the domain, the breadth of context which the analyst must examine, and the extent, the breadth of the utterance which must be changed in order to fix the error. (c)

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Errors may also be classified according to the level of language: phonological errors, vocabularyorlexicalerrors, syntactic errors, and so on. (d) Errors may be assessed according to the degree to which they interfere with communication:global errors make an utterance difficult to understand, while local errors do not.

In the above example, 'I angry' would be a local error, since the meaning is apparent. From the beginning, error analysis was beset with methodological problems. In particular, the above typologies are problematic. From linguistic data alone, it is often impossible to reliably determine what kind of error a learner is making. Also,

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error analysis can deal effectively only with learner production (i.e., speaking and writing) and not with learner reception (i.e., listening and reading).Furthermore, it cannot account for learner use of communicative strategies such as avoidance,

in which

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learners simply do not use a form with which they are uncomfortable. For

these reasons,

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although error analysis is still used to investigate specific questions in

Second Language Acquisition,

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the quest for an overarching theory of learner errors has largely been

abandoned.
In the mid-1970s, scholars moved on to a more wide-ranging

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approach to learner language, known as Interlanguage. Error analysis is closely related to the study of error treatment in language teaching. Today, the study of errors is

particularly relevant for focus on form teaching methodology.

124 NSOU ? PGELT-8B In Second language Acquisition, error analysis studies the types and causes of language errors. Errors are classified according to the following criteria: ? modality (i.e., level of proficiency in speaking, writing, reading, listening) ? linguistic levels (i.e., pronunciation, grammar, vocabulary, style) ? form (e.g., omission, insertion, substitution) ? type (i.e., systematic errors/errors in competence vs. occasional errors/errors in performance) ? cause (e.g., interference, interlanguage) ? norm vs. system According to Corder, we should apply the following steps in any typical Error Analysis research. (

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a) collecting samples of learner language (b) identifying the errors (

c) describing the errors (d) explaining the errors (e) evaluating/correcting the errors The nature and quantity of errors are likely to vary depending on whether the data consist of natural, spontaneous language use or careful, elicited language use. We distinguish two kinds of elicitation: clinical elicitation and experimental elicitation. The clinical elicitation involves getting the informant to produce data of any sort, for example, by means of the general interview or writing a composition. The experimental elicitation, on the other hand, involves the use of the special instrument to elicit data containing linguistic features such as a series of pictures which had been designed to elicit specific features. 6.9.6 Types of Error

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Linguists have always been attempting to describe the types of errors committed by language learners, and that is exactly the best way to start with, as it helps out the applied linguists to identify where the problem lies.

According to scholars,

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errors take place when the learner changes the surface structure in a particularly systematic manner, thus, the error,

no matter what form and type it is, represents damage at the level of
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the target language production. Errors have been classified into two categories. The Inter- lingual Error and the Intra-lingual Error, those two elements refer respectively to the negative influence of both the speaker's native language and the target language itself.

The two major types of error, coined by the error analysis approach, are the followings: (a) Inter-lingual error: This error is

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made by the learner's linguistic background and native language interference.

It

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is caused by the interference of the native language L1 (

also known as interference, linguistic interference, and cross- linguistic influence), whereby

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the learner tends to use their linguistic knowledge of L1 on some Linguistic features in the target language,

however, it often

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leads to making errors. For example, the incorrect French sentence Elle regarde les ('She sees them'), produced according to the word order of English, instead of the correct French sentence Elle les regarde (Literally, 'She them sees').

It shows that this type of error is aroused by the negative effect of the native language interference. (b) Intra-lingual error: This error is

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committed by the learners when they misuse some target language rules,

considering that the error cause lies within and between the target language itself and the learners' false application of certain target language rules. This
error takes place due to a particular

misuse of a particular rule of the target language. It is, in fact, quite the opposite of Inter- lingual error. It puts the target language into focus, the target language in this perspective is thought of as an error cause. Furthermore, it results from faulty or partial learning of the target language. Thus the intra-lingual error is classified as follow: (i) Overgeneralization: It occurs when the speaker applies a grammatical rule

in cases where it
does not apply. It is caused by the

extension of target language rules to inappropriate context. These kinds of errors have been committed while dealing with regular and irregular verbs, as well as the application of plural forms. E.g. (tooth =tooths rather than teeth) and (he goes = he goed rather than went). (

ii) Simplification: It results

from learners producing simpler linguistic forms than those found in the target language. In other words, learners attempt to be linguistically creative and produce their own poetic sentences/

utterances,

they may actually be successful in doing it, but it is not necessarily the case.

It is mentioned that learners do not have a complex
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system which they could simplify.

This kind of error is committed through both omission and addition of some linguistic elements at the level of either spelling or grammar. (iii) Developmental errors: this kind of error is somehow part of the overgeneralizations. These are results of

a normal pattern of development, such as (come = comed) and (

break = breaked). It indicates that the learner has started developing their linguistic knowledge and fails to reproduce the rules they have lately been exposed to in target language learning. (iv) Induced errors: as known as transfer of training, errors caused by misleading teaching examples, teachers, sometimes, unconditionally, explain a rule without highlighting the exceptions

or the intended message they would want to convey. We can provide an example that occurs at the level of teaching prepositions and particularly 'at' where

the teacher may hold up a box and say 'I am looking at the box', the students may understand that 'at' means '

under', they may later utter '

the cat is at the table' instead of 'the cat is under the table'. (

v)

Errors of avoidance: these errors occur when the learner fails to apply certain target language rules just because they are thought

of to be too difficult. (vi) Errors of overproduction: in the early stages of language learning,

most of the time, beginners overproduce, in such a way, they frequently repeat a particular structure. 6.10 Summing Up We are aware that although interlanguage is systematic, it is also variable. At any one point in time, the interlanguage may show forms from an earlier stage of the interlanguage which has not disappeared completely, as well as emergent forms, which are just starting to appear, often alongside the forms they are to replace and which the learner is on the threshold of acquiring. Also, learners may under particular circumstances (stress, anxiety, fatigue, fear, but also when very relaxed, when their guard is down,
NSOU ? PGELT-8B 127 as it were) 'backslide' into earlier stages of their interlanguage. Finally, it is noted that for most learners the interlanguage will stop short of the attainment of native-speaker norms and will eventually reach a state where it cannot develop any more despite added instruction or input. This putative state is called 'fossilization'. The idea of interlanguage variability is further developed. The concept of 'attentionality continuum' is invoked which argues that the learner's internalized language is best accessed by obtaining production in the 'vernacular style', which is in the mid-range of the continuum. High levels of attention to form 'careful speech, is just as atypical as speech produced where the form is neglected unduly in order to get a message across at all costs. We identify four main stages in learner language development: pre-systematic stage, an emergent stage, a systematic stage, and a post-systematic stage. The pre-systematic stage is characterized by apparently random errors, experimentation, and uninformed guessing. The emergent stage involves internalization of simple rules, some of which may beidentical to those of the target language, but many of which will not be. Backsliding is a feature of this stage, as is U-shaped learning, namely apparently going backward before progressing further. Learners will also avoid structures and topics they cannot cope with. At this stage, learners are not able to correct many of their errors when they are pointed out to them. This changes in the systematic stage. The learner language becomes more internally consistent and also closer to target language norms and learners are more likely to be

As time goes by, they become able to do this even from indirect corrective feedback provided in conversation. In the post-systematic stage, stabilization has been achieved. Learner speech is now erroneous only to a limited extent, the learner can generally express meaning with more or less precision and is more or less fluent and generally intelligible. There is an ability to self-correct. The above is an idealized picture. Firstly, learners may be at different stages in various domains of language at any one time. Secondly, and this is a fundamental criticism of the interlanguage model, which views learner language as governed by a unitary competence, learners have been found to perform quite differently in different situations, with different interlocutors, according to the task they are to perform, in the classroom versus in the L2 community, and so on. Communicative competence has been shown to be something not monolithic, but to consist of various sub-competencies, including linguistic, sociolinguistic, pragmatic, paralinguistic, and strategic competence, at least.
128 NSOU ? PGELT-8B 6.11 Review Questions [1] How does Interlanguage differ from Approximative System, Transitional Competence, and Idiosyncratic Dialect? [2] In language learning, how learner errors are caused? What are the three major processes? [3] What are the major characteristics of Interlanguage? Name them. [4] What is backsliding? How it is important in second language learning? [5] How can you define the interlanguage continuum? [6] What is fossilization? What are the psychological processes involved in fossilization? [7] What are the major strengths and weaknesses of Interlanguage? [8] What is the major significance of errors in Second Language Learning? [9] What is language interference? How does it relate to errors? [10] How do you differentiate between lapses, errors, and mistakes? [11] What are the primary steps of error analysis? [12] What are the types of errors noted why doing error analysis? 6.12 Glossary of Terms Approximative System Hypothesis: According to this hypothesis,

It emphasizes the continual development of language through systematic stages. What a learner learns may undergo modifications and maybe restructured gradually. The main difference between interlanguage and the Approximate System hypothesis lies in the fact that the former believes the learner's language is a phenomenon between the first and second languages (intermediate status), while the latter emphasizes the dynamic essence of the learner's language (transitional and developmental). Compound bilinguals: Compound bilingualism occurs when both parents are bilingual and both parents speak to the child in both languages indiscriminately. The child will grow up to speak both languages effortlessly and without an accent, but

NSOU ? PGELT-8B 129 will never master all the subtleties of either of them. Compound bilinguals, it is thought, do not have an independent grammar for their second language. It is asserted that people can learn a second language in such a way that it will always be dependent on (i.e., compounded to) the first language. A putative example would be the case of a student who is taught an English equivalent for every French word. This student might eventually become a balanced bilingual and his ordinary conversation might become indistinguishable from that of a native Frenchman. Yet it would be asserted by some psycholinguists that this compound bilingual, because of the way he originally learned French, would still be translating into English every time he heard French and translating out of English every time he spoke French. Coordinate bilinguals: It would be those people who learned two languages in separate contexts; therefore, the grammars of their two languages would be completely independent. It is even thought that coordinate bilinguals would have great difficulty in translating because of this separateness of their two languages. He is a person who regularly uses two languages, the second language having been learned independently from the first and within a different contextual environment. The mental representation of knowledge about the two languages is thought to be relatively independent. Idiosyncratic Dialect: The theory of Idiosyncratic dialect, proposed by Pit Corder, maintains that each learner possesses her particular and unique system of language. Language of poems, aphasic speech, and peculiarities of an infant's language learning his mother tongue all fall into this category. A learner's sentences may be well-formed, but idiosyncratic (covert), or maybe superficially ill-formed (overt). If the case is something other than the two conditions, the learner's language will be considered to be non-idiosyncratic, which is an acceptable state. Innateness Theory: The innateness hypothesis is an expression coined by Hilary Putnam to refer to a linguistic theory of language acquisition which holds that at least some knowledge about language exists in humans at birth. Putnam used the expression "the innateness hypothesis" to target linguistic nativism and specifically the views of Noam Chomsky. Facts about the complexity of human language systems, the universality of language acquisition, the facility that children demonstrate in acquiring these systems, and the comparative performance of adults in attempting the same task are all commonly invoked in support.

130 NSOU ? PGELT-8B However, the validity of Chomsky's approach is still debated. Empiricists advocate that language is entirely learned. Some have criticized Chomsky's work, pinpointing problems with his theories while others have proposed new theories to account for language acquisition (with specific differences in terms of language acquisition per se compared to second language acquisition). Mentalist Learning Theory: It emphasizes the role of the mind in language acquisition by arguing that humans are born with an innate and biological capacity to learn languages. This theory was spearheaded by Noam Chomsky, and arose in response to B. F. Skinner's radical behaviourism. The origins of the mentalist learning theory go back to psychology. Although the mentalist learning theory was not designed to have pedagogical implications for second language learning, it has considered language teaching compatible with the theory. Overgeneralization: Overgeneralization is often defined as the learners' own way to make rules of the second language because of their incapability to differentiate between L1 and L2 rules. Overgeneralization is the phenomenon when one overextends

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one rule to cover instances to which that rule does not apply.

Transitional Competence: Pit

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Corder coined the term 'transitional competence' to indicate the essential dynamism and flux of the language learner's evolving system. A learner's errors, according to

Pit

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Corder, represent the discrepancy between the transitional competence of that learner and the target language.

Universal Grammar: Universal grammar, in modern linguistics, is the theory of the genetic component of the language faculty, usually credited to Noam Chomsky. The basic postulate of UG is that a certain set of structural rules are innate to humans, independent of sensory experience. It also argues that the ability to learn grammar is built into the human brain from birth regardless of language 6.13 Books Recommended [1] Adjemian, C. (1976) On the nature of Interlanguage systems. Language Learning, 26(2): 297-320. [2] Bernd, Spillner (1991) Error Analysis. Amsterdam/Philadelphia: Benjamins. [3]

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NSOU ? PGELT-8B 133 Unit 7 Identifying and Remedying Errors in Speech Structure 7.1 Objectives 7.2 Introduction 7.3 Planning for Speech Production 7.4 Classification of Speech Errors 7.5 Linguistic Types of Speech Error 7.5.1 Pronunciation Errors 7.5.2 Morphological Errors 7.5.3 Lexical Errors 7.5.4 Grammatical Errors 7.6 Processes Involved in Speech Error Generation 7.7 Reasons behind Speech Errors 7.8 Procedures Used in Speech Error Analysis 7.9 Principles Considered in Error Correction in Speech 7.10 Remedial Steps in Removing Speech Errors 7.11 Error Correction in EFL Speaking Classroom 7.11.1 Factors in Making Errors in Speech Classroom 7.11.2 How to Correct these Errors in Classroom 7.11.3 Techniques and Strategies used in Error Correction 7.11.4 Self-repair 7.12 Learner's Attitude in Error Correction 7.13 Summing Up 7.14 Review Questions

134 NSOU ? PGELT-8B 7.15 Glossary of Terms 7.16 Books Recommended 7.1 Objectives After going through the unit, you will be able to ? Learn about errors in speech. ? Understand the reasons for making errors. ? Understand how to deal with speech errors of second language learners. ? Know about the principles in error correction. 7.2 Introduction Making errors in speech or writing in first language acquisition, second language learning as well as in foreign language learning is inevitable. The same argument stands true in the case of learning English as a second language (ESL). Therefore, they should not be regarded as a sin on the part of the learners and cannot be forgiven. These errors should be faced and accepted positively as these are the true evidence of a language learning process. In error analysis and error correction methodology, terms like 'mistakes' and 'errors' are considered to be distinctive from each other with unique features. In the literature related to error analysis in language learning, 'mistakes' are considered not to be so serious, unsystematic, irregular, and open for self-correction. On the other hand, 'errors' are treated as more serious issues because these deal with the linguistic competence of the learners rather than their performance. Moreover, errors are considered to be systematic and regular because their occurrence is predictable, and these are not self- corrected because the learners have not been fully successful to internalize the rules of the target language they are learning. Therefore, Errors are supposed to carry high significance to the process of language learning but not mistakes. It has been noted that errors made by second or foreign language learners need more attention and analysis than the mistakes they make. This approach is applied for

NSOU ? PGELT-8B 135 errors found in both speech and writing of the learners. Careful empirical analysis of speech errors is providing linguists with insights into the mechanisms behind the process used in speech production. By analyzing the speech errors made by individual learners as well as in the context of their classroom teachings, teachers learn the underlying mechanisms that occur to produce speech errors and problems in speech production in word formation and verbal communication. In this Unit, all the major issues related to speech errors generated in learning a second language are addressed with necessary discussion and analysis. 7.3 Planning for Speech Production According to scholars, speaking appears to be involved with two broad types of activity: (a) Planning and (b) Execution(Clark &Clark, 1977: 224). Both these activities involve further processes. In simple terms, there are at least five phases in an act of speech production. (a) Discourse plan: Here speakers decide the discourse that they want to take up. For example, telling a story, discussing a topic, etc. (b) Sentence plan: Speakers select the appropriate sentences todevelop and continue with the discourse. (c) Constituent plan: Once the speakers decide sentences, they plan for the constituent. (d) Articulatory program: Speakers put ideas and content sentences into the articulatory program. (e) Final articulation: Speakers finally execute the contents. Several micro-level skills are involved in an act of speech production. These include the followings: produce chunks of the language of different lengths, orally produce differences among phonemes and allophonic variants, produce stress patterns, words in stressed and unstressed positions, rhythmic structure and intonational contours, produce reduced forms of words and phrases, use an adequate number of lexical units in order to accomplish a pragmatic purpose, produce fluent speech at different rates of delivery, monitor own oral production, use various strategical devices (e.g., pauses, fillers, self- correction, backtracking) to enhance the clarity of a message, use grammatical word classes, systems, word order, patterns, rules, and elliptical forms, produce speech in natural constituents in appropriate phrases, pause groups, breath groups, and sentences,

136 NSOU ? PGELT-8B express a particular meaning in different grammatical forms, and use cohesive devices in spoken discourse (Brown 2001: 272). 7.4 Classification of Speech Errors In the studies on speech error, scholars are mainly interested in classifying the kinds of errors which occurred in spontaneous speech. We find different classification schemes and varying terminology. In general, speech errors show a disordering of units in the string, omission of a unit or replacement of a unit, omitted units are replaced by segments, morphemes, or words, and others. One can also classify speech errors into (a) phonemic speech errors (i.e., segmental errors) and (b) non-phonemic speech errors including a meaningless combination of phonemes, morphemes (including affixes and root morphemes), and whole words. After analysis of speech errors, it is found that not all errors are random; rather they are systematic andfall into several categories. According to Butterworth (1981), speech errors can be categorized in the following ways: (a) Plan internal errors. Most of the scholars assumed that the generation of an utterance involves the translation or transduction of an intended thought into articulate speech via a hierarchy of levels of linguistic description - roughly, syntactic structures, intonational patterns, words (or morphemes), sequences of items representing sounds, sequences of motor commands, etc. Generally, it is held that at a given linguistic level there will be a (not necessarily complete) representation of the intended elements. So at a level where words (or morphemes) are represented, errors can lead to the anticipation, perseveration, or transposition of these elements. (b) Alternative plan errors. An intended thought might not have a unique linguistic expression, and thus the translation may lead to two, or more, alternative and equally appropriate plans for linguistic expression. This shows up in the blending of the alternatives. (c) Competing plan errors. These errors are held to be connected in meaning since they satisfy the meaning specification of the competing plans, but are not similar in meaning. 7.5 Linguistic Types of Speech Error The errors that are made by the learners in the process of learning English as a

second language (ESL) are linguistically divided into four broad types. These are pronunciation errors, morphological errors, lexical errors, and grammatical errors. 7.5.1 Pronunciation Errors Several studies suggest that there are more than a thousand different types of speech errors that are committed by learners learning English as a second language. These errors have become the source of investigation and experimentation in search of an explanation of the basic processes that conduct speech production from the basic stage of planning to the finished stage that produces audible speech. A preliminary finding elicited from error observations is that errors occur mainly within the same level of speech production rather than between levels of production. For example, this means in the occurrence of units being exchanged that one phoneme will change with another phoneme, but will not change with a syllable as it is a speech unit existing on a separate level of production. There are nine very common or major types of speech errors that are normally committed by ESL learners (Clark and Clark 1977: 263). Table 1: Nine major types of speech errors (Clark and Clark 1977: 263). No Name of speech errors Example 1 Silent pause Turn on the // heater switch 2 Filled pause Turn on, uh, the heater switch 3 Repetition Turn on the heater/the heater switch 4 False start (unretraced) Turn on the stove/heater switch 5 False start (retraced) Turn on the stove/the heater switch 6 Corrections Turn on the stove switch-I mean the heater switch 7 Interjections Turn on, oh, the heater switch 8 Stutters Turn on the h-h-h heater switch 9 Slip of tongue Turn on the sweeter hitch (a) Silent Pause: Silent pause occurs when the speaker takes a second or more betweenwords. The speaker thinks the next word or forgetting the next word. So,the speaker keeps silent for a second to produce the next word such as turnon the // heater switch.

(b) Filled Pause: The speaker produces speech sounds, and in the speech sound there is agap filled by ah, er, uh, mm, such as turn on, uh, the heater switch. (c) Repetition: Repetition occurs when the speakers produce speech sounds and repeat one or more words before they finish their sentence, such as, turn on the heater/the heater switch. (d) False start (Un-retraced): Un-retraced false start occurs when the speakers are getting wrong in their speech, and they try to repair their sentence by correcting one word or more words, such as, turn on the stove/heater switch. The speakers try to repair the sentence by changing the word and correct the word directly without pause. (e) False Start (Retraced): The speakers correct the word. Before correcting the word the speakers repeat one word or more words, such as, turn on the stove/the heathers witch. (f) Correction: The speakers correct one word or more. Correction is similar to un-retraced, but correction uses explicit correction to correct the word, such as turn on the stove switch-I mean, the heater switch. (g) Interjection: An interjection is a word or expression that occurs in an utterance on its own and expresses a spontaneous feeling or reaction. It is bound by context. Its interpretation is largely dependent on the time and place at which it is uttered. It is also considered as an instance or form of deixis. Although its meaning is fixed (e.g. wow! = surprised), there is also a referencing element which is tied to the situation. (h) Stutters: Stutter occurs when the speakers repeat the same sound rapidly within an utterance, such as, turn on the h-h-h-heater switch. (i) Slip of the Tongue (Freudian slip): Slip of the tongue occurs when the speakers slip in their sounds, syllables, morphs or words, such as, turn on the sweeter hitch instead of turning on the heater switch. Recent studies have also identified some other types of speech errors in both language production and learning English as a second language (ESL). Some of these are summarized below. (a) Phoneme Error: Error is made at the level of a phoneme. It may be called substitution, addition, deletion, or any other type. This error occurs within a word but more frequently occurs between two separate words. The majority

of these phonemic errors are anticipations, in which substitution occurs of a sound that is supposed to occur later in the sentence. In this case, the learners produce the target phoneme earlier than intended and it interferes with the intended original phoneme (e.g., also share → alsho share, sea shanty → she shanty, etc.). (b) Phonemic anticipation error: It is also called perseverance error. The interfering segment precedes the error. The very nature of this error indicates that speech is well planned before it is articulated. Scholars note a difference between perseveration and anticipation error depending on the context of an utterance. If one is speaking a novel sentence, they are more prone to perseverations, whereas anticipations are more common amongst practiced and recited phrases (e.g., walk the beach → walk the beak; Sally gave the boy → Sally gave the goy, etc.) (c) Exchange of two segments: Here the order of sound segments gets changed. These errors have been interpreted as the possible combination of an anticipation and a perseverance (e.g., feed the dog → deed the fog, left hemisphere → heft lemisphere). (d) Spoonerism: Switching of initial sounds of two separate words. It is named after Reverend William Archibald Spooner. E.g., "I saw you fight a liar" in place of "I saw you light a fire". (e) Combination Error: Errors consisted of small segments such as a vowel or a consonant. These individuals segments are combined. As individual segments, two consonants can be transposed. By the addition of a consonant to a word, a cluster can be produced as opposed to an intended single segment (e.g., Fish grotto → Frishgotto, etc.). A cluster is not a single unit in speech production but consists of a sequence of separable segments. (f) Syllable Errors: Syllables are larger than phonemes. They are also units of speech and susceptible to error. It is found that speech errors occur within seven syllables distance between the origin and target syllable. This corresponds and fits with a short-term memory span that allows us to comfortably remember seven consecutive items. If we have two words, each one with an equal number of syllables, the corresponding syllables will be the ones to exchange in the

event of an error. The first syllable of the origin word will replace the first syllable of the target word. Likewise, the final syllable of the origin word will exchange with the final syllable of the target word (e.g., Moran and Fader→ Morer and Fadan). In further support of syllables being a unit of articulation, syllabic errors also occur as blends, substitutions, deletions, and additions (e.g., tremendously→tremenly (deletion of a syllable), shout+yell= shell (blending of syllables)). 7.5.2 Morphological Errors (a) Morpheme-exchange error: Morphemes change places. Morphemes remain in place but are attached to the wrong words. (e.g., "He has already trunked two packs" in place of "He has already packed two trunks"). (b) Deletion error: Deletions or omissions of morphemes leave some linguistic materials out of the frame (e.g., "unamity of opinion" instead of "unanimity of opinion"). (c) Omission error: Similar to deletion, some elements are missed out in speech (e.g., "She can tell me" instead of "She can't tell me"). (d) Shift or transposition error: One speech segment disappears from its appropriate location and appears somewhere else (e.g., "She decide to hits it" in place of "She decides to hit it"). (e) Affix Substitution error: Improper pairing of an affix leads to a word that is impermissible by the rules of English. This evidence supports the hypothesis that affixes are a source of speech error and that they may exist as a separate component of one's lexicon (e.g., He was very productive → he was very productful). 7.5.3 Lexical Errors (a) The wrong choice of word: Learners make an error when they use a wrong word or phrase in a sentence. E.g., "The main differentiate between this two". In this sentence, the speaker selects a verb form of the word (i.e., differentiate), while the sentence needs a noun form (i.e., difference). (b) Lexical selection error: Learners find problems in selecting the correct word (e.g., "He takes a tennis bat" in place of "He takes a tennis racquet").

(c) Word exchange error: A word exchange error is a subcategory of lexical selection errors. Two words are switched. E.g., "I must let the house out of the cat" in place of "I must let the cat out of the house". (d) Lexical blends: More than one item is being considered during an even of speech production. Consequently, the two intended items are fused together to produce a single word (e.g., "perple" in place of "person/people"). (e) Malapropism: The speaker produces the intended word which is semantically inadequate. Malapropism refers to a character from Sheridan's 18 th century play The Rivals; e.g., "The flood damage was so bad they had to evaporate the city" in place of "The flood damage was so bad they had to evacuate the city". (f) Exchange: Exchanges are double shifts. Two linguistic units change places. E.g., "getting your model renosed" in place of "getting your nose remodelled". (g) Addition: Addition is a process of adding extra-linguistic materials in speech. E.g., "We and I" in place of "We". (h) Lexical Collocation: Learners of English as a second language (ESL) as well as English as a foreign language (EFL) have problems with putting or arranging words together in a native speaker-like manner during speech. The lack of collocation competence among ESL and EFL learners has been a crucial issue. Studies refer to the effect of native language transferor interference, inadequate collocation knowledge, and learning strategy use on the prevalence of collocation errors among ESL and EFL learners. 7.5.4 Grammatical Errors (a) Omission of auxiliary in question: If there is a classification of words as a 'verb', the question needs an auxiliary. The auxiliary depends on the subject. It also depends on tense. The example is "how you find the answer?"In this question, there is a word "find". The word includes a verb. The subject in the question is "you". So, the question needs auxiliary "do" to make it a grammatical question. It is missing in the sentence. (b) Omission of a BE verb: In English, every sentence must use a verb. If there is no verb in a sentence, the speaker must use 'BE' verb to make it a grammatical sentence. The example is "He a schoolmaster". There is no BE verb in the sentence. The learner must add 'is' or 'was' to make it a grammatical sentence. The subject is 'He' can change into 'She'. The appropriate form of the verb in the sentence is 'is'.

(c) Addition of a BE verb: Verb or BE verb is used to complete a sentence. In many cases, a sentence consists of a verb; if there is no verb, it can use as BE verb. The example: "This is text describe how to make tea". In this sentence, there is a verb 'describe'. The learner adds another verb (is) to the sentence. This sentence is erroneous because there are two verbs in the sentence ('describe' and 'is'). The second one is needed. (d) Omission of 'do' in a negative sentence: Sentence needs a verb to be a grammatical sentence. In interrogative and negative sentences we need to use an auxiliary verb. The use of an auxiliary verb depends on the subject of a sentence. The example: "If you not know my name". In this sentence, the word 'know' is a verb. To make this negative sentence a valid one, the learners need to use the auxiliary verb 'do' after the word 'you'. (e) Addition of 'do' in question: These are two types of question sentences in English. WH-Question and Yes-No question. The 'yes-no question' uses an auxiliary 'be', and modal as a question word. The learners should choose one of them according to the sentence. Using question words more than once causes error in speech. The example: "Do you can catch the message of the story?"There are two question words in this sentence: 'do' and 'can'. According to the nature of the question, the learner should select one of the two questions that are appropriate to the sentence. There is a modal in the sentence which can be shifted to the first position. So, the learner should not use the auxiliary 'do'. (f) Addition of Preposition: Prepositions (e.g., in, from, on, at, for, etc.) are usedbefore a noun or pronoun to show the place, position, time, method, etc. with relation to other words used in a sentence. The example: "For the student in the behind of class". The learner adds the preposition 'behind' after the noun already having a preposition "of class", which is not necessary. The use of prepositions could be influenced by the speaker's first language. (g) Misordering: Wrong positional use of words can change the meaning of a sentence. It not only changes the meaning of a sentence but also makes the sentence ungrammatical or ill-formed. The example: "Do you know what this is?" The example shows that

position of the BE verb (i.e., 'is') should be immediately after the WH-question 'what'.

(h) Use of V-O Instead of V-ing after certain word: A sentence that starts with a preposition needs to add –ing with the verb that comes after the preposition. However, in many cases, the learners fail to add -ing with the verb. Example: "Before start the lesson today". The use of 'start' after 'before' in the above sentence is not right. It should be "before starting the lesson today". (i) Addition of 'to' after auxiliary: The use of the preposition 'to'after the modal verb 'must' or 'may' is not permitted in English. In most cases, learners, use a preposition after the modal verb 'must'. The example: "You must to use this book". The speaker uses the word 'to' after the word 'must' which is a wrong use. The word 'to'is not necessary here. (j) Wrong choice of a verb: The use of a verb depends on the subject of a sentence. For instance, the subject 'I' uses 'am', 'do', and 'have'. Subject 'he, ''she' and it' use 'is' 'does' and 'has'. Subject 'they', 'we', and 'you' use 'are', 'do' and 'have' as a verb. In the present tense, the 3rd person singular subject uses a verb with the suffix -s or –es at the end of a verb. The plural subject does not use it. The verb also depends on tense. The example: "I has a bicycle". The subject of this sentence is 'I', so the verb should be 'have'. 7.6 Processes Involved in Speech Error Generation The process of speech error is closely related to the process of speech production. Speech errors are done by learners of the first language or second language. Here are several factors that influence the process of speech error. (a) Language transfer: Speech error is caused by language transfer. That is a tendency of learners in transferring language elements such as sound, form, meaning, and even culture of their first language to the language that they are learning. (b) Language transfer learning: The error could be the influence of poor learning provided by the teacher. For example, teachers' explanation which is confusing or unclear can make a student unable to practice the target language correctly. (c) Second language learning strategy: During the process of learning a second language, a learner tries to deploy certain strategies. The learning language strategy essentially consists of transfer, interference, generalization, and simplification.

144 NSOU ? PGELT-8B (d) Communication strategy: It is another causal factor of speech error. The communication strategy used by learners determines the way how learners produce speech in order to communicate with others. For example, someone who uses a conservative style in communicating may produce utterances which are full of doubt. Here his hesitation may appear to be an error. The error may be a mistake in applying the rules of the language that is already mastered. 7.7 Reasons behind Speech Errors There are three types of reasons behind speech errors (Clark and Clark 1977:271). Each type has its own characteristics and role in the process of making errors in speech. (a) Cognitive reason: Learners usually take a longer time to produce sentences which deal with abstract things than concrete ones. The speakers, especially the students, find difficulties when they should make a sentence about the unusual topic, such as advertisement, some of the expressions like congratulation, apologizing, suggestion, etc. Sometimes, the learners should stop or take for a second to think about the words that they will say or keep silent. In the moment of their thought, sometimes the students produce ejective sounds like 'ee', 'em', 'hmm', or the other. (b) Psychological reason: When learners are anxious they become tense and their planning and execution of speech becomes less efficient. The same thing happens when they are bored with a topic and do not find interest and enthusiasm to speak on it. The learners normally try to plan an idea and a sentence much before they produce it. Although they plan a sentence, when they produce it, it sounds different. Learners usually get a slip when they speak too fast or when they become nervous to speak in front of a large gathering. (c) Social reason: Producing a successful speech seems to be difficult for the learners when their conversation takes place in free domains or when they are put in a situation where learners are allowed to interact freely with the people beyond their classroom contexts. In that situation, learners usually fail to produce proper and successful verbal interactions because many extra linguistic aspects that are directly linked with a normal conversation in an open social context are not properly known to the learners. Learners need special training about extra linguistic aspects of speech when they are put into such situations.

NSOU ? PGELT-8B 145 7.8 Procedures Used in Speech Error Analysis (a) Identification of Error: It is the distinction between errors and mistakes. The error occurs because the learners do not know exactly what the correct one is. Mistakes are performance phenomena and regular features of a native speaker's speech, reflecting on the processes of failures that arise as a result of competing plans, memory limitations, lack of orientation, and lack of automaticity. (b) Description of Error: Errors can be described and classified into three types: omission, addition, misformation, and disordering. Omissions

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are characterized by the absence of an item that must appear in a well-formed utterance,			

e.g., Robin a good boy. Additions

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are the opposites of omission, they are characterized by the presence of an item that must not			

appear,
e.g., John stood at the side beside the table. Misformation is

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characterized by the use of the wrong form of the morpheme or			

a word, e.g., The fox eated the chicken. Finally, disordering is
characterized by

84%	**MATCHING BLOCK 95/112**	SA	Rawezh IBRAHIM MA Thesis Last Version.doc (D14858636)
the incorrect placement of a morpheme or group of morphemes in an utterance, e.g., What daddy is doing? (			

c) Explanation of Error: Errors can be classified into two types. The first type is Competence Error. The sources of this error are transfer, intralingual, and unique. The second type is Performance Error (mistake). The sources of these types of errors are processing problems and communication strategies. There is a clear relationship between speech errors and error analysis. In the micro skill levels, there is a statement that produces fluent speech at different rates of delivery. It is related to speech error theory. The other statement in micro skill is the use of grammatical word classes, systems, word order, patterns, rules, and elliptical forms. It is related to error analysis theory. So, the criteria of speech error and error analysis include micro skill levels of speaking. 7.9 Principles Considered in Error Correction in Speech (a) Consider the situation: A teacher has to check if the language situation is an informal situation or a formal one. Is the student speaking extemporaneously or he has time to plan and reflect on it? Who are the participants in the situation—other students or the larger community? All of these considerations

146 NSOU ? PGELT-8B matter in deciding if it is appropriate or not to correct student errors. Even native speakers, actually, sometimes make mistakes like the subject-verb agreement errors when engaged in spontaneous spoken interactions in an informal situation. It is just that nobody really notices their errors. In language teaching, teachers are more attuned to the errors students and non-native learners make as they are looking for them; they assume that native speakers 'know better' and will not make errors. (b) Focus on language as communication: What is the purpose of language: to show how correct and elegant learners can be in production, or is it to communicate a specific message? Unless a learner is a poet, for example, whose business is the beauty of language, and for whom the main purpose might be its beauty, the ultimate goal of language in most cases is to get across a specific message. If the student has achieved that, his production is probably 'good enough', in most cases. (c) Focus on the purpose of correction: Why does a teacher need to correct student error? Is it to show their expertise, to show the students their errors so that they will learn from them? To demonstrate the editing skills of teachers? To show that teachers know more than their students? In most cases, of course, the purpose of correction is to help the students revise their speech and improve their fluency and accent. In order to do this, correction should be limited and focused on specific points for improvement: for example, verb tenses or intonation patterns. If every error is noted, it becomes too overwhelming for the students to begin to know where to improve. (d) Focus on larger or global errors: Which errors should be corrected? Should all student errors be marked? If these are mistakes, instructor should point them out. Again, a teacher should go back to the purpose of correction. If the purpose is to help students improve production, then correction should be limited to one or two areas for students to focus on which are important to overall comprehensibility: for example, student's pattern of run-on sentences, or stress patterns, not a single misspelling or mispronunciation. Isolated issues of misspelling and mispronunciation usually do not detract from overall comprehensibility. The teacher should look for the global problems—problems in verb tense switch, for example, that usually affect the overall comprehensibility of a message.

NSOU ? PGELT-8B 147 (e) Focus on patterns of errors: In addition to considering the seriousness of an error, the teacher should consider the frequency of the error. If the student has a concern with almost always omitting articles ('a', 'an' and 'the'), this is a problem that should be addressed because omitted articles are distracting from the overall message and can affect the overall comprehensibility of a text. (f) Focus on cost-benefit: Are all errors worth the time and trouble to correct? For example, prepositions in English, especially the more abstract ones that do not refer to a literal place, are very difficult to teach as they are idiomatic and dialectal: for example, in American English "I come around" to see a friend; in British English "I come round." Is it 'go down' the street or 'go up' the street? They mean the same thing. If learners mix up these expressions, a teacher should not notice them. So considering the difficulty in learning prepositions, and the overall unimportance of them, it probably is not worth the time investment to learn them. This also goes for trying to 'correct' specific non-native English speech sounds, like the non-English trilled 'r'. It is all right in most cases. (g) Teach students how to self-correct: It is usually not enough for the teacher to just show where the errors are. The students also must know how to correct them, so the teacher should demonstrate for the student how to do this—how to check that the verbs agree with the subject, rather than just making the correction herself, from which the students learn nothing. It is, of course, ultimately the goal for the students to use English independently, which means monitoring and correcting their own language production. (h) Consider student affect: Lastly, the student affect, emotional response, has to be taken into consideration. A paper that comes back covered in red ink accompanied by the teacher's biting comments at the end may very well result in the student giving up the course. The goal is for students to move forward, improving from the place they are. This involves carefully weighing what comments and marks on papers will mean to students how they will be affected by them. Do they know what subject-verb agreement means? Do they know how to correct it? What are the positive aspects of the students' speech production that a teacher can mention and which learners can build on while working on their weaker spots? Marking papers and giving feedback does really involve addressing many aspects and issues of students' needs.

148 NSOU ? PGELT-8B 7.10 Remedial Steps in Removing Speech Errors (a) First language interference: First language interference occurs when the rules from the native language sneak in and affect the second language. Positive interference can actually improve language skills. This occurs when a learner accurately applies rules from his first language that line up correctly with the rules of his second language. Negative interference is what a learner needs to worry about. This occurs when a learner applies rules from his first language that does not match the rules of his second language. This interference can create errors in his second language. Typically, these show up in his speaking and writing when he tries to implement structures from his first language like word order, grammatical gender, or certain verb tenses. And although it is impossible to know everything there is to know about his target language when he first starts learning, he does want to find answers relatively quickly. That means that the best way to avoid these errors is through focused study. A learner must ask himself what is giving him the most trouble and he must make sure to set some time aside to get answers to his questions. As he gets further into his learning, he will have an easier time distinguishing between the rules of his first and second language. (b) Pronunciation: Some sounds in one language do not correspond to sounds in another. A learner may find it difficult to pick up these unfamiliar sounds. For instance, many native Spanish speakers from Latin America struggle to make the 'th' sound. Although they might hear this sound in Spain, the 'th' sound does not naturally occur in Spanish in other regions. Whatever the target language of a learner might be, most native speakers will probably understand what a person means even if he does not pronounce every letter correctly. However, mispronouncing some words can cause confusion and is a clear signal that a learner is not a native speaker. The best way to combat these errors is through listening practice. The more a learner hears the sounds, the clearer they will be. For particularly tricky sounds, a learner might even look for targeted lessons that focus on problem sounds. (c) Grammar: Grammar errors are the bane of any language learners' existence. They are often a result of incomplete or inaccurate studying. For instance, Sanskrit, Latin, Russian, German, and Greek use the case system, which basically means that word endings change depending on each word's role in

the sentence. Since modern English has no equivalent, case systems are often difficult for native English-speakers to grasp. All the words can be the same between sentences, but if one word is in the wrong case, it can completely change the meaning of the sentence. To avoid grammar errors, it is important for learners to study not only grammar rules but also exceptions to these rules. Many languages have irregular verbs or other tricky rules that seem to violate the basic rules of grammar. While a native speaker can adjust to this fairly easily, it can be harder for second language learners. The only way to learn and remember these rules is through careful study. (d) Vocabulary: Vocabulary errors occur when learners lack a clear understanding of specific words. Even if they are experts in grammar rules, not having enough words in their arsenal, or a clear understanding of a term will impede understanding. While circumlocution (i.e., describing the word when one does not know the exact term) is one tactic when a learner is unsure of a word, more vocabulary study is a helpful way to prevent vocabulary errors. To ensure a learner uses vocabulary properly, it is particularly helpful to use resources that show vocabulary in authentic contexts. IT is better to learn new vocabulary in context. Each word should be provided with a definition, associated image, and example sentences. This is a perfect way to see how vocabulary is used in context. (e) Imbalance of skills: Balance is required for language learners. If learners do not know how important each component of language is, they can skip over a part entirely when they study. They must ensure to make reading, writing, speaking, and listening a priority in their target language studies in order to communicate fully. This is especially important if they are at the advanced stages. They can do this by combining several resources or by finding a resource that focuses on a well-rounded education. (f) The wrong language: When learners choose what language to learn, they should not make the decision lightly. They might have had a poor experience trying to learn a language before and need a slight attitude adjustment or some clarification. Some of the errors below might sound familiar to them. Choosing the wrong language can be demotivating and lead one to never meeting his goals. That is why it is important to consider the goals carefully before a learner start his learning adventure. For instance, if a learner is looking to learn a

language for business, he might select a different language than he chooses to learn a language for travel. Motivation is key to language learning success and choosing the right language will keep the experience engaging. A learner must ensure that he selects the right one. (g) Unrealistic expectations: If a learner tried to learn a language before and was unsuccessful, he might have unrealistic expectations. A lot of people expect an immediate result, but this just is not going to happen. Learning a language is a long process. As long as a learner keeps this in mind at the beginning, he can celebrate his successes rather than dwelling on how long it can take. If he expects immediate fluency, he is likely to be disappointed. How long it takes to learn a language will vary based on the difficulty of the language and the skill, focus, and commitment of the learner. (h) Financial/time commitment: A lot of learners are turned off by perceived obstacles. Learning a second language can seem too expensive or too time- consuming. However, this error in thinking can be quickly resolved. There are a plethora of options for language learners. If a learner truly wants to learn a language, he can find the right resource for his needs. There are options for learners on a budget and there are options for time duration. (i) Inability to understand native speakers: The first time a learner listens to a native speaker speaking his target language, he might just have an anxiety attack. This is particularly true if a learner listens without any supportive texts or translations. Language barriers exist, but a learner can overcome them through practice. Natural rates of speech appear significantly slowed the more a learner studies a language. What once seemed impossibly fast will one day feel like a normal pace. (j) Dull resources: Some learners have no idea that there are a variety of resources to choose from for learning a language. They make the mistake of choosing the wrong one. Technology advances every day, which gives a learner an endless supply of resources to choose from. If a learner prefers resources like that old textbook, he has more than one option to choose from. Whatever he chooses, it is important to select his resources carefully. A learner should want resources that exercise his reading, listening, speaking, and writing skills. Also, a learner wants to make sure these resources hold his attention and appeal to him.

7.11 Error Correction in EFL Speaking Classroom Being able to speak the target language within a classroom situation implies that the learner has the ability to function in another language. To master discourse competence learners are encouraged to practice a wide range of speaking activities such as role- plays, debates, information gaps, acting from a script, discussions, problem-solving activities, decision-making activities, quizzes, gapped dialogues, questionnaires, story-telling, and others. But how and when to respond to students' errors in speaking activities is a controversial topic in error correction methodology. Although there is a more tolerant attitude towards student errors in modern methodology, this does not mean that student errors are welcome. There have been questions if we should think error-making processes are the results of ineffective and unsuccessful learning. It has been argued by experts that student errors are the evidence that their learning is actually taking place. Therefore, it is considered that there are many positive feedbacks of error making process. Even then, it is argued that instant and intrusive correction can often be inappropriate since it can have harmful and negative effects on student's will to activate L2. It can interfere with students attempt to talk freely and directly that may result in learner inhibition. It is obvious that all human beings are to some extent inhibited, but those who are shy and have low self-esteem can fail to overcome their speaking problems. They simply may lose the will to experiment with the language. Inadequate and undue correction destroys the natural flow of speaking practice and it can be misleading or debilitative just at the very moment when students try to activate a foreign language. Therefore, it is rational to address the following two questions: (a) to find out the reasons why students make mistakes and errors, and (b) to investigate teacher's methods and ways how to correct errors and to explore their preferences which technique to use while correcting. 7.11.1 Factors in Making Errors in Speech Classroom (a) The first and the most frequent factor of the error-making problem is caused by interference from L1.This is when students transfer features of their native language L1 to the target language L2. This provokes errors mainly in grammar, pronunciation, and vocabulary. Students tend to make errors in subject-verb agreement, word order in the sentence, the use of conditionals, and the use of prepositions. For example, "Exams begin from Monday" instead of "Exams start

152 NSOU ? PGELT-8B on Monday", "He came with the bus" instead of "He came by bus", "He died from cancer" instead of "He died of cancer", "My notebook is different than yours" instead of "My notebook is different from yours". (b) The second factor influencing error occurrence is the complexity of the target language. This is when mislearning takes place and students get distracted by too many variables this is when due to the complex structure of the language students learn new rules and forms only partly. Students tend to make errors in the use of polysemous words, homonyms, phrasal verbs, misuse of the infinitive, the use of an article, etc. E.g., "I object to be treated like this" instead of "Object to being treated", "I often think to change the job instead of, "I think of changing the job", "We can't avoid to make the mistakes" instead of "avoid making", "do you mind to open the door" instead of "mind opening", "he has no difficulty to do this task" instead of "has difficulty in doing", etc. Confusing words such as "make/do", "rise/raise", "lie/lay", "say/tell", "sit/seat" and others also cause a problem for students. (c) The next factor is overgeneralization or developmental error— this is when students learn a grammar rule but then they still apply it incorrectly because they try to apply a recently learnt grammar rule to all forms. E.g. students misuse comparative and superlative forms of adjectives and adverbs. E.g., "This book is more good than that one" instead of "better than", "The more students will confirm this" instead of "most students", "more cleverer than" instead of "cleverer than" etc. Students also use "one time" or "two times" instead of "once" or "twice". (d) Fossilization comes fourth in rating. This happens when faulty forms become so rigid, fixed, and outmoded in students' minds that learners seem to be unable and unwilling to correct them. They keep repeating the same mistakes and find it impossible to learn the correct version. E.g., "She is one of the best girl in our class" instead of "one of the best girls". Herewith, students frequently use a double negative. E.g., "He is not afraid of nobody" instead of "not afraid of anybody", "today morning" instead of "this morning", "today night" instead of "tonight", etc. (e) The lack of speaking practice or communicative competence (trying to explain something but an inability to do so). It is clear that students can produce sentences accurately during the lesson but cannot use them appropriately outside the classroom. At this stage, it is recommended to use as much authentic

NSOU ? PGELT-8B 153 material as possible (e.g., newspapers, magazines, videos, TV, or radio programmes) and enable students to interact with one another and give practice in using the language for real-life communication. (f) Fatigue or carelessness: big tests in the previous class, too many classes, hunger, illness... (g) Feeling of inferiority and low self-esteem: The fear of being ridiculed by peers or teachers if something goes wrong in speech. (h) Inhibition - the lack of confidence in the learner's own abilities, the fear of doing something badly, the fear of making mistakes. Shy students are commonly inhibited. They avoid speaking and prefer to sit in the shadows. (i) The lack of empathy between teachers and learners. This is when understanding between a teacher and a student fails. A student who is not empathized by a teacher at the moment of interaction tends to make errors in speaking. 7.11.2 How to Correct these Errors in Classroom There are a number of reasons why students make mistakes. Several research studies investigating error correction problems suggest some decisions on how to deal with oral errors. (a) The first thing to be done is to identify the kind of mistake. i.e., What kind of error has been made? Is it grammatical, vocabulary choice, or pronunciation? (b) Whether to deal with it or not. At the next stage, the teacher's task is to make a decision to deal with this error or not. There is some evidence that there is no point in trying to correct any and all errors that occur in speaking classrooms. It depends on the objective of the speaking activity - what particular language items should be focused on. Is the activity fluency oriented or accuracy oriented? Feedback on fluency takes the form of performance evaluation including the following criteria: (a) Flow of speaking - useful expressions, a good range of vocabulary, (b) Effort of speaking - ability to produce proficient language, and (c) Speed of speaking - number of hesitations and pauses. Teachers have to decide which errors they are going to work on and ignore others for the time being. E.g., when focusing on structural errors, teachers

154 NSOU ? PGELT-8B should not get sidetracked by pronunciation problems. If teachers start correcting all kinds of errors, they will find that a large part of the lesson was spent on working with 'secondary errors'. (c) Another serious decision a teacher has to make is: When to deal with it? i.e., the timing of fedback. Should errors be responded to immediately i.e., on-the- spot correction or at the end of the communicative activity? i.e., delayed or postponed feedback that can be dealt with the following day when the whole class may be devoted to the feedback session. The most widely accepted attitude towards error correction in fluency-oriented activities is delayed or postponed feedback. Whereas in accuracy-oriented activities immediate feedback or on-the-spot correction is to be done. (d) Who will deal with it? In regard to feedback providers recent theory on teaching methodology supports the position that there can be three options: (a) Self-correction is considered to be the best form of correction. Teachers should encourage students to notice their own errors and to make attempts to correct themselves. (b) Peer correction it encourages cooperation providing a basis for group work or pair work. (c) Teacher correction - errors of learners corrected by teachers. 7.11.3 Techniques and Strategies used in Error Correction How to deal with these errors? Teachers have to make a decision about which verbal and nonverbal techniques to use for error correction. The teachers have to apply techniques and strategies to correct errors. The most widely-spread methods of error- correcting in speaking classrooms are the followings: (1) Echoing teachers echo the word or the phrase or the whole sentence with questioning intonation and stress to give students the hint where exactly the mistake is made. (2) Repetition up to the Error a teacher repeats the sentence up to the error and waits for students to correct it. (3) Hinting/Prompting showing where an error is and giving a clue how to correct it, a teacher gives some hints on how to proceed in correction.

(4) Making a Note of Common Errors a teacher makes notes of typical errors and deals with them in a remedial or feedback session. (5) Nonverbal Ways (as soon as an error occurs, a teacher uses facial expressions to draw student's attention. This is when teachers have a worried look or hand outstretched to 'hold' until the error is corrected. The nonverbal method involves a raised eyebrow, a finger correction, shaking head as well. (6) Telling Them there is an error in the sentence. Who can correct it? (7) Reformulation a teacher reformulates an incorrect version, provides a correct answer, repeats it, and makes an emphasis on it. (8) Recording on Tape a teacher records a student's speech on tape and uses a peer correction method after students have listened to themselves. This is the method which is rarely used by EFL teachers although it is a highly effective alternative way of error correction methods. There are effective strategies to be applied while correcting errors in the speech classroom. However, there are no rules about correcting strategies that could be ideal and universal for all teachers. Therefore, perhaps the best way of correcting speaking activities appropriately and productively is to explore students' feeling and beliefs about it how and when they would like to be corrected. Thus, it is recommended that teachers should become aware of both their and their students' beliefs about error correction. 7.11.4 Self-repair In language learning classrooms, teachers usually tend to correct students' mistakes in the classes themselves. Especially in the intensive reading class and composition class, they may point out any error made by students and patiently tell students why they cannot speak in such a way. Sometimes they may warn students not to make such mistakes again. Although in the oral class, teachers' attention is mainly on the fluency of expression and seldom make corrections on students' errors in production, they almost never notice the role of self-repairs, not to say encouraging students to make self-repairs. Although as a negative feedback, teacher correction plays a part in first language acquisition and prevents fossilization of incorrect linguistic forms in SLA, its effectiveness in foreign language learning and teaching remains open to question in the past decades. So learners are encouraged to develop and make use of the strategy of self-repair. From a pedagogical point of view, self-repair may be regarded as part of an education for autonomous learning. If teaching aims to lead to 'learning how to learn',

then self-repair is a spur in that direction because it encourages responsibility and independence in the learner. Thus, self-repair should be encouraged as a preferred classroom strategy. But how might self-correction be practiced in the classroom? A motivating teaching strategy is to create situations that may encourage the production of self-repairs and give the learners more opportunity to use the target language. The teacher's role in the correction of oral work might be restricted to the identification and collocation of errors, leaving the actual correction as far as possible to peer correction in group work. This is a stage at which independent and appropriate use of dictionaries and grammar can be practiced. What begins as group work can later become pair and individual work. Part of the language learning process might also be to confront learners with oral and written texts containing unidentified errors, which can then be identified and corrected in a group, pair, or individual work. If the students display some problems in self- correction or have difficulty in making correct or appropriate self-repairs, the teacher may provide help and possible explanation. It should be noted that correction should not be at the expense of fluency and willingness to communicate: those criteria must take precedence. Learners should not become 'over users' of monitoring from fear of making mistakes. On the other hand, communication is not only concerned with the transmission of prepositional meaning, it has an effective value as well. The point is that long-term language teaching cannot undervalue a striving for linguistic correctness and pragmatic or cultural appropriateness, because it can often be a factor in social acceptance by native speakers. Their tolerance of error has limits. On one hand, it is a rule that most of the students are deeply influenced by the mighty traditional circumstance of rigid teaching method that pupils are limited to practicing their oral English in class; once they are deprived of a familiar environment and obliged to deal with unsteady social situations, it is an embarrassing phenomenon that they are certain to feel confused, not knowing what to cope with the conversation, which, in turn, makes them nervous and, by all means, causes a lot of speech errors. On the other hand, it is well known that not all teachers are capable of teaching knowledge in a logical way with fluent spoken English and convey ideas in English mixed with the native language of learners, which leads to the continuous exchange of codes and it is another important factor in the occurrence of speech errors.

7.12 Learner's Attitude in Error Correction Students can differ greatly in their attitude to producing spoken English. Some are only interested in developing their fluency at the expense of accuracy while others are so focused on accuracy that they have no fluency. While these are clearly extreme cases, it is not unusual to find students like this in a typical class. In that case, in case of speech error correction, we look at the followings: (a) A basic approach to improving fluency and accuracy In contrast to writing, students have very little processing time when it comes to speaking, so it is hardly surprising that the following things may occur. ? Students don't experiment with the new language presented by the teacher. ? At lower levels, students' output is mostly lexical. ? The more accuracy-focused students test the patience of the listener in the time they take to say something. ? The speech of some very fluent students is littered with errors and therefore may have a negative effect on the listener. Just as with writing we can help students to improve their accuracy and fluency. Teachers can help students improve their fluency by giving guided preparation time for a task. Students receive specific guidance in choosing an appropriate language as well as rehearsal time. Task-based learning research shows that this leads to a greater range of language being used. When it comes to accuracy, research into second language acquisition says that the first stage of improving accuracy is awareness-raising. Namely, raising students' awareness of gaps in their interlanguage. We can do this by using a recording of teachers / higher- level students performing the same task that students have done. We also use awareness- raising exercises to focus on specific linguistic areas in the recording. (b) A way of raising students' awareness of their interlanguage It is a very effective technique for doing this. After an introduction to the subject and some pre-teaching of essential lexis, students are read a text twice. The first time they listen to get the gist of the text. The second time they have to note down the keywords. Then, they work in groups to produce a new version of the text. The emphasis

158 NSOU ? PGELT-8B is on successfully communicating the main points using their English. If they can reproduce the original text, that is great, but it is not essential. The teacher and groups then correct their texts and compare them with the original. The aim is to make students aware of the gaps in their interlanguage. (c) Criteria for dealing with spoken errors In the 'correction' stage, some questions are presented as a guide to deciding whether to let an error go or not. We may ask these questions to decide which are to be considered as the most important. We may question: Does the mistake affect communication? Are we concentrating on accuracy at the moment? Is it really wrong or is it just our imagination? Why did the student make the mistake? Is it the first time the student has spoken for a long time? Could the student react badly to my correction? Have they met this language point in the current lesson? Is it something the students have already met? Is this a mistake that several students are making? Would the mistake irritate someone? (d) Practical techniques for correcting spoken English are the followings: These are on-the-spot correction techniques. These are used for dealing with errors as they occur. ? Using fingers: To highlight an incorrect form or to indicate a word order mistake. ? Gestures: Using hand gestures to indicate the use of the wrong tense. ? Mouthing: It is highly useful with pronunciation errors. A teacher mouths the correct pronunciation without making a sound. For example, when an individual sound is mispronounced or when the word stress is wrong. Of course, it can also be used to correct other spoken errors. ? Reformulation: For example: Student: I went in Scotland Teacher: Oh really, you went to Scotland, did you? Delayed Correction techniques - For example, after a communication activity. ? Noting down errors: Either on an individual basis i.e. focusing on each student's mistakes or for the class as a whole. 'Hot cards', (i.e., individual notes), can be used to focus on recurring mistakes. The student then has a written suggestion of what to work on.

NSOU ? PGELT-8B 159 ? Recording: In addition to recording students (individually, in pairs, etc.) during a speaking task to make them aware of errors that affect communication we can use a technique from Community Language Learning (CLL). Students sit in a circle with a tape recorder in the centre. In monolingual classes, they check with the teacher, who is bilingual, about how to say something in English, then rehearse it and record it. At the end of the lesson, they listen back to the tape and can focus on specific utterances, etc. With higher-level multilingual classes, students take part in a discussion which they have prepared for in advance. When they have something to say they record themselves and then pause the tape. Just as with monolingual classes they can use the teacher as a linguistic resource. At the end of the discussion, students analyze their performance with the teacher. The focus is on improving the quality of what they say and expanding their interlanguage. Although this form of discussion may seem a bit artificial it has two main advantages: (a) Students pay more attention to what they say as they are taking part in a kind of performance (it is being recorded) (b) students not only become more aware of gaps in their spoken English but also can see how their spoken English is improving. 7.13 Summing Up The error seems to be a natural process of language learning. According to scholars, error is considered as an inevitable and positive part of that process. In language learning, errors exist in the skill such as listening, speaking, reading, writing, comprehension, and communication. Moreover, errors can be simple errors or complex errors. The learners who have more knowledge of the rules of English can make less number of errors in their speech. On the other hand, learners with less knowledge of the rules of English will make many errors in their speech. Therefore, the learners must know more of the rules of English to decrease the number of errors and improve their speaking skills. This module deals with errors made in speaking English in ELT. The aim is to describe the planning involved in speech production, classification of speech errors, types of speech error (pronunciation errors, lexical errors, morphological errors, and grammatical errors), the process applied in the generation of speech errors, the reasons behind speech errors, procedures used in speech error analysis, principles considered necessary for error corrections in speech, remedial steps taken in removing speech errors, the process of error correction in EFL speaking classroom, factors responsible for making errors in speaking classroom, the procedures applied correctly these errors in a classroom, the

160 NSOU ? PGELT-8B techniques and strategies used in error correction in the classroom and, finally, the attitude of the learners in the process of error detection and correction. 7.14 Review Questions [1] What are major plans that are executed in speech production? [2] What is the major classification of speech errors? [3] What are the linguistic types of speech errors? Discuss them? [4] What are the major types of pronunciation errors? Elucidate them. [5] Refer to the four major processes involved in speech error generation [6] What are the major reasons behind speech errors? [7] What are the procedures used in speech error analysis? [8] What are the principles considered in error correction in speech? [9] What are the remedial steps used in removing speech errors? [10] Which factors are considered in making errors in speech classrooms? [11] How to correct speech errors in the classroom? [12] What are the techniques and strategies used in error correction? [13] What is the relevance of 'self-repair' in error correction? [14] What is the learner's attitude in error correction? 7.15 Glossary of Terms Circumlocution: It is a phrase that circles around a specific idea with multiple words rather than directly evoking it with fewer and apter words. It is sometimes necessary for communication, but it can also be undesirable. Communication strategy: Communication strategy is a plan to achieve communication objectives. This may apply to internal communications, marketing communications, and public relations. A communication strategy has four major components: communication goals, target audience, communication plan, and communication channels. Deixis: In linguistics, deixis is the use of general words and phrases to refer to a specific time, place, or person in context, e.g., the words tomorrow, there, and they.

NSOU ? PGELT-8B 161 Words are deictic if their semantic meaning is fixed but their denoted meaning varies depending on time and/or place. Homonyms: In linguistics, homonyms, broadly defined, are words which are homographs or homophones, or both. A more restrictive or technical definition sees homonyms as words that are simultaneously homographs and homophones – that is to say, they have identical spelling and pronunciation, whilst maintaining different meanings. Negative Interference: When the influence of the native language leads to errors in the acquisition or use of a target language, it is said that negative transfer or interference occurs. When the influence of the native language leads to an immediate or rapid acquisition or use of the target language, it is called positive transfer or facilitation.Negative transfer (or interference) occurs when differences between the two languages' structures lead to systematic errors in the learning of the second language or to fossilization. Polysemous word: Polysemy is the capacity for a word or phrase to have multiple meanings, usually related by contiguity of meaning within a semantic field. Polysemy is thus distinct from homonymy—or homophony—which is an accidental similarity between two words; while homonymy is a mere linguistic coincidence, polysemy is not. A polysemous word is a word that has different meanings that derive from a common origin; a homograph is a word that has different meanings with unrelated origins. Polysemous words and homographs constitute a known problem for language learners. Self-repair: Research in the second language (L2) acquisition frequently treats self-repair as a process that a learner performs automatically as a result of monitoring and error detection. As such, it has been linked to a number of aspects of language learning, including proficiency level, progress in language acquisition, and monitoring focus and ability. Self-repair behaviour also reveals some other information about the learners, including monitoring preferences, learning strategies, areas of difficulty, and perceptions about both their proficiency level and the target language. Self-repair plays an important role in the language learning process. 7.16 Books Recommended [1] Brown, H. Douglas (2001) Teaching by Principles: An Interactive Approach to Language Pedagogy. New York: Longman

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Fromkin, V.A. (1973) Speech errors as linguistic evidence. The Hague: Mouton [12] Fromkin, V.A. (Ed.) (1980) Errors in linguistic performance: Slips of the tongue, ear, pen, and hand. San Francisco: Academic Press. [13]

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164 NSOU ? PGELT-8B Unit 8 Identifying and Remedying Errors in Writing Structure 8.1 Objectives 8.2 Introduction 8.3 Causes of Errors 8.4 Major Sources of Errors 8.4.1 Interlingual Errors 8.4.2 Intralingual Errors 8.5 Characteristics and Types of Errors in Writing 8.5.1 Errors at the Orthography Level 8.5.2 Errors at the Word Level 8.5.3 Errors at the Morphology Level 8.5.4 Errors at the Sentence level 8.5.5 Errors at the Text Level 8.6 Issues in Correcting Writing Errors 8.7 Correcting Errors in Writing 8.8 Teacher's Role in Error Correction 8.9 Pedagogical Implications 8.10 Summing Up 8.11 Review Questions 8.12 Glossary of Terms 8.13 Books Recommended 8.1 Objectives After going through this unit the learners will be able to: a. understand the sub-skills of writing
NSOU ? PGELT-8B 165 b. understand errors that occur in ESL writing c. classify the types of errors d. use appropriate strategies to remedy the errors e. understand the teacher's role in error correction 8.2 Introduction Among the four basic skills of the English language learning (i.e., reading, listening, speaking, and writing), writing is considered of paramount importance. It is widely used in higher education and occupational fields and many other domains where English is an indispensable medium of information exchange and sharing. Therefore, good writing skill in English is essential for writing assignments, answers, reviews, researches, reports, and many other activities. All these activities require advanced writing skills. But for ESL/ EFL learners, learning to write without errors in English is a challenging (if not impossible) task. In fact, it is a difficult task even for the advanced learners. Learners require knowledge of the language system, adequate vocabulary, skills to put right words together, create a coherent and cohesive piece of writing, embedmany intralinguistic and extralinguistic features and properties into text, and other skills which the learners need to put into practice for effectively expressing their ideas. Errors in English writing of ESL/EFL learners have been studied at different levels of education and in different genres of writing in different countries. Elaborate information of writing errors is essential for improving the quality of writing of learners. Reviews are carried out to identify the most common errors in writing of EFL/ESL learners and to provide adequate remedial supports. Learners commit errors in writingand most of these errors are linked with lexical and grammatical aspects of English, such as wrong use of articles, prepositions, punctuations, spellings, word choice, word formation and sentence formation.Learner errors in writing have been an issue of discussion for a long timeamong linguists, researchers, English language teachers, curriculum developers, and syllabus designers. Some scholars (Corder1982) argue that learners' errors are essential for many purposes: (a) It gives teachers an insight into the progress that learners make toward their goals; (b) It helps researchers to understand the procedures and strategies that learners use for learning the language, and (c) It helps learners to evaluate their own progress in learning the language.
166 NSOU ? PGELT-8B In the process of English language learning and acquisition, errors will occuras errors are inseparable from the process of learning. It implies that when errors occur, actual learning takes place.However, the most important thing is that errors should be analysed carefully as the seeds of second language learning are embedded in learners' errors (Brown, 2000). In those contexts where English is used as a foreign language (EFL), lack of adequate exposure to English can affect the skills of learners and make the language learning process an upheaval task for learners (Lightbrownand Spada 1993). In such a situation, the productive skills (i.e., speaking and writing) are to be affected the most, as there is the least possibility for directcommunication through spoken or written interaction in the society. On the other hand, learners can have some scopes to develop their receptive skills (i.e., reading and listening) through watching news, documentaries, reading books, English newspapers, and magazines. Therefore, it is quite natural that in an ESL/EFL programme, learners are more prone to making errors in their productive skills than in receptive skills. 8.3 Causes of Errors There are three causes of writing errors in ESL/EFL learning, namely, transfer, analogical, and teaching-induced errors. (a) Transfer errors happen at the very beginning of the process of learning the

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second language. It is the interference of the first language into the second language

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native language is the only source of background information in relation to language. Learners refer mostly to their native language and apply the rules of the first language into the second language. (b) Analogical errors occur when

these rules properly into correct situations based on the category or types of rules. (c) Teaching-induced errors are committed when learners make errors in writing due to induced teaching by their teachers. It is mostly caused by wrong strategies and improper text materials used by teachers that steer learners into committing errors. Writing is a crucial component of linguistic performance. Writing right English in educational and professionalsettings is important for many non-native speakers of English. The ESL/EFL learners are required to write in varieties of genres of writing, including business writing, summaries, internship reports, and research proposals. The ability for

NSOU ? PGELT-8B 167 good and correct writing requires sound knowledge of complexities of syntax and morphology, a wide range of vocabulary, good command over the conventional forms, and other means of signalling the relations of texts (Cumming,2001:3). Both ESL and EFL learners find it quite difficult to master all these aspects while trying to write an English text. It is impossible for them not to make errors in writing; but it is possible that they can minimize errors with careful execution of corrective measures. 8.4 Major Sources of Errors Mastering writing skill in English is not a trivial task particularly for those who are learning English as a foreign language (EFL).Most of the EFL learners tend to commit errors in writing regardless of a long period of training in English. In fact, errors are considered important marks of language development in learning. According to scholars (Corder1967), errors made by ESL/EFL learners are significant because they provide researchers evidence to know how language is learned or acquired and to understand the strategies or procedures learners employ in learning the language. Learners' errors are a good register of their current perspectives on the target language. Committing errors is an inevitable event that occurs in human learning, including language. Errors are used to be recognized as undesirable problems which teachers try to prevent. The conception of an error as a negative output of language learning is based on the behaviourist theory of learning. The behaviourist theory, anchoring on Skinner's model, suggests that learning is a habit formation process, resulting from reinforcement. Therefore, the external factors such as teachers' input and exposure to the native speaker environment play important roles in contributing to the learners' achievement in learning the target language. The reward for correct behaviour and the punishment for mistake and error are employed in shaping the verbal behaviour of learners. Recently, however, errors in learning are visualized from a new perspective, as a sign of learning progress. An error is perceived as evidence resulting from the language learning process in which learners use various strategies in learning a new language. Errors refer to an identifiable alteration of grammatical elements of learners presenting the learners' competence in target language. These are viewed as non-native outcomes of learners' inadequate linguistic knowledge. These are

Errors may occur systematically and repeatedly without any notice by learners. These are identifiable by teachers or others 168 NSOU ? PGELT-8B who possess an accurate knowledge of the grammatical system of the target language. Earlier, native language interference was identified as the only source of errors committed by learners. Later studies, however, recognize two major sources of errors: interlingual and intralingual. 8.4.1 Interlingual Errors Interlingual errors are defined as those errors that are caused by interference of native language. These errors are the results of learners' application of the native language elements in their spoken or written performances of the target language (Richards, 1971: 205). It is found to be the most dominant source of errors. When encountered with a new language, learners tend to consciously or unconsciously draw a connection between what they already know and what they do not. They carry over the existing knowledge of their native language to the performance of the target language (Ellis, 1997: 28). In most cases, it is impossible to learn a foreign/second language solely without depending on some linguistic features of the language which has already been acquired. At any rate, the interference can occur in various areas of linguistic components including phonology, morphology, grammar, syntax, lexis, and semantics (Ellis,2008:350).Furthermore, the influence may be measured in a degree to which both native language and target language differ or become similar to each other. The influence is stronger where there are greater differences (Odlin,1989:7).When the linguistic principles of the native language differ more from that of the target language, learners find it difficult to comprehend, and they begin to apply the rules and structures of the native language in their learning process(Krashen, 1981:65). Attempts are made to analyse and describe errors in writing of ESL/EFL learners. It has been found that learners' native language is the main source of errors in writing. These errors are classified according to the existing linguistic taxonomy: orthographic, lexical, morphological, grammatical, semantic, mechanical, and word order. Among them, grammatical and mechanical errors are the most serious and frequent ones. With regard to grammar, errors are noted in the proper use of tense, voice, and modality, word choice, sentence structure, articles and prepositions, modals and auxiliaries, singular and plural forms, inflected and derived verb forms, pronouns, run-on sentences, infinitive/ gerunds, transition, subject-verb agreement, parallel structure, and comparison structures and others. Most of these errors are caused by learners' carelessness and their native language interference. Native language interference also plays a crucial role in making errors in writing texts of different genres (e.g., narrative, descriptive, comparative, analytic, and reflective, etc.).

NSOU ? PGELT-8B 169 8.4.2 Intralingual Errors The intralingual errors refer to those errors that occur because of the ineffective traits of learning such as faulty application of rules and unawareness of the restrictions of rules of the target language (Richards, 1971:206). The intralingual errors are free from native language interference but are led by the target language itself. In the language learning process, these errors normally occur when learners have acquired insufficient knowledge in the target language (Kaweera,2013:13). These are also identified as 'developmental errors' that occur when

It has been noted that many of the errors produced by ESL/EFL learners in writing are the results of learners' incomplete knowledge of the target language. Many studies emphasize overgeneralization, incomplete application of rules, and false analogy as some of the sources of intralingual errors. Studies report many unique types of intralingual errors, such as errors in order of adjectives, use of is/are in a sentence, subject-verb agreement errors,

etc. Many of these errors are caused mainly by overgeneralization, incomplete rule application, omission, and building of false concepts. The insights acquired from possible errors that occurred in ESL/EFL learners' compositions put teachers into a great challenge when they try to alter their English teaching strategies to ESL/EFL learners. 8.5 Characteristics and Types of Errors in Writing In general, the ESL/EFL learners exhibit the following characteristics in errors in writing (Weir, 1988): high frequency of grammatical errors, lack of variety in grammatical structures employed, use of inappropriate vocabulary, use of inappropriate grammatical structures, limited range of vocabulary, poor knowledge in spelling, inadequate understanding of a topic, deficiency in clear self-expression, poor use of punctuation, poor handwriting, and untidiness.The most frequent types of errors committed by EFL/ ESL learners are the followings: (a) Orthography level: Punctuation error, spelling error, incorrect capitalization, etc. (b) Word level: Omission, mis-formation, addition, and mis-ordering of words, wrong use of words, wrong use of articles, prepositions and conjunctions, wrong lexical choice, use of inappropriate vocabulary, limited range of vocabulary, etc.

170 NSOU ? PGELT-8B (d) Morphology level: Wrong verb formation, wrong past tense and present tense formation, wrong inflection and derivation, wrong pluralisation, wrong degree formation, wrong collocation, etc. (e) Sentence level: Wrong word order, wrong sentence structure, wrong subject- verb agreement, wrong question sentence formation, wrong use of Wh-words, limited variety in grammatical structures, inappropriate grammatical structures, etc. (f) Text level: Inadequate understanding of a topic, deficiency in clear self- expression, lack of clarity in expression, insufficient information, lack of logical cohesion in text formation, poor handwriting, untidiness, etc. 8.5.1 Errors at Orthography Level (a) Errors in Spelling Errors in spelling are one of the most common types of errors found in SL learner's writing. Some of the spelling errors identified in each sentence is shown below (Table 1). The examples show the errors in the area specified. In most cases, spelling problems in writing is caused due to confusion with a word of similar spelling. Table 1: Typical spelling errors made by ESL/EFL learners Wrong spelling Right spelling Wrong spelling Right spelling Aducation education buisness business By buy cerreer career Contries countries devolove develop Government government hapened happened higest highest importang important Knowledge knowledge Lifes lives Middle middle morden modern Obsession obsession technologys technologies Yecnologi technology writar Writer Cementary cemetery independant independent Receive receive comitment commitment

NSOU ? PGELT-8B 171 Some spellings come to learners quite easily while others take a longer time to process. Some words in English are spelled the way we say them, which is easy for learners. Learners face real challenge in case of those words that have extra vowels or interchangeable letters that are used unnoticed as they sound natural when learners say them. There are also words in English that are misspelled because learners fail to notice that these words have repeating letters. Findings reveal that learners are often confused with words of similar spelling and different meanings. They also show confusion in spelling while they write. It is inferred that a cohort of learners faces severe challenges in spelling in their writing, which could be due to interference of their mother tongue or limited knowledge in spelling of English words. (b) Errors in Punctuation Misplacement or misuse of punctuation marks is another common type of orthographic error made by ESL/EFL learners. When looking at phrases or even full sentences, it is noted that sometimes learners have misplaced punctuation, or the use of a punctuation mark is not suitable to the tone of a statement. Although some punctuation markers (e.g., periods, exclamation marks, question marks) are easy to use, it is still difficult for learners to decide when to end a sentence or use a comma or a semicolon. Lengthy sentences which are created by misplaced punctuation are difficult to read and comprehend. For instance, the following sentence is wrong because it makes no sense to use a comma after 'the' or 'fox'. Incorrect use: "The, quick brown fox, jumped over the lazy dog." Correct use: "The quick brown fox jumped over the lazy dog." (c) Incorrect capitalization The rules of capitalization in English are quite confusing, especially for ESL/EFL learners. Therefore it is common to see incorrect or missing capitals in ESL writings. In most cases, learners make errors in the use of capital "I", capitalize proper nouns (names of people, places, and organizations), capitalize the first letter of a new sentence, capitalize weekdays, holidays, and months of the year. On the other hand, they capitalize common nouns (e.g., car, pen, school, etc.) which they should not. Wrong use: "This year i will be going to london to study at University. my visa application still has to be accepted but i have been told to expect it to arrive in january."

172 NSOU ? PGELT-8B Correct use: "This year I will be going to London to study at university. My visa application still has to be accepted but I have been told to expect it to arrive in January." 8.5.2 Errors at Word Level (a) Error in plural formation of nouns Many learners demonstrate confusion in using nouns in writing. The main problem is that they fail to differentiate between countable and uncountable nouns. Also, their lack of knowledge in the process of plural formation causes errors in case of countable nouns. They assume that the regular plural suffix '-s' should be applied to countable plural nouns. (a) Internet helps us to connect with our family member (members) or beloved ones who are at the foreign country. (b) It makes life easy, for example shopping online, pay various tax (taxes) online and so on. (c) Most of them who use the Internet probably want to finish their homeworks (homework) assignments, finding new informations (information) and so on. (b) Error in use of preposition The wrong use of prepositions is one of the most common grammatical errors committed by learners, indicating their poor knowledge of prepositions. In many reports produced by learners, prepositions are used interchangeably. Moreover, many learners believe that the use of preposition does not affect the central meaning of their sentences. Therefore, they are not particular about the proper use of prepositions in their texts. Carelessness, on the part of learners, appears to be one of the primary causes of such errors. (a) The percentage of internet penetration clearly increases by (for) the North of America. (b) If it is not given, they will die from (of) hunger. (c) They have to search some information that is related with (to) their findings. (d) By (through) internet, this company can introduce their products and expandbusiness.

(e) We can do other jobs before we want to spend time in (on) the internet. (f) Parents that have kids who is using internet to learn in (at) an early age is a good method. (g) As we can see on (in) the graph, Africa has the lowest percentage among the others. (c) Error in use of adjectives The wrong use of adjectives is noted when learners do not apply the conventional rules for forming correct comparative forms of monosyllabic and disyllabic adjectives. In case of disyllabic adjectives (e.g., easy, busy, etc.) learners normally fail to apply rules for producing comparative and superlative forms correctly. (a) People nowadays prefer using internet which is more easy (easier) than newspapers, magazines and books. (b) This is why North America become busy and busier (busier) each day. (c) Therefore, their technology is far more better (better) than the Indian's. (d) Omission of word The omission is a process of not including certain necessary words in sentences. The ESL/EFL learners often make this kind of error. This error may include omission of articles, verbs, prepositions and other words in texts. It reveals the weakness of learners in writing a text properly. Wrong use: "India is the country that ( ) not have the power …" Correct use: "India is (a) country that (does) not have the power…" (e) Error in collocation Both ESL and EFL learners face problems with putting or arranging words together in a characteristic 'natural' native speaker-like manner during speech and writing. Collocation is concerned with co-occurrence of words (i.e., internal lexical-cum-semantic relationship between a word and co-words) in a sentence. It deals with how a word goes together, relates, or naturally selects the other word to help or define its meaning in a sentence. The lack of collocational competence among many ESL and EFL learners is associated with several factors. The effect of native language transferor interference, inadequate knowledge of collocation in English, interlingual or intralingual transfer, scarcity

in L1 translational equivalents, and learning strategies used are some of the reasons behind collocation errors among ESL and EFL learners (Table 2). Table 2: Examples of collocation errors made by ESL/EFL learners Incorrect Correct Incorrect Correct Collocation Collocation Collocation Collocation doing inspection conduct inspection educational circular educational circle something untoward Something unforeseen copted together co-opted bad peers bad friends biggest drawback biggest set back period duration time limit rolled into one roll in one height quest high demand there-by less thereby less full happy very happy any something something applies tales recount tales anytime movement free movement 8.5.3 Errors at the Morphology Level Morphological error is a common type of error at the early stage of ESL/EFL as rules and contexts of use of language are not fossilized in learners. Morphological errors are formed or made when the morphological aspects of grammar are being tainted or misinformed. Morphology relates to the structure of words; it is the relation on how words are formed and how various forms can fit together. When these rules are wrongly applied by ESL/EFL learners, it implies that they have committed some morphological errors, even though they have prior knowledge pertaining to the rules. There are four major factors due to which ESL/EFL learners make morphological errors: (a) Overgeneralization: SL learners create a similar structure based on experience of the other structures, (b) Ignorance of rules restrictions: SL learners apply the rules of context in a situation that they do not compromise, (c) Incomplete application of rules: SL learners fail to apply the correct forms of rules in an appropriate manner that they have learned, and (d) False concept hypothesis: SL learners make misassumption of the rules they have learned, as they do not fully grasp the morphological rules of English, the target language.

There are at least four major types that affect morphological errors, namely interlingual, intralingual, communication based-strategy, and induced errors. (a) Interlingual error stake place when the mother language of ESL/EFL learners interferes with their learning of a second language. The mother language acts as a negative interference in learning. (b) Intralingual errors happen when interference comes from the second language itself. It is the interference caused within the second language. Some common causes of intralingual errors are overgeneralization, misconceptions, and incomplete rules applications. Table 3: Intralingual and interlingual morphological errors made by ESL/EFL learners Error Correction Morphological Error Intralingual The kitten did not walked The kitten did not walk Inflectional – towards Oscar. towards Oscar. Past tense (-ed) His father walked His father walked Inflectional – hurryiedly. hurriedly. Past tense (-ed) He is ten year-old-boy. He is (a) ten years-old- Inflectional – boy. Plural (s) It is meowing because It is meowing because it Inflectional – it is scaring. is scared. Past tense (-ed) Every afternoon, he at Every afternoon, he (is) Inflectional – home and playing with at home and plays with Third Person kitten. (the) kitten. Singular (s) Anand has broke his leg. Anand has broken his Inflectional – leg. Past participle(-en) Interlingual He want to help that He wanted to help that Inflectional – kitten. kitten. Past tense (-ed) The neighbour was thank The neighbour thanked Inflectional – you because he was him because he (had) Past tense (-ed) recuing a kitten. rescued (the) kitten.

(c) Communication based-strategy errors take place when the linguistic forms are available to learners and but learners fail to avail those rules leading to errors. (d) Induced errors occur when the processes of ESL/EFL learning and teaching are misled. For instance, teachers provide wrong definitions, wrong examples, or wrong explanations during teaching and learning sessions result in misunderstandings among learners. 8.5.4 Errors at the Sentence level (a) Error in subject-verb agreement Among all grammatical errors, error in subject-verb agreement is the most common or prevailing type made by learners in English writing. It is observed that learners make such errors due to their inability in making appropriate subject-verb agreement decisions, indicating their dilemma informing a sentence correctly. The majority of learners face problems in agreement as they cannot make subject and verb agree because verb follows its subject closely and the number of subject is not often clear. They wrongly match singular subject with a plural verb and vice versa. (a) Internet are (is) also used as a social hub such as Facebook, Twitter and sending email to each other. (b) Internet help (helps) us to connect with our family members or beloved ones who are at the foreign country. (c) The Prime Minister ensure (ensures) people well-known in internet for further education and to increase the economic level. (d) The social lifestyle of population also determine (determines) the penetration of internet in a country. (b) Error in use of tense Learners make major errors in the use of tense. It is expected that learners with good knowledge of grammar rules in writing will use correct tenses to explain facts and other details. In case of writing a report, for instance, introduction and conclusion paragraph should reflect the usage of past tense as the text is reporting about an event that has already taken place. However, it is noted that learners often fail to change verbs into past tense form. (a) The country that has internet (was) different in terms of the technology use.

(b) Most of them does not have access to internet. (c) People from North America is already developed a habit. (d) I am wondering how the learner in that country were busy to open book. (e) The country have to be exposes children to the internet. (f) That most people that has using the Internet. (c) Error in use of 'have' The ESL/EFL learners face difficulties in deciding and distinguishing the use of the verb 'have' in a particular context. In some cases, learners over-correct themselves by using 'have' in a redundant way. They also omit them to simplify their tasks or replace them with other forms. This shows that learners have great difficulties in understanding the concept of the verb 'have' and its correct use in a sentence. (a) Counties like India, Bangladesh, and Pakistan has average.... (b) Some population in one countries has internet and some doesn't... (c) The Asia have the highest percentage of population. (d) The North India have less percentage... (e) We can conclude that the largest country that have fast growing... (f) Every countries has many access... (g) A part of population that have internet... (h) The Internet have been a great technology for... (i) Different country have different... (j) In Indian states, they has 30% of population... 8.5.5 Errors at the Text Level A 'usage error' is a phenomenon when a word or a string of words in a sentence is grammatically possible but not usually accepted in Standard English. Hence native speakers rarely make usage errors, but ESL/EFL learners very often do. Such errors frequently occur in ESL/EFL learners' work when they look up a word in their own language and select a wrong English equivalent for the meaning they wish to express. Moreover, their failure to use English dictionary can result in this type of error.

(a) It is important to control (i.e. check) the results carefully. (b) The dictator was thrown over (i.e., overthrown) in a people's revolt. The 'usage error' in larger passages of writing is often the consequence of an attempt to render word-for-word into English from the mental version that ESL/EFL learners have in their native language. It is such kinds of errors in a learner's work that can make it difficult to understand what meaning is being conveyed. Usage errors, like grammar errors, are not particularly susceptible to removal by direct correction. Like grammar errors, they eventually disappear, particularly if learners read extensively in English. Teachers should alert ESL/EFL learners to usage errors in the way they convey a meaning that is common or integral to the subject. Learners' productions are inherently variable and this variability is evident in the errors they make. Analyses of written texts of SL learners reflect on the issues of complexity, fluency, and accuracy in written productions of English texts. Variability in learner's texts is largely systematic. Hence, there is a need to investigate written texts of SL learners to see the different kinds of errors and variations in their writings. This may assist teachers in finding the best ways for overcoming problematic areas in learners' writings. 8.6 Issues in Correcting Writing Errors How to improve ESL/EFL learner's ability in writing in English in general and in academic English writing in particular? This is an important question because both formal and academic writings appear to be a problematic area for many ESL/EFL learners. There are many ideas, views, and opinions relating to this problem. The issues concerned with improvements of ESL/EFL teaching are considered in two ways: (a) steps may be taken to deal with errors of individual learners (i.e. individual writing courses), and (b) steps may be taken to deal with the overall ESL/EFL teaching programme. In both cases, it includes more attention to the academic and personal problems of learners, more time devoted to individual learners, revision of writing courses, modification of teaching materials, collaboration among language instructors, adaptation of common approaches, application of follow-up methods, implementation of assessment methods on learner's progress and many such activities. (a) The aims, objectives, and outcomes of each course is to be specified. The writing courses should provide scopes for extensive practice in the process of writing. It should expand learners' awareness of different kinds of writing (e.g.,

descriptive, narrative, argumentative, creative writing, etc.), and enable learners to be grammatically accurate while writing on a variety of topics and subject matters. Also, there should be provision and focus on planning, drafting, correcting and redrafting of different genres of writing. (b) At an early stage of a writing course, learners are engaged in writing of a few paragraphs. They are taught to work on sentences and combination of sentences. They are taught to pay special attention to punctuation and spelling. They also work on discovery or creation of ideas and organizing them into paragraphs showing clear topics, developmental points, and conclusions. The writing activities may include paragraph writing, note-taking, answering questions, completing forms, report writing, letter writing, giving instructions, writing invitations, writing complaints, and replies to letters. The cognitive functions involved in writing activities may be specified as to draw conclusions, summarize, classify, compare, contrast, describe, answer questions, generalize, interpret, define, illustrate, exemplify, demonstrate, conclude, infer, prove, select, disapprove, approve, etc. (Wilkins 1976). The existing courses should show a gradual progression from writing paragraphs to writing three-paragraph essays to writing full essays to writing a seminar paper. (c) The method of teaching writing in English in many countries, including India, is mostly traditional in nature. Learners are first instructed a mode of written discourse; then they are handed over a topic and asked to write about it using rhetorical modes that have been taught to them. The instructor checks learners' drafts and learners are asked to recopy the draft including teachers' corrections. In most cases, learners in writing activities are not just learners; they are group members, participants, text checkers, reviewers, commentators, and inquirers. (d) The process of writing a piece of text is mostly 'cyclic' in nature. Learners start with a topic for writing. The first stage is a 'prewrite' stage which includes reading, research, discussion, web searching, planning, and listing points for writing. The second stage is 'first draft' where learners just have to write (i.e., to put their thoughts on a piece of paper). Here they should not worry about the conventions of writing. The third stage is 'revision'. In order to improve the quality of a piece of writing, learners can make changes in words in a text. The fourth stage is 'editing', where learners are to edit their works by consulting dictionaries and other resources. They can do 'peer-editing' also. They are free to edit their works over and over again. The fifth stage is 'final

180 NSOU ? PGELT-8B draft' when they prepare a text for presentation. The final stage is 'presentation' when they present a text to instructor for review, assessment and correction. This stage might take learners back to the first stage of the process. (e) Most of the existing writing courses that are designed to teach learners writing as a separate subject typically focus on fixing grammatical problems at sentence level. As a result of this, they invariably neglect to link the writing instructions with authentic content area writing assignments that ESL/EFL learners encounter in their studies. Such negligence leads scholars to argue for introducing 'integrated teaching' (e.g., combination of vocabulary, grammar, reading, writing, discourse, etc.), which is believed to improve learners' writing skills more. Modern scholars see both reading and writing as two sides of the same process. Reading is reception of a message transmitted through written words while writing is transmission of a message through written words. It is believed that integrated reading and writing methods can be more useful for effective language teaching where improvement in proficiency level is clearly discernible. It is always important to show learners how to use readings as a useful method in order to improve the quality of their own writing. (f) While new insights into composing processes are important, grammar is indispensable. Learners need to focus more on grammar when it relates to their communicative needs and experiences (Savignon, 1993:43). Novice writers cannot write correctly just by following the processes alone. They should be explicitly told why a particular text is better composed than the other. They should be helped to develop their ability to evaluate their own writings and to correct their errors. Error analysis as a learning tool helps learners identify grammatical errors in their own and other learners' writing samples. Self- correction as well as peer-correction encourage the active role of learners and promote cooperative learning. Involving learners in their own writing assessment is highly motivating and it increases learner's involvement in an academic exercise. (g) Treatment of errors is another big issue. In most cases, tactful correction of learners' writing is essential (Ferris, 2002). It is helpful to have different strategies when responding to errors found in learners' writing. The learners' errors, which are repetitive in nature, may be put as samples on the board and learners should be asked to correct errors. Error analysis can be a core event in a writing class. If learners are not given credit for their efforts and no feedback is given

NSOU ? PGELT-8B 181 to learners, their intrinsic motivation will begin to decrease (Lile, 2002: 11). They should always be encouraged to write and express themselves on subjects of their interest. They need to know that the writing process is a difficult job and through practice only they can rectify their errors. Teachers should help learners gain confidence in writing and this help may take learners from a state of insecurity to a stage of success (Cimcoz, 1999: 2). (h) The text materials have to be selected and approved carefully keeping in mind the nature and goal of a writing course as well as the requirement of the course. This is important because textbooks systematize linear methods to teach processes of sentence building, paragraphing, and standard, rhetorical academic modes of writing. Moreover, textbooks should not be culturally inappropriate and writing models should not be outside of most of the learners' knowledge. Before the introduction of the writing course, a course outline should be handed over to learners. The course outline should include necessary information regarding course description, textbooks to be used, working requirements, course timetable, assessment, examinations and marking schemes. Besides textbooks, extra study materials from various sources may be included to help in teaching the writing skills. (i) When writing is limited only to writing courses, learners get insufficient practical experience in writing. To overcome this limitation, writing exercises should be encouraged and assessed as parts of the whole ESL/EFL course. Different types of writing activities are important for teaching writing skills. Since the only way to learn good writing is to write more, learners should write something every day based on different types of writing tasks. Both free and controlled writing activities can be developed and adopted at different stages of a writing lesson. A good way of teaching writing is through literature, which combines entertainment and education as well as provides learners an opportunity to appreciate the language they are learning. All essential elements of English language learning (i.e., grammar, subject-verb agreement, punctuation, tenses, parts of speech, usage, meaning, collocation, etc.) can be effectively taught through literature as literature provides interesting and lively examples of such essential elements and their variations. (j) It is always helpful to encourage learners to use different activities and strategies to improve their writing skills. They may be encouraged to keep journals, have pen-friends, keep copies of everything they write, use word processors, etc.

182 NSOU ? PGELT-8B (Ellis and Sinclair 1991: 106). In fact, using a computer as a tool for teaching writing skills is a very popular method. There are many things in a computer than simply word processing software. If learners do not use it, they missout on some exciting and valuable ways of learning the writing skill. Computers can be used to teach writing effectively in many different ways (e.g., word processing tool for writing and revising a text, e-mail for peer response, journal paper writing, online class discussion, and communication). The implementation of this process requires teachers to be equipped with frequent writing exercises and spend more time checking, marking, and giving feedback to learners. (k) Since writing is an extension of a complex thought process (a cognitive operation), it is sensible to publish periodicals and magazines with texts written by learners. Also, writing competitions may be arranged to hone up the skill of learners. Internet resources may be used based on situations to train learners about various finer aspects of writing. A library with books, periodicals, and magazines on many subjects of interest of learners can contribute to developing love for reading—a fundamental prerequisite for developing good writing skills. (l) Studies reveal that learners make use of various strategies (e.g., simplification, paraphrasing, overgeneralization, hypercorrection, avoidance, switching topics and giving up message, Interlingual transfer, intralingual transfer, etc.) while they are engaged in writing. Learning all these strategies is quite important for learners and a teacher has to oversee that learners develop these abilities in writing. Learning to write is a gradual process which begins with simple copying and ending with free expression. Under the guidance of a teacher, learners can be trained systematically through several stages of writing exercises. However, they have to be careful since 'strategies' and 'processes' are not the same thing, and there always lies a gap between a surface structure and an intended meaning. (m) There is no perfect method which is going to be a 'whole method' to answer all the unsolved questions. There are advantages and disadvantages of each approach or method. In order to design a syllabus for teaching writing in ESL/ EFL courses, it is necessary to identify the course consumers, their needs, abilities, conceptual-cum-intellectual levels, and motivation. Teachers are free to use different approaches depending on the need of learners. They may mix approaches to see their learners' reactions and levels of intake. There is no

NSOU ? PGELT-8B 183 perfect method for teaching writing skills. However, the highly recommended way to teach learners to write is to get them to read and write then write and read and revise and rewrite and edit again and again, drafting and re-drafting, self-correction, and how to employ strategies of making comparisons within their own use of language to develop fluent writing. (n) Motivation and attitude are important factors in all learning processes. Motivation is the key to all learning. Academic achievement is more a product of appropriate placement of priorities and responsible behaviour than of intelligence. As learners progress, the correlation between their attitudes and their achievement increases. A teacher can do a lot to improve learners' motivation and his effort is an essential part of his teaching profession. Learners' high expectations for a higher grade may negatively affect learners' motivation. Although developing test procedures for valid and reliable evaluation and assessment is significantly important, it does very little to motivate learners to continue learning if their perceived levels of performance are not compatible with those of their teachers. Therefore teachers must look into raising learners' awareness of their abilities. (o) Motivation and attitude are not only related to learners, these are also related to teachers. If learners are motivated to learn but teachers are not motivated to teach, the result will be the same—disappointment on the part of learners and loss of their interest. In the end, there will be no actual learning. The task of teaching writing skill needs devoted teachers because they need to spend more time on identifying and correcting writing errors made by learners. They also need to devote more time to remedial exercises sacrificing more central issues (e.g., overall organization, cohesion, coherence, clarity of meaning) of text writing. (p) English writing can be a difficult task if learners do not make use of many English language writing resources that are available to help them. Learners should be encouraged to use dictionaries, style guides, spelling checking, verification of writing by fellow learners, and of course by their English language teachers. 8.7 Correcting Errors in Writing When it comes to error correction, it relates to dealing with a teacher's reaction to

184 NSOU ? PGELT-8B a learner's piece of writing. It inevitably means that there will be some disagreement among teachers about what, when, and how to correct errors. Therefore, it is necessary to highlight some key areas relating to error correction: attitudes to error correction, categorizing errors in writing, model for correcting errors in writing, role of planning in error correction, and practical ideas applied for correcting errors in writing. (a) Attitudes to error correction: Attitudes to error correction vary not only among teachers but also among learners. A teacher may consider the fact that English is the second language of learners, and therefore, greater emphasis should be placed on correctness in writing. In the 1960s, a teacher used to follow the Audio-Lingual Method adopted in behaviourist approach to errors. At present, teachers follow the Natural Approach influenced by second language acquisition theory and highlight psychological effects of error correction on learners. Teachers have not only to consider age and learning stage, but also approach of learners to learning. Some learners are risk-takers, while others write something if they are sure it is correct. Being a risk-taker is positive as it leads to greater fluency, but they may be more concerned with fluency at the expense of accuracy. Some learners may take time to produce a piece of writing as they constantly revise what they have written, while others do it as fast as possible without any planning or editing. (b) Categorizing errors in writing: A teacher can categorize an error by reasonsof its production or by its linguistic type. An error is a result of a random guess (pre-systematic). It is produced while testing out hypotheses (systematic). It is a lapse or a mistake (caused by carelessness, fatigue, etc.) (post-systematic). To be sure about the type of error produced by a learner one has to know where the learner's interlanguage is. He can classify errors as productive (written) and receptive (faulty understanding). Alternatively, he can also classify errors as orthographic error, lexical error, syntactic error, interpretive error, pragmatic error, etc. (c) Model for correcting errors in writing: When writing, learners have a chance to rephrase or clarify what they are writing. Their message must be clear. Written errors are less tolerated than spoken errors outside the classroom. While correcting writing errors, a teacher has to look at the following properties: comprehensibility of writing, sense of coherence, effect of the overall message, instance of communication breakdown, treatment of topic, syntax and word use, level of accuracy, etc.

NSOU ? PGELT-8B 185 (d) Role of planning in error correction: Giving learners time to plan before they start writing not only results in a wider range of language being used, it also helps learners to avoid some of the following errors: inappropriate layout, no paragraphs, lack of cohesion, inappropriate style, etc. Whichever style of plan they may adopt, these issues help learners to consider the following issues in writing: theme of writing, type of layout, amount of information to be included, number of paragraphs required, kind of grammar, and vocabulary to be used, etc. (e) Practical techniques/ideas for correcting writing: It is necessary to train learners to edit their texts. Even though they invest time in doing a writing task, learners often do not spend much time checking their writing. To develop editing skills of learners, teachers have to focus on key errors without individual learners losing face. It is difficult to decide on what and how much to correct in a learner's piece of writing. Learners can develop a negative attitude towards writing because their teacher corrects all their errors or if the teacher only corrects a few, they might feel that the teacher has not spent sufficient time looking at their works. 8.8. Teacher's Role in Error Correction Analysis of learner's errors reveals that many ESL/EFL learners have a poor command of the English language. Errors are expected in the process of learning and it is very important to identify causes behind such occurrences. In most cases, errors occurred from overgeneralization and ignorance of restrictions in the use of rules. In this context, it becomes relevant to see EFL/ESL teachers help learners to produce better writing by understanding learner's weaknesses in writing. (a) Teachers can modify their teaching strategies and styles based on learner's needs or writing errors. Since learners make grammatical errors in writing due to their inadequate grammatical knowledge, it suggests that teachers take some initiative to enhance learner's writing, specifically by providing feedback after marking their texts and asking learners to rewrite texts after corrections. (b) Teachers can integrate grammar instructions with writing instructions. They should use grammar terms that make sense to learners. By incorporating grammar terms naturally into the processes of editing, revising, and proofreading, teachers help learners understand and apply grammar purposefully to their own writing.

186 NSOU ? PGELT-8B (c) Teachers can define strategies and engage learners in production of new kinds of texts such as writing conferences, partnership writing, grammar mini-lessons, and peer response groups, situational texts, and others. These are valuable methods for integrating grammar into writing instructions. It is a useful possibility for teachers to employ new strategies to assist learners in applying grammatical concepts to acquire good writing skills. (d) It is not enough to learn only the language skills to be able to write accurately and fluently. The EFL/ESL instructors may slow down the process of teaching writing skills to analyse what is happening around them and specify what first- language users take for granted. Therefore, learners, who are still learning the processes of thinking for writing, require help from teachers to structure and organize their ideas. Teachers need to apply strategies of persuasion in order to develop writing skills. They should develop models which consist of three phases: (a) teacher encourages oral activities by brainstorming for ideas on a particular theme; (b) provides learners with some frameworks to help them organize their ideas, and (c) corrects writing errors and points out flaws in organizing ideas (Chakravarty and Gautam 2000:24). (e) Teachers cannot expect weak learners to improve simply by equipping them with strategies of good writing. Teachers need to explore ways of scaffolding learners' learning and using knowledge of language to guide them towards a conscious understanding of target genres and the ways language creates meanings in context (Hyland, 2003: 21). Language learning occurs most effectively as part of an 'interactive cycle of teaching and learning' which includes modelling of a target text by a teacher, co-production of an instance of a target text by teacher and learner (scaffolding), and finally independent production of a target text by learners (Feez, 2002: 64-65). (f) The ESL/EFL teachers play the most persuasive role in teaching writing skills to learners. They should remember that writing is an individual effort and skill, therefore, their role is to share in the process by offering constructive criticism and correcting errors. An adequate in-class explanation is needed so that learners can understand what is expected from them. In an ESL/EFL programme, especially at the beginning stage, a teacher should not be only a 'writing teacher' but also an ESL/EFL teacher because a teacher has to constantly go back and revise skills which have already been taught to learners. The skill of writing can be further enhanced by activities that involve pair work and group work in writing exercises.

NSOU ? PGELT-8B 187 (g) In reality, learners seem never to stop making errors in writing in EFL/ESL classes in spite of all efforts made by their teachers. It is too difficult to bridge the gap between 'skill getting' and 'skill using' because of the restrictions imposed by formal classroom environment. To overcome this situation, an ESL/ EFL classroom should be a place where learners enjoy the merit of sharing work-in-progress with their fellow members in the classroom trying to communicate through writing. It is the duty of a teacher to bridge the gap between linguistic competence and communicative competence of learners (Revell, 1979). 8.9 Pedagogical Implications Some pedagogical implications are drawn from the discussions presented above. First of all, errors made by learners can be useful signs of learners' progress in their language learning process. Errors can be used in checking what has been learnt and what has been missed by learners. The writing instructors can identify the language developmental stage of ESL/EFL learners based on errors they commit in their productions of writing; so they can prepare teaching materials and revise their teaching strategies accordingly. Secondly, present discussion provides ESL/EFL instructors necessary information about the areas of linguistic difficulties which ESL/EFL learners face in learning writing. More specifically, instructors clearly realize that grammar is still a problematic area for many ESL/EFL learners. In ESL/EFL writing classrooms, limited knowledge of grammar causes problems for effective writing. Being aware of the linguistic elements of difficulties can help instructors to figure out ways to overcome such problems. Finally, instructors should pay attention to the interference of learners' native language. Understanding the influences of learners' native language that hinder ESL/EFL learners may allow writing instructors to mark their teaching that helps learners to overcome their all learning problems. Future research should focus on exploring particular and effective ways to lessen the load of errors in writing influenced by learners' native language. Findings of future research should assist ESL/EFL learners in acculturating themselves into new linguistic forms they are learning without depending on their native language. 8.10 Summing Up Writing is a productive skill. It is one of the most difficult and therefore challenging tasks in an ESL/EFL programme. It is especially difficult for ESL/EFL learners because

188 NSOU ? PGELT-8B they are expected to write in such a manner that can demonstrate their abilities in organizing content, use correct words and sentences, exhibit coherence in text formation, carry required amount of data and information, and suitable to a particular area of thought. Also, they are supposed to address the correct audience as well as demonstrate their good linguistic abilities in the use of vocabulary, punctuation, spelling, grammar, etc. The level of difficulty is increased by learners' psychological processes, which also create hurdles in the whole process of writing. The problem is further complicated with the issues of subsequent verification, checking, assessment, and evaluation by peers and teachers. The discussions presented above show that writing errors that are made by learners are more or less systematic, classifiable, and pattern-based. This implies that both teachers and learners must see errors as useful cues for understanding and solving accuracy problems in English writing courses. The responsibility of a teacher is to adopt, modify or develop remedial procedures that can elevate learners' level of proficiency as well as minimize their errors in writing. Teachers should find out some easy and useful methods to deliver lessons to learners. This is, however, a tough task as there is no single method which is complete and holistic enough to be the best method. Teachers can apply different methods that are suitable for learners' needs, interests, and abilities. Grammar rules are essential for helping learners realize their errors that result from wrong analogy with their native languages and overgeneralization. Learners should be always encouraged to do remedial exercises. The ability to communicate properly cannot be fulfilled unless the grammar of English becomes a part of the competence of learners. Grammar consists of various levels, which are ordered and interrelated. Teachers have to be realistic in expectations from their learners. The act of writing is a highly complex cognitive process even for in one's native language let alone in a second language. Developing the necessary skills to improve learners' writing is a harder task. The writing courses, if required, may be revised and improved so that learners can earn more benefits with limited effort and exercise. 8.11 Review Questions (1) What can be the major causes of errors in writing? Explain. (2) What are the major sources of errors in writing? Explicate. (3) What are the basic differences between interlingual and intralingual errors?

NSOU ? PGELT-8B 189 (4) What are the most frequent types of errors committed by EFL/ESL learners? (5) Identify and explain the major types of errors at the word level (6) What are the four major factors behind morphological errors of ESL/EFL learners? (7) What are the major types of errors done by ESL/EFL learners at the sentence level? (8) What are the major issues involved in correcting writing errors? (9) What are the roles of a teacher in writing error correction? (10) What are the pedagogical implications of errors made by ESL/EFL learners? 8.12 Glossary of Terms Behaviourist theory: Behaviourism is the earliest language learning theory which is propounded by J. B. Watson in 1913. It argues that humans learn a language through repeating the same form and text until it becomes a habit. Children imitate the sounds and patterns which they hear around.

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The behaviourist theory believes that infants learn oral language from other human role models through a process involving imitation, rewards, and practice.

praised and given affection for their efforts. Hypercorrection: It is a non-standard use of language that results from over-application of a perceived rule of language-usage prescription. A writer who produces a hypercorrection generally believes through a misunderstanding of such rules that the form is more 'correct', standard, or otherwise preferable, often combined with a desire to appear formal or educated. In language learning, over-application of rules of phonology, syntax, or morphology result from different rules in varieties of the second language. Intrinsic motivation: It is an act of doing something without any obvious external reward. We perform an activity for its own sake rather than from the desire for some external reward. The behaviour itself is its own reward. We do it because we like it, it is enjoyable and interesting, rather than because of an outside incentive or pressure to do it, such as a reward or a deadline. Linguistic Taxonomy: Taxonomic linguistics deals with classes of language constituents

190 NSOU ? PGELT-8B and with the relationships existing between these classes and language constituents themselves. Traditional linguistics is primarily taxonomic in its approach. The taxonomic approach is put in contrast to the generative approach of generative grammar. Native language interference: It is the transfer of elements of one's native language into learning of another language. Elements may include phonological, grammatical, lexical, and orthographical. The most common types of native- language interference are related to word order, word choice, word forms, subject-verb agreement, tense choice and consistency, article usage, and preposition usage, etc. Orthography: An orthography is a set of conventions for writing a language. It includes norms of spelling, hyphenation, capitalization, word breaks, emphasis, punctuation, and other issues. An orthography consists of a set of visible marks, forms, or structures called characters or graphs that are related to some structure in the linguistic system. Paraphrasing: A paraphrase is a restatement of the meaning of a text or passage using other words. A paraphrase typically explains or clarifies the text that is being paraphrased. For example, "The signal was red" might be paraphrased as "The train was not allowed to pass because the signal was red". Paraphrasing means reformulating someone else's ideas in our own words. To paraphrase a source, we have to rewrite a passage without changing the meaning of the original text. Paraphrasing is an alternative to quoting, where we copy someone's exact words and put them in quotation marks. A paraphrase is typically more detailed than a summary. We should add the source at the end of the sentence. Productive skills: Speaking and writing skills are known as productive skills as they require some form of language output. Learners doing these works need to produce language. They are often compared with receptive skills (i.e., listening and reading). Alternatively, productive skills are referred to as active skills, while receptive skills are referred to as passive skills. Reinforcement: In behavioural psychology, reinforcement is a consequence applied that strengthens an organism's future behaviour whenever that behaviour is preceded by a specific antecedent stimulus. This strengthening effect may be measured as a higher frequency of behaviour (e.g., pulling a lever more frequently),

NSOU ? PGELT-8B 191 longer duration (e.g., pulling a lever for longer periods of time), greater magnitude (e.g., pulling a lever with greater force), or shorter latency (e.g., pulling a lever more quickly following the antecedent stimulus). Syllabus: A syllabus is a basic contract between an instructor and students. It lays out works, duties, responsibilities, and expectations on both sides. It is also a road map that shows the general contours of a course, important milestones, and landmarks that will let students know they are on the right road. It provides a way to reach out to students before the course starts, establishes a positive tone for the course, helps students assess their readiness for the course, situates the course in a broader context for learning, and communicates the ways technology will be used in the course. 8.13 Books Recommended [1]

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NSOU ? PGELT-8B 193 MODULE-3 : SELECTION AND GRADATION Unit 9 Concepts of Language Selection Structure 9.1 Objectives 9.2 Introduction 9.3 Types of Materials 9.3.1 Authentic materials 9.3.2 Course book 9.3.3 Supplementary materials 9.3.4 Text 9.3.5 Workbook 9.4 Criteria for Language Selection 9.4.1 Materials should achieve impact 9.4.2 Materials should help learners to feel at ease 9.4.3 Materials should help learners to develop confidence 9.4.4 Materials should require and facilitate learner self-investment 9.4.5 Materials should expose the learners to language in authentic use 9.5 Summary 9.6 Review Questions 9.7 References 9.1 Objectives This module helps the learners understand: a. the process of language selection for language teaching-learning, b. how the selected materials are graded to make them part of various courses
194 NSOU ? PGELT-8B c. how the syllabus designing aids developing teaching materials d. different types of materials that make the course effective. e. different principles involved in materials production. 9.2 Introduction From the previous modules on Applied Linguistics, you must have understood the fact that language and content are inseparable. In other words, language learnt and used are dependent on the content and context in which they are used. So, a set of selected language texts with content, for teaching-learning purposes form the materials for that course. Materials are used to enhance the learners' knowledge of language thereby allowing them to use and function in that language. They give necessary space for the learners to experience language to be used for various purposes in a variety of life-like situations. 9.3 Types of materials There are different types of materials that are used for language teaching-learning purposes. Let us understand them before we discuss the concept and process of language selection. Question: What are the other terms used instead of materials that you are familiar with? Can you try and give a definition to them? Your response: In your student days at school and college, you must have come across a variety of materials that you used for learning language. In the discussion that follows, we have attempted to help you become familiar with some types of materials which are popular among the teachers. 9.3.1 Authentic materials: Authentic materials are texts that are neither written nor spoken for language teaching- learning purposes. They include a variety of sources that are found at large and include materials such as a newspaper article, a song, a novel, a radio talk/ interview, set of
NSOU ? PGELT-8B 195 instructions given to play a game and a traditional fairy tale. A story written to use in the language classroom to teach reported speech or third person narration, a dialogue written as model for different language functions and an abridged or simplified version of a novel would not be authentic texts. 9.3.2 Coursebook: A coursebook is a textbook that provides materials for language teaching and learning purposes of a course. The coursebook tries to provide all the materials required to learn in order to achieve the objectives of the course. In other words, a coursebook includes reading material, practice exercises, tasks to be carried out pre-, while and - post reading. In addition, it has tasks on all the language skills, Listening, Speaking, Reading and Writing, structures and functions that include exercises on grammar, vocabulary, and pronunciation. 9.3.3 Supplementary materials: Supplementary Materials are additional materials that can be used while teaching on a course. They are usually not part of the course but selected by the teacher either to fill the gaps in the course books or to give additional practice on the language items to be learnt during the course. They can be audio/audio-visual text of the reading text given in the coursebook or grammar and/or vocabulary practice books. 9.3.4 Text: A text is a form of language presented to the learners. It can be in various forms: spoken or written, visual, audio or audio-visual. A written text can be of various genres that include a poem, a novel, a newspaper article, an advertisement, a description label on a product, a hoarding, name-plates, menu cards and so on. An audio-visual text can be a speech, a song, a film, a live conversation, an enacted drama, a recorded phone conversation, a scripted dialogue or a speech by a politician. A text can be authentic, produced for various purposes or the one brought out for language teaching- learning purposes. 9.3.5 Workbook: A workbook contains extra practice activities for the learners to gain confidence through learning a particular language skill or element. Usually workbooks are used as supplementary material where the learners can complete the tasks on their own as they learn how and what to do with the task from their regular course book. Many workbooks

196 NSOU ? PGELT-8B also facilitate self-correction or peer-correction as they give the key at the end of the book. The instructional or learning materials, in any of the types given above are a primary resource for language learning and therefore must be selected wisely. Unlike before where the printed textbook form was the only form of materials, now we have several other forms: audio, visual and audio-visual texts, graphic novels, informational texts, webpages, and ever-changing digital sources as we have understood from the previous section. 9.4 Criteria for Language Selection Sources: Understanding the various purposes and a variety of contexts in which a language learner has to function in, it is always better that we include as many sources of input as possible. The language teachers themselves can choose materials for teaching as they know the objectives of the course as well as the learner's needs better than an outsider who is a professional writer of course books. The teacher can choose the language that allows learners a. To be informed about the language; rules for appropriate use of language (grammar, vocabulary and pronunciation) b. To experience the use of language through the exposure provided (listening and reading) c. To experiment with the language acting like stimulus (speaking and writing) d. To maximise the input resulting in better output As Tomlinson (2011) says, we should focus on three vital questions when we are in the process of language or material selection: 1. What should be provided for the learners? The answer to this question includes the form and content of language material to given to the learners. 2. How it should be provided? The teaching techniques, the procedure in which the language material is to be provided to the leaners should be clearly defined. 3. What can be done with it to promote language learning? Once given to the learners, the learners should be trained in using the material appropriately to serve their purpose of language learning.

NSOU ? PGELT-8B 197 There are three different aspects that are to be taken into consideration while selecting language: 1. The language to be used for teaching-learning purposes in a classroom primarily depends on the target groups of learners, their needs, prior knowledge of language and experience of learning a language. 2. The content developer needs to know the aims and objectives of the course that will help decide on the language and content that is to be incorporated in the materials. 3. Materials developers need to understand the theories of language acquisition and principles of language teaching (Tomlinson,2010). 9.4.1 Materials should achieve impact Impact is achieved when materials have a noticeable effect on learners that is when the learners' curiosity, interest and attention are attracted. If this is achieved, there is a better chance that some of the language in the materials will be taken in for processing. Materials can achieve impact through: (a) novelty (e.g. unusual topics, illustrations and activities); (b) variety (e.g. breaking up the monotony of a unit routine with an unexpected activity; using many different text-types taken from many different types of sources; using a number of different instructor voices on a CD); (c) attractive presentation (e.g. use of attractive colours; lots of white space; use of photographs); (d) appealing content (e.g. topics of interest to the target learners; topics which offer the possibility of learning something new; engaging stories; universal themes; local references); (e) achievable challenge (e.g. tasks which challenge the learners to think). One obvious point is that impact is not uniform across all learners and all societies. What achieves impact with a class in Uttar Pradesh might not achieve the same impact with a class in Gujarat. And what achieves impact with ten learners in a class might not achieve the same impact with the other five. In order to maximise the likelihood of achieving impact, the writer needs to know as much as possible about the target learners and about what is likely to attract their attention. In order to achieve the impact with most of the learners, the writer also needs to offer many choices. The more varied the choice of topics, texts and activities, the more likely is the achievement of impact.

198 NSOU ? PGELT-8B 9.4.2 Materials should help learners to feel at ease Research has shown ... the effects of various forms of anxiety on acquisition: the less anxious the learner, the better language acquisition proceeds. Similarly, relaxed and comfortable students apparently can learn more in shorter periods of time. (Dulay, Burt and Krashen 1982) Although it is known that pressure can stimulate some types of language learners, most researchers would agree that most language learners benefit from feeling at ease and that they lose opportunities for language learning when they feel anxious, uncomfortable or tense (Oxford1999). Some materials developers argue that it is the responsibility of the teacher to help the learners to feel at ease and that the materials themselves can do very little to help. This view is disputed. Materials can help learners to feel at ease in a number of ways. For example, most learners: a. feel more comfortable with written materials with lots of white space than they do with materials in which lots of different activities are crammed together on the same page; b. are more at ease with texts and illustrations that they can relate to their own culture than they are with those which appear to them to be culturally alien; c. are more relaxed with materials which are obviously trying to help them to learn than they are with materials which test them. d. Feeling at ease can also be achieved through a 'voice' which is relaxed and supportive, through content and activities which encourage the personal participation of the learners, through materials which relate the world of the book to the world of the learner and through the absence of activities which could threaten self-esteem and cause humiliation. Conventionally, language-learning materials are de-voiced and anonymous. They are usually written in a semiformal style and reveal very little about the personality, interests and experiences of the writer. What I would like to see materials writers do is to chat with the learners casually in the same way that good teachers do and to try to achieve personal contact with them by revealing their own preferences, interests and opinions. I would also like to see them try to achieve a personal voice (Beck, McKeown and Worthy 1995) by ensuring that what they say to the learners contains such features of orality as: • informal discourse features (e.g. contracted forms, informal lexis); • the active rather than the passive voice; • concreteness (e.g. examples, anecdotes); • inclusiveness (e.g. not signalling intellectual, linguistic or cultural superiority over the learners).

9.4.3 Materials should help learners to develop confidence Relaxed and self-confident learners learn faster (Dulay, Burt and Krashen 1982). Most materials developers recognise the need to help learners to develop confidence, but many of them attempt to do so through a process of simplification. They try to help the learners to feel successful by asking them to use simple language to accomplish easy tasks such as completing substitution tables, writing simple sentences and filling in the blanks in dialogues. This approach is welcomed by many teachers and learners. But in my experience it often only succeeds in diminishing the learners. They become aware that the process is being simplified for them and that what they are doing bears little resemblance to actual language use. They also become aware that they are not really using their brains and that their apparent success is an illusion. And this awareness can even lead to a reduction in confidence. I prefer to attempt to build confidence through activities which try to 'push' learners slightly beyond their existing proficiency by engaging them in tasks which are stimulating, which are problematic, but which are achievable too. It can also help if the activities encourage learners to use and to develop their existing extra-linguistic skills, such as those which involve being imaginative, being creative or being analytical. Elementary-level learners can often gain greater confidence from making up a story, writing a short poem or making a grammatical discovery than they can from getting right a simple drill. For more discussion of the value of setting learners achievable challenges see de Andres (1999) and Tomlinson (2003b, 2006). The value of engaging the learners' minds and utilising their existing skills seems to be becoming increasingly realised in countries that have decided to produce their own materials through textbook projects rather than to rely on global course books, which seem to underestimate the abilities of their learners. See Tomlinson (1995) for a report on such projects in Bulgaria, Morocco and Namibia, and Popovici and Bolitho (2003) for a report on a project in Romania. See Tomlinson et al. (2001). 9.4.4 Materials should require and facilitate learner self-investment Many researchers have written about the value of learning activities that require the learners to make discoveries for themselves. For example, Rutherford and Sharwood- Smith (1988) assert that the role of the classroom and of teaching materials is to aid the learner to make efficient use of the resources in order to facilitate self-discovery. Similar views are expressed by Bolitho and Tomlinson (1995); Bolitho et al. (2003), Tomlinson (1994a, 2007) and Wright and Bolitho (1993). It would seem that learners

profit most if they invest interest, effort and attention in the learning activity. Materials can help them to achieve this by providing them with choices of focus and activity, by giving them topic control and by engaging them in learner-centered discovery activities. Again, this is not as easy as assuming that what is taught should be learned, but it is possible and extremely useful for textbooks to facilitate learner self-investment. In my experience, one of the most profitable ways of doing this is to get learners interested in a written or spoken text, to get them to respond to it globally and affectively and then to help them to analyse a particular linguistic feature of it in order to make discoveries for themselves (see Tomlinson 1994a for a specific example of this procedure). Other ways of achieving learner investment are involving the learners in mini-projects, involving them in finding supplementary materials for particular units in a book and giving them responsibility for making decisions about which texts to use and how to use them (an approach I saw used with great success in an Indonesian high school in which each group in a large class was given responsibility for selecting the texts and the tasks for one reading lesson per semester). 9.4.5 Materials should expose the learners to language in authentic use Krashen (1985) makes the strong claim that comprehensible input in the target language is both necessary and sufficient for the acquisition of language provided that learners are 'affectively disposed to "let in" the input they comprehend' (Ellis 1994: 273). Few researchers would agree with such a strong claim, but most would agree with a weaker claim that exposure to authentic use of the target language is necessary but not sufficient for the acquisition of that language. It is necessary in that learners need experience of how the language is typically used, but it is not sufficient because they also need to notice how it is used and to use it for communicative purposes themselves. Materials can provide exposure to authentic input through the advice they give, the instructions for their activities and the spoken and written texts they include. They can also stimulate exposure to authentic input through the activities they suggest (e.g. interviewing the teacher, doing a project in the local community, listening to the radio, etc.). In order to facilitate acquisition, the input must be comprehensible (i.e. understandable enough to achieve the purpose for responding to it). This means that there is no point in using long extracts from newspapers with beginners, but it does not mean that beginners cannot be exposed to authentic input. They can follow instructions intended to elicit physical responses, they can listen to dramatic renditions of stories, they can listen to songs, they can fill in forms. Ideally materials at all levels should provide

frequent exposure to authentic input which is rich and varied. In other words the input should vary in style, mode, medium and purpose and should be rich in features which are characteristic of authentic discourse in the target language. And, if the learners want to be able to use the language for general communication, it is important that they are exposed to planned, semi-planned and unplanned discourse (e.g. a formal lecture, an informal radio interview and a spontaneous conversation). The materials should also stimulate learner interaction with the input rather than just passive reception of it. This does not necessarily mean that the learners should always produce language in response to the input; but it does mean that they should at least always do something mentally or physically in response to it. See in particular Chapters 1, 2, 3, 4, 12, 13, 14, 15 and 17 of this book for arguments in favour of exposing learners to authentic materials, and also see Gilmore (2007) and Mishan (2005). 1.4.8 The learners' attention should be drawn to linguistic features of the input There seems to be an agreement amongst many researchers that helping learners to pay attention to linguistic features of authentic input can help them to eventually acquire some of those features. However, it is important to understand that this claim does not represent a Introduction 15 back-to-grammar movement. It is different from previous grammar teaching approaches in a number of ways. 9.5 Summary In the first place the attention paid to the language can be either conscious or subconscious. For example, the learners might be paying conscious attention to working out the attitude of one of the characters in a story, but might be paying subconscious attention to the second conditionals which the character uses. Or they might be paying conscious attention to the second conditionals, having been asked to locate them and to make a generalisation about their function in the story. The important thing is that the learners become aware of a gap between a particular feature of their interlanguage (i.e. how they currently understand or use it) and the equivalent feature in the target language. Such noticing of the gap between output and input can act as an 'acquisition facilitator' (Seliger 1979). It does not do so by immediately changing the learner's internalised grammar but by alerting the learner to subsequent instances of the same feature in future input. So there is no immediate change in the learners' proficiency (as seems to be aimed at by such grammar teaching approaches as the conventional Presentation−Practice− e

202 NSOU ? PGELT-8B Production approach). There is, however, an increased likelihood of eventual acquisition provided that the learners receive future relevant input. White (1990) argues that there are some features of the L2 which learners need to be focused on because the deceptively apparent similarities with L1 features make it impossible for the learners to otherwise notice certain points of mismatch between their interlanguage and the target language. And Schmidt (1992) puts forward a powerful argument for approaches which help learners to note the gap between their use of specific features of English and the way these features are used by native speakers. Inviting learners to compare their use of, say, indirect speech with the way it is used in a transcript of a native speaker conversation would be one such approach and could quite easily be built into course book materials. Randi Reppen in Chapter 2 of this book and Jane Willis in Chapter 3 exemplify ways of helping learners to pay attention to linguistic features of their input. Kasper and Roever (2005) and Schmidt (2001) also discuss the value of noticing how the language is actually used. 9.6 Review Questions a. What do you understand by the term materials production? b. How do we train teachers to become proficient in materials development? c. What are the different types of materials that are available to a teacher for teaching? d. What are some of the principles involved in developing materials? e. Why do we need a variety of materials for the same purpose? 9.7 References Abd. Hakim Yassi and Andi Kaharuddin Bahar. 2015. Syllabus Design for English language Teaching. Bantul-Yogyakarta:Trust Media Publishing. Tomlinson, B 2010.Principles of effective materials development. In Harwood, N (ed) English Language Teaching Materials: Theory and Practice. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. Pgs 81-108. Tomlinson, Brian (2011). Material development in Language Teaching (2nd Ed.). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

NSOU ? PGELT-8B 203 Unit 10 Concepts of Language Gradation Structure 10.1 Objectives 10.2 Introduction 10.3 Approaches to gradation 10.3.1 Linear Gradation 10.3.2 Cyclic Gradation 10.3.3 Field approach to gradation 10.3.4 Modular approach 10.4 Elements of gradation 10.4.1 Staging 10.4.2 Sequencing 10.5 Criteria of gradation 10.5.1 Structural Syllabus 10.5.2 Availability/ Linguistic Distance 10.5.3 Frequency 10.5.4 Learnability/ Teachability 10.6 Ergonic Combination 10.6.1 Combinability 10.6.2 Grouping 10.6.3 Contrast 10.7 Gradation for topic- based syllabus 10.7.1 Interest/Practicality 10.7.2 Depth of treatment 10.8 Gradation of Notional- Functional syllabus 10.8.1 Usefulness

204 NSOU ? PGELT-8B 10.8.2 Generalizability 10.8.3 Complexity 10.9 Gradation of Task- based syllabus 10.9.1 Concreteness/Abstractness 10.9.2 Difficulty levels 10.10 Summary 10.11 Review Questions 10.12 References and Reading List 10.1Objectives In this module, we will learn about a. Approaches to gradation b. Elements of gradation c. Principles of gradation 10.2 Introduction Gradation is defined as the grouping and sequencing of materials in a syllabus. The aim of gradation is to provide an accessible and gradual introduction of language. Allen states that gradation is a universal requirement for any language teaching. Mackey proposed that foundations of language must be firm and the early learning of language must be slow, accurate, comprehensible and assessable. The content selected for the syllabus design must be inter- related and must have a flow among the concepts included in different units. The approach suggested must be analytic. Gradation is vital for syllabus designing and impacts the teaching learning process. There are many ways to grade the language based various theories and models proposed. The next sectionsintroduce you to different approaches adopted for language gradation. 10.3 Approaches to gradation There are a few main approaches to gradation followed during syllabus design. Let us discuss these approaches one after the other in detail.

NSOU ? PGELT-8B 205 10.3.1 Linear Gradation In linear gradation, the contents of the syllabus are arranged in such a way where one topic or concept is focused at one time. The topic chosen is explained in detail and practiced intensively. Learners' will be provided in-depth knowledge on the topic before moving to the next topic. The topics are also arranged in a sequence such that each successive item is more complex than the previous one. This principle is also called movement from simple to complex. 10.3.2 Cyclic Gradation In cyclic gradation the concepts or topics are reintroduced and recur throughout the course. It is also called revisiting. A new topic or concept is always related to the concepts or topics learnt previously. There is a smooth transmission from one concept to another as they are all connected or linked to each other. This interconnectivity produces better comprehensibility and enhances long term learning. The repetition of concepts and deeper knowledge of concepts aims in the internalization process. In this gradation, each time an item is repeated, it has two purposes. In the first place it reinforces the item already learnt and provides additional information on the same item hitherto not learnt. 10.3.3 Field approach to gradation This approach provides learners with the freedom of choice of learning sequence. The topics or concepts are developed and provided to learners. Later learners are given the freedom to begin with any topic and end with any topic. But it is important that learners learn all the concepts designed in the syllabus. The order or sequence of choosing and learning different concepts is not restricted. This provides learners, autonomy in selecting items and a variety of tasks to achieve the learning outcomes. This gradation is suitable for self-learners with a high degree of integrity. Distance education learners are an illustration of such group. 10.3.4 Modular approach In this approach, the language is divided into modules which focus on language skills like listening, speaking, reading, writing and other sub skills. This type of approach is more appropriate for task- based syllabus. Besides, each module is independent and complete in itself. The teacher or the learner can make a choice of the module to learn and move to any other module of choice once the learning is complete.

206 NSOU ? PGELT-8B 10.4 Elements of gradation The two main aspects of gradation are staging and sequencing. Let us look at these two aspects in detail. 10.4.1 Staging Staging relates to the quantity of contents or items included in a syllabus. It guides in including the contents for teaching and learning the language in a given period of time. It also involves division of syllabus into appropriate time segments. 10.4.2 Sequencing Sequencing is concerned with deciding the order of the contents or items in a syllabus. It guides us in deciding what comes first and what comes later. It involves linking or connecting different items in a syllabus to each other for producing effective learning outcomes. 10.5 Criteria for gradation Many researchers have developed a number of criteria for simplifying the process of gradation during syllabus design. These criteria vary according to the type of syllabus chosen during syllabus design. The criteria can be classified as per the syllabus type. 10.5.1 The Structural Syllabus The Structural syllabus is designed with a focus on forms and structures. Grammatical content has a major role to play in the structural syllabus design. Let us learn about important criteria that should be considered while designing the structural syllabus. 10.5.2 Availability/ Linguistic Distance It is proposed that the contents related to vocabulary or grammatical structures of language similar to learners' native or first language must be taught first. This will reduce the difficulty levels of learning a new language. It is important to keep in mind the readiness of the learners with which the vocabulary and grammatical structures are remembered and used by language learners. Gradation of grammatical structures and vocabulary can begin with familiar words or structures and then slowly include unfamiliar or new vocabulary or grammatical structures.

207 10.5.3 Frequency This means the number of times of occurrence of a particular vocabulary or grammatical structures in a large body of the language in consideration. This is called a corpus. The more the number of occurrences the easier is the learning process. This involves including similar word structures and grammatical structure patterns for repetition and practice. 10.5.4 Learnability/ Teachability Learnability and teachability are two interlinked concepts. Teachabilty refers to the demonstrability of a word which plays a vital part for achieving teachability. Learnability refers to the similarity of words or structures of the target language to its native language. These two criteria are impacted by brevity and learning load. It is assumed that the longer the length of a word or structure the higher is the learning load. Gradation of contents can begin with concrete words or structures that will be easy to teach and learn. Later it includes abstract contents that will be challenging to teach or learn. This criterion lays stress on the order in which language is acquired during language learning. 10.6 Ergonic Combination Ergonic combination means creating a structural balance through structural combinations. These combinations are based on three aspects: Combinability, Grouping and Contrast. This also depends on the meaning the structures together can covey to perform a language function. This type of gradation is a precursor to the functional notional syllabuses that emerged later. 10.6.1 Combinability Combinability means a few simple structures can be used together to express a particular sense or meaning. There is a natural affinity among some structure that lend them the quality of combinability. This is an important criterion because it helps in putting together structures to produce real life like language use. 10.6.2 Grouping Grouping involves bringing together few structures that are similar at one level but different on another level.

208 10.6.3 Contrast Another ergonic combination includes contrast grouping. Contrast is the opposite forms of structures-plural, present-past-future and many more. Grading of contrast contents with similar patterns can be grouped together for better comprehensibility. Regular Verbs Irregular Verbs Jump - jumped Eat - ate Dance - danced Sing - sang Study - studied Write - wrote 10.7 Gradation for topic- based syllabus Topic- based syllabus is designed around a variety of themes or topics, which are age appropriate and informative. The meaning is given more importance rather than forms or structures. The process begins after the selection of topics, where the contents are sequenced based on different criteria. 10.7.1 Interest/Practicality The topics must be graded as per the learners' interest and topics that motivate learning. The grading of topics can be done by the familiarity of the topics and the topics that stimulate the learning process. It is also important to focus on practicality, where the learners can connect with the topic, find the teaching materials easy, comprehensible and available in the learning environment. The topics can be graded based on the length of the passages, where the syllabus designer can begin with short and easy passages and later move on to lengthy complex passages. In this case, a primary school learner can be given a one page story that has only 200 to 300 words where as a grade 9 learner can be given a 4 to 5 pages short story of about 1000 words. Based on the learners' interest as presumed by the teacher/syllabus designer, will be given the first priority in this type of gradation. 10.7.2 Depth of treatment The depth of treatment is one of the criteria, where gradation of content from general or superficial topics to detailed or in depth topics. It means grading from simple and

209 easily comprehensible topics to complex topics which involves more cognitive load or mental operations. 10.8 Gradation of Notional- Functional syllabus The Notional- functional syllabus is developed based on the needs of the learners, which is attained after a needs analysis. It has a focus on helping the learner to communicate creatively in social and cultural contexts. The gradation of notional- functional syllabus depends on the following aspects. 10.8.1 Usefulness The contents of the syllabus are organized based on the usefulness of the concepts or communication purposes of the learners. For example, if the language aspects presented are very useful to the learners, then that is given the first priority. This could be easily understood in case of learners who learn English for very specific purposes. A nurse learning language for his/her professional reasons will have to use very limited sentence structures that help him/her communicate with doctor or patients. A future perfect continuous tense would hardly be used by them. So the very useful structures like Simple present or present continuous should be first taught to them. If the learners learn English for general purposes, then the teacher and students might require discussing the immediate needs of the learners and then deciding on what to be taught first based on the usefulness. 10.8.2 Generalizability The contents and skills not only are useful to specific needs of the learners' but must also be generalized in other situations or contexts. It must be relevant and presented in the form that interests the learners. In other words, the nurses surely will not confine their communication to the doctors and patients but will have to communication with peers, colleagues or friends if the target language is the only common language for communication. So teaching-learning for these learners should be based on generalizability. 10.8.3 Complexity The contents of the functional syllabus must begin with easy functional skills like informal greetings and then later move towards complex language functions like formal greetings. This type of gradation is very common and mostly adopted by all syllabus designers.

210 10.9 Gradation of Task- based syllabus This type of syllabus gives importance to tasks through which language learning happens. Task- based syllabus develops better understanding of meaning and builds connection between learning activities and real world activities. Task- based syllabus can be classified into three types: Procedural syllabus, process syllabus and skills- based syllabus. This kind of syllabus is designed based on the four language skills and the way in which they can be harnessed to solve problems and express solutions. The gradation of the contents of the skill- based syllabus will depend on different criteria. 10.9.1 Concreteness/Abstractness The grading will depend on the concreteness and abstractness of the language content. There are few skills and sub-skills which are measured linguistically and conceptually. The grading of the contents must begin with concrete skills that are measured linguistically and later moved towards abstract skills that are measured conceptually. 10.9.2 Difficulty levels The gradation of skill - based syllabus must first focus on attaining easy skills and sub skills and then include complex skills that require higher cognitive abilities. 10.10 Summary In general the organizing principle of a syllabus must be based on three principles: how language is learnt, how language is acquired and how language is used. The first principle is focused on structuring the language. The second principle focuses on creating a natural environment of learning and does not give importance to organizing structures and the third principle on the real use of language. 10.11 Review Questions 1. Select any English language textbook of used in the secondary schools. Analyse the syllabus design from gradation point of view. Write short notes on gradation approach and organising principle followed in the syllabus of the selected textbook.

211 2. Analyse the grammatical contents included in the selected textbook. Write the gradation pattern chosen for grammatical structures and support your answer with examples. 3. Analyse the contents included to develop the LSRW skills of the language. Do you think the same organizing principle is applied for all the language skills or is it different for different skills? Support your answer with appropriate reasons. 4. Does gradation of the syllabus items vary with the type of syllabus? Give some examples. 5. How is notional functional syllabus very different from the rest of the syllabuses? Discuss this in terms of three Cs. 10.12 References and Reading List Richards, J. C. (1984). Language curriculum development. RELC journal, 15(1), 1-29. White, R. (2000). The ELT Curriculum: Design. Innovation and Mangement (Applied Language Studies)/Ronald White. Sabbah, S. (2018). English language syllabuses: Definition, types, design, and selection. Arab World English Journal (AWEJ) Volume, 9. Brumfit, C. J. (1984). General English Syllabus Design. Curriculum and Syllabus Design for the General English Classroom. Pergamon Press, Maxwell House, Fairview Park, Elmsford, New York 10523.

Unit 11 Syllabus Construction Structure 11.1 Objectives 11.2 Introduction 11.3 Syllabus Design 11.4 More about Syllabus Design 11.5 Selection of Materials 11.5.1 Framing the goals 11.5.2 Defining and Developing Content 11.5.3 Structuring the material 11.6 Preparing Materials 11.7 Selecting of items 11.8 Types of Syllabus 11.8.1 Structural Syllabus - Grammatical Structures 11.8.2 Situational - Language usage is set around real situations 11.8.3 Topical - Themes or Topics 11.8.4 Functional - Communicational functions 11.8.5 Notional - Concepts or conceptual categories 11.8.6 Skills - Language Skills 11.8.7 Task - or activity- based - Language through activities 11.8.8 Mixed or Integrated Syllabuses 11.9 Summary 11.10 Review Questions 11.12 References and Reading List NSOU ? PGELT-8B 213 11.1 Objectives After going through this unit, the learners will be able to: a. Understand the term syllabus design b. Understand the various components of a syllabus c. Use syllabus in an appropriate way to develop teaching materials d. Understand the subtle differences among various syllabuses e. Develop a model syllabus for use in the classroom 11.2 Introduction According to Nunan (1988), syllabus design is to select and to organize teaching materials (selection and grading of content) in a sequential manner to facilitate teaching. The concept has led the writers make serious efforts to introduce a model of syllabus design which is developed by several systematic procedures ranging from conducting a needs analysis, preparing teaching materials, to setting up stages of evaluation to prove the effectiveness of the implementing the syllabus design and its developed teaching materials. The syllabus design is developed in three simple and systematic stages as a solution to the confusion of some English teachers all this time on designing course syllabus and developing teaching materials which suit their students' needs. Accordingly, a course syllabus and its teaching materials are no longer developed based on teachers' intuitions and perception, but based on a needs analysis for the sake of attaining highly qualified learning outcomes. 11.3 Syllabus Design The materials selected and graded to be delivered for a particular course is called Syllabus. The content is selected and organized in different ways depending on the material developer's perception or even intuition of what the language is and how it is learnt. If the materials developer believes that language is a set of structures, the materials chosen for teaching language would primarily focus on structures and ignore the use or application of thosestructures according to the need or context. The materials produced this way do not consider the learners' needs nor the course objectives. Question: Can you mention a syllabus that is designed and given for a course

214 NSOU ? PGELT-8B without taking into consideration the users' needs or course objectives? Why do you think it is developed so? Your response: The entire process of selection, gradation, execution and evaluation of the syllabus is curriculum development. There are several schools of thought on the process of selection of materials. Richards (2001) is of the opinion that curriculum in language teaching can be done through seven systematic stages: 1. needs analysis 2. situational analysis 3. planning learning outcomes 4. course organization 5. selecting and preparing teaching materials 6. providing for effective teaching, and 7. evaluation Based on Richards' theory, syllabus design lies in the stage of selecting and preparing teaching materials. 11.4 More about Syllabus Design Smith states that curriculum is a body of knowledge and knowledge is transferred through syllabus. Mckay defines Syllabus as "A Syllabus provides a focus for what should be studies, along with a rationale for how that content should be selected and ordered". Syllabus design is the process of developing a syllabus. Syllabus is the main bridge that connects the learner and the teacher with common teaching learning goals and objectives. It specifies the contents to be facilitated, learnt and assessed. The selection of course content is based on the needs of the learners'. The topics and themes are confined to the communication needs of the learners'. A syllabus is the product of selecting and organizing content and materials. The key tasks of a syllabus designer are selecting, sequencing and integrating of items. Syllabus planning includes selecting topics, skills, tasks, objectives, notions, functions, vocabulary, settings, learning styles and strategies appropriate for the designated learners. The framework of language teaching gives us an idea about different stages involved in designing the syllabus for execution.

NSOU ? PGELT-8B 215 Figure 1.1 The framework of language teaching. 11.5 Selection of materials The process of selecting materials can be simplified by following certain procedures. In this section we will learn about various steps involved, which lay a path towards selecting appropriate materials, which will play a vital role in enhancing the quality of teaching-learning process. 11.5.1 Framing the goals The first step is to frame goals (objectives) which will help in understanding the purpose of the course and gives clarity on the outcome of taking the course. The purpose of framing goals can serve four purposes. It clarifies the accomplishments of the learners' after taking the course, helps in selecting appropriate materials, teaching methods and assignments, students gain clarity on the different aspects of the course, and it acts as a guide for teachers to facilitate the course with a common aim. This will allow the teaching learning community to work towards common goals and allows them to assess their teaching and learning quality. It is necessary to define content and non- content clearly. Content goals relate to the subject matter whereas the non-content goals can be related to the skills. For example learning to write a formal letter is a content goal and working collaboratively in groups is a non-content goal. It must be remembered that the goal framed must be measurable and scale of measurements must be specified in the course content. Framing measurable goals will motivate the teaching learning process. 11.5.2 Defining and Developing Content In this step the syllabus designer gathers all the materials required for delivering the course. The materials must be in alignment with the goals and syllabus type. In the

216 NSOU ? PGELT-8B beginning of the process the materials collected can be loaded, yet it is necessary to sort out most relevant materials required to design the content of the course. Studies show that too much of material hinders the effectiveness of a learner's material. The material is further divided into three categories: basic, recommended and optional. The basic material should be learnt by every learner, the recommended material can be learnt by the learner to master the subject and optional material can be learnt for in depth knowledge on the subject. The basic material acts as a main content that will be used while teaching and evaluating learners. Recommended and optional materials can included as part of additional resources or additional readings. The focus of material must on core concepts that can be relatable and useful and that can enhance the thinking skills of the learners. The resources selected must be motivating and taking the learning forward. There is need to select resources to support main concepts, themes or topics. It must be aligned with the types of syllabuses selected at the beginning of the process. The resources must aid teachers and learners to achieve course objectives. It is suggested to use multi-mode resource materials to allowing the learning to happen through modes like text, audio, video, and many more. It is very important to also have a clear understanding of the time available for the teachers to complete the course and time the learner requires accomplishing the aims after taking the course. 11.5.3 Structuring the material In the process of syllabus design, sequencing of the material is inevitable. The material can be structured based on the type of syllabuses selected. It can also be sequenced using other strategies. Micro/macro: The main or large concept can be classified into macro concepts and specific concepts can be classified into micro concepts. Proximal/Distal: The discussion can begin by addressing the most relevant topic which is proximal and the discussion can move on towards explaining the theories related to the topic which is distal. Phenomenon/Structure: The emphasis on a particular idea, event, and person in a unique or specific situation can be categorized into phenomenon and emphasis on a pattern or events in a general context can be categorized as structured. 11.6 Preparing Materials Materials are the contents that will be taught to achieve course or programme

NSOU ? PGELT-8B 217 objectives. The preparing of materials follows after selecting the main principles based on which the syllabus will be designed. A set of activities, criteria of activities will be selected based on the kinds of syllabuses chosen by the curriculum designer. It is also important to know the weight of each activity in each lesson, teacher and learners' involvement in activities, The context of teaching learning is essential for selection of content and materials to construct the syllabus. This information can be obtained from needs analysis of course or programme. i. Purpose - Knowledge about learners participating in the teaching- learning process ii. Setting – Knowledge about the setting where the learners wish to use the target language iii. Geographical information, culture and traditional knowledge of the place iv. Communicative events – knowledge about the everyday situations where the learner will communicate v. Functional, notional and other requirements of the learners 11.7 Selecting Items The foremost step involved while designing the syllabus to state its purpose. The purpose is clearly articulated by formulating aims and objectives of the syllabus design. This will form the base for syllabus and all the procedures that follows while designing the syllabus. The goals framed should be aligned with the type of syllabuses chosen for the course design. In the next section we will discuss about the types of syllabuses which will have impact on the selection of materials and in preparing materials. 11.8 Types of Syllabus Syllabus is a learning tool which facilitates teaching-learning process. The syllabus design begins with clear understanding of the curriculum objectives and goals. The syllabus is designed by selecting appropriate approach, which supports the main objectives of the curriculum. The choice of syllabus types is further influenced on the four aspects of knowledge. They are as follows:

218 NSOU ? PGELT-8B ? Knowledge and beliefs on the subject ? Knowledge about recent research studies and upgraded theories ? Knowledge about common practices in teaching learning community ? Knowledge about trends in national and international syllabus designs The syllabuses are classified into seven kinds which are as follows: 11.8.1 Structural Syllabus – Grammatical Structures Chapter 1 Verb tenses 1–1 The simple tenses 1–2 The progressive tenses 1–3 The perfect tenses 1–4 The perfect progressive tenses 1–5 Summary chart of verb tenses 1–6 Spelling of –ing and –ed forms Chapter 2 Modal auxiliaries and similar expressions .... Chapter 3 The passive ...... Chapter 4 Gerunds and infinitives .... 11.8.2 Situational – Language usage is set around real situations The principle of Situational syllabus is based on the idea that language is learned through different contexts or situations in real life. The sequencing of content moves from situation to situation. The common list of situations is listed below. a) At the Airport b) At the Hotel c) At the Bank Material based on Structural syllabus focus on grammatical and phonological structures. The principle of organizing these materials will be either form easy to difficult or frequent or less frequent.

NSOU ? PGELT-8B 219 d) At the Restaurant e) At the Party f) At the park 11.8.3 Topical – Themes or Topics Topical syllabus is based on the topics or themes. This type of syllabus is widely followed in the Indian educational system. The themes or topics are selected based on the age, proficiency levels, traditional and cultural background, and importance of topics or themes in the lives of the learners' participating in the course. The sequencing of themes or topics is based on the importance or on the level of difficulty of the reading passages. Unit I Trends in Living 1 A Cultueral Difference : Being on Time 2 Working Hard or Hardly Working 3 Changing Life-Styles and New Eating Habits Unit II Issues in Society 4 Loneliness 5 Can Stress Make You Sick ? 6 Care of the Elderly: A Family Matter 11.8.4 Functional – Communicational functions This type of syllabus gained its popularity with the raising importance of communication in the globalised world. It is mostly preferred type of syllabus when the curriculum designer focuses on Communicative language teaching approach. The main principle of this syllabus is based on the purpose of communication and language functions in real life scenarios. The functions are selected on the basis of its usefulness to the students. It is sequenced on the basis of hierarchy of the usefulness of the functions and frequency. Some of the functions are listed below. a) Greetings b) Introducing c) Seeking information d) Giving information

220 NSOU ? PGELT-8B 11.8.5 Notional – Concepts or conceptual categories Notional syllabus is designed using abstract conceptual categories called general notions. The syllabus designer chooses the concepts on the basis of perceived utility and is sequenced either chronologically or frequency or their utility. A sample related to Notional syllabus is given below. Unit 1 Properties and Shapes Unit 2 Location Unit 3 Structure Unit 4 Measurement 1 [of solid figures] Unit 5 Process 1 Function and Ability Unit 6 Actions in Sequence 11.8.6 Skills – Language Skills The materials in skills- based syllabus are organized on the language skills or academic skills required for the learners' participating in the programme or course of study. The selection of skills is based on its usefulness to the learners' and is sequences based on a chronology or frequency or usefulness of the skills. A sample related to writing skills included in the skill- based syllabus is given below. a) Writing Skills ? Letter writing ? Paragraph writing ? Story Writing ? Biography ? Note-taking and Note-making skills ? Diary entry ? Invitation ? Report writing 11.8.7 Task - Activity-based – Language through activities Task-based syllabus revolves around the various activities or task that learners' will be required to perform in the target language. The tasks or activities are selected NSOU ? PGELT-8B 221 depending on the usefulness to the learners'. Few examples of task- based activities are given below. ? Jigsaw tasks – Collaborative activities where the group contributes individually to achieve a common goal. ? Information- gap tasks – Each student in a group works with others in the group to complete the incomplete information. ? Problem solving tasks – The group of students work together to find solution for the given problem. ? Decision- making tasks – Group of students will have to negotiate to arrive at a common solution for a given problem with number of solutions. ? Opinion exchange tasks – This involves sharing of ideas in the group. 11.8.8 Mixed or Integrated Syllabuses In spite of varied types on syllabuses, it is inappropriate to choose one kind or type of syllabus for designing a course or programme. Brumfit suggests that language is a composition of linguistic, interactional and content aspects. It would be a good practice to use a combination of syllabus kinds to meet the changing needs and requirements of the learners'. Integrated syllabus involves blending two or more syllabus designs which will cover multiple aspects of language teaching-learning. 11.9 Summary The design and use of frameworks while selecting and preparing materials will accommodate a variety of segments in a single English language teaching programme. The flexibility and nonlinear movement between different stages of syllabus construction produces an quality material that aids in achieving the objectives of the course. The syllabus constructed is never an end product and by including space for evaluating the syllabus provides scope for improving and upgrading the syllabus as per the changing needs of the society. 11.10 Review Questions Question 1: Choose a NCERT textbook of Class VIII. Analyse the syllabus of the selected NCERT textbook and write the main aims and objectives of the syllabus.

222 NSOU ? PGELT-8B Do you think the material design will allow the learners' to achieve the aims and objectives mentioned in the syllabus? Explain in detail. Question 2: From the same textbook, analyse the organization of the grammar concepts in the textbook. State the pattern followed for organizing the grammar concepts. Support your views with examples. Question 3: Using the same syllabus and the textbook, analyse the syllabus design. Write the type of syllabus followed in the selected textbook and support your analysis with examples from the textbook. Do you think the syllabus design can meet the needs of the current society? Why or Why not? Question 4: If you are teaching in class VIII in the state board syllabus (in your state) how many changes will you make to the NCERT Syllabus? Why? Question 5: Use one of the lessons in your textbook, and show how this can be made better to teach both grammar and vocabulary by adding new exercises. 11.11 References and Reading List Brumfit, C. J. (1984). General English Syllabus Design.Curriculum and Syllabus Design for the General English Classroom.Pergamon Press, Maxwell House, Fairview Park, Elmsford, New York 10523. Richards, J. C. (1984). Language curriculum development. RELC journal, 15(1), 1-29. Graves, K., &Xu, S. (2000). Designing language courses: A guide for teachers (No. 428 G7.). Boston, MA: Heinle&Heinle. Brumfit, C. J. (1984). General English Syllabus Design.Curriculum and Syllabus Design for the General English Classroom.Pergamon Press, Maxwell House, Fairview Park, Elmsford, New York 10523. Davis, B. G. (2009). Tools for teaching. John Wiley & Sons.

NSOU ? PGELT-8B 223 Unit 12 Developing Teaching Materials Structure 12.1 Objectives 12.2 Introduction 12.3 Principles of developing materials 12.4 Basic principles for material developers 12.4.1 Materials must create impact 12.4.2 Materials must be easily comprehendible 12.4.3 Materials must develop confidence 12.4.4 Materials must be relevant and useful to learners 12.4.5 Materials must facilitate Self- Discovery 12.4.6 Materials must meet the readiness to learn 12.4.7 Materials must give opportunities to use the language 12.4.8 Materials must lay focus on linguistic features 12.4.9 Materials must provide opportunities to use target language 12.4.10 Materials must use recycling process 12.5 Materials for learners with different learning styles 12.5.1 Materials must provide motivation to learn 12.5.2 Materials must provide space for silent period 12.5.3 Materials must contribute to learners' holistic development 12.5.4 Materials must avoid Controlled learning 12.5.5 Material should focus on learning outcome 12.6 Summary 12.7 Review Questions 12.8 References and Reading List

224 NSOU ? PGELT-8B 12.1Objectives The objective of this module is to gain an in-depth understanding of the principles and procedures involved during the process of materials development. At the end of the unit the learners will be able to: a. Understand the basic principles involved in materials development b. Identify different types of materials and use them appropriately in the classroom c. Supplement materials for use in classroom to overcome the weaknesses in the prescribed lessons d. Distinguish between learning materials, practice materials and testing materials e. Evaluate a given set of materials for their appropriacy. 12.1 Introduction Teaching or instructional material is any material that helps in language learning. Materials can be in the form of textbook lessons, exercises in workbooks, audio clips, videos, newspaper cuttings, games and many more. A good teaching or instructional material plays an important role in the teaching- learning process. Materials act as an input that aids in teaching and learning language. It contributes to the teaching- learning process through objectives, clarity, guidance, practice and feedback about learning tasks and activities for better performance and retention of language skills. An effective teaching or instructional material is based on strong and relevant theories, creates and maintains interest for learning, meets the needs of the learners, provides examples, includes appropriate tasks and activities and provides ample opportunities for communicating in the target language, use language in natural contexts. All the above mentioned aspects form the basis for developing instructional materials. Let us take a look at some of the principles and procedures involved in developing teaching materials. 12.3 Principles of developing materials Material developers provide input to learners for learning a language. They follow certain principled methods while developing materials for effective teaching- learning NSOU ? PGELT-8B 225 process. Some of the main principles listed by Tomlinson for material developers are as follows. ? Exposure to rich, meaningful and comprehensible input ? Increased learner engagement activities ? Enhance positive attitudes towards language learning ? Using L1 as a resource for effective teaching learning of L2 ? Develop understanding of the various inputs provided. ? Create opportunities for learners to use the language, which develops their communication skills. 12.4 Basic principles for material developers Besides what is given by Hutchinson, there are a few other basic principles given below which are useful for material developers. 12.4.1 Materials must create impact Materials are considered to have an impact when there is a noticeable effect on the learners' while learning the language. It must be able to produce curiosity, instill interest and grab the attention of the learners during the language learning process. The materials that can produce impact are listed below. ? Novelty - colourful illustrations, animations, games and engaging activities ? Variety - diversity of activities and tasks, multi-mode inputs(text,audios,videos etc.) ? Presentation - use of sufficient space, attractive layout, proper fonts which are easy on the eye, etc. ? Content - topics and themes must be related by the learners chronological age, interesting, unique with ample scope for exploration. ? Challenging - tasks and activities must encourage and motivate creativity and higher order thinking skills. ? Freedom of choice - Scope of choice for the learners in some aspects can produce impact

226 NSOU ? PGELT-8B 12.4.2 Materials must be easily comprehendible Materials will be able to make the learners feel at ease, reduce the anxiety and learn comfortably. This will become possible when the level of difficulty is guarded carefully. To facilitate this, it is essential to keep in mind a few important points while developing materials. ? Providing the right amount of activities that the learners can complete comfortably in the allotted time. ? The choice of topics, themes, texts must be culturally relatable to the learners for producing learner friendly learning experience. ? Materials must be more helpful and avoid testing learners' unnecessarily. ? Voice used in the materials should match a friendly conversation style. Use of active voice, concrete examples, informal tone and inclusiveness can ease the learning process. 12.4.3 Materials must develop confidence Learners gain confidence when they successfully learn a concept or when they complete the activity or when they apply the language skills and accomplish a task. It is important to understand that simplification of materials does not build confidence or make learners feel accomplished. The materials must pave the way to enable learners to use multiple skills like analytical skills, creative thinking skills, imaginative skills and other higher order thinking skills while performing a task or activity. 12.4.4 Materials must be relevant and useful to learners We have discussed the importance of need analysis before beginning to design the materials. Materials must suffice the needs of the learners. It is easy to make learners understand the relevance of ESP courses. It is challenging for learners to understand the usefulness of learning English language in standard courses. This can be possible with the help of learning objectives included in every unit of the textbook. By achieving the learning objectives, it is possible to make learners understand the relevance of learning a topic or concept or skill. 12.4.5 Materials must facilitate Self- Discovery Materials must provide for self-learning and self- discovery. Materials developed for teaching- learning must include learner-centered activities, which provide opportunities

NSOU ? PGELT-8B 227 for self- learning and self- discovery. Self- learning can be possible by including global and affective topics. It is also possible by allowing learners to involve in projects and provide opportunities to choose other materials apart from standard textbooks. 12.4.6 Materials must meet the readiness to learn Readiness to learn means the learner is ready to learn a new concept which is based on a known concept. A new knowledge is provided to learn, based on the previously gained knowledge. Readiness to learn can be achieved by materials which facilitate mastery of basic skills before introducing new skills. Materials must provide input that is comprehensible and that leads to acquiring new skills. Materials must facilitate learners to focus on new skills rather than on the skills that are already known or learnt. 12.4.7 Materials must give opportunities to use the language Learners must be given opportunities not only to use the language but must also have knowledge on how to use language for communication in different scenarios. Materials developed must design activities where opportunities are provided to both learn how to use the language and to use the language. Activities like listening to news, audios, podcasts, Ted talks and many more similar activities facilitate learners to learn how to use the language.Later learners will feel at ease while participating in activities that provide authentic experience on using the language. The input provided through materials must be rich and varied in order to enhance the effectiveness of learning outcomes. 12.4.8 Materials must lay focus on linguistic features Linguistic features are related to grammatical elements and structures of a language. Materials developed must equip learners with strong linguistic knowledge in order to use the language efficiently. Yet it must not be facilitated through traditional grammar teaching learning methods where the linguistic knowledge was facilitated through rote learning or memorization. Materials developed must allow the learning of linguistic features by noticing the features through varied activities. The past forms of a verb can be facilitated to learners indirectly by narrating a story in past tense. The past forms of the verbs will be noticed by the learners in the story and learnt by them unconsciously with ease. Therefore it is important for material developers to interlink various elements of language innovatively and creatively. 12.4.9 Materials must provide opportunities to use target language Language learning is a social process. Language is used to communicate, express and share ideas, thoughts, feelings, opinions and many more. This type of communication

228 NSOU ? PGELT-8B must be provided in the materials designed for language teaching and learning. Materials must consist of opportunities for learners to communicate in target language. The activities that involve group work or pair work creates a natural learning environment for learners to interact in the target language. Such interaction in target language enhances the communication skills of the language learners. 12.4.10 Materials must use recycling process Recycling process involves repetition of a concept in varied styles and mediums. It is also called reinforcement of a concept. The concept of Noun can be facilitated through direct instruction, using examples, by narrating a story, using concrete objects, through games and many more. It is important to provide learners enough input and time before expecting them to produce or use the concept while communicating. A learner must not be forced to produce immediately after introducing the topic. Materials must reinforce a concept multiple times through multiple ways before testing the proficiency of the learners. This allows the learners to learn the language at ease. 12.5 Materials must address all learners with different learning styles Different learners employ different learning styles. Material developers should cater to all the learning styles of the learners. This can be possible by designing varied activities that involve different styles of learning. Some of the styles of learning are listed below. ? Visual - learning while seeing like text, videos, concrete objects ? Auditory - learning while hearing the language like audios, podcasts etc ? Kinaesthetic - learning while doing like learning during games or play ? Studial - focus on linguistic features of a language like theoretical knowledge of grammar ? Experiential - Learning while communicating like interaction during group work with peers ? Analytic - learning one concept at a time ? Global - Learning language as a whole like learning to narrate a story and also focusing on the tenses and vocabulary.

NSOU ? PGELT-8B 229 ? Dependent - Learners depend on teachers and textbooks. ? Independent - They are autonomous learners who learn using various resources apart from teachers and textbooks. They explore multiple sources and learn during the process of exploration. A learner's learning style varies from one concept to another and can learn one concept by combining more than one style. No learner will be confined to one style of learning. Therefore it is necessary for material developers to reinforce a concept through multiple styles to address the learning styles of different learners. 12.5.1 Materials must provide motivation to learn The most important factor for any learning to be successful is learner motivation. Material designed must keep the learners motivated by including interesting activities and tasks. The level of motivation and attitudes towards learning a language differs from one learner to another. Hence it is important to use various styles, modes, mediums and forms to cater to the needs of the different learners. It can be possible in the following ways. ? Different types of texts ? Different types of activities ? Providing optional learning resources ? Using variety ? Including the benefits of learning a language or a concept or a skill ? Provide importance for learner opinion and learner feedback about materials, resources, topics, activities, tasks and teaching learning environment. ? Catering to the needs of diversified interest of the diverse learners ? Materials developed must be sensitive to the cultures of learners group ? Provide clear instructions and teaching resources to support the learning community 12.5.2 Materials must provide space for silent period Silent period supports better learning of a language. Early learners of a language must not be forced or pressurized to communicate using target language. Materials

230 NSOU ? PGELT-8B developed must be flexible and allow silence or use of native language in the early stages of learning a language. During the beginning phase of learning a language comprehension must be prioritized rather than production with perfection. The main objectives of any activity or concept must focus on learner understanding rather than correctness. Motivation and production can be enhanced by allowing the freedom of choice to communicate using the native language or using target language without giving importance to correct forms of language. It is important to provide choice of expression through different forms and styles. Learning materials must allow learners the choice to express their understanding through art, role play, songs, text etc. 12.5.3 Materials must contribute to learners' holistic development Materials designed to cater to different intellectual, aesthetic and emotional needs of the learners. Materials designed must develop the cognitive abilities of the learners by involving learners into doing tasks and activities that are creative, challenging, analytical and evaluative. This kind of diversified activities involving diverse cognitive skills enhances learners' thinking skills. 12.5.4 Materials must avoid Controlled learning Controlled learning relates to the traditional learning environment where learning happens through drilling, rote learning and memorization. Materials must provide the freedom to learners to choose their learning style and express their understanding in their own creative manner. Freedom of choice keeps the learner's attitude positive and keeps the motivated throughout the learning process. This also helps in long term learning where learners feel confident to apply the concept and encourage them to use the language creatively. 12.5.5 Material should focus on learning outcome Learning outcome is the result of the learning process. Materials should give importance to learning outcomes and less on accuracy while producing language. Focus on accuracy can lead to less production of language and poor communication. Learners benefit if they are allowed to express their thoughts, ideas, opinions and feedback freely without much restrictions. Language cannot be learnt at ease with mere practice.Language learning is a social process and good language can be learnt through interaction and communication.

NSOU ? PGELT-8B 231 12.6 Conclusion Materials play an important role in the language learning process. Materials developed must be comprehensible, rich in variety and rich in input, it must cater to the different learning styles and must motivate the learning throughout the language learning process. 12.7 Review Questions 1. Write any five different types of learning styles with appropriate examples. Think and write your learning style and state if your learning style is the same or different as per the concept or topic. 2. Can materials motivate learning? In what ways can materials motivate learners in language learning? 3. What is meant as reinforcement of a concept? Explain using an example. 4. What are some of the types of materials you have come across as a student? Name them and provide some illustrations? 5. What is your comment on the type of materials made available to you on this course? Do they meet your needs? What are some of the shortcomings you have come across? 12.8 References and Reading List ? Tomlinson, B. (Ed.). (2011). Materials development in language teaching. Ernst KlettSprachen. ? Richards, J. C., & Richards, J. C. (1990). The language teaching matrix. Cambridge University Press.

232 NSOU ? PGELT-8B MODULE-4 : ENGLISH LANGUAGE LEARNERS Unit 13 Learner Strengths and Weaknesses Structure 13.1 Objectives 13.2 Introduction 13.3 Parameters to describe a learner 13.4 Types of learners 13.5 Learner strengths 13.6 Learner weaknesses 13.7 Summary of the unit 13.8 Review questions 13.9 References and Reading List 13.1Objectives After going through this unit, you will be able to a. Identify different characteristics of a learner b. Describe a learner objectively c. Identify the strengths and weaknesses of a learner d. Decide on the teaching strategies depending on the learner type. 13.2 Introduction This module discusses some of the special features of Applied Linguistics in general and ELT in particular. In the previous three modules you have been introduced to the term Applied Linguistics fairly generously. You have learnt what it is and how it evolved into a discipline. You also had a glimpse of the role of psychology, sociology and

NSOU ? PGELT-8B 233 pedagogy in its development. Applied Linguistics has its real purpose in helping learners learn a language better. Therefore, it suggests strategies of remediation besides classroom teaching per se. With such a focus in mind, we looked at the use of Applied Linguistics in curriculum design, syllabus construction and also materials development. This in brief is the summary of the previous three modules. What is the focus of this module? To put it in a nut shell, this module takes a close look at the learner in trying to identify him/her from a variety of angles, such that with our teaching the learner becomes fruitful to the society. 13.3 Parameters to describe a learner This is an important aspect that every teacher should be aware of. While going through the previous module, in Unit 11 we have discussed syllabus construction. One of the first factors that is taken into account while designing a syllabus is learner identity. This is an important aspect, which simply means that we cannot teach a learner unless we know him or her. This is a mammoth task as in any given class there are a large number of learners and it is almost impossible to know everyone. This is true, but is it possible for us to device methods by which we can have a set of broad genralisations. Such generalisations will help us identify our learners. Before we proceed further, do this task. Task: In your class, how many learners are you familiar with? If you are asked to describe them, how would you do it? Your response: The learners in your class all belong to the same age group. There may be marginal differences, but this should not matter. Secondly, their thinking is alike, because they have all gone through similar processes of learning (syllabuses and textbooks etc.). Their backgrounds can be varied, but there are a few factors that bind them. These are some of the parameters (factors) that are helpful in describing your learners. Now, let us expand this in the form of a principle to describe learners in general. We can identify our learners based on their age, social background, and the academic background. Let us look at each of these in some detail. a. Age of the learner: This is not a difficult thing to assess. The government rules are clear about admission of children to schools. The child should be 5+ to

234 NSOU ? PGELT-8B join the first standard class, and based on this, we can assess the age of the child depending on the class the child is in. (e.g. standard 3, the child should be 8+ years old, standard 8, the child should be 13+ years old etc.). With NEP 2020, this stands to change, but we will have a proper guide to assess the age of the child depending on the class he/she is studying. But there are two different types of ages for each learner – the chronological age and the mental age. Chronological age is decided by the date of birth and this is always fixed, or we can make no errors once the child's date of birth is available. But the mental age may vary depending on the cognitive development of the child. This depends on the environment where the child grows, the type of exposure the child has and also the encouragement the child receives from the parents and the others around him/her. This is usually measured in terms of IQ or the Intelligence quotient which is a ratio of the chronological age and the mental age. This is calculated by administering certain tests by psychologists. However, we may consider that a large number of children in our classes are normal. Some may be gifted, and a few may be below average. But this should not matter. b. The social background. In a given school and a class, the social background also appears to be uniform. Of course, there will be a marked difference between the urban and rural children largely because of the exposure they have are different. But they may be skilled differently, and ability of each child needs to be respected. The social background can be assessed on a few parameters as follows: i. Parental education ii. Parental income iii. Parental social class iv. The larger environment – rural/urban/semi-urban v. Number of siblings vi. Type of family (nuclear/joint) vii. Professional background of parents (agriculture, academic, industrial, bureaucratic, etc.) viii. Other relevant details. c. The academic background: This is once again uniform to a large extent. This is because, in your class, all the learners have qualified in the examination

NSOU ? PGELT-8B 235 administered at the end of the year in the previous class they have studied. This ensures uniform learning to a large extent. However, there could be variations in understanding of the content and the ability to express. These are considered finer differences among the learners. Using these three parameters we may describe a learner and by describing various learners, we can draft a profile of the class we intend to teach. 13.4 Types of learners We will discuss this feature very briefly. You will learn more about the types of learners in your course on materials development, hence we will provide only a few relevant points here. Based on the types of learning, we identify the learners as belonging to certain categories. Largely, we perceive four major types of learners, though there are scholars who identify seven to ten types of learners. The larger the division, more the overlaps, so we will stick to four types of learners and describe each one of the briefly. Here are the four types of learners: a. Visual learners: There are some learners who have graphic memory. This means, they tend to remember what they see. They prefer to look at a demonstration of a process, observe all the steps and follow it exactly the same way. Such learners are called the visual learners. Think of observing a dissection in a biology lab, or a chemistry experiment in the lab, a model lesson in a school etc. these are the learning sources for the visual learners. b. Auditory learners: There are a few learners who prefer to listen to a teacher, parent or someone. They tend to remember things they hear. Such learners are called auditory learners. Most of us begin our life as auditory learners. We listen to stories and remember them for a long time. Gradually this competence becomes weaker. Listening to classroom lectures, listening to discourses, radio talks etc. are characteristics of auditory learners. c. Kinesthetic learners: These learners are also called tactile learners, and those who are sensitive to touch. These learners learn to do things by doing. Practice is the key word. Look at the boys in a motor garage who can repair your scooters and cars. They are able to strip and assemble various parts though they are not able to describe them. They are an example of kinesthetic learners. Our ability to work in the laboratories is part of kinesthetic learning.

236 NSOU ? PGELT-8B d. Reading and Writing learners: These learners can also be called self-learners or independent learners. They prefer to see a printed word and grasp it and also reproduce it in their own way. Their main mode of learning depends on the availability of good reading materials which they can reproduce or summarise. Most of you are now exposed to this type of learning. You are able to get the information required through a printed text which you read, understand and respond to at a later stage. On reading this, perhaps a thought must have passed your mind about who can be called the best learner. It is not right to compare one type of learner with another type. Each type of learner has an advantage. In fact, it is difficult to isolate learners based on the type of learning, for in real life we tend to combine all types of learning in different measure and develop a style of learning which is unique to us. It is because of this we have learning differences in a class, though all learners are exposed to the same set of lessons taught by the same set of teachers. 13.5 Learner Strengths All learners have some strengths. It is for the teacher to identify these and guide the learners properly to their goal. It is difficult to list all the strengths in one place, for such a list is likely to be subjective. Here we shall look at a few and connect them with the Indian context. What are our strengths? Strengths help us progress easily. They help us overcome any hurdles in our way. We should recognise our strengths and develop them properly to successfully achieve our goals. In the case of most learners in India, success depends on passing the examination with good scores. This is not a bad goal, but this should not be the end, it should help the learner develop holistically and become a good citizen of the country. Here are some qualities that every learner should develop: a. Curiosity: This is an essential trait every learner should develop. A person who is curious is likely to learn more. A curious person questions things and does not accept what is given on the platter. This quality helps one analyse the content of what is being taught/learnt and make the learning meaningful for oneself. By nature, a curious learner can be said to be an explorer who soon becomes an autonomous learner. b. Creativity: This is another quality a learner should develop. However, creativity needs to be understood in a slightly different sense, not in the sense of a

NSOU ? PGELT-8B 237 creative artist. It is the ability of the learner to imagine and express a response in a different way – perhaps the learner may think of a new sentence, a new word, a new story, a new picture something others may not have thought of. This aspect of creativity is inherent to all the children. A good teacher should identify this trait and help the child develop the creative aspects of learning. Learners who are curious and creative also take initiative in the classroom interaction. c. Focus: This is another important aspect of good learning. Does the learner pay proper attention to what is being taught or does the learner get diverted easily in the course of the lesson? If the learner is not able to focus properly, it may lead to 'attention deficit syndrome' which might need external help to remedy. It is the responsibility of the teacher to ensure the learners pay proper attention. When the teacher gets to the class with proper preparation, and makes the lesson relevant to the learner, the learner focus will be obviously on the lesson. When the learner focus is on the lesson, the learning quality is enhanced. d. Organised learning: Good learners tend to be more organised than the weak learners. They tend to keep their books tidy, notes is properly organised and they are able to retrieve the materials when needed without much delay. Organised learners are systematic in their approach to learning. They prepare a schedule for themselves and observe it strictly. These learners can be identified by their behaviour and appearance. Generally, these learners are tidy and look impressive. e. Self-learning: Some learners come to the class with good preparation. They keep track of what is being taught and tend to read the lesson before the teacher actually teaches it in the class. This helps them understand the lesson and when required participate in the classroom discussion. Self-learning is expressed in a variety of ways and what is cited here is just one among the many. These learners tend to look for newer resources to learning and are generally ahead of the rest of the learners in the class. Such learners are likely to be successful in their lives. This is not an exhaustive list of strengths. There are many more qualities like learners being flexible, versatile, taking initiative (leadership), and being able to grasp things quickly. There are good books on psychology which help you with long lists of strengths of learners. Take a look.

238 NSOU ? PGELT-8B 13.6 Learner Weaknesses We will look at just a few weaknesses and not dwell on them in detail. The main focus of identifying weaknesses is to help the learners overcome the same and become better learners. It is necessary for teachers to be aware of different types of weaknesses that the learners have. In one word, absence of the qualities that we have mentioned in the previous section constitutes weakness. In addition to these, we will add a few more. a. Attention seeking: Some learners are always worried about their image and try to seek the attention of others in the class as well as that of the teacher.This can be construed as disturbing others as well as lacking focus on the essentials. Such learners tend to be branded 'nuisance' in the class. b. Delaying work: This quality is technically called 'procrastination'. Some learners tend to postpone their work till the last minute. They fail to submit assignments on time or prepare themselves for the examination at the right time. This could be because of several reasons – laziness, not being organised or sheer over confidence. Whatever the reason be, this is certainly a weakness which the learners have to overcome. Such learners need counseling at the right time to help them overcome the weakness. c. Self-image: Certain learners form a self-image of themselves and assess their abilities wrongly. They often end up blaming others for their failures. This weakness can be dangerous if not remedied well in time. Such learners are likely to face severe disappointments in the society in their later life. d. Insecure: There are learners who are given to hard work, but are always worried about the fear of failure. They feel insecure and this feeling often impedes their performance. Such learners also need to be diagnosed and offered help at the right time. Like strengths, weaknesses are also many. As teachers, we often identify the weaknesses faster than we recognise the strengths. We should identify both and treat our learners appropriately, and the purpose of this module is to help you do this.

NSOU ? PGELT-8B 239 13.7 Summary Let us recall what we have discussed in this unit. We have looked at four different aspects all related to the learners. Our learners need to describe properly, and to do so, we need a set of parameters. We have discussed these to begin with. Subsequently, we have moved to look at learning styles and learner types and briefly discussed the characteristic features of each type of learning and learner. Finally, we have also taken a close look at the strengths and weaknesses of our learners. In the next unit, we shall discuss the concept of special learners and how a teacher can help such learners. Before we move to the next unit, here are a few questions to help you revise what you have learnt. 13.8 Review Questions a. What is learning? b. How can we identify our learners? c. Why is it important to identify learners? d. Which aspects do you find are more important while identifying learners? e. Do all learners learn alike? Give reasons. f. What are the different types of learning/learners? g. Which of these types do you belong to? Give reasons. h. What are some of the strengths of the learners? i. What are the weaknesses of learners? j. How should we treat strengths and weaknesses in our class? 13.9 References and Reading List 1. Holt, John. (1995). How Children Learn. New York: Da Capo Press ISBN 020184048 2. Pritch, Alan. (2014). Ways of Learning. London: Routledge 3. Reid, Gavin (2005). Learning Styles and Inclusion. London: Paul Chapman Publishers.

240 NSOU ? PGELT-8B Unit 14 Helping Special Learners Structure 14.1 Objectives 14.2 Introduction 14.3 Special learners 14.4 Some features of special learners 14.5 Types of Special learners 14.6 How to teach special learners 14.7 Mainstreaming - problems and prospects 14.8 Summary 14.9 Review Questions 14.10 References and Reading List 14.1Objectives At the end of this unit, the learners will be able to: a. Understand that all learners do not have the same ability to learn. b. Perceive the differences in learning ability leads to labeling learners differently c. Identify different types of learners who are special d. Identify strategies to teach special learners according to their needs 14.2 Introduction In the previous unit we looked at learners their types and the learning styles. While discussing the learners, we did not use certain labels based on their competence. Using learners' ability to learn and cope with the problems of learning calls for a different categorization. In your class, you must have come across terms like bright learners, average learners, below average or weak learners. These labels are judgmental, but they

NSOU ? PGELT-8B 241 have a value and a rationale for assigning such labels. In this unit let us take a close look at some learner types based on the learners' ability to learn and also look at the strategies the teachers need to employ to teach them. 14.3. Special Learners Before going into the concept of special learners, let us quickly recall the features of learners. Learners have a cognitive ability to grasp concepts and express them in their own language. This ability is not uniformly spread across all learners. Some are able to grasp the concepts quickly, while others take time. The first group of learners is called quick learners or gifted learners. The second group has several labels to it depending on the pace and type of learning they are capable of. Generally they are called special learners, but the term special learner also has a specific meaning and is often associated with learners who have some problems with their learning. Activity 1: You must have seen several learners in your class as a teacher or a student. Behaviour of some students must have caught your attention as strange or not normal. Can you recall some instances and write a short paragraph. Please mention what was your first reaction when you saw such learners? Your response: Special learner is a label assigned to learners with some learning difficulties. We must have seen many students who are easily distracted or have difficulties in reading and writing. Recall the movie 'Tare Zameen Par' and the character of Ishaan in the movie. Also remember how he was treated by his parents, his teachers until a new teacher (Nikumbh) arrived on the scene and identified his problem as well as his strength. Ishaan in this movie is a special learner diagnosed with Dyslexia. Dyslexia is just one problem, and there are quite a few other problems, and let us take a look at some of these special categories of learners. Why are these learners called 'special learners' and not 'problem learners'? The answer is not difficult to find. The learners have problems. As teachers we need to solve their problems and not brand them with a label. Calling them 'problem learners' will affect their self-esteem and they will remain a problem for life. It is our social responsibility to help them, and allow them to merge with the main-stream learners. These are learners who need special attention of the teacher, and hence they are called special learners. The role of the teacher teaching special learners is extremely important

242 NSOU ? PGELT-8B in our society. Such teachers need special training, proper attitude, and above all a lot of patience. We will talk about these aspects later, first we will focus on classifying the special learners and know a little bit about each type. 14.4. Some features of Special Learners It is difficult to specifically make a list of features that mark the special learners as different from normal learners. However, there are some of the behavioural patterns that be noticed in the special learners. Here are a few features that are mentioned, but these may not be seen in all the children. a. Reticence: This is one of the most common features found in special children, they refuse to interact with others in the class. This could be because of the societal attitude towards them. This needs to change. Occasionally, parents are also responsible for such behaviour in the children. Parents of special children are often over protective and do not allow them to mix with other children. A sense of stigma prevails and hence the parents become over protective. Such children need encouragement to involve in activities. Love and care can help such children to a large extent. b. Hyper-activism: This is exactly the opposite of the reticence. Some of the special children are restless and keep meddling with things around them. Occasionally, they could be destructive and need to be controlled. One way of helping such children is to keep them constantly engaged with some task. They also need to be talked to softly with love and care. c. Untidy: Very often special children tend to be untidy with little attention paid to personal hygiene. They dirty their clothes, dishevel their hair, refuse to clean a running nose and generally remain unwelcome. Often they are not properly toilet trained. Parental care is essential in correcting this behaviour. When put in school, they may pick up proper habits of cleanliness and hygiene by looking at other children. d. Overeating: Special children are likely to overeat and become obese. They lack exercise which is one major cause for their obesity. However, parents can help them by imposing certain discipline at home in terms of eating and participating in games and sports.

NSOU ? PGELT-8B 243 e. Violent behaviour: This feature is related to hyper-activism. Along with being over active and destructive, these children can also be violent and resort to beating, biting or scratching other children. Such children need medical help to calm their nerves. The medication needs to be given by a qualified doctor and the treatment may prolong depending on the severity of the disorder. f. Poor communicators: Most of the special children have problems with communication. There are speech disorders, hearing impairment, over salivation, lop-sided development of the brain etc. which is the cause of their poor communication. Medical intervention is required in such cases along with therapeutic exercises. There are special institutes established to treat and educate such learners. The features mentioned above are some of the most commonly observed behaviours. It is possible to have children with none of the above mentioned symptoms or a combination of two or more of the above symptoms. This is not an exhaustive list, and newer symptoms can also show in some children. All special children need counseling by a qualified person. 14.5. Types of Special learners Psychologists identify nearly twenty or more types of learners as special learners. We will look at five of the most common types and list the features of each type. a. Dyslexia: This is the most common problem among many of the children. They are not able to identify the letters of the alphabet properly and read what is written. This learning disorder can express itself in children getting confused between what is written and what they perceive. The problem becomes acute when similar looking words occur in a sequence or separately. (e.g. commit and connect) They may lack in fluency while reading which may affect their comprehension. Since they are not able to read fluently, they are likely spell the words wrong when they are required to write. b. ADHD or Attention Deficit/Hyperactive Disorder: This is also a reasonably common disorder among children. Many children are not able to concentrate on the work they are doing. Their attention gets distracted easily and this is likely to disturb other children in the class. Researchers believe this is more of a genetic disorder and less of a learning disorder. It is necessary to take help

244 NSOU ? PGELT-8B from a qualified doctor with proper medicines to get rid of this problem. Pedagogic strategies may be helpful to a certain extent by identifying their special interests and engaging them with such work. (e.g. Ishaan in Tare Zameen Par was more interested in painting than reading. When his teacher, Nikumbh encourages him, he becomes near normal.) c. Dyscalculia: This is similar to Dyslexia which we have discussed earlier. Here the learners tend to get confused with numbers and their operations. Children with dyscalculia may not be able to arrange a set of numbers in their proper sequence or understand the difference between simple operations like addition and subtraction. The rationale governing multiplication and division becomes far more difficult to comprehend for such children. All these together, make problem solving a difficult almost an impossible task for these learners. d. Dysgraphia: This is another extension of dyslexia. While children with dyslexia have problems with reading, children with 'dysgraphia' have problems with writing. This problem is manifest in a number of ways – unable to write the correct letters of the alphabet (e.g. letters b and d often are replaced with one another) where required. Other forms of dysgraphia are seen in the learner's inability to hold the pencil properly, posture assumed while writing, and unable to concentrate. These problems tend to the exhaust the learner rather quickly. The exhaustion has further ramifications. The learners are not able to organise their thoughts coherently while writing and often their handwriting is unusually large or too tiny. They also have problems with writing neatly. e. Processing Deficit: This is a disorder which can be said to be an extension of ADHD. Here the sensory organs of the learners tend to work differently – their ability to hear, see and feel. Because of this weakness, it is difficult for the learners to see what the teacher writes on the board, or listen to the lesson that is being taught, or participate in activities that demand the sense of touch (feel and say, look and say, etc.). The impact of this disorder is seen in learner's inability to remember what is taught and respond to questions in a conventional class. Besides the five disorders we have mentioned above, we also have learners with visual impairment, speech impairment and hearing impairment. Such learners also have problems of comprehension that the normal learners can cope with. However, we will not discuss these three types as special learners in this unit.

NSOU ? PGELT-8B 245 14.6. How to teach special learners There are special schools meant for teaching special children. Though there are many proven methods, one of the commonly used methods is the play way method. Several books have been written based on this method and one of the well-known books is called Dibs. There are special counselors trained to handle learners with learning disorders. Special schools have also been set up in different parts of the country, and you may visit some of these schools. (Please visit the School run by Ramakrishna Mutt in Narendrapur, Kolkata to see for yourself how special children are taught.) It is not so much the method that matters. What matters is the attitude of the teacher. Does the teacher treat the special learners with care and love? Does the teacher have adequate patience to deal with them? Does the teacher empathise with the problems of these children? Does the teacher have special training? Does the school have adequate equipment to engage the special learners? These are some of the factors that matter in bringing up these children. It needs to be mentioned here, that special learners should not be allowed to remain in their state (as special children) for long. Efforts must be made to move them into the main stream and merge them with normal learners. It is essential to make them cope with learning by quickening their pace and adjusting their difficulties to cope with normal studies. This can be a slow process, but an essential process. Besides the teachers, the education system and the society at large should also be sympathetic to these learners and accept them as normal. How we treat them quickens the pace of their recovery. 14.7. Mainstreaming: Problems and Prospects In the previous section while discussing some of the teaching strategies, we have suggested that the special children should be merged with the main stream learners at the earliest. Though this is an essential aspect of teaching, there are several problems associated with it. Some of the problems arise from the parents and the society. a. Parents. Here we need to think of the parents of special children as well as those of normal children. Parents of special children suffer from a complex. They are worried about the social stigma and try to be protective of their

246 NSOU ? PGELT-8B children. This leads to non-social behaviour on the part of the children – i.e. they do not mix with other children in the class easily, they are often frightened by small incidences, some of them are over-sensitive. The net result of such behaviour is reticence, which we have discussed. Parents of such children need to be counseled and encouraged to allow their children to mix with the normal children. This develops a healthy attitude among the normal children as well. Parents of normal children are reluctant to allow their children to associate with special children. Children tend to imitate others easily. Parents of normal children are worried that when their children imitate special children, they may form a habit which would be difficult to wean. b. Lack of proper schools and equipment: Though some schools for special children have been created in the private sector, the fee structure is high, and children from economically weaker sections cannot attend such schools. There are very few schools run by the government or NGOs. But such schools are far fewer than the required number. Besides, these schools are either understaffed or not properly equipped. Thus they are not able to fulfill the purpose for which they have been established. We have stated two major problems that exist in our society today. But this need not deter us, for we at least have some recourse to go to. Best alternative is to have normal schools which admit special children and help them cope with others with the help of counselors. 14.8 Summary In this unit we have looked at the term special children from pedagogic perspective. We have looked at the reasons for using this term and also delineated some of the characteristic features of special learners. Further we have looked at the types of special learners and some strategies that can be used to teach them. Finally, we have looked at the possibilities of merging these learners with main stream learners and the problems that exist with such merging. 14.9 Review Questions a. What are some of the characteristics of a good learner?

NSOU ? PGELT-8B 247 b. Who are special learners? c. Why do we call them special learners? (Is this the right thing to do?) d. What are some of the characteristic features of special learners? e. What are the types of special learners? f. What is dyslexia? g. What is dysgraphia? h. What is one method to teach special children? i. What are the qualities of a teacher in a special school? j. Why should we merge the special learners with main stream learners? k. How should we train the parents of special children? l. What is the responsibility of the society in treating special learners? 14.10 References and Reading List Axline, Virginia M. (1986). Dibs in Search of Self. New York: Ballantine Books Haddon, Mark. (2004). Curious Incident of a Dog in the Night-time. London: Vintage Publishers

248 NSOU ? PGELT-8B Unit 15 Remedial Materials Structure 15.1 Objectives 15.2 Introduction 15.3 Remedial Materials 15.4 Some features of remedial materials 15.5 How to produce remedial materials 15.6 How to use remedial materials 15.7 Remedial materials and Mainstreaming 15.8 Summary 15.9 Review Questions 15.10 References and Reading List 15.1Objectives After going through this unit, you will be able to: a. Understand the term remedial materials b. Appreciate their use in the classroom c. Differentiate remedial materials from initial materials d. Produce some remedial materials depending on the need. 15.2 Introduction In this unit we will take a look at the meaning of remedial materials, strategies to produce them, and use them in our classes. Why are these materials called remedial materials? How are they different from regular materials? Who are the learners? These are some of the questions that get answered in the course of this unit.

15.3 Remedial Materials To begin with let us understand the term remedial materials. There are two words in this term 'remedy' and 'materials'. As students of ELT, you have come across the word materials often in your course. Materials represent the syllabus, textbook, exercises, and other related things such as teaching aids used in the classroom. We have examples of different types of materials in the courses we have studied. What about the other word? 'Remedy', this term is used more often in the medical science. It means a process the doctors adopt to cure a disease. Generally, a doctor (medical practitioner) cures a patient. If this is the case, what do materials have to do with diseases and curing? Let us discuss this a little further. When you fall ill, you go to a doctor. The doctor examines you, and finds out what is wrong with you. This process is called diagnosis. Once the doctor has diagnosed your problem, he will give you (prescribe) specific medicines and ask you to use them in a particular manner. You have to obey the doctor to get well. This is a common experience almost all of us have. Sometimes, the doctor resorts to tests from outside to confirm if his diagnosis is correct. This confirmation through a pathological test is a reinforcement of the earlier diagnosis. The diagnosis helps in planning the remedy. In describing the process of doctor curing you, we have used some words - diagnosis, prescription, reinforcement and remedy. Can we use these terms in our teaching? What do you think? Please write your responses in the space given below: Your response: When we go to a class, we have a large number of students. They have varying degrees of competence and not all are equally competent. Some students are weak and we need to offer them help. Offering help to weaker students is called remediation. This is just one example. In the previous unit, we discussed a group of learners called the special learners. There are different types of special learners. These learners are less fortunate and cannot cope with studies the way normal children do. They need different type of materials before they can be merged with the main stream learners. Materials used to teach special learners are also called remedial materials. We have looked at two meanings of the term 'remedial materials' – materials that can be used with weak learners and materials used to teach special learners. Materials

used with both groups, are they similar? This is a good question, if it occurred to you as you were reading this. We will discuss it further in this unit. When we generalize what we have said so far, it can be summarised as follows: different learners need different types of materials;in other words, the same set of materials cannot be used with all the learners. We need to customize our materials to suit the specific needs of the learners. These materials can be initial learning materials or remedial materials as the case may be. In the next section let us take a closer look at the remedial materials for some of their features. 15.4. Some features of remedial materials Every class has a specific syllabus based on which course books are produced. These course books cater to the normal children and while producing these books, the average performance of the group is taken as the norm or standard. We will not discuss in detail the production of textbooks here. You may look at your course on Materials Development for this. Some students in your class find the course book materials difficult to understand. They are not ready to receive the lessons. Such students need help. In the previous section, we noted that a doctor diagnoses the disease before curing it. Here your learner has a weakness (disease) and you need to diagnose the weakness in the learner to treat him/her properly. A doctor has a set of instruments (stethoscope, thermometer, etc.) to diagnose the disease. What does a teacher have? We can produce some tests that help us identify the weaknesses of the learners. Look at an example given below: Go to your class and ask your students to write a paragraph on their classroom, or any familiar subject they like. If there are forty students in your class, and when you collect the paragraphs and start correcting them, you will find various types of errors – errors of spelling, errors of grammar, errors in vocabulary (wrong use of words), errors in sentence construction, errors in organisation, etc. Under each of these categories you may find further errors. For e.g. spelling errors could – omission of double letters, unnecessary use of double letters, replacing letters (e with i, c with s, f with ph, etc.) Similarly, in grammar, you can have the errors of tense, concord, wrong gender, irregular plurals and past forms etc. Each of these problems demands a different

type of treatment – materials which act as medicine. Since these materials act as medicine, they are called remedial materials. There is another aspect to remedial materials. Our learners in the class could be weak for they may not have learnt what they should have in the previous class. In such a case, can we ask them to go back to the previous class, or get the books they have already studied and re-teach the same books? Either of these strategies is likely to damage their self-esteem and we as teachers should refrain from doing so. We need to teach what has not been learnt properly and help our learners cope with what they need to learn now. Such task would demand more time. How do we cope with such a problem? Here is what we can do. We may ask these children to stay for a short duration after the class and teach them the necessary lessons from the previous class. But such teaching should not be re-teaching the same lessons. It would be re-teaching the same concepts with new materials and more intensive practice. These two aspects are important. The concept will be the same, but the lesson will be different and the lesson will provide more practice. For example, the learners may always get confused between the use of simple past and present perfect tense. How do we teach this? Can we think of a few situations where the contrast can be brought out and also provide exercises for intensive practice? If you have to ask the learners to stay beyond the school hours, you may have additional problems from the authorities, learners and parents. The learners may miss their bus, they may be disturbed by other learners leaving the school and getting ready to play. There could be a host of problems that we may not have thought of. Alternatively, it is possible to divide the class into smaller heterogeneous groups. Each group can have a leader who is a gifted learner with one or two slow learners. Tasks can be designed in such a manner that the slow learners get to learn with the help of gifted learners. This saves the classroom time and also introduces a congenial atmosphere in the classroom. Learners get to teach each other and thus a better bonding develops among them along with good learning. There are quite a few other strategies and most of these are directed towards special learners and not necessarily slow learners. 15.5. How to produce remedial materials Having discussed some of the features of remedial teaching, let us look at how these

252 NSOU ? PGELT-8B materials can be produced. One or two major points we need to bear in mind while developing materials are as follows: a. The materials must be produced in easy to understand language so as to provide access to the learners without difficulty. b. The theoretical explanations should be avoided. (e.g. we do not need to discuss the rules of grammar and provide detailed explanation on why a particular structure is wrong etc.) It is best to provide familiar examples and contrast them with wrong examples (commonly used errors) (Look at the books in the reference list) c. Materials should provide adequate practice. There should be more exercises which are fairly graded in nature. The exercises should also have adequate guidance in terms of instructions and illustrations. d. There must be ample scope for the learner to work independently than being handheld by the teacher. e. The remedial materials should get integrated into the main teaching and not remain a separate part. Having mentioned the qualities of remedial materials, it may not be out of place to suggest a how to use these materials in our classroom. The next section will discuss this. 15.6. How to use remedial materials Remedial materials are meant for practice and not for teaching. Every teacher should necessarily understand that remedial materials are not re-teaching materials. These are customized special materials. What do we mean by this? Before producing these materials, the teacher will administer a diagnostic test and identify the weaknesses of the learners. The weakness identified may be grouped into certain categories. For example, we may have errors in grammar. But these errors could be of several types – errors of tense (wrong use) or errors of prepositions (dropping, over use, wrong use) this could also happen with articles, there could be errors of concord, or use of conjunctions, conditionals, wrong complex sentence formations etc. These can be categorized appropriately – and students can be divided into groups, and materials produced for each type of error can be given to the specific group. A spirit of competition (with incentives added) can be introduced to motivate the learners. Handling

NSOU ? PGELT-8B 253 multiple groups with different tasks demands special training, and the teacher needs to be alert and pay attention to each group equally. The teacher should be around while the learners are working with the remedial materials without interfering in their work. However, the teacher by his/her presence should become part of the group, and this gives confidence to the learner that there is help is at hand. While monitoring, the teacher may provide minimum help, and only when required to ensure the task is completed. At no time, the teacher should give an impression to the learner that he/she is weak and therefore being asked to work on these additional exercises. The remedial materials should become part of the mainstream materials and we shall look at it in the next section. 15.7. Remedial materials and Mainstreaming What is mainstreaming? Every class has a textbook which is prescribed as part of the course study. This book is based on the syllabus and is normally graded. However, no textbook is complete in itself and it needs to be supplemented by teacher made materials. Teacher made materials can render some of the exercises in the textbook easy, or complex depending on the nature of the learners in the class. While preparing the supplementary materials, the teacher should take care to cater to the needs of all the learners in the class. This will ensure mainstreaming the remedial materials. Mainstreaming refers to using additional materials along with the textbook materials in the form of enrichment or remediation. 15.8. Summary In this unit we have looked at the concept of remedial materials. The term is used in two different senses – to meet the needs of the special learners and also the slow learners. Remedial materials are not meant for re-teaching. They are used to supplement the prescribed materials or the textbook in use. A teacher needs to be careful while using remedial materials not to hurt the self-esteem of the learner. 15.9. Review Questions a. What do we mean by remedial materials? b. Who are the learners who need remediation?

254 NSOU ? PGELT-8B c. Can we label remedial teaching as re-teaching? Give reasons. d. Is remedial teaching an additional burden on the teacher? e. What are some of the strategies to teach remedial materials? f. What are some of the features of remedial materials? g. Why is it necessary for a teacher to prepare supplementary materials? h. How are supplementary materials used as remedial materials? i. Are slow learners the same as special learners? j. How often do we need to use remedial teaching in our classes? 15.10 References and Reading List a. Carroll, B J.(1969). The Bridge Intensive Course for Indian Students. London (Indian Branch): Oxford University Press. b. Gowers, E.A., (2004). Complete Plain Words. London: Penguin. c. Hornby, A.S. (1997). A Guide to Patterns and Usage in English. London: Oxford University Press.

NSOU ? PGELT-8B 255 Unit 16 Evaluation Strategies Structure 16.1 Objectives 16.2 Introduction 16.3 Definition and scope of evaluation 16.4 Tests, Assessment and Evaluation 16.5 Continuous Comprehensive Evaluation 16.6 Feedback and its features 16.7 Summary of the unit 16.8 Review questions 16.9 References 16.1Objectives At the end of this unit, the learners will be able to: a. Understand the concept of evaluation b. Become familiar with different terms used in association with evaluation c. Become familiar with different types of assessment in practice d. Utilize the results for further development in teaching and curriculum design. 16.2 Introduction This is the last unit in our module and this unit should quickly recapitulate for you what has been discussed in the other three units. We began with identifying learners, their features and strengths and weaknesses. We looked at the term special learners in this context and a few categories of special learners and their qualities. Having looked at the special learners, in the next unit we looked at strategies to teach such learners and also remedy the incomplete or faulty learning. Now we are at the end of the module and we will look at some evaluation strategies. In this unit, we will discuss the concept

256 NSOU ? PGELT-8B of evaluation, and the instruments used for evaluation. More important than the evaluation is the wash back effect which helps us in reforming ourselves. We shall look at the meaning of this term and its implications in pedagogy. 16.3. Definition and scope of evaluation You have been students for a long time. In the course of your studentship, you have faced several examinations and tests. You have faced these with some amount of fear, uncertainty and anxiety. In the space below, mention the types of tests and examinations you have faced. Your response: It is a common practice in schools and colleges to conduct tests and examinations. Why are these conducted? What is the ultimate goal of such tests and examinations? We will answer this in one phrase – 'learner placement'. Do you know the meaning of this phrase? It simply means, to know which learner knows more and which learner knows less. There can be a range in such ranking and the learners can be arranged according to their scores in a descending order. We generally call this ranking the learners, and the phrase given has the same meaning as ranking learners. Is this is the only purpose? No, the results have many more uses than just learner placement. It helps the learner to know or understand his/her weaknesses. It is a help given to the learners to improve and perform better. Do you agree with this? A good teacher, while evaluating an answer, marks all the errors the leaners have committed and also suggests the correct answer or provides a feedback based on which the learner can overcome the error. Have you noticed such remarks in your test papers? We will discuss the value of feedback a little later in this unit. It is not just the learners who get help from the test results. The teachers also get a feedback on their teaching. If a large number of learners have answered a question wrongly, or produced exactly similar type of errors, it is a reflection on improper teaching by the teacher. A sensitive teacher will take a note of this and perhaps remedy the teaching strategy. A good teacher may plan to teach the lesson once again properly helping the learners overcome their misconceptions. If this is the purpose of evaluation, how do we define it? We will look at three possible functions of evaluation.

a. Evaluation is a process of assessment. b. It is a method of assessing the learners' uptake on what is taught. c. It is a means to help the teacher understand the learner behaviour and the success of teaching. Take a close look at these three statements and arrive at your own working definition. Tests and examinations serve different purposes in the academic world. We will look at some of the terms used with evaluation and see how they are distinct. 16.4. Tests, Assessment and Evaluation In the previous section we have understood the reasons for Evaluation. In the course of discussion, we have also said that evaluation is a process. We need to understand this further. What do we mean by a process? A process is long drawn and has a sense of continuity to it. Therefore, when we say, evaluation is a process, we mean it is a never ending thing. We tend to evaluate our learners all the while. From the day they enter our class, the evaluation process begins. We notice how they dress, how friendly they are with other learners, the way they respond to questions in the class, the manner in which they keep their books (neat and tidy or otherwise), their handwriting, in general their overall behaviour. This evaluation never ends and it leaves a lasting impression on us. Taking into account the description we have given here, we may even say, "Evaluation is a comprehensive process that never ends". However, this is only a working definition. Educationists define it a little differently. One definition that has caught my attention is given here: Evaluation is a continuous process and is concerned with the formal academic achievement of pupils. It is interpreted in the development of the individual in terms of desirable behavioral change relation of his feeling, thinking, and actions. Let us look at this definition a little closely and analyse it. It states the following" a. a continuous process b. concerned with formal academic achievement c. development of the individual d. desirable behavioural change

In the preceding paragraph we have discussed all these traits and the definition provided here captures the essence very well. To formally evaluate a learner, we have a set of instruments – these are called tests and examinations. Both these have a similar purpose, but differ in their magnitude. Both attempt to assess the learners. Tests are periodical events and are confined to a small group or what is popularly called the 'class'. Tests are constructed and administered by the teacher, hence there is a certain amount of autonomy given to the teacher. The teacher made test (as it is called) is based on what is taught in the class, and learners tend to anticipate the questions or tasks. After assessing the test, the teacher provides a feedback to the learners. The learners are given an opportunity to do better each successive time. Because of this, the tests become part of Formative Assessment (FA). Formative Assessment, by definition gives scope to a learner to improve. Examinations are also events, but that occur less frequently than tests. Unlike tests, they have finality about them. These are administered at the end of a term/semester or the academic year. The examinations which are of longer duration, obviously have more number of questions to respond to. These questions need not be framed by the teacher who has taught the class and there is room for some anxiety among the learners taking the examination. Further, at the end of assessment, the learners may not get any feedback leaving little scope for improvement. (It is for this reason, we said, 'examinations have finality about them'). Based on this nature of examination, they become part of Summative Assessment. Summative represents the totality or finality and attempt to measure the learning by the learner in a comprehensive manner. Formative and Summative assessments are part of the education system. The ratio of weight given to each type of assessment is determined by the examination body – Board of Primary/Secondary Education or the University. To date, summative assessment has been given larger weight in comparison with the formative assessment. The recently introduced NEP 2020 has recommended greater weight being offered to formative assessment and wean the summative assessment from the system. But this will take some time to become a reality. There is a third instrument of assessing learner uptake. This is called the project work. Project work helps in assessing the learners' ability to apply knowledge gained in the class to real life activity. This is not a supervised activity. It is a take home

assignment which needs to be completed in a stipulated period of time (a week or a fortnight, and this period depends on the magnitude and complexity of the project. For example, a doctoral project may take a few years to complete.). Project is highly individualized and assessed for its own merits without comparing it with the works of others. 16.5. Continuous Comprehensive Evaluation Tests and projects form part of what we call CCE – Continuous Comprehensive Evaluation. This scheme was introduced in all the CBSE schools a few years ago, and later withdrawn due to the protest by teachers. What did this involve? CCE made demands on the teacher to assess the learner progress almost every day and keep a record of the same. The assessment was based on a variety of factors including learners' participation in classroom teaching and discussion, regularity of attendance, participation in sports and other curricular activities, behaviour with other learners in the class and also formal tests. The tests were spread across the year and their distribution is represented diagrammatically as follows: The Academic year ↓ ↓ ↓ ↓ ↓ ↓ Beginning FA 1 FA 2 SA 1 FA 3 FA 4 SA 2 Of the year (10%) (10%) (30%) (10%) (10%) (30%) This diagram gives you the distribution of tests for assessment throughout the year. A learner takes the final examination for just 30% of the marks thus reducing the amount of anxiety of failure. The learner has already been marked for 70% of the progress made, and this is helpful to the learners. The four formative tests were all teacher made tests and could have a variety of modes of administration – these tests could be oral tests, take home assignments, projects, or working out exercises in the course books, etc. The only deterrent factor was in keeping the records which required the teachers' to spend a lot more time than they could afford to. Hence the system was withdrawn. This scheme is presented here to update you on one of the practices and with the implementation of NEP 2020, CCE may once again become part of the school curriculum.

Here is a task for you to do. Having become familiar with different types of assessment, recall the types of test and assignments you were given in the school. Did you get any feedback on your performance? Your response: In the next section, we will discuss in detail the value of feedback that we need to give our learners. We will discuss its nature and sope. 16.6. Feedback and its features Have you ever thought why NEP 2020 prefers to give greater weight to formative assessment? Try and express your views here: Your response: Formative assessment is less formal compared to the summative assessment. It is a cumulative process (or a continuous assessment – CCE or Continuous Comprehensive Evaluation which has been discussed in detail in 16.4) and helps the learners improve constantly. How does it help learners improve? The improvement happens because of the feedback. What do we mean by feedback? Feedback is a report on the type of performance the learner has exhibited. The learner performance is seen in the type of answers the learner can provide in a test that is administered. The test could be oral, written or a project assigned to the learner. The feedback needs to be administered properly. It needs to be polite and should not hurt the learner. However, the learner needs to become aware of the weaknesses and also understand how these weaknesses can be overcome. Let us take an example. Compare the two types of feedback given below. Which of these would you prefer, and why? Write in the space after the examples. a. This is a bad essay and needs to be rewritten. b. This essay while it covers all the points has some weaknesses. i. There are a few language errors. Check the rules of concord wherever it has been marked. ii. Take care of your spellings. Use the British spelling consistently.

iii. You should punctuate the sentences properly. Without this, the meaning may change. iv. Organise your thoughts systematically. Make an outline of the paragraph/ essay before you write. v. Before submitting the answer, try to read it once again and check for some errors which you can discover yourself. vi. All your errors have been marked in the paper, in some places corrections have been suggested. If you still have doubts you can consult me. Task: There are two types of feedback 'a' and 'b'. Which of these two do you prefer and why? Your response: Obviously, most of you will choose 'b' as your preference. It is more friendly (non- threatening) and constructive. The first one is more matter of fact and does not provide any help to the learner. Having gone through these examples, decide what you need to do with your students. 16.7. Summary of the unit In this unit we have looked at the definition of evaluation and understood why it is called a process and not an event. We have discussed in details the need for evaluation in our curriculum. To evaluate our learners we need some instruments. Tests and examinations are the most common tools of evaluation or assessment. We have looked at the similarities and differences between these two terms. Moving further, we have looked at the concept of formative and summative assessments, their strengths and weaknesses. Finally, we have seen the purpose of feedback and its value in helping learners improve. 16.9. Review questions a. How is evaluation an important process in academics? b. Why do we call evaluation a process? c. What happens if the students are not evaluated?

d. What are the various aspects of evaluation? e. What are the tools we can use to evaluate? f. How are tests different from examinations? g. What is the difference between formative and summative assessment? h. Why does NEP 2020 recommend more of formative assessment? i. What does CCE stand for? How useful is it? j. What is the scope of feedback in education? k. What are some of the qualities of feedback? 16.8 References Oller, J. (1979). Language Tests at School. London/New York: Longman Heaton, J B. (1989).Writing English Language Tests. London: Pearson Education. ISBN 978 - 0582002371

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was not meant to offer a new method of teaching but was a form of description that was applicable to curriculum development, the preparation and evaluation of teaching materials, the diagnosis of learning problems, and testing. Lado

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a) Borrowing patterns from the mother tongue (b) Extending patterns from the target language (c) Expressing meanings using the words and grammar which are already known

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Interlanguage refers to the separateness of a second language learner's system, a system that has a structurally intermediate status between the native and the target

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is neither the system of the native language nor the system of the target language, but instead, it falls between the two. It is a system that is based upon the best attempt of learners to provide order and structure to the linguistic stimuli surrounding them.

is neither the system of the native language nor the system of the target language, but instead falls between the two: it is a system based upon the best attempt of learners to provide order and structure to the linguistic stimuli surrounding them,

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is neither the system of L1/NL/MT nor the system of L2/TL/FL, but instead falls between the two. ?

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to the systematic knowledge of an L2 which is independent of both these learner's L1 and the target language.

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is observable in a learner's language and can be explored.

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of language learning. ? There is a psychological structure latent in the brain, which is activated when one attempts to learn a second language. ?

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An error is the use of a word, speech act, or grammatical items in such a way it seems imperfect and significant of incomplete learning.

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as a systematic deviation that happens when a learner has not learnt something, and consistently gets it wrong.

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However, the attempts made to put the error into context have always gone

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goal the learner has progressed and, consequently, what remains for him to learn. (b) Second, they provide the researcher with evidence of how language is learned or acquired, and what strategies or procedures the learner is employing in his discovery of the language. (c)

goal the learner has progressed and what remains for him to learn; (b) to researchers they provide the evidence of how language is learnt or acquired and what strategies or procedures the learner is employing in his discovery of the language; c)

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taking place and that the learner has not yet mastered or shown a well- structured competence in the target language.

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are indispensable to the learner himself because we can regard the making of errors as a device the learner uses in order to learn. The occurrence of errors is merely sign of 'the present inadequacy of our teaching methods' (Corder 1976, p. 163).

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The second school believed that we live in an imperfect world and

SA   Rawezh IBRAHIM MA Thesis Last Version.doc (D14858636)

| 25/112 | **SUBMITTED TEXT** | 14 WORDS | **100%** | **MATCHING TEXT** | 14 WORDS |

whether he must devote more time to the item he has been working on.

whether he must devote more time to the item he has been working on. 10.3

W   https://idoc.pub/documents/contrastive-analysis-error-analysis-34m76vgd2846

| 26/112 | **SUBMITTED TEXT** | 21 WORDS | **60%** | **MATCHING TEXT** | 21 WORDS |

that errors are evidence of learner's strategies of acquiring the language rather than the signs of inhibition or interference of persistent old

SA   A Comparative Study of Learning of English by Yemeni Students at UG Level A Cross-Sectional Study ... (D34110341)

| 27/112 | **SUBMITTED TEXT** | 37 WORDS | **96%** | **MATCHING TEXT** | 37 WORDS |

feedback. They tell the teachers something about the effectiveness of his teaching materials and his teaching techniques and show him what parts of the syllabus he has been following have been inadequately learned or taught and need further attention.

SA   Thesis Amani Abu-Jared GJ0733 AMU.docx (D43913202)

| 28/112 | **SUBMITTED TEXT** | 21 WORDS | **93%** | **MATCHING TEXT** | 21 WORDS |

This is the day-to-day value of errors. But in terms of broader planning and with a new group of learners, errors provide

SA   Thesis Amani Abu-Jared GJ0733 AMU.docx (D43913202)

| 29/112 | **SUBMITTED TEXT** | 29 WORDS | **100%** | **MATCHING TEXT** | 29 WORDS |

that it is possible to identify the areas of difficulty a particular foreign language will present for native speakers of another language by systematically comparing the two languages and cultures.

SA   Thesis Amani Abu-Jared GJ0733 AMU.docx (D43913202)

| 30/112 | SUBMITTED TEXT | 35 WORDS | 100% | MATCHING TEXT | 35 WORDS |

Where the two languages and cultures are similar, learning difficulties will not be expected, where they are different, then learning difficulties are to be expected, and the greater the difference, the greater the degree of expected difficulty.

SA   Thesis Amani Abu-Jared GJ0733 AMU.docx (D43913202)

| 31/112 | SUBMITTED TEXT | 19 WORDS | 89% | MATCHING TEXT | 19 WORDS |

analysis, it was believed, teaching materials could be tailored to the needs of learners of a specific first language.

SA   Thesis Amani Abu-Jared GJ0733 AMU.docx (D43913202)

| 32/112 | SUBMITTED TEXT | 23 WORDS | 94% | MATCHING TEXT | 23 WORDS |

viewed language as a rule-governed system which could be separated into hierarchically arranged sub-systems, each of which had its own internal patterns and structure.

SA   Thesis Amani Abu-Jared GJ0733 AMU.docx (D43913202)

| 33/112 | SUBMITTED TEXT | 21 WORDS | 100% | MATCHING TEXT | 21 WORDS |

was a general theory of learning. It viewed learning as habit formation brought about by repeated patterns of stimulus, response, and reinforcement.

SA   Thesis Amani Abu-Jared GJ0733 AMU.docx (D43913202)

| 34/112 | SUBMITTED TEXT | 14 WORDS | 89% | MATCHING TEXT | 14 WORDS |

errors are thought of as indications of an incomplete learning, and that the speaker

SA   Jayshree D Shastri ch-3.pdf (D49030859)

| 35/112 | SUBMITTED TEXT | 23 WORDS | 84% | MATCHING TEXT | 23 WORDS |

According to scholars, people may have the competence to produce an infinitely long sentence but when they actually attempt to use this knowledge (

SA   Jayshree D Shastri ch-3.pdf (D49030859)

| 36/112 | SUBMITTED TEXT | 23 WORDS | 87% | MATCHING TEXT | 23 WORDS |

there are many reasons why they restrict the number of adjectives, adverbs, and clauses in any one sentence. The actual state of the speaker

SA   Jayshree D Shastri ch-3.pdf (D49030859)

| 37/112 | SUBMITTED TEXT | 14 WORDS | 100% | MATCHING TEXT | 14 WORDS |

involves and influences the speaker's performance by either causing a good performance or mistakes.

SA   Jayshree D Shastri ch-3.pdf (D49030859)

| 38/112 | **SUBMITTED TEXT** | 11 WORDS | **100%** | **MATCHING TEXT** | 11 WORDS |

that mistakes are of no significance to 'the process of language learning'.

SA A Comparative Study of Learning of English by Yemeni Students at UG Level A Cross-Sectional Study ... (D34110341)

| 39/112 | **SUBMITTED TEXT** | 24 WORDS | **95%** | **MATCHING TEXT** | 24 WORDS |

errors differ from lapses and mistakes in that they are breaches of the code, that is, they offend the grammatical rules of the 122

SA LAST All attached chapt parts Complete.docx (D30134246)

| 40/112 | **SUBMITTED TEXT** | 18 WORDS | **91%** | **MATCHING TEXT** | 18 WORDS |

unacceptable' utterances; errors occur because the learner has not internalized the grammar of the second language in the

SA LAST All attached chapt parts Complete.docx (D30134246)

| 41/112 | **SUBMITTED TEXT** | 37 WORDS | **91%** | **MATCHING TEXT** | 37 WORDS |

The contrastive analysis hypothesis claimed that the principal barrier to second language acquisition is the interference of the first language system with the second language system and that a scientific, structural comparison of the two languages in question would

SA Thesis Amani Abu-Jared GJ0733 AMU.docx (D43913202)

| 42/112 | **SUBMITTED TEXT** | 21 WORDS | **100%** | **MATCHING TEXT** | 21 WORDS |

to argue that the mother tongue was not the main and the only source of the errors committed by the learners.

SA Jayshree D Shastri ch-3.pdf (D49030859)

| 43/112 | **SUBMITTED TEXT** | 24 WORDS | **88%** | **MATCHING TEXT** | 24 WORDS |

investigating the motives behind committing such errors as the first attempt to eradicate them. (c) Third, to obtain information on common difficulties in Language Learning,

SA Jayshree D Shastri ch-3.pdf (D49030859)

| 44/112 | **SUBMITTED TEXT** | 18 WORDS | **91%** | **MATCHING TEXT** | 18 WORDS |

to contrastive analysis, an approach influenced by behaviourism through which applied linguists sought to use the formal distinctions

SA R, Divya PhD Thesis English.pdf (D122658939)

| 45/112 | **SUBMITTED TEXT** | 26 WORDS | **100%** | **MATCHING TEXT** | 26 WORDS |

between the learners' first and second languages to predict errors. Error analysis showed that contrastive analysis was unable to predict a great majority of errors, although

SA R, Divya PhD Thesis English.pdf (D122658939)

| 46/112 | SUBMITTED TEXT | 57 WORDS | 97% | MATCHING TEXT | 57 WORDS |

more valuable aspects have been incorporated into the study of language transfer. A key finding of error analysis has been that many learner errors are produced by learners making faulty inferences about the rules of the new language. (a) Error analysts distinguish between errors, which are systematic, and mistakes, which are not. They often seek to develop a typology of errors. (

SA R, Divya PhD Thesis English.pdf (D122658939)

| 47/112 | SUBMITTED TEXT | 42 WORDS | 96% | MATCHING TEXT | 42 WORDS |

error can be classified according to basic type: omissive, additive, substitutive, or related to word order. They can be classified by how apparent they are: overt errors such as 'I angry'are obvious even out of context, whereas covert errors are evident only in context.

SA Jayshree D Shastri ch-3.pdf (D49030859)

| 48/112 | SUBMITTED TEXT | 43 WORDS | 87% | MATCHING TEXT | 43 WORDS |

Errors may also be classified according to the level of language: phonological errors, vocabularyorlexicalerrors, syntactic errors, and so on. (d) Errors may be assessed according to the degree to which they interfere with communication:global errors make an utterance difficult to understand, while local errors do not.

SA Jayshree D Shastri ch-3.pdf (D49030859)

| 49/112 | SUBMITTED TEXT | 32 WORDS | 60% | MATCHING TEXT | 32 WORDS |

error analysis can deal effectively only with learner production (i.e., speaking and writing) and not with learner reception (i.e., listening and reading).Furthermore, it cannot account for learner use of communicative strategies such as avoidance,

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| 50/112 | SUBMITTED TEXT | 13 WORDS | 96% | MATCHING TEXT | 13 WORDS |

learners simply do not use a form with which they are uncomfortable. For

SA Rajender_Total_Thesis_combine.pdf (D21112626)

| 51/112 | SUBMITTED TEXT | 11 WORDS | 100% | MATCHING TEXT | 11 WORDS |

although error analysis is still used to investigate specific questions in

SA Rajender_Total_Thesis_combine.pdf (D21112626)

| 52/112 | SUBMITTED TEXT | 13 WORDS | 100% | MATCHING TEXT | 13 WORDS |

the quest for an overarching theory of learner errors has largely been

SA Rajender_Total_Thesis_combine.pdf (D21112626)

| 53/112 | **SUBMITTED TEXT** | 25 WORDS | **37%** | **MATCHING TEXT** | 25 WORDS |

approach to learner language, known as Interlanguage. Error analysis is closely related to the study of error treatment in language teaching. Today, the study of errors is

SA Angelica-Kaye-M.-Paz-THESIS-PROPOSAL-draft.docx (D136166116)

| 54/112 | **SUBMITTED TEXT** | 9 WORDS | **100%** | **MATCHING TEXT** | 9 WORDS |

a) collecting samples of learner language (b) identifying the errors (

SA Article -EJLT 314.docx (D29420894)

| 55/112 | **SUBMITTED TEXT** | 37 WORDS | **63%** | **MATCHING TEXT** | 37 WORDS |

Linguists have always been attempting to describe the types of errors committed by language learners, and that is exactly the best way to start with, as it helps out the applied linguists to identify where the problem lies.

SA Jayshree D Shastri ch-3.pdf (D49030859)

| 56/112 | **SUBMITTED TEXT** | 17 WORDS | **91%** | **MATCHING TEXT** | 17 WORDS |

errors take place when the learner changes the surface structure in a particularly systematic manner, thus, the error,

SA Jayshree D Shastri ch-3.pdf (D49030859)

| 57/112 | **SUBMITTED TEXT** | 37 WORDS | **76%** | **MATCHING TEXT** | 37 WORDS |

the target language production. Errors have been classified into two categories. The Inter- lingual Error and the Intra-lingual Error, those two elements refer respectively to the negative influence of both the speaker's native language and the target language itself.

SA Jayshree D Shastri ch-3.pdf (D49030859)

| 58/112 | **SUBMITTED TEXT** | 10 WORDS | **100%** | **MATCHING TEXT** | 10 WORDS |

made by the learner's linguistic background and native language interference.

SA Jayshree D Shastri ch-3.pdf (D49030859)

| 59/112 | **SUBMITTED TEXT** | 10 WORDS | **100%** | **MATCHING TEXT** | 10 WORDS |

is caused by the interference of the native language L1 (

SA MPhil Dissertaion Final.pdf (D111001782)

| 60/112 | **SUBMITTED TEXT** | 18 WORDS | **100%** | **MATCHING TEXT** | 18 WORDS |

the learner tends to use their linguistic knowledge of L1 on some Linguistic features in the target language,

SA Jayshree D Shastri ch-3.pdf (D49030859)

| 84/112 | **SUBMITTED TEXT** | 29 WORDS | **61%** | **MATCHING TEXT** | 29 WORDS |

Nemser, W. (1971) Approximative Systems of Foreign Language Learners. International Review of Applied Linguistics in Language Teaching, Vo. 9, pp. 115-123. [16] Norrish, J. (1983) Language learners, and their errors. London:

Nemser, W. (1971). Approximative Systems of Foreign Language Learners. International Review of Applied Linguistics. Nickel, G. (1971). Problems of Learner s in Foreign Language Acquisition. IRAL. Norish, J. (1983). Language Learners and their errors. London:

W   https://docplayer.net/amp/177558146-Error-analysis-based-on-the-theory-of-inter-language-and-foss ...

| 85/112 | **SUBMITTED TEXT** | 17 WORDS | **90%** | **MATCHING TEXT** | 17 WORDS |

Lado, Robert (1957) Linguistics across cultures: Applied linguistics for language teachers. University of Michigan Press: Ann Arbor. [13]

SA   2229249w.docx (D30153676)

| 86/112 | **SUBMITTED TEXT** | 17 WORDS | **72%** | **MATCHING TEXT** | 17 WORDS |

Press. [17] Richards J.C. and Rodgers T.S. (2001) Approaches and Methods in Language Teaching. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. [18]

Press. Richards J and Rodgers S Approaches and Methods in Language Teaching. Cambridge University Press.

W   http://www.wbnsou.ac.in/student_zone/courses/humanities/syllabus/PGP/arts/20150805_Syllabus_of_PG ...

| 87/112 | **SUBMITTED TEXT** | 13 WORDS | **100%** | **MATCHING TEXT** | 13 WORDS |

Selinker, L. (1972) Interlanguage. International Review of Applied Linguistics, 10, 209–231. [21] Selinker, L.

Selinker, L., Interlanguage, International Review of Applied Linguistics, 10, 1972: 209-231. 14. Selinker, L.,

W   https://www.ummto.dz/dspace/bitstream/handle/ummto/221/ISSELNANE%20Karima%20Magister%20TH.M%20024 ...

| 88/112 | **SUBMITTED TEXT** | 16 WORDS | **100%** | **MATCHING TEXT** | 16 WORDS |

Applied Linguistics, 6, 190–204. [22] Spolsky, B. (1989) Conditions for Second Language Learning. Oxford: Oxford University Press. [23]

Applied Linguistics. Spolsky, B. (1989). Conditions for second language learning. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

W   https://docplayer.net/amp/177558146-Error-analysis-based-on-the-theory-of-inter-language-and-foss ...

| 89/112 | **SUBMITTED TEXT** | 24 WORDS | **74%** | **MATCHING TEXT** | 24 WORDS |

Richards, J.C. (1992) Error Analysis: Perspectives on Second Language Acquisition. Essex: Longman. [19] Richards, J. C. and Schmidt, R. (2002)Dictionary of language teaching and applied linguistics.

SA   A Comparative Study of Learning of English by Yemeni Students at UG Level A Cross-Sectional Study ... (D34110341)

| 90/112 | **SUBMITTED TEXT** | 16 WORDS | **100%** | **MATCHING TEXT** | 16 WORDS |

Weinreich, Uriel (1953) Languages in contact, findings, and problems. New York: Linguistic Circle of New York.

SA   2010-07-26_0448171.pdf (D2895135)

| 91/112 | **SUBMITTED TEXT** | 15 WORDS | **70%** | **MATCHING TEXT** | 15 WORDS |

the learner has put the BE verb 'is' at the end of the sentence. The

SA   2010-07-26_0448171.pdf (D2895135)

92/112	**SUBMITTED TEXT**	15 WORDS	**100%**	**MATCHING TEXT**	15 WORDS

are characterized by the absence of an item that must appear in a well-formed utterance,

SA MPhil Dissertaion Final.pdf (D111001782)

93/112	**SUBMITTED TEXT**	17 WORDS	**64%**	**MATCHING TEXT**	17 WORDS

are the opposites of omission, they are characterized by the presence of an item that must not

SA MPhil Dissertaion Final.pdf (D111001782)

94/112	**SUBMITTED TEXT**	12 WORDS	**87%**	**MATCHING TEXT**	12 WORDS

characterized by the use of the wrong form of the morpheme or

SA Santhana Final.doc (D31531460)

95/112	**SUBMITTED TEXT**	17 WORDS	**84%**	**MATCHING TEXT**	17 WORDS

the incorrect placement of a morpheme or group of morphemes in an utterance, e.g., What daddy is doing? (

SA Rawezh IBRAHIM MA Thesis Last Version.doc (D14858636)

96/112	**SUBMITTED TEXT**	12 WORDS	**87%**	**MATCHING TEXT**	12 WORDS

George, H.V. (1972) Common Errors in Language Learning. Rowley, MA: Newbury House. [14]

George, H. V. (1972). Common errors in language learning. Rowley, Massachusetts: Newbury House

W https://idoc.pub/documents/contrastive-analysis-error-analysis-34m76vgd2846

97/112	**SUBMITTED TEXT**	17 WORDS	**64%**	**MATCHING TEXT**	17 WORDS

Language Two. New York: Oxford University Press. [10] Ellis, Rod. (1997) Second Language Acquisition. Hong Kong: Oxford University Press. [11]

SA MPhil Dissertaion Final.pdf (D111001782)

98/112	**SUBMITTED TEXT**	14 WORDS	**75%**	**MATCHING TEXT**	14 WORDS

second language. It is the interference of the first language into the second language

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99/112	**SUBMITTED TEXT**	26 WORDS	**92%**	**MATCHING TEXT**	26 WORDS

linguistic forms or combinations of forms which in the same context and under similar conditions of production would, in all likelihood, not be produced by native speakers.

linguistic form or combination of forms which in the same context and under similar conditions of production would in all likelihood, not be produced by native speakers

W https://www.ummto.dz/dspace/bitstream/handle/ummto/221/ISSELNANE%20Karima%20Magister%20TH.M%20024 ...

100/112	**SUBMITTED TEXT**	14 WORDS	**71%**	**MATCHING TEXT**	14 WORDS

learners have learned the rules of the target language but are unable to apply

SA 2010-07-26_0448171.pdf (D2895135)

| 101/112 | **SUBMITTED TEXT** | 22 WORDS | **100%** | **MATCHING TEXT** | 22 WORDS |

learners attempt to build up hypotheses about the target language from their limited experience of it in the classroom or textbook(Richards, 1971: 209).

SA Thesis Amani Abu-Jared GJ0733 AMU.docx (D43913202)

| 102/112 | **SUBMITTED TEXT** | 16 WORDS | **100%** | **MATCHING TEXT** | 16 WORDS |

direct/indirect object, verbs of feeling, past tense, present perfect, reported speech, passive voice, and question tag,

SA Article -EJLT 314.docx (D29420894)

| 103/112 | **SUBMITTED TEXT** | 21 WORDS | **100%** | **MATCHING TEXT** | 21 WORDS |

The behaviourist theory believes that infants learn oral language from other human role models through a process involving imitation, rewards, and practice.

SA Rajender_Total_Thesis_combine.pdf (D21112626)

| 104/112 | **SUBMITTED TEXT** | 16 WORDS | **100%** | **MATCHING TEXT** | 16 WORDS |

Brown, H.D. (2000). Principles of language learning and teaching. (4 th Ed.). New York: Longman. [2]

Brown, H.D. (2000). Principles of Language Learning and Teaching (4th Ed). New York. Longman.

SA Carolyne Muriungi Mwendwa PhD Applied.pdf (D141315387)

| 105/112 | **SUBMITTED TEXT** | 24 WORDS | **71%** | **MATCHING TEXT** | 24 WORDS |

Corder, S.P. (1967). The significance of learners' errors. International Review of Applied Linguistics, Vol. 5. No. 4. Pp. 161-170. [5] Corder, S.P. (1982). Error Analysis

Corder, S.P., The Significance of Learners' Errors, International Review of Applied Linguistics in Language Teaching, 5, 1967: 161-169. Corder, S.P., Idiosyncratic Dialects Error Analysis,

W https://www.ummto.dz/dspace/bitstream/handle/ummto/221/ISSELNANE%20Karima%20Magister%20TH.M%20024 …

| 106/112 | **SUBMITTED TEXT** | 15 WORDS | **93%** | **MATCHING TEXT** | 15 WORDS |

When a child attempts oral language or imitates the sounds or speech patterns they are usually

SA Rajender_Total_Thesis_combine.pdf (D21112626)

| 107/112 | **SUBMITTED TEXT** | 25 WORDS | **94%** | **MATCHING TEXT** | 25 WORDS |

Oxford: Oxford University Press. [6] Ellis, R. (1997). Second Language Acquisition. Oxford: Oxford University Press. [7] Ellis, R. (2008). The study of second language acquisition. Oxford: Oxford University Press. [8]

SA Rajender_Total_Thesis_combine.pdf (D21112626)

| 108/112 | **SUBMITTED TEXT** | 13 WORDS | **87%** | **MATCHING TEXT** | 13 WORDS |

Ferris, D. (2002). Treatment of Errors in second Language Student writing. Ann Arbor,

SA Shinwar MA 17 06 2015 FOR PRİNT..doc (D14857918)

| 109/112 | SUBMITTED TEXT | 12 WORDS | 95% | MATCHING TEXT | 12 WORDS |

P.& Spada, N. (1993). How languages are learned. Oxford: Oxford University Press. [15]

P.Spada, N. (2002). How languages are learned. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

SA Carolyne Muriungi Mwendwa PhD Applied.pdf (D141315387)

| 110/112 | SUBMITTED TEXT | 11 WORDS | 100% | MATCHING TEXT | 11 WORDS |

Second language acquisition and second language learning. New York: Pergamon Press

SA R, Divya PhD Thesis English.pdf (D122658939)

| 111/112 | SUBMITTED TEXT | 14 WORDS | 100% | MATCHING TEXT | 14 WORDS |

Odlin, T. (1989). Language transfer: cross-linguistic influence in Language Learning. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. [17]

Odlin, T. (1989). Language transfer: Cross-linguistic influence in language learning. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. ---------- (2005).

W https://idoc.pub/documents/contrastive-analysis-error-analysis-34m76vgd2846

| 112/112 | SUBMITTED TEXT | 19 WORDS | 80% | MATCHING TEXT | 19 WORDS |

London: McMillian. [19] Richards, J.C. (1971). A non-contrastive approach to error analysis. English Language Teaching, Vol. 25. No. 3. Pp. 204-219. [20]

London: Richards, J. C . (1971a). A non-i;ootrastive approach to error analysis. English Language Teaching, Vol. 25, No.3, pp. 204-219. -------- (1971

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and The Testaments.docx**
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's Tale and The Testaments.docx (D110338538) — 2

Entire Document

PREFACE In the curricular structure introduced by this University for students of Post-Graduate degree programme, the opportunity to pursue Post-Graduate course in a subject is introduced by this University is equally available to all learners. Instead of being guided by any presumption about ability level, it would perhaps stand to reason if receptivity of a learner is judged in the course of the learning process. That would be entirely in keeping with the objectives of open education which does not believe in artificial differentiation. I am happy to note that the university has been recently accredited by National Assessment and Accreditation Council of India (NAAC) with grade "A". Keeping this in view, study materials of the Post-Graduate level in different subjects are being prepared on the basis of a well laid-out syllabus. The course structure combines the best elements in the approved syllabi of Central and State Universities in respective subjects. It has been so designed as to be upgradable with the addition of new information as well as results of fresh thinking and analysis. The accepted methodology of distance education has been followed in the preparation of these study materials. Co-operation in every form of experienced scholars is indispensable for a work of this kind. We, therefore, owe an enormous debt of gratitude to everyone whose tireless efforts went into the writing, editing, and devising of a proper lay-out of the materials. Practically speaking, their role amounts to an involvement in 'invisible teaching'. For, whoever makes use of these study materials would virtually derive the benefit of learning under their collective care without each being seen by the other. The more a learner would seriously pursue these study materials the easier it will be for him or her to reach out to larger horizons of a subject. Care has also been taken to make the language lucid and presentation attractive so that they may be rated as quality self-learning materials. If anything remains still obscure of difficult to follow, arrangements are there to come to terms with them through the counselling sessions regularly available at the network of study centres set up the University. Needless to add, a great deal of these efforts are still experiment—in fact, pioneering in certain areas. Naturally, there is every possibility of some lapse or deficiency here and there. However, these do admit of rectification and further improvement in due course. On the whole, therefore, these study materials are expected to evoke wider appreciation the more they receive serious attention of all concerned. Professor (Dr.) Subha Sankar Sarkar Vice-Chancellor

POST GRADUATE DEGREE PROGRAMME MA in English Language Teaching Course Code : PGEL-9A (Elective Course) Course Title : Figural Language and Stylistics Module No Unit No Course Content Writers Course Editors 1 1-4 Dr. Monisha Sarkar Dr. Sampa Chatterjee Assistant Professor ELT Consultant 2 5-8 East Calcutta Girl's College Kolkata 3 9,10,11 Dr. Niladri S. Dash Professor, Indian Statistical Institute, Kolkata 12 Dr. Sampa Chatterjee ELT Consultant 4 13-16 Dr. Jay Sankar Basu Dr. Sampa Chatterjee Associate Professor, NSOU ELT Consultant NSOU Board of Studies Dr. Sumana Bandyopadhyay Assistant Professor in ELT Netaji Subhas Open University Professor Sathuvelli Mohanraj Professor in ELT Netaji Subhas Open University Professor Manan Kumar Mandal Director, School of Humanities Netaji Subhas Open University Dr. Jaysankar Basu Associate Professor in ELT Netaji Subhas Open University Mrs. Syamashree Chakraborti, M.Litt, Former Head of the Department of English Bethune College, Calcutta (External Member) Dr. Swapan Kumar Banerjee Former Director, School of Humanities, & Social Sciences (External Member), Netaji Subhas Open University Dr. Sampa Chatterjee & Dr. Jay Sankar Basu Associate Professor in ELT, NSOU

Module-3 : Sound Patterns-2 Unit 9 ? Sound Patterning—Alliteration and Assonance affecting meaning 116–147 Unit 10 ? Lexical Parallelism and Repetition (refrain and chorus) 148–177 Unit 11 ? Mimetic representations (onomatopoeia, pantomime) 178–213 Unit 12 ? Scansion 214–222 Module-4 : Stylistic Analysis Unit 13 ? Figures of Speech: Metaphor, Imagery and Symbolism: Contextual and Archetypal 223–240 Unit 14 ? Figures of Speech [Apostrophe, Personification, Metonymy, Synecdoche] 241–255 Unit 15 ? Stylistic Analysis of Texts–1 256–263 Unit 16 ? Stylistic Analysis of texts 2 (perception of higher language) 264–279

NSOU ? PGEL-9A 9 Unit 1 ?Introduction to Style and Stylistics: An Overview Structure 1.1 Objectives 1.2 Introduction to Style and Stylistics 1.3 Stylistics and Modern Linguistics 1.4 Modern Stylistics: Form and Content 1.5 Stylistics and Foregrounding 1.6 Stylistic Choice: Axes of Deviation and Patterning 1.7 Schemes and Tropes 1.8 Different Areas of Stylistic Analysis 1.9 Summary 1.10 Review Questions 1.11 Recommended Text for Study 1.1 Objectives After reading the unit you will be familiarised with: • Theory of Linguistics and the approach of Stylistics as a discipline, • Linguistics and English Language Teaching with Stylistics, • Salient features of Stylistics, • The emergence of literary text exploitation in Literature study and appreciation. 1.2 Introduction to Style and Stylistics Modern Linguistics that developed through the twentieth century gradually converges certain critical methods of analysis that form a school of linguistic criticism with wide ranging applications in the evaluation of verbal arts and the creative use of language in literature. The theory of language developed certain methods and tools to analyse the stylisation of

NSOU ? PGEL-9A 10 language in literature. Stylistics emerged as a sub-discipline of modern linguistics and studies 'style' in verbal text. The word style as a noun refers to the manner, mode, way or the fashion by which any material is shaped, stylized or structured. It may also refer to any style or manner ofactivity or performance. One who creates the style is called a stylist but one who comments or makes a methodical study of the principles of style is a called a stylistician. Stylistics in the field of linguistics is a scientific study of the use and function of style in verbal art. G. W. Turner in the book Stylistics states: Linguistics is the science of describing language and showing how it works; stylistics is that part of linguistics which concentrates on variation in the use of language, often, but not exclusively, with special attention to the most conscious and complex uses of language in literature. (7) In Patterns in Language: Stylistics for Students of Language and Literature, Joanna Thornborrow and Shân Wareing identify three aspects of Stylistics: the use of linguistics to approach literary texts, analysis of texts according to objective criteria, and an emphasis on the aesthetic properties of language. 1.3 Stylistics and Modern Linguistics: A Theoretical Study The application of stylistics to the analysis of any verbal text emerged as a branch of Modern linguistics. According to John McRae and Urszula Clark, "the range of texts with which stylistics concerns itself has extended from an initial preoccupation with 'literary' texts to include any kind, written or spoken." (Eds. Davies and Elder, 328). Even the range of disciplines in modern stylistic theory and practice includes linguistics, pragmatics, sociolinguistics, literary theory, psychology, and socio-cultural theories. With the emergence of internet and communication technologies, the verbal text has expanded to the domain of E-text, Advertorials, even Emoticons or Emojis with inherent verbal codes. In the context of Stylistics, once a verbal text is placed in a communication paradigm, four aspects of the text, become apparent; the author, the materials drawn from the world, the audience and the text. These four basic aspects focus on the author, the society depicted in the text, the text as a product of history and culture, and a perspective based on the experiences of the reader. This involves a wide range of linguistic materials.

NSOU ? PGEL-9A 11 Traditional literary criticism involved either a diachronic biographical approach or a subjective appreciation of the text. Even other approaches like sociological approach gave more importance to the material and the audience. Historical and Materialist approach sought to analyse a text with reference to social, economic, cultural, and ideological contexts that produced the text. The audience became more important in Reader-Response criticism with its affective stylistics. Stylistics emerged in the early twentieth century as an alternative to these traditional approaches to the study of "texts". Russian Formalists were the precursors to Stylistics as they gave more importance to the language of text and integrated the thought process with language. An attempt was made to analyse the inherent linguistic structures, the technique of linguistic foregrounding, the artistic, aesthetic function of language, and the semantic/pragmatic aspects by Victor Shkolovsky, Mikhail Bakhtin and Roman Jakobson. In Linguistics and Poetics, Roman Jakobson identified six major functions of language and argued that "poetic function" is at work in all verbal communications. The other functions of language identified by Jakobson are: "the emotive (focussed on the speaker), the conative (focussed on the addressee), the phatic (focussed on the channel of communication), the metalingual(focussed on the code itself), and the referential (focussed on the context)" Jakobson explains that the "poetic function consists of making connections within the utterance among the properties of the words, images, and sounds in a message, using those connections ('equivalences') to generate the linguistic sequence itself." (Leitch, p. 1256). Language has to be analysed in all the varieties of its function as any speech event or act of verbal communication, either in the spoken, written or typographical modes, and requires an exchange between the Addresser and the Addressee. Along with these two factors the communication requires a Context, a message, a contact, and a code. Stylistics today has shifted away from Saussurean Structuralism which approachs a text as predominantly monologic, self- referential, self-contained, and static. Mikhail Bakhtin, a precursor to modern Stylistics, points out the limitations of linguistic Stylistics based on structuralism or Russian Formalism. Modern Stylistics has moved closer to Bakhtinian notion of dialogism and the recognition, that thought and language are inseparable, that artistic form and meaning emerge from the exchange of ideas between people. He states that "... stylistics has been deprived of an authentic philosophical and sociological approach to its problems; it has become bogged down in stylistic trivia". As

NSOU ? PGEL-9A 12 linguistics studies the various functions and uses of language, stylistics became a part of linguistics. Stylistics studies the literary function of language. Stylistics is an area of applied linguistics, or the application of modern linguistics to the study of verbal text. Along with the stylisation of linguistic materials, a writer is also concerned with the use of that language and its targeted function for the purpose of linguistic communication. Stylistics is thus concerned with the functions and uses of language. Modern Stylistic methods are enriched by new theories of language and discourse. New branches of Stylistics have evolved in the twenty-first century like Feminist stylistics, Cognitive stylistics and Discourse stylistics. 1.4 Modern Stylistics: Form and Content Issues of "literariness" or actualisation of language in any "text through imaginative production of the text and its reception constitute the core of Stylistics in the twenty-first century. Widdowson in 1975 was perhaps the first to examine the sociolinguistic compo- nents of verbal communication, the role of the speaker in shaping the meaning, point of view and the response of the reader. Modern Stylistics has emerged as an important method in language teaching and learning. It has become a core component in the development of four basic language skills (LSRW) and in pedagogic courses on creative writing. The emphasis now is on the study of both form and content, both on the creativity and invention in the use of language and the techniques involved in such transformation of literal language into literary language. For stylisticians the various forms, patterns, deviations that constitute linguistic structure are an important index of the text. Through a functional study of the structures of a text, the literary intent, meaning and significance of the text can be easily decoded. Two ways of analysing the text in modern Stylistics are Monism and Dualism. While Monism takes both form and content as a unified whole where form is content, content is form, Dualism analyses form and content separately. Many forms of "texts" or discourse display a high degree of conscious stylistic innovations based on their distinctive fields of discourse, such as advertisements, song albums, journalism, or even You Tube videos. The canonical and well formatted generic literature also involves much stylisation of language for arresting the attention of the readers/audience. The techniques of stylistic analysis help the stylisticians to derive insights about the linguistic structure, its function and meaning or 13 significance. The four kinds of meaning - sense, feeling, tone and intention - that are

NSOU ? PGEL-9A 13 inherent in a text, according to I. A. Richards, can be interpreted through a practical criticism of the text, but Stylistics tells us more objectively about the use of language, the techniques, the function, and the inferential intention of such literariness or actualisation of language. In Stylistics, language is seen as a function of texts in contexts, and instead of a diachronic or bio-literary study, it involves an objective synchronic study of both form and content. It acknowledges the basis of a text as utterances produced within a space, time, cultural and cognitive context. Stylistics explores creativity in the use of language. It enriches our understanding of both the form and content that together contribute to the formation of meaning of a text. This involves a rigorous, retrievable and replicable method of analysis, according to Paul Simpson (2004). There is an explicit framework of analysis that reveals the structures of language and discourse. This rigorous analysis helps us understand various deviations from and patterns of language. Stylistic analysis is based on well-defined terms as tools of analysis and is, therefore retrievable. Like any other scientific method of analysis, the methods employed by stylisticians can be cross-verified and applied either to the same or any other text to make the method of analysis replicable. The inferences are drawn in an empirical (based on experience) manner. 1.5 Stylistics and Foregrounding Stylistics is closely related to foregrounding. The word foregrounding takes its source material from the commonplace in language and as a technique involves a process of giving prominence to some linguistic items against the background of such commonplace language. The purpose is to attract the attention of the readers or audience. It is a technique for "making strange" in language, and a method of "defamiliarization" in textual composi- tion. The term is derived from Shklovsky's use of the Russian word ostranenie. It refers to a form of textual patterning of language through a conscious craftsmanship, serving both the literary and aesthetic purpose. Foregrounding involves a conscious selection and patterning of language. According to Paul Simpson "foregrounding comes in two main guises: foregrounding as 'deviation from a norm' and foregrounding as 'more of the same'" (50). Stylisticians investigate how a writer by deviating from an established norm and automated pattern foreground certain linguistic items to attract and surprise the readers. According to Geoffrey Leech, "the special name of 'foregrounding'… invokes the analogy of a figure seen against a background. According to Jan Mukarovskya, text is

NSOU ? PGEL-9A 14 characterised by a consistent and systematic character of foregrounded linguistic form and content. 1.6 Stylistic Choice: Axes of Deviation and Patterning in Foregrounding For the purpose of effective foregrounding a writer mainly depends on the axis of deviation and the axis of patterning. Both involve a distortion of the ordinary or commonplace language both on the levels of form and content. Deviation from the regular and accepted norm is common in all texts that use foregrounding as a technical device for attracting the attention of the readers. For example, in

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Coleridge's The Rime of the Ancient Mariner the following

description of the rising of the hot and arrogant sun leaving the parched mariners thirsty and the boards shrink:

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Nor dim nor red, like God's own head/The glorious sun uprist.

The word "uprist" is a neologism (the use of a new word) used as a deviation on the morphological level with a phonological effect to foreground the wrath of Jehovah like sun. Such deviations are equally supported by a formal patterning of sound and words for greater lyrical force and foregrounding. The axis of patterning works on different levels of sound, word, syntax and structure. The repetition of the word "nor" and the consonance of /d/ in words like "red," "God's" and "head" produce a sonorous lyrical effect to make the natural phenomenon a supernatural one. Thus, the gradual building of the suspense by withholding the object of description – the sun –and the stark foregrounding of the "sun purist" transforms an ordinary visual image into something special and strange. These deviations and patterning are basically deviations from an accepted linguistic norm, as in the following lines from Blake's poem "Tyger":

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Tyger, tyger burning bright/In the forest of the night.

The use of an archaic form of the word tiger and the repetition of the word transforms a natural wild animal into an object of curious and "fearful symmetry." The use of several figurative devices serves a similar purpose of deviation and patterning. In case of poetry, this is more common as the anomalies and distortion serve on aesthetic purpose by drawing the attention of the readers to the foregrounded text against a background of ordinary language.

NSOU ? PGEL-9A 15 1.7 Schemes and Tropes in Foregrounding Stylistics involves a systematic and scientific analysis of linguistic deviations and patterning both on the levels of form and content. In traditional rhetoric the figures of speech are classified into eight basic categories. These are figures of speech based on comparison, association, contrast, imagination, indirectness, repetition, construction and sound. In modern stylistics these categories have been brought under two broad categories of figural language based on form and figural language based on content. In certain cases the same figurative device falls under both the categories of form and content. Schemes or figures of speech based on form, structure and construction are also deviations and patterning on the formal level. These are called schemes or schematised and foregrounded deviations, anomalies, and pattering of form and structure, done deliberately to serve an aesthetic purpose. Ranging from the larger stanza structure to the minimal phonemic structure such schemes are anomalies of form based on motivated deviation in form and its patterning for effective foregrounding. The rhyme scheme and metrical structure contribute to the schematised design while figures like alliteration, assonance, consonance, euphony, cacophony, onomatopoeia enhance the phonological effect, schemes based on repetition or condensation work on the level of words and phrases (tautology, epistrophe, anaphora, apocope, syncope) and schemes based on construction are syntac- tical irregularities of form (interrogation, exclamation, chiasmus, hendiadys, zeugma, asyndeton, polysyndeton, hyperbaton). Tropes or figures of speech based on content are also deviations and patterning on the level of meaning. These are called tropes based on foregrounded irregularities of content done purposefully to serve an aesthetic purpose. Tropes are motivated anomalies that are based on figural comparison (simile, metaphor), association (metonymy, synecdoche, transferred epithet), contrast (anti-thesis, epigram, climax, anti-climax, oxymoron, para- dox), indirectness (innuendo, sarcasm, periphrasis, euphemism, meiosis, litotes), imagina- tion (personification, pathetic fallacy, apostrophe, invocation, hyperbole, vision). 1.8 Different Areas of Stylistic Analysis: A Critical Analysis Stylistic analysis of a verbal text involves different branches of modern linguistics.

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Peter Verdonk in The Stylistics of Poetry: Context, Cognition, Discourse, History,

has stated

NSOU ? PGEL-9A 16 that "stylistic critics have to rely mainly on their intuition and alertness to such signals in the text…. For locating style markers such as deviation from normal usage, repetitive patterning or clustering, etc., and since such salient features may be relevant to literary effects, foregrounding has been rightly called the meeting point of linguistic and literary concerns (Leech and Short 1981: 69)" (13). He argues that such analysis is "not entirely based on an objective criterion because the question of what is and what is not foregrounded against the background of language can only be answered on the basis of subjective impressions" (ibid). In order to arrive at a more objective methodology of stylistic analysis the following areas of linguistics are involved: 1. Graphological analysis is focussed on the visual appearance of any verbal text, as the graphic image of the text reveals a lot about the compositional structure. The image of a poem differs markedly from that of a prose composition and the reading or viewing of the text modifies how the readers interpret the text. Different forms of poetry have different formal design: a sonnet has as rectan- gular structure with fourteen ten-syllabic lines, a ballad rectangle has more width than height with four tetrameter lines forming a stanza. The sentences in a prose composition cover the entire space between the margins while the lines of poetry are set in such a manner that the printed matter leaves enough blank space between the margins. Graphological variations are due to the use of capital letters, block letters in uppercase, italicised words, and variation in font size of letters for the purpose of foregrounding. Punctuation marks also vary according to the requirement of the verbal text. Such graphic stylisation can be seen in pattern poetry that reveals the subject through a graphic stylization of the verbal text. The graphic fashioning of the text too is motivated, artificial, a graphic distortion to serve an aesthetic purpose. 2. Phonological analysis involves the phonemic structure of any verbal text. Schematised deviation and patterning of the phonemes are common in all the verbal texts. The repetition of initial consonants in a line for alliteration creates a sonorous effect. Consonance, assonance and onomatopoeia are other examples of phonological patterning that serve a phonoaesthetic purpose. The use of sound clusters, syllabic structure, rhyme pattern, metrical scheme and use of onomatopoeic words are analysed under this category.

NSOU ? PGEL-9A 17 3. Morphological analysis is done on the level of structural morphology of words that involves a systematic study of the word structure, word formation, affixation pattern, selection of word belonging to different philological types, and the appropriation of the word in the context. Through morphological analysis of a text important aspects of the meaning and significance are revealed. The text involving archaic words like thou, didst, behold, yon, etc are common in poems where the words serve important functions. Polymorphic words make the text loaded with multiple affixations and figural devices based on word arrangement foreground important linguistic items. 4. Syntactical analysis also involves a structural approach to the study of a verbal text on the level of syntax or grammar. While in prose the stylisation depends on the sentence format and several writers have used different kinds of sentences for stylisation of literary text. Modern writers using stream of consciousness technique have experimented with complex and compound sentences, broken syntax, voice change, and interplay of direct and indirect speech. Several figural devices such as chiasmus, transferred epithet, anti-climax, interrogation, exclamation, etc., also constitute stylistic features of any verbal text. 5. Semantic analysis is based on four levels of meaning: literal, grammatical, contex- tual and symbolic. While in prose the stylisation on the level of meaning uses conventional figural devices, in case of poetry and dialogic text the meaning formation mainly depends of the reception of the text. Use of pun, metaphor, simile, metonymy, synecdoche, oxymoron, paradox, epigram, irony, and word- based ambiguity are closely analysed to reveal a systematic inference of the meaning and significance of the text. 6. Pragmatics or discourse analysis deals with the way words and sentences are used in a text, or in everyday situations and the meaning of language in any context. Every verbal text is seen as a speech act and discourse. Discourse is related to the context of the speech act, the speech situation and the speech event. The addresser-addressee relationship and the narrative modes are involved in context- sensitive discourse and the domain of analysis includes cognitive elements based on pragmatic, social and ideological contexts.

NSOU ? PGEL-9A 18 1.9 Summary In this module on style and stylistics the relationship between stylistics and modern linguistics has been analysed. In modern stylistics, both form and content are equally important as verbal structure of language is inseparable from thought and content. Stylistics involves a critical method of analysis that revolves around a central notion of foregrounding developed in various Formalist and Linguistic theories. Stylistic choice depends of a motivated distortion of ordinary language through deviation and patterning. Various schemes and tropes used for stylistic foregrounding are listed and different areas of stylistic analysis are explained. 1.10 Review Questions Review Questions for thought, understanding and self-assessment: (answer in not more than 500 words). Hints for answers are given below. 1. Write a note the relationship between stylistics and modern linguistics. 2. In modern stylistics both form and content are equally important. Explain briefly. 3. Stylistics revolves around a central notion of foregrounding. Define and explain. 4. What are the different aspects of any stylistic choice? 5. How does a motivated distortion of ordinary language work through deviation and patterning? Give examples from any poem of your choice. 6. What are schemes and tropes? Identify various schemes and tropes used for stylistic foregrounding. 7. What are the different areas of stylistic criticism? Define these areas and explain their function. 8. Write short notes on the following: (answer briefly within 150 words) a) Language Skills b) Diachronic Study c) Synchronic study

NSOU ? PGEL-9A 19 d) Schemes e) Tropes f) Monism g) Dualism h) Foregrounding 9. How is the study of Stylistics helpful in the study of Literature? Explain in your own words. (Not more than 500 words) 10.Do you agree that Stylistic Analysis facilitates Autonomous Learning? Justify in your own words.(Not more than 500 words) Look for information to answer the above Questions in the units given below: Q1. Unit 1.1 and 1.3 Q2. Unit 1.4 Q3. Unit 1.5 and 1.6, 1.7 Q4. Unit 1.6 and 1.7 Q5. Unit 1.6 Q6. Unit 1.7 Q7. Unit 1.8 Q8. Locate and Identify specific units for information. Q9. Review of the whole Unit and previous study. Q10. Review of the whole Unit. 1.11 Recommended Texts for further Study Jakobson, Roman. 2001. Linguistics and Poetics in Leitch, Vincent B. et al. Eds.The Norton Anthology of Theory and Criticism. New York: W. W. Norton & Company. Leech, Geoffrey. 1969. A Linguistic Guide to English Poetry. London: Longman. Leitch, Vincent B. et al. (eds). 2001. The Norton Anthology of Theory and Criticism. New York: W. W. Norton & Company.

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Unit 2 ? Different Genres of Literature Structure 2.1 Objectives 2.2 Introduction 2.3 Definition, Classification and Theory 2.4 Main Genres 2.5 The Genres of Poetry 2.6 The Genres of Drama 2.7 The Genres of Fictional Prose 2.8 The Genres of Non-fictional Prose 2.9 New Genres of Media and Popular culture 2.10 Summary 2.11 Review Questions 2.12 Recommended Text for Study 2.1 Objectives This module is prepared to familiarise the students of Linguistics and English Language Teaching with: • Different genres and subgenres of literature, • Stylistic variations in texts of different genres, • Effective language teaching through literary texts. 2.2 Introduction The word genre is derived from a French term that denotes types or classes of literature. The genres into which literary works have been grouped are numerous, and the criteria on which the classifications have been based, according to M. H. Abrams, are highly variable. Genre studies, as an academic subject is a branch of general critical theory.

Several fields of study like literature, linguistics and rhetoric can be further classified through genre studies. Genre studies applied to literature is a structuralist approach to the study of genre. Different genres of literature can be identified through an examination of the structural elements that combine in the telling of a story and form different patterns. 2.3 Definition, Classification and Theory Linguistic genre studies can be roughly divided into two schools, Systemic Functional Linguistics or SFL, and English for Specific Purposes or ESP. SFL regards language structure as an integral part of a text's social context and function, focusing on genres usefulness of genre studies in pedagogy; ESP examines the pedagogical implications of genre, focusing in particular on genre analysis as a means to help non-native English speakers to use the language and its conventions, thereby identifying discourse elements such as register, formation of conceptual and genre structures, modes of thought and action that exist in a specific discourse community. Rhetorical Genre Studies (RGS) insists that the textual forms that are usually called "genres" are only traces of a recurring social action; the social action itself is the genre. Since Plato and Aristotle, the genres have been classified into three types in accordance with who speaks in the work: (a) lyric (uttered throughout in the first person) (b) epic or narrative (in which the narrator speaks in the first person, then lets the characters speak for themselves) (c) drama(in which the characters do all the talking). Aristotle differentiates artefacts made in language such as poetry and identifies specific traits of epic and tragedy. In treating poetry as a craft, Aristotle differs from Plato, who discusses poetry in terms of inspiration and the emotive transport of the poet. Genre classification is made by Aristotle on the observable kinds of poetry and their formal construction. The Greek classification of genre was given a structuralist framework by Aristotle in the Poetics. Aristotle classified literature and fine arts according to their medium, object and mode of imitation (mimesis). Literary works differ according to theirmimesis indifferent things or medium. The genres are based on material (language), content (matter or subject), and form (structure), representing the material, efficient,and formal causes of literary production, respectively, according to Aristotle. He classified the

genres primarily in the dramatic mode of mimesis in two broad categories: the diegetic or narrative and the mimetic or dramatic. While epic, narrative poetry, lyric and odes were placed under the diegetic or narrative mode, Aristotle placed tragedy and comedy under the mimetic or dramatic mode of imitation. Later during the Roman period, satire evolved as a new genre through the works of Horace. Since the Renaissance the genres were carefully distinguished and writers were expectedto follow the rules prescribed for them. Apart from the major genres some minor genres like pastoral, short lyric, epigram, etc., were also classified. Polonius in Shakespeare's Hamlet, II. ii., makes a catalogue of types of drama: "tragedy, comedy, history, pastoral, pastoral-comical, historical pastoral, tragical- historical, tragical-comical-historical-pastoral...". The evolution of literary genres can be seen through the following periods: (a) Classical genres: epic, tragedy, lyric, comedy and satire (b) Medieval genres: prose, romance, (c) Modern genres: novel, biography, essay and short story. German critics in the nineteenth century made the following distinctions: poetry, prose fiction, and drama. R.S. Crane and other Chicago critics in (Critics and Criticism, 1952), have defended the utility of distinction among genres for criticism. Northrop Frye's Archetypal theory (Anatomy of Criticism, 1957) classifies literature into four major genres: comedy, romance, tragedy, and satire.) Modern theorists conceive genres as social formations on the model of social institutions like state or church. Structuralist critics classify genre according to the set of conventions and codes that keeps on changing from age to age. Genre classification is also seen as arbitrary and artificial. However, generic distinc- tions remain indispensable in literary discourse. Genres like tragedy, the lyric, pastoral, the novel, and several subtypes have become common and acceptable in literary studies. Paul Hernadi, Beyond Genre: New Directions in Literary Classification (1972); Fredric Jameson, "Magical Narratives: On the Dialectical Use of Genre Criticism," chapter two of The Political Unconscious: Narrative as a Socially Symbolic Act (1981); Jacques Derrida, "The Law of Genre," Critical Inquiry (Autumn 1980; reprinted in W. J. T. Mitchell, ed., On Narrative, 1981); Alastair Fowler, Kinds of Literature: An Introduc- tion to the Theory of Genres and Modes (1982); Adena Rosmarin, The Power of Genre (1985); David Duff, ed., Modern Genre Theory (2000), and John Frow, Genre (2006), are some of the recent works on different genres in literature.

NSOU ? PGEL-9A 24 In stylistics, the matter of genre is closely linked with the interpersonal context of any speech or discourse situation. Every verbal text that claims to be a literary text involves speakers, narrators and writers who adapt their language and style of discourse to certain conventions handed down by literary and linguistic cultures. Both the addresser and the addressees in any discourse are tuned in to socialized stylistic conventions. In any speech community, there are innumerable discourse genres based on the field, manner and mode of discourse. In literary texts too these innumerable discourse genres interplay and co-exist within the formal conventions. In the modern age, popular culture and mass media through the proliferation of radio, television, cinema, internet and cyber technology have expanded the scope of discourse genre. Further subgenres can be distinguished within each of these, such as news reports, video albums, documentaries, quiz shows, reality show, stand-up comedy, even dub-videos like Tik-tok. Task 1 State whether the following statements are True or False. 1. Classification of literature and fine arts according to their medium, object and mode of imitation is mimesis. 2. Prose and Romance belong to the Modern Period. 3. Epic and Lyric are dramatic modes of imitation. 4. Only the addresser of a discourse is tuned to socialized conventions. 5. According to Modern Theorists, genres are set of conventions and codes that keeps on changing from age to age. 2.4 Main Genres: An Overview Five main genres of literature are identified, classified and described in this unit: Poetry, Drama, Fictional Prose, Non-fictional prose, and literature of Mass Media. Classification of genre has also been made under these categories: epic and romance, drama, poetry, novel and popular culture. Within these generic categories several sub-genres have been identified: for example, epic has been classified as primary and secondary epic, mock or pseudo epic. Prose fiction has genres like novel and short story while in the category of drama - comedy, tragedy and farce are included. These genres and sub-genres are

NSOU ? PGEL-9A 25 sometimes called types or forms of literature such as sonnet, limerick, vaudeville, lyric, etc; sometimes they are simply called kind or genre like elegy, pastoral, hymns, etc. Literature has been classified in the West into five major generic categories. These classifications are based mainly on the form and structure rather than on discourse and speech act. The classification is traditional and has become more of a prescriptive kind rather than a descriptive one. The genres are classified according to a well-defined form or structure. Innovations and digressions are common leading to the production of genres of mixed modes andconventions. A work like Joyce's Ulysses is a concoction of all the then prevalent literary genres, thereby making classification more difficult. The structuralist notion of literary arts is used to define, classify and characterise these distinctive literary genres. Accordingly, the diachronic study of genre has accepted five major genres of literature: poetry, drama, fiction, non-fiction and new emerging media forms. 2.5 The Genres of Poetry The word poetry is derived from the medieval English word "poetia" based on Greek word poeisis, meaning "'doer," or "creator" and as a comprehensive term covers any kind of metrical composition. Major genres of poetry developed in the hands of Homer, Theocritus, Sappho, Chaucer, Sidney, Ben Jonson, Donne, Milton, Marvell, Pope, Byron, Auden, Larkin, Hughes, etc. According to the use of language and metre, genres are also classified broadly into two types: verse and prose. Since the origin and development of poetry is closely related to the oral tradition, several forms evolved during the classical period. The major forms of poetry are classified mainly according to their form, structure and subject matter. According to the length of the poem, poetry has been classified by Aristotle into two types: Ode and the Epic. Among the shorter forms of poetry we have lyric, ode, elegy, sonnet, etc. Lyric is a fairly short poem, expressing a state of mind, a process of perception, thought, feeling, or solitary musing. Ode, denotes a long lyric poem that is serious in subject and treatment, elevated in style, and elaborate in its stanza structure. Elegy is another form of short lyric written in elegiac meter in Greek and Roman times, alternating hexameter and pentameter lines. Alliterative verse developed during the middle ages and used the old alliterative meter. Sonnet is

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a lyric poem consisting of a single stanza of fourteen iambic pentameter lines linked by an intricate rhyme scheme.

Among the comparatively longer forms of poetry we have ballad, pastoral, epic, heroic poetry and mock-epic. Pastoral poetry, invented by the Greek poet Theocritus in the third century BC, represents the life of Sicilian shepherds or pastors. Virgil later imitated Theocritus in his Latin Eclogues. Ballad evolved from oral tradition to narrate a story in metrical verse, a form of narrative folk song. Typically, the popular ballad is dramatic, condensed, and impersonal: the narrator begins with the climactic episode, tells the story tersely in action and dialogue and tells it without self-reference or the expression of personal attitudes or feelings. Mock-epic poem is parody which imitates, in an elaborate and sustained manner the elevated form and style of the epic genre, but appropriates it to a trivial subject matter. Mock epic poem uses epic grandeur of mighty conquest to present a trivial matter, uses supernatural machinery, an epical voyage, visit to the underworld, and battle. Heroi-comical poems are applied to dignified poetic forms which are purposely mismatched to a lowly subject for satire and provoking laughter. 2.6 The Genres of Drama Drama is a form of composition designed for performances in which actors imperson- ate the actions and speech of fictional or historical characters for an audience. Drama represents stories in mimetic or dramatic form. Drama is a major genre of literature classified by Aristotle in the Poetics as tragedy and comedy. Several other kinds of dramatic work have evolved in the West like miracles, mystery play, morality play, farce, interlude, history play, masque, melodrama, tragicomedy, etc. Tragedy has been defined by Aristotle as "a representation of a serious, complete action which has magnitude in embellished speech, with each or its elements [used] separately in the [various] parts [of the play]; [represented] by people acting and not by narration; accomplishing by means of pity and terror the catharsis of such emotions" (Leitch 95). Aristotle identifies six parts of tragedy and arranges these in order of their importance: plot, character, thought, diction, music, and spectacle. Senecan tragedies were composed in five acts with chorus, rhetorical speeches, revolving around revenge plot with ghosts, horrible crimes and bloodshed. Most of the Elizabethan and Jacobean tragedies were shaped on the Greek and Roman models. In nineteenth century, domestic tragedy developed that presented characters drawn from the middle class and placed in a tragic situation concerning family affairs. In twentieth century Antonin Artaud introduced the

Theatre of Cruelty that refers to a ritualistic form of theatre intended to shock the audience into an awareness of life's cruelty and violence instead of the rational 'theatre of psychology.' Comedy is an imitation of an action that is ridiculous or ludicrous, a play written chiefly to amuse and criticise. Comedy explores ordinary human failings and ends with a happy reconciliation or union. Aristophanes's Old Comedy of the 5 th BC combines burlesque, mischief, satirical mockery of mythological, historical and literary figures. Menander's New Comedy is more domestic involving the misadventures of young lovers. Roman comedies of Plautus, Statius and Terence influenced the comic playwrights of the Elizabethan and Jacobean periods. Ben Jonson introduced Comedy of Humours and the Restoration playwrights composed more sophisticated, urban Comedy of Manners. Satirical Comedy; Sentimental Comedy and Anti-sentimental Comedy developed in the eighteenth century; "Plays Pleasant" or "Plays Unpleasant" and "Comedy of Ideas" are labels attached by George Bernard Shaw to some of his plays. Farce, interlude, burlesque, black comedy, etc., are other popular forms of comedy. In the First Folio of the plays of William Shakespeare three types of plays were listed: comedies, tragedies and histories. Chronicle play or History play is based on historical narratives and use setting and characters drawn from history. After the Restoration, heroic drama, influenced by French drama, used epical grandeur, historical stories and exotic or lavish scenery. The conflict between love and patriotic duty is presented in an operatic manner. Modern appropriation of such chronicle plays for pedagogic and revolutionary purpose was made through Epic theatre, a form of scientific, dialectical, revolutionary drama, developed by the German playwright Bertolt Brecht, that uses an episodic narrative presentation with songs, commentary and dramatic action. Liturgical drama is a form of religious drama performed within a church as a part of the liturgy or Christian worship in the Mass or Eucharist. The dramatic form of Passion plays and Nativity plays belongs to this form. Mystery plays and Miracle plays, performed by choir boys outside the churches, are outdoor forms of liturgical drama. Liturgical drama can be performed as a closet drama too. A minor form of drama is Masque, a spectacular kind of court performance that mingled music, dance, song, masks, costume, and spectacular stage effects. Monodrama is a dramatic scene involving one speaking character delivering mono- logues or soliloquies. Melo drama flourished in the 19th-century theatre as a popular form

of "song-drama" or "dialogue drama" accompanied by music. It developed as a form of musical entertainment with an emotionally exaggerated conflict of pure maidenhood and scheming villainy in a plot full of suspense. Metadrama or metatheatre is a form of performance that is self-reflexive, a drama about drama, drawing attention to its own fictional status through theatrical means. The form is improvisational, transformational and hybridised, using direct addresses to the audience in a metadramatic way, acknowledging the theatrical situation and presence of the audience. Theatricality is used as a foregrounding device for self-reflexivity on the act of performance. In the nineteenth century the Naturalist Drama emerged. These were well-made realistic plays usually involving a view of human beings as passive victims of natural forces and social environment. The form implies a very detailed illusion of real life on the stage, especially in speech, costume, sets and use of music to evoke emotional states. A well- made play refers to the neat, efficient construction of plot, with carefully constructed suspense. This tradition was replaced by Bernard Shaw who brought in more serious concerns. Tragicomedy developed in the late sixteenth century England through generic hybridity of tragedy and comedy, either by providing a happy ending to a tragic story or by a blending of serious and light moods. The term may be applied to plays of mixed means combining the conventions of tragedy and comedy. In nineteenth century it took the shape of discussion play, or play of ideas, a kind of drama based on some debate and discussion that dominates over plot, action, or character. Kitchen-sink drama is a term applied to a new wave of drama with domestic realism in England of the 1950s that depicted the family lives of working-class characters. Task 2 Match the following a) Naturalist drama 1. A foregrounding device for self-reflexivity perfor- mance. b) Monodrama 2. A form of religious drama. c) Liturgical drama 3. Plot, character, thought, diction, music, spectacle d) Tragedy 4. A play to amuse and criticise. e) Comedy 5. Realistic plays involving humans as passive victims of natural forces. Your answer:

2.7 The Genres of Fictional Prose The genre of fiction is perhaps as old as grandmother tales and the oral folkloric form of narration has taken various literary forms. Fictional prose narratives that are based on observation, invention, and imagination fall under this genre of fictional prose. Fiction is used as a general term for invented stories and applies to novels, short stories, novellas, romances, fables, and others. The genre of fictional prose in the written mode is relatively modern and the tradition can be traced to the medieval literature of Italy. The earliest works of fictional prose in English published in Elizabethan England were translated from Latin and French. The rise of the novel since the seventeenth century in England remains unstoppable even today. Various forms of literature fall under the genre of fictional prose. According to the length, the prose fiction can be classified as novel, novella and short-story. The Novel is the most prolific fictional prose narrative and as a literary genre is in itself exceptional as it disregards the rules of structure, style, or subject-matter imposed on other literary forms. The novel has become the most important and popular literary genre of the modern age. Romance refers to a fictional story in prose that represents a courtly and chivalric age, and involves a quest undertaken by a single knight in order to gain a lady's favour. In modern age the form has undergone several changes in setting, theme and language and has been shaped as 'Coming of Age' novels, chick literature, teen age romances, etc. Gothic novel uses gloomy castle, dungeons, subterranean passages, and focus on the sufferings of an innocent heroine by a cruel and lustful villain. Grotesque fiction is characterized by weird falsifications, especially in the exaggerated or abnormal depiction of human features and freakish caricatures. Along with the picaresque novel that trailed the journey of a picaro or rogue character, bildungsroman or "novel of formation" presented the development of the protagonist's mind and character from childhood through varied experiences into maturity, usually involving recognition of one's identity and role in the world. Künstlerroman or "artist-novel" represented the growth of a writer or other artist from childhood into the stage of maturity. Naturalist fiction developed in late nineteenth century and tried to achieve a sociological objectivity through a minute description of locale, atmosphere and characters. The Memoir-novel is a kind of prose narrative that pretends to be a true autobiography or memoir. New forms of the novel also developed in the twentieth century such as stream of consciousness novel, campus novel, Cyberpunk fiction, science fiction, etc.

NSOU ? PGEL-9A 30 Novella refers to a fictional tale in prose, longer in length than a short story and shorter than a novel in length and complexity, usually focussing on a single chain of event with stark climaxes and surprise ending. Novelette is term applied to a trivial or cheaply sensational novel or romance, even a short novel or novella, usually sub-literary and populist. Novelle is the German term for a fictional prosetale that concentrates on a single event or situation, usually with a surprising conclusion, adopted from the Italian novella. Surfiction is a new kind of fiction, often referred to as postmodernist fiction, that rejects mimetic realism in favour of metafiction, self-consciously reflecting on its own fictional status. The Short story is a fictional prose tale, of short length, brevity, condensation, based on a single event with a paucity of characters that developed from the traditional forms like fables, folktales, parables and romances. The Modern short story flourished in the magazines of the 19 th and early 20th centuries, especially in the USA. A Short story requires intensive reading and filling in the gaps in between the narrative hints. As a product of fast-moving technological age of print production, the genre became very popular in the twentieth century. 2.8 The Genres of Non-fictional Prose Non-fictional prose developed in the West in the form of philosophical, literary, historical and political writings during the Greek and Roman periods. Gradually newer forms of non-fictional prose developed through autobiography, biography, essay, satire, travelogues, nature writing, reportage, etc. Biography is a prose narrative recording "the history of particular men's lives" by someone else. Slave narrative is a written account by a slave, having escaped or freed, narrating his or her experience as a slave. The slave narrative emerged as an important kind of abolitionist literature in the period preceding the American Civil War. An Autobiography is a first-person biographical account using auto- diegetic narration written by author to describe his/her developing self. A shorter form of non-fictional prose is the Essay. An essay refers to 'a loose sally of the mind' (to put it after Dr Johnson) in short prose composition which maydiscuss a matter, express a point of view, and usually persuades the readers to accept an observation on any subject for knowledge and entertainment.

NSOU ? PGEL-9A 31 2.9 Genres of Media and Popular culture The final decades of the twentieth century witnessed an explosion of new media forms, expanding the concept of "texts" far beyond the printed word. "Texts" now include web publications, advertising, film, television, video, stand-up comedy, song album, cartoon, graphic media, mixed media texts, and even installations. Structuralist classification of genre applicable to literature seems inadequate to classify these new genres of media and popular culture. 2.10 Summary In this module on different genres of literature, definitions, sub-classification and theory of genre, are discussed. The main genres have been identified as poetry, drama, fictional prose and non-fictional prose. A short discussion on new genres of media and popular culture has been included in this module. 2.11 Review Questions Review Questions for thought, understanding and self-assessment. Answer in not more than 500 words. Hints to long answers are given below. 1. Write a note on the relationship between form and content in genre studies. 2. Discuss Aristotle's classification of genre with suitable examples. 3. Write a note on the Novel as a genre of English Literature. 4. What are the longer forms of poetry? Identify and define these forms. 5. What are the different forms of drama? Classify and define these forms. 6. What are the longer forms of prose fiction? Identify and define these forms. 7. What are the shorter forms of prose fiction and non-fictional prose? Identify and define these forms. 8. Identify the new genres of media and popular culture 9. How far is a literary text influenced by the genre against which it is written? Explain briefly

NSOU ? PGEL-9A 32 10. Write short notes on the following: a) Mystery plays b) Science fiction c) Ode d) Lyric e) Short story f) Media and Literature Look for the information to answer the above questions from the units given below: Q1. Unit 2.3 Q2. Unit 2.5 Q3. Unit 2.7 Q4. Unit 2.5 Q5. Unit2.6 Q6. Unit 2.7 Q7. Unit 2.7 and 2.8 Q8. Unit 2.9 Q9. Review of all units Q10. Review of all units Task for you Look at the following text and mention the genre, analysing it on morphological and syntactical levels: "Hear not my steps, which way they walk, for fear Thy very stones prate of my where-about, And take the present horror from the time, Which now suits with it. Whiles I threat, he lives: Words to the heat of deeds too cold breath gives."

NSOU ? PGEL-9A 33 2.12 Recommended Books for Study 1. A Dictionary of Literary Terms (1977) by J. A. Cuddon. 2. A Glossary of Contemporary Literary Theory (2000) 4 th edn., by Jeremy Hawthorn. 3. Princeton Encyclopedia of Poetry and Poetics (1965; expanded 1974). 4. Longman Dictionary and Handbook of Poetry (1985) by Jack Myers and Michael Simms. 5. The Batsford Dictionary of Drama (1988) by Terry Hodgson. 6. A Dictionary of Narratology (1987) by Gerald Prince. 7. A Dictionary of Stylistics (2nd edition 2001) by Katie Wales. 8. The Concise Oxford Dictionary of Linguistics (1997) by P. H. Matthews. 9. A Glossary of Literary Terms. (2009) 9 th edn., by M. H. Abrams and Geoffrey Galt Harpham.

34 Unit 3 ? Features of Narrativity Structure 3.1 Objectives 3.2 Introduction 3.3 Theories of Narratology 3.4 Features of Narrativity 3.5 Narrativity and Fictional Prose 3.6 Narrativity and Non-fictional Prose 3.7 Summary 3.8 Review Questions 3.9 References 3.10 Recommended Books for Study 3.1 Objectives After going through the unit, you will be able to: • Learn the theories on Narratology, • Understand distinctive features of Narrativity, • Differentiate Narrativity in Fictional Prose and Non-fictional Prose. 3.2 Introduction This unit will familiarise you with different features of Narrativity, for the study of genres and subgenres of literature. Narrativity refers to those aspects that make a story a story. It is a property that a text or discourse will have in greater proportion to make itself a narrative. Different forms of the narrative are analysed and a detailed discussion on different genres of narrative prose has been provided along with self-check tasks. 3.3 Theories of Narratology – An Overview The roots of Narratology, like the roots of all Western theories of literature, go back to Plato's (428-348 BC) and Aristotle's (384-322 BC) distinction between mimesis (imitation) and diegesis (narration). Tzvetan Todorov applied the term 'narratology' to the study of plot-structure (histoire) and text-structure (discourse). 'Narrative semiotics' refers to the study of deep narrative levels whereas 'Discoursive semiotics' is applied to the theory of discourse manifestations, after A.J. Greimas. According to Mieke Bal, the study of literary narratives from the point of view of narrative discourse is called 'Narratology.' Narratology denotes both the theory and the study of narrative (the text, image, thought) and narrative structure and the ways that these affect our perception of a literary text. Thomas G. Pavel, in his essay "Literary Narratives" has identified several factors behind the development of modern research on literary narratives: "the gradual abandon- ment of impressionism in literary studies in favour of more objective methods, the rise of modern linguistics (with its off-shoots: semiotics, literary structuralism and text-grammar), and the prevalent ambiance of interdisciplinarity in the social sciences, which encourages methodological and conceptual cross-fertilization" (85). This interest in the study of literary narratives gradually developed with Structuralism and Linguistics. A study of narrativity involves a theorisation of the general laws of literature, an analysis of structure rather than ideology, or of form rather than content. This involves an interdisciplinary study that has brought together anthropology, linguistics, semiotics, psychology, and philosophy of lan- guage. Narratologists, by focussing on modern forms of popular literature, such as novel, developed a remarkable variety of hypotheses and models. According to the Swiss linguist Ferdinand de Saussure, any sign consists of a "signifier" and a "signified" - basically, a form and a meaning. For a narrative text - a complex sign - the signifier is a "discourse" (a mode of presentation) and the signified is a "story" (an action sequence). Vladimir Propp, in Morphology of the Folktales (1928), studied Russian folktales and found that they all made use of a small number of functions (hero, helper, villain, test, prohibition, etc.). The arrangement too was found ordered and predictable. Narrative order was found to be a function of unfolding linear time, structured, as Aristotle had stated earlier, with a beginning, a middle and an end. As a discipline, Narratology began to take shape in 1966, the year in which the French journal Communications brought out a special issue entitled "The structural analysis of narrative." The term narratology itself was coined three years later, by one of the contributors to that special issue, Tzvetan Todorov (1969: 9). Some theorists, among them Gérard Genette, opt for restricting narratives to verbally narrated texts (1988: 17). On the other hand, Barthes (1966), Chatman (1990) and Bal (1985), argue that anything that tells a story, in whatever genre, constitutes a narrative. According to Mieke Bal: Narratology as a field of study is the ensemble of theories of narratives, narrative texts, images, spectacles, events – of cultural artefacts that tell a story. Such theory helps us understand, analyse, and evaluate narratives. A theory is a systematic set of generalized statements about a particular segment of reality. That segment of reality, the corpus, about which narratology attempts to provide insight consists of narrative texts of all kinds, made for a variety of purposes and serving many different functions. (3) Narratology is the theory of the structures of narrative. In order to investigate a structure, or to present a "structural description," a dissection of the narrative phenomena into their component parts is made. Further attempts are made to determine functions and relationships. 3.4 Features of Narrativity Plato classified speech representation as "pure" narrative poetry and "pure" drama and a mixture of narrative and dialogue. For Aristotle, "pure" narratives and direct represen- tations are two varieties of mimesis because both represent a world. Aristotle classified the genres of literature into three types in accordance with who speaks in the work: lyric (uttered throughout in the first person); epic or narrative (in which the narrator speaks in the first person, then lets the characters speak for themselves); drama (in which the characters do all the talking). Literary works differ according to their mimesis in different things or medium. The genres are based on material (language), content (matter or subject), and formal (structure), representing the material, efficient, and formal causes of literary production, respectively, according to Aristotle. He classified the genres primarily of the mode of mimesis into two broad categories: the diegetic or narrative and the mimetic or dramatic. While epic, narrative poetry, lyric and odes were placed under the diegetic or narrative mode, under the mimetic of dramatic mode of imitation Aristotle placed tragedy and comedy. The emergence of fictional and non-fictional prose expanded the scope of narrativity and new genres were based on the discourse and narrative structures. Critics classify genres in literature according to the features of narrativity like content, discourse, transportation and persuasion, Apparently, genres classification seems to be

arbitrary and artificial, but on closer examination one can classify genre according to the discourse, narrative structures or form. Genres like tragedy, the lyric, pastoral, the novel, and several subtypes have become common and acceptable in literary studies. All these genres narrate a story and use discourse or language to convey the story and persuade the readers/audience. In stylistics, the matter of genre is closely linked with the interpersonal context of any speech or discourse situation. Every verbal text that claims to be a literary text involves speakers, narrators and writers who adapt their language and style of discourse to certain conventions imposed by literary and linguistic culture. Both the addresser and the addressee in any discourse are tuned in to socialized stylistic conven- tions. In any speech community, there are innumerable discourse genres based on the field, manner and mode of discourse. In literary texts too these innumerable discourse genres interplay and co-exist within the formal conventions. The Platonic mimesis/diegesis distinction as a dichotomy has been used by contem- porary narratologists to support both models of speech and thought representation. Distinction has been drawn between direct and free indirect speech along with the generic distinction between narrative and drama. While for Plato the term "diegetic" refers to narratorial discourse, Genette uses the term diégèse adopted from Souriau, Etienne (1972: 27 n.; 1988: 17–8) that has many affinities with Aristotle's notion of mimesis. Aristotle regarded the plot as the soul of tragedy and the character as secondary. The character is defined with reference to the plot: what the character is, is less important than what the character does in the story. Like Aristotle, Genette gives primacy to the muthos (plot) as the central abstract structure of narrative. According to Mieke Bal: A narrative text is a text in which an agent or subject conveys to an addressee ("tells" the reader, viewer, or listener) a story in a medium, such as language, imagery, sound, buildings, or a combination thereof. A story is the content of that text and produces a particular manifestation, inflection, and "colouring" of a fabula. A fabula is a series of logically and chronologically related events that are caused or experienced by actors. (5) Fabula combines two elements corresponding to Aristotle's concept of plot and character: "event" and "actor." An "event" is the transition from one state to another state, as in tragedy, the plot allows the tragic hero to pass from a state of happiness to misfortune. "Actors" or characters are agents that perform actions, like the heroes in classical tragedy, or any agent that has the ability to cause or to experience an event.

3.5 Narrativity and Fictional Prose Of the five major genres of literature like Poetry, Drama, Fictional Prose, Non-fictional prose, and literature of Mass Media, the genres of prose fiction, like novel and short story, contain most of the features of narrativity. The genre sub-classifications of prose fiction are based mainly on the form, structure, discourse and speech act. The genre of fiction is perhaps as old as the grandmother tales and the oral folkloric form of narration has taken various literary forms. Prose narratives that are fictional based on observation, invention, and imagination fall under this genre of fictional prose. Fiction is used as a general term for invented stories and applies to novels, short stories, novellas, romances and fables. Various forms of fictional prose are classified according to the discourse and narrative structures. These features of narrativity are discussed through these sub-genres of fictional prose arranged in an alphabetic order: Anti-novel is a form of experimental fiction written in prose that dispenses with certain traditional elements of novel-writing like the unfolding of plot, development of character, analysis of psychological states, etc. Usually associated with the nouveau roman of French novelists Alain Robbe-Grillet, Nathalie Sarraute, and Michel Butor in the 1950s, anti-novel now refers to any fictional experiment that disrupt conventional narrative based on suspense, as in some works in English by Flann O'Brien, Vladimir Nabokov, B. S. Johnson, and Christine Brooke-Rose. Sterne's Tristram Shandy (1759-67) and Virginia Woolf s The Waves (1931) may be regarded as earlier versions of anti-novel. Bildungsroman and Erziehungsromanare, German terms signifying "novel of forma- tion" or "novel of education." These novels present the development of the protagonist's mind and character from childhood through varied experiences into maturity, usually involving recognition of one's identity and role in the world. Famous examples of Bildungsroman are Goethe's Wilhelm Meister's Apprenticeship (1795–96), Charlotte Brontë's Jane Eyre (1847), George Eliot's The Mill on the Floss (1860), Charles Dickens' Great Expectations (1861), Somerset Maugham's Of Human Bondage (1915), and Thomas Mann's The Magic Mountain (1924). Campus novel is usually set in the enclosed world of a college or university and highlights the follies of academic life. Usually comic or satirical, campus novels evoke nostalgia of college days. The form became popular in the 1950s in England with Mary McCarthy's The Groves of Academe (1952) and Kingsley Amis's Lucky Jim (1954).

NSOU ? PGEL-9A 39 Cyberpunk is a sub-genre of science fiction that developed in America, associated with William Gibson's novel Neuromancer (1984) and its sequels. Bruce Sterling edited Mirrorshades: The Cyberpunk Anthology (1986) and deviated from conventional science fiction, which usually implied a Utopian view of technological progress. Cyberpunk fiction uses a gloomier world of detective fiction and film noir thrillers. Set in the domain of multinational corporations competing in the 'cyberspace' for domination. Shifting its focus into the virtual reality of the cyberworld the basis of fictional speculation is dystopian. Dystopia is applied to fictional works in prose that depict a dystopian world of modern science and technology as exemplified in H. G. Wells'sThe Time Machine (1895), George Orwell's Nineteen Eighty-Four (1949), and Russell Hoban's Riddley Walker (1980). Fabulation is a term applied to a mode of modern fiction that openly delights in its self-conscious verbal artifice, departing from the conventions of Realism as exemplified in Robert Scholes's The Fabulators (1967). Fantastic is a mode of fiction in which the possible and the impossible are confounded so as to leave the reader, characters or narrator with no consistent explanation for the strange events depicted in the story. In his Introduction a la literature fantastique (1970, translated as The Fantastic, 1973), Tzvetan Todorov argues that fantastic narratives involve an unresolved hesitation between the supernatural explanation available in marvel- lous tales and the natural or psychological explanation offered by tales of the uncanny. Henry James's mysterious tale The Turn of the Screw (1898) is an example of this form. Fantasy is a term generally applied to any kind of fictional work that is not primarily devoted to realistic representation of the familiar world. Several literary genres like romance, dream vision, fable, and science fiction that describe imagined world of magic, supernatural and other impossibilities belong to this form. Grotesque fiction is characterized by weird falsifications, especially in the exagger- ated or abnormal depiction of human features. Grotesque fiction depicts freakish carica- tures as in the novels of Dickens. Künstlerroman or "artist-novel" is a form of fictional prose which represents the growth of a writer or other artist from childhood into the stage of maturity. The novel depicts the recognition of the protagonist's artistic vocation. Dickens' David Copperfield (1849–50) can be considered an early instance of this type. In the twentieth century several NSOU ? PGEL-9A 40 novels deal with this subject such as Marcel Proust's Remembrance of Things Past (1913–27), James Joyce's A Portrait of the Artist as a Young Man (1914–15), Thomas Mann's Dr.Faustus (1947), André Gide's The Counterfeiters, and David Malouf's An Imaginary Life (1978). Gothic novel uses the setting derived from "germanic" Goths and their architecture characterized by high pointed arch and vault, flying buttresses, and intricate recesses that became a part of Gothic romance inaugurated in English by Horace Walpole's The Castle of Otranto: A Gothic Story (1764). The form flourished through the early nineteenth century under the influence of Walpole's use of medieval setting of Italy or Spain. Gothic fiction used gloomy castles, dungeons, subterranean passages, and focused on the sufferings of an innocent heroine by a cruel and lustful villain like Manfred. The medieval atmosphere aroused awe and terror with the presence of ghosts, heralds, mysterious disappearances, and sensational and supernatural incidents. The principal aim was to evoke chilling terror through mystery and horror. Ann Radcliffe's The Mysteries of Udolpho (1794), Matthew Gregory (Monk) Lewis' The Monk (1796) shocked the readers with a narrative involving love, chase, rape, incest, murder, revenge and diabolism. Jane Austen's Northanger Abbey (written 1798, published 1818) made a good-humoured fun of the Gothic novels while Mary Shelley used the form to perfection in her Frankenstein (1818). Emily Brontë's Wuthering Heights and Charlotte Brontë's Jane Eyre popularised the female gothic fiction. The terror tales of Edgar Allan Poe involve the uncanny or macabre elements, violence, and cruelty. Modern horror fiction of Stephen King and Harry Porter series by J. K. Rowling use the Gothic setting. Memoir-novel is a kind of prose narrative that pretends to be a true autobiography or memoir. It was used as a reliable form of narration in the first person and used letters and diary entries to make the memoir more authentic. This form influenced Daniel Defoe's Moll Flanders (1722) and John Cleland's Memoirs of a Lady of Pleasure (1748-9; usually known as Fanny Hill). Metafiction is simply a fiction about fiction, a kind of fiction that openly comments on its own fictional status. Some works involve a discussion about the nature of fiction and the evolution of a writer, but a significant degree of self-consciousness about the narrative act with apologetic addresses to the reader makes a work metafiction. Sterne's Tristram Shandy (1760-7) makes a continuous joke of its own digressive form while John Fowles's

NSOU ? PGEL-9A 41 The French Lieutenant's Woman (1969), involves narrative interruptions for explaining fiction-making process and suggesting alternative endings. Modern metafictions of Italo Calvino like Se una note d'inverno un viaggatore (1979) makes the readers engaged in the process of novel-making. Naturalist fiction developed in late nineteenth century and tried to achieve a sociological objectivity through a minute description of locale, atmosphere and characters, as in Zola, Balzac, Gorky and Kafka. Novel is the most prolific fictional prose narrative and as a literary genre is itself exceptional as it disregards the rules of structure, style, or subject-matter imposed on other literary forms. The novel has become the most important and popular literary genre of the modern age. The length of a novel permits fuller development of characters and themes and has a greater degree of realism than romance narratives. The novel was a product of the rising middle class of early eighteenth century exemplified in Daniel Defoe's Robinson Crusoe (1719) and Moll Flanders (1722). The novel achieved its greatest success in the 19th century through the novels of Charles Dickens and other Victorian novelists. Several forms of the novel emerged in the 20th century and retained predominance in the twenty- first century. Novella refers to a fictional tale in prose, longer in length than a short story and shorter than a novel in length and complexity, usually focussing on a single chain of events with stark climaxes and surprise endings, such as in Joseph Conrad's Heart of Darkness (1902). Novelette is term applied to a trivial or cheaply sensational novel or romance, even a short novel or novella, usually sub-literary and populist. Novelle is the German term for a fictional prose tale that concentrates on a single event or situation, usually with a surprising conclusion, adopted from the Italian novella in 1795 by J. W. von Goethe. Romance refers to a fictional story in prose that was composed in the Romance languages in southern Europe like Spanish, French, Italian, and Portuguese, representing a courtly and chivalric age, and involving a quest undertaken by a single knight in order to gain a lady's favour. In the modern age the form has undergone several changes in setting, theme and language and has been shaped as 'coming of age' novels, chick lit, teen age romances, etc.

NSOU ? PGEL-9A 42 Science fiction is a popular form of prose fiction that speculates on the probable consequences of some material or biological changes in the basic human condition. With a scientific basis of probability of time travel, invasion by ET bodies, ecological catastro- phe, mutation and genetic changes, science fiction is a sub-genre of speculative prose fiction like romance, fantasy and utopian. Mary Shelley's Frankenstein (1818) has been regarded as the first science fiction with romantic and Gothic overtones. Modern science fiction begins with Jules Verne's Voyage au centre de la terre (1864) and in English with H. G. Wells'sThe Time Machine (1895). 1950s saw the expansion of the range of science fiction in the works of writers like Isaac Asimov, Ray Bradbury, Arthur C. Clarke, Doris Lessing, and Italo Calvino. Short story is a fictional prose tale with a short length, brevity, condensation, based on a single event with a paucity of characters, that developed from the traditional forms like fables, folktales, parables and romances. The modern short story flourished in the magazines of the 19 th and early 20th centuries, especially in the USA, with notable writers like O. Henry and Edgar Allan Poe. The short story requires intensive and inferential reading and filling in of the gaps between the narrative hints. As a product of the fast- moving technological age of print production, the genre became very popular in the twentieth century with the works of Anton Chekhov, Katherine Mansfield, James Joyce, D.H. Lawrence, H.E. Bates and H.H. Munro. Stream of Consciousness fiction refers to the psychological process, a flow of sense-perceptions, mingling of thoughts, feelings, and memories depicted in prose fiction. It is a literary method of representing the mental processes in fictional characters. Pioneered in English by Dorothy Richardson in her book Pilgrimage (1915-35), the 'Stream of Consciousness novel' uses interior monologue technique to capture the stream of human consciousness and thought process. Marcel Proust's novel A la recherche du temps perdu (1913-27) connects sense-impressions and memory, without the interior monologue technique. James Joyce's Ulysses (1922), Virginia Woolf's Mrs Dalloway (1925) and William Faulkner's The Sound and the Fury (1928) are some of the best experiments in this genre. Surfiction is a term coined by Raymond Federman in 1973 to designate a new kind of fiction, often referred to as postmodernist fiction, that rejects mimetic realism in favour of metafiction, self-consciously reflecting on its own fictional status. According to Federman, "the new fiction will not attempt to be meaningful, truthful, or realistic."

Utopian fiction refers to any fictional prose work speculating on the possibility of a utopian society. The word coined by Sir Thomas More in his Latin work Utopia (1516) becomes the basis of such eutopos ("good place") and outopos ("no place"). Utopian fiction has often been used as the basis of satire as in Samuel Butler's Erewhon (1872). 3.6 Narrativity and Non-fictional Prose The classification of non-fictional prose has evolved through the distinctive features of narrativity like content, discourse, transportation and persuasion. Non-fictional prose developed in Europe in the form of philosophical, literary, historical and political writings during the Greek and Roman periods. Gradually newer forms of non-fictional prose developed through autobiography, biography, essay, satire, travelogues, nature writing, reportage, etc. These forms of non-fictional prose are classified according to the features of narrativity in an alphabetic order: Slave narrative is a written account by a slave, who escaped or was freed, narrating his or her experience. If the event is the story of slavery, the agent is the slave narrator. The slave narrative emerged as an important kind of abolitionist literature in the period preceding the American Civil War with outstanding works like Narrative of the Life of Frederick Douglass (1845). Biography is a prose narrative recording "the history of particular men's lives" by someone else, as John Dryden stated. Using biographical details of any person's life, activities and experiences, this genre of non-fictional prose flourished in the classical period notably in Parallel Lives of Greek and Roman by the Greek writer Plutarch (AD 46– 120). Medieval authors wrote chronicles of king and hagiographies of Christian saints. Izaak Walton's Lives (1640 and 1678) included short biographies of literary figures like John Donne and Samuel Johnson's Lives of the English Poets (1779–81) established biography as a separate genre of literature. James Boswell's Life of Samuel Johnson (1791) made biography a popular literary form. Autobiography is a first-person biographical account using auto-diegetic narration written by the author to describe his/her developing self. Confessions of St. Augustine, written in the fourth century, is perhaps the earliest full-length study of self-evolution by the author himself. Secular prose autobiographies became popular through Rousseau's Con- fessions (written 1764–70) and Goethe's Dichtung und Wahrheit("Poetry and Truth," written 1810–31). Benjamin Franklin, Henry Adams, Sean O'Casey, Lillian Hellman, and Gertrude Stein are among the major contributors of this genre. Essay refers to any short composition in prose that discusses a matter, expresses a point of view, and persuades the readers to accept an observation on any subject for knowledge and entertainment. Theophrastus and Plutarch (Greeks) and Cicero and Seneca (Romans) were the pioneers of this genre that got its standard name through Montaigne's French Essais in 1580. This literary form of non-fictional prose developed with the rise of periodicals and printing press in the early eighteenth century, in the essays of Addison, Steele and Richardson. Essay can be formal or informal: the formal essay is relatively impersonal and the author expounds the subject in an authoritative manner; the informal or "familiar" or "personal essay" uses a tone of intimacy while dealing with familiar things in a relaxed fashion. Montaigne's "Of Illness," "Of Sleeping," Francis Bacon's "Of Truth," "Of Adversity," "Of Marriage and the Single Life," and the essays of Joseph Addison and Sir Richard Steele published in Tatler and Spectator gave the Essay written in prose its present form. William Hazlitt, Thomas De Quincey, Charles Lamb, Robert Louis Stevenson, Washington Irving, Emerson, Thoreau, James Russell Lowell, and Mark Twain, Virginia Woolf, George Orwell, E. M. Forster, James Thurber, E. B. White, James Baldwin, Susan Sontag, and Toni Morrison are important writers of this genre. 3.7 Summary Through this discussion on different theories of Narratology the students are made familiar with different features of narrativity. The discourse and narrative structures are used in narratology to classify literature into different genres and analyse features of narrativity like event, actor, fabula, narration, time, mode, voice, focalisation, etc. Different forms of fictional and non-fictional prose are defined with examples to show the features of narrativity. 3.8 Review Questions for Thought, Understanding and Self- assessment (Answer in not more than 500 words; hints to the answers are given in the units below) 1. Trace the development of Narratology as a critical theory of discourse and narrative structures.

2. Discuss classification of genre based on features of narrativity, with suitable examples. 3. Write a note on diegesis. 4. How are the different forms of fictional prose identified? Classify and define any two forms with reference to narrativity. 5. How are the different forms of non-fictional prose identified? Classify and define any two forms with reference to narrativity. 6. What are the basic features of narrativity according to Todorov, Genette and Mieke Bal? 7. Explain the difference between Fantastic, Fantasy and the Grotesque as forms of fiction. 8. What are the features of a Gothic Novel? Explain with examples. 9. Write briefly about the Stream of Consciousness Novel with examples. 10. Write short notes on the following (in not more than 150 words) : a) Bildungsroman b) Personal essay c) Short story d) Narratology e) Narrator Note Look for information to answer the above questions in the units below – 1. Unit 3.3 2. Unit 3.4 3. Unit 3.4 4. Unit 3.5 5. Unit 3.6 6. Unit 3.4 & 3.5 7. Unit 3.5

NSOU ? PGEL-9A 46 8. Unit 3.5 9. Unit 3.5 10. Review all the units. Task for You Select a fiction from the genre of Science Fiction and cite lines to establish the typical features of its Narrativity. 3.9 References Leitch, Vincent B. et al. Eds. The Norton Anthology of Theory and Criticism. New York: W. W. Norton & Company, 2001. Print. Prince, Gerald.Narratology: The Form and Function of Narrative. The Hague: Mouton, 1982. Print. — Dictionary of Narratology. Lincoln: U of Nebraska P. 1987. Print. Ricoeur, Paul. Narrative Fiction: Contemporary Poetics. London: Methuen, 1983. Print. Stanzel, Franz K. A Theory of Narrative. 1979. trans. Charlotte Goedsche. Cambridge: Cambridge UP, 1984. Print. Thomas G. Pavel, in his essay "Literary Narratives" Discourse and Literature, Edited by Teun A. van Dijk. Amsterdam/Philadelphia: John Benjamins Publishing Company, 1985. Print. Todorov, Tzvetan. Introduction to Poetics. Brighton : Harvester. 1981. Print. Toolan, Michael J. 1988. Narrative: A Criticial Linguistic Introduction. London: Routledge. 1988. Print. The Penguin Dictionary of Literary Terms and Literary Theory (1999), revised by Cuddon and by C. E. Preston A Dictionary of Modern Critical Terms (1973; Revised 1987), Edited by Roger Fowler. Keywords (1976) by Raymond Williams The Penguin Dictionary of Critical Theory (2000) by David Macey

NSOU ? PGEL-9A 47 3.10 Recommended Books for Self-Study On Features of Narrativity: Bal, Mieke. Narratology: Introduction to the Theory of Narrative. 1985. Fourth Edition. Toronto: University of Toronto Press, 2017. Print. Genette, Gérard. Narrative Discourse. [1972].Trans. Jane E. Lewin. Oxford: Blackwell, 1980. Print.

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Print. On Features of Narrativity in the Genres A Dictionary of Literary Terms (1977) byJ. A. Cuddon A Glossary of Contemporary Literary Theory(4th edn., 2000)by Jeremy Hawthorn Longman Dictionary and Handbook of Poetry (1985) by Jack Myers and Michael Simms A Glossary of Literary Terms. (2009) Ninth Editionby M. H. Abrams and Geoffrey Galt Harpham.

NSOU ? PGEL-9A 48 Unit 4 ? Features of Drama and Poetry Structure 4.1 Objectives 4.2 Introduction 4.3 Features of Drama and Poetry 4.4 Features of Different Genres of Drama 4.5 Features of Different Genres of Poetry 4.6 Summary 4.7 Review Questions 4.8 References 4.9 Recommended Text for Study 4.1 Objectives After going through the unit, you will be able to: • Learn the genres of drama, • Learn the genres of poetry, • Analyse stylistic features of drama and poetry. 4.2 Introduction This unit familiarizes learners with the features of different genres and sub-genres of drama and poetry and to train them for effective language teaching through literary texts. Definitions and examples of different sub-genres have been provided along with an analysis of stylistic features of drama and poetry. There are tasks for you to work on for hands on experience on the topic. 4.3 Features of Drama and Poetry Since Plato and Aristotle, the genres are classified into three types in accordance with who speaks in the work:

NSOU ? PGEL-9A 49 (a) lyric (uttered throughout in the first person) (b) epic or narrative (in which the narrator speaks in the first person, then lets the characters speak for themselves) (c) drama (in which the characters or the chorus do all the talking). The Greek classification of genre was given a structuralist framework by Aristotle in the Poetics. Aristotle classified literature and fine arts according to their medium, object and mode of imitation (mimesis). Literary works differ according to their mimesis in different things or medium. The genres are based on material (language), content (matter or subject), and form(structure), representing the material, efficient, and formal causes of literary production, respectively, according to Aristotle. He classified the genres primarily into two broad categories: the diegetic or narrative and the mimetic or dramatic. Classical Greek poetry was thus classified into two forms: diegetic and mimetic. While epic, narrative poetry, lyric and odes were placed under the diegetic or narrative mode, Aristotle placed tragedy and comedy under the mimetic or dramatic mode of imitation. Later during the Roman period, satire evolved as a new genre through the works of Horace. Since the Renaissance the genres were carefully distinguished and writers were expected to follow the rules prescribed for them. Apart from the major genres, some minor genres like the pastoral, short lyric, epigram, etc., were also classified. Polonius in Shakespeare's Hamlet, II. ii., makes a catalogue of types of drama: "tragedy, comedy, history, pastoral, pastoral-comical, historical pastoral, tragical-historical, tragical-comical- historical-pastoral…"Among the five main genres of literature - Poetry, Drama, Fictional Prose Non-fictional prose, and literature of Mass Media—both drama and poetry evolved much earlier than other three forms. Drama is used as a general term for performances in which actors impersonate the actions and speech of fictional or historical characters in front of an audience, either on a stage or by means of a broadcast. Drama is a representation of a story through impersonation, showing situations of conflict between characters. Drama contains six elements or parts, according to Aristotle: plot, character, thought, diction, melody and spectacle. Poetry is perhaps the oldest form of literature that has its origin in oral literary traditions and refers to any verbal composition that is recited, sung, chanted, or written, according to some pattern, composed in metre, rhyme, rhythm. Verbal pattern involving variations in

NSOU ? PGEL-9A 50 syntax, poetic diction, figurative language, is employed in poetry, expressing intense emotion. Poetry combines pleasures of sound with freshness of ideas, and the function of poetry is to teach and delight, according to Sir Philip Sidney. 4.4 Features of Different Genres of Drama Drama represents stories in mimetic or dramatic form. Drama is a major genre of literature classified by Aristotle in the Poetics as tragedy and comedy. Several other kinds of dramatic work have evolved in the west like miracles, mystery play, morality play, farce, interlude, history play, masque, melodrama, tragicomedy, etc. Absurd drama is a term applied by Martin Esslin in The Theatre of the Absurd to post-World War II European and American plays. The term is derived from the Existen- tialism of Albert Camus, and applied to the plays that present the modern sense of human purposelessness in a universe without meaning or value. The plays of Eugene Ionesco and Samuel Beckett evoke the absurd by abandoning logical form, character, and dialogue together with realistic illusion. The classic work of the absurdist theatre is Beckett's En attendant Godot (Waiting for Godot, 1952). Other dramatists associated with the theatre of the absurd include Fernando Arrabal, Edward Albee, Jean Genet, Harold Pinter, Arthur Kopit, Vaclav Havel and Dario Fo. The following are some other subgeneric forms of drama: Academic drama, also called school drama, is a dramatic tradition which includes the works of Plautus and other classical dramatists, and works written in close imitation of the masters, that were performed in schools and colleges, composed by schoolmasters under the influence of Humanism such as Ralph Roister Doister (c.1552) by the schoolmaster Nicholas Udall. Agitprop drama derived from a Russian abbreviation of 'agitation and propaganda' is applied to the plays meant for the campaign of cultural and political propaganda after the 1917 Russian Bolshevicrevolution. It is a form of didactic drama which employs the campaign and influences the plays of Piscator and Brecht in Germany. Black comedy is a kind of drama in which menacing subjects like death, disease, or warfare, are treated with bitter fun to amuse, offend and shock. Prominent in the theatre of the Absurd, black comedy can be seen in the plays of Ionesco, Genet and Kopit.

NSOU ? PGEL-9A 51 Chronicle play or History play, written in England in the 1590s were based upon Raphael Holinshed's Chronicles, and includes among others Marlowe's Edward II (1592) and the three parts of Shakespeare's Henry VI (1590-2). The popularity of the form influenced the playwrights to write plays based on history during the last four centuries. City comedy or citizen comedy is a kind of comic drama produced in London during early 17th century. These plays are characterized by their urban subject-matter and portrayal of middle-class life and manners, often in a satirical manner, such as John Marston's The Dutch Courtezan (1605), Ben Jonson's Bartholomew Fair (1614), and Thomas Middleton's A Chaste Maid in Cheapside (1613). Closet drama is a dramatic composition usually in verse suited for reading in a closet or private study rather than for a stage performance. Senecan tragedy is thought to have been written for private recitation. Closet drama in English includes Milton's Samson Agonistes (1671), Byron's Manfred (1817) and Shelley's Prometheus Unbound (1820). Comedy is an imitation of an action that is ridiculous or ludicrous, a play written chiefly to amuse and criticise. Comedy explores ordinary human failings and ends with a happy reconciliation or union. Comedy originated in Megara in Greece from rustic village festivals in the form of komos. Aristophanes's Old Comedy of the 5 th BCE combines burlesque, mischief, satirical mockery of mythological, historical and literary figures. Menander's New Comedy is more domestic involving the misadventures of young lovers. Roman comedy of Plautus and Terence influenced the comic playwrights of the Elizabethan and Jacobean periods. Ben Jonson introduced Comedy of Humours and the Restoration playwrights composed more sophisticated, urban Comedy of Manners. Shakespeare's As You Like It and A Midsummer Night's Dream are labelled Romantic comedy and Jonson's Volpone (1606) is called a satirical comedy. Plays pleasant or "comedy of ideas" are labels attached to some plays of George Bernard Shaw. Burlesque, black comedy, farce, are other popular forms of comedy. Commedia dell' arteis an Italian form of "professional comedy" that involves improvised comic performance with masks and stock characters such as a rich father (Pantaloon), a leading lady (Inamorata), Harlequin, Pulcinella, etc. This theatrical form influenced the development of farce and pantomime.

NSOU ? PGEL-9A 52 Comedy of Humours, a form of comedy influenced by the works of Plautus, that became popular in the late sixteenth century in the works of Ben Jonson. Every Man in His Humour (1598) of Jonson presented characters whose temperaments are distorted in ways similar to an imbalance among the bodily humours. A preponderance of blood would make a person 'sanguine', while excess of phlegm would make him or her 'phlegmatic'; too much choler (or yellow bile) would give rise to a 'choleric' disposition, while an excess of black bile would produce a 'melancholic' one. Comedy of Manners, a product of Restoration England, responded to the artificial sophistication of the aristocratic life and courtly culture. Wycherley, Etheredge and Congreve made comedy more artificial and sophisticated, endowing it with intellect and wit. The characters in a typical Restoration comedy of 'manners' are largely stereotypes drawn on the Roman models and Jonson's comedy of 'humours,' whose dispositions are indicated by their names like Sir Fopling Flutter, Colonel Bully, Lady Bountiful, Mr. Horner, etc. Jonson's comedy of humours was replaced by the comedy of manners based on a portrayal of the artificial "grace or habit of refined culture." The comedy of manners mirrored directly the manners, modes, and morals of the urban, upper-class society. The aristocratic class depicted in the comedies are obsessed with fashion, gossip, and class snobbery. There is a division between country and city, innocence and experience, rustic manners and refined city culture. The society is decadent and materialistic, amoral and frivolous. Etheredge's The Man of Mode presents a binary juxtaposition of new and old, town and country, male and female. Wycherley's The Country Wife is perhaps the most obscene and amoral of Restora- tion plays revolving around an immoral pursuit by Horner who plants horns on the head of Mr. Pinchwife in pursuit of Mrs Pinchwife. William Congreve's (1670-1729) The Old Bachelor (1693), The Double Dealer (1693), Love for Love (1695), and The Way of the World (1700) display the immorality of the aristocrats, artificial wit, cynicism, contractual love and marriage, intrigue and false sentimentality also mark his plays.The Puritans were against stage licentiousness and immorality. Jeremy Collier attacked the comedy of manners in Short View of the Immorality and Profaneness of the English Stage (1698) almost pulling the curtains down for comedy on the English stage.

NSOU ? PGEL-9A 53 Curtain-raiser refers to a light one-act dramatic entertainment preceding the performance of any full-length drama in the late 19th-century theatres of London. The form is now almost obsolete. Discussion play is a kind of drama based on some debate and discussion that dominate over plot, action, or character. Bernard Shaw's Misalliance (1910) and Heartbreak House (1919) fall under this category. Domestic tragedy presents leading characters drawn from the middle class and placed in a tragic situation concerning family affairs. The anonymous Tragedy of Mr Arden of Feversham (1592), Thomas Heywood's A Woman Killed with Kindness (1603) are labelled 'domestic tragedy'. American tragedies of Arthur Miller and Tennessee Williams are also placed under this sub-genre. Dumb show is a short piece of mime or silent action included in a play like Hamlet (Act III, scene ii) called the "Murder of Gonzago." Epic theatre is a form of scientific, dialectical or revolutionary drama developed by the German playwright Bertolt Brecht under the influence of Erwin Piscator'slehrstück. Epic theatre rejected Aristotelian models of cathartic well-made play in favour of an episodic narrative presentation with songs, commentary and dramatic action. The audience is not allowed emotional identification with the characters and are distanced to make them reflective and critical. The best examples are The Threepenny Opera (1928), and Mother Courage and Her Children (1941). Farce is a kind of comedy that provokes physical laughter through slap-stick action, panic, rapid and improbable series of ludicrous confusions, physical disasters, and sexual innuendos. In Aristophanes, such farcical scenes are common. In the middle English period, the Interlude developed from farce. Brandon Thomas's Charley's Aunt (1892) is a classic of the genre. The bedroom farce based on situational adultery in rooms with multiple doors became very popular in 'London's West End'. Picnic in a Battlefield by Fernando Arrabal is an anti-war farce. Gaff refers to an elementary kind of theatre offering cheap entertainment, usually in the form of melodrama, often referred to as 'penny gaffs' on the basis of the admission price. Grand Guignol is a popular French form of action-filled melodrama featuring gruesome murders, rapes, presented in lurid detail, named after Guignol, a French puppet-

character. The term is now often applied to horror movies. Heroic drama is a kind of tragedy or tragicomedy that developed during the Restoration period. The plays were influenced by French drama involving unities, epical grandeur, historical stories and exotic or lavish scenery. The conflict between love and patriotic duty is presented in an operatic manner as in John Dryden'sThe Conquest of Granada (1670-1) and All for Love written in heroic couplet. Interlude is a short play, performed by professional actors in the intervals of banquets and other court entertainments. Interludes are regarded as transitional plays that developed from the middle English plays before emerging as comedy during the Elizabethan period. Some are 'moral interludes' while others are closer to farcical interludes that flourished in England in the late 15th century and first-half of 16 th century, such as Henry Medwall'sFulgens and Lucres (1497) and John Heywood's The Play of the Weather (1533). Jacobean drama refers to the plays (tragedy, comedy and tragicomedy) composed during the rule of King James I of England and includes the later plays of Shakespeare, major plays of Ben Jonson, John Webster's The Duchess of Malfi (1623). Kitchen-sink drama is a term applied to a new wave of realistic drama of 1950s England that depicted the family lives of working-class characters. Arnold Wesker and Alun Owen made this notable departure from the middleclass drawing-room drama. Wesker's play Roots (1959) begins with a character washing dishes in a kitchen sink. Arnold Wesker's Chicken Soup with Barley also belongs to this genre. Liturgical drama is a form of religious drama performed within a church as a part of the liturgy or Christian worship in the Mass or Eucharist. Passion play and Nativity play belong to this form. Mystery plays and Miracle plays, performed by choir boys outside the churches, were outdoor forms of liturgical drama, while Milton's Samson Agonistes is a liturgical drama based on the theme of martyrdom. Masque or Mask is a spectacular kind of court performance that mingled music, dance, song, masks, costume, and spectacular stage effects. This form developed in the court and private theatres in the 16th and early 17th centuries. Shakespeare used aa masque scene in The Tempest (1611), and Milton's play Comus (1634) is a masque. Melodrama flourished in the 19th-century theatre as a popular form of "song-drama" or "dialogue drama" accompanied by music. It developed as a form of musical entertain-

ments with an emotionally exaggerated conflict of pure maidenhood and scheming villainy in a plot full of suspense. Metadrama or metatheatre is a form of performance that is self-reflexive, a drama about drama, drawing attention to its own fictional status through theatrical means. The form is improvisational, transformational and hybridised, using direct addresses to the audience in a metadramatic way, acknowledging the theatrical situation andpresence of the audience. Luigi Pirandello's Six Characters in Search of an Author (1921) and Tom Stoppard's Rosencrantz and Guildenstern are Dead (1966) use theatricality as a foregrounding device for self-reflexivity on the act of performance. Monodrama is a dramatic scene involving one speaking character delivering monologues or soliloquies. Tennyson's Maud (1855) and Samuel Beckett Krapp 's Last Tape (1958) fall under this category. Morality play, a popular form of religious drama of Europe in the 15th and early 16th centuries, dramatized allegories in which personified figures representing virtue, vice, death, appear to tempt the soul of Man. A simple message of Christian salvation is presented. Castle of Perseverance (c.1420), Everyman,John Skelton's Magnyfycence (c.1515) are Morality plays. Marlowe's Dr Faustus was influenced by the conven- tions of Morality plays. Mystery play, a popular form of medieval religious drama represented scenes from the Old or New Testament in the form of pageants or as Corpus Christi plays across Europe. As a form of liturgical drama these plays were composed in the vernacular and presented in public gatherings or enacted on the holy feast day of Corpus Christi. Several English towns had cycles (Chester, York, Wakefield) of mystery plays presented by trade guilds, then known as a 'mystery.' York cycle plays with 48 pageants represented the entire scheme of Christian cosmology from the Creation to the Doomsday; Wakefield cycle produced the anonymous 'Wakefield Master' and Second Shepherds' Play. Naturalist Drama refers to the well-made realistic plays usually involving a view of human beings as passive victims of natural forces and social environment. Henrik Ibsen's play Ghosts (1881) influenced the tradition of dramatic naturalism as seen in the works of August Strindberg, Gerhart Hauptmann, Anton Chekhov, Maxim Gorky, Bernard

Shaw and John Galsworthy. The form implies a very detailed illusion of real life on the stage, especially in speech, costume, sets and use of music to evoke emotional states. Pastoral drama, a highly conventional mode of drama that celebrates the innocent life of shepherds and shepherdesses. Shakespeare's As You Like It (1599) is categorised as a pastoral comedy and The Tempest, a pastoral tragicomedy. Poetic drama refers to verse plays on any serious subject matter. Most of the Greek plays were composed in verse. The term is different from dramatic poetry and refers to a play for performance like closet drama. Synge's Riders to the Sea and Eliot's plays like The Murder in the Cathedral, The Family Reunion and Cocktail Party are examples of poetic drama. Satyr play or satyric drama developed as a rustic and humorous village performance and entered the Athenian dramatic contests around 5 th century BCE. The satyr plays used a chorus of satyrs, rustic men with horses' tails and ears and involved a burlesque on some mythical story, obscene language and gestures. Fragments of satyr plays by Aeschylus and Sophocles are extant as is Cyclops (412 BCE) of Euripides. Aristophanes used the conventions of satyr plays in his comedies. Tony Harrison's The Trackers of Oxyrhynchus (1988) is a modern satyr play adapted from a fragment, Sophocles'sIchneutae. Senecan tragedy is named after a Roman philosopher-poet Lucius Annaeus Seneca (4 BCE-65 CE) and refers to his nine plays based on Euripides's Greek drama. Seneca's plays were almost certainly closet plays intended for recitation rather than play performance, composed in five acts with chorus, employing rhetorical speeches, with important actions being recounted by messengers. Revolving around the revenge plot, Senecan tragedy involved ghosts, horrible crimes and bloodshed that appealed to the popular mass. English Senecan tragedies are Thomas Norton and Thomas Sackville's Gorboduc (1561), Kyd's The Spanish Tragedy, Shakespeare's Hamlet. Sentimental comedy is a popular form of drama in the 18th century that showed virtue rewarded by domestic bliss. The plays were set in homes involving good middle-class couples, full of sentimental pathos and overdose of morality. Richard Steele's The Funeral (1701) and The Conscious Lovers (1722) are sentimental dramas. Anti- sentimental comedy developed in the hands of Goldsmith and Sheridan in the 1770s. Theatre of cruelty, a term used by Antonin Artaud in a series of manifestos collected as Le Theatre et son double (1938), refers to a ritualistic form of theatre intended

toshock the audience into an awareness of life's cruelty and violence instead of rational 'theatre of psychology.' Peter Brook's production in 1964 of Peter Weiss's Marat/ Sade attempted to break the barriers of the mind to experience the inherent cruelty and violence embedded in the human consciousness for a communal purgation. Tragicomedy developed through generic hybridity of tragedy and comedy, either by providing a happy ending to a tragic story or by a blending of serious and light moods. The term may be applied to plays of mixed means combing the conventions of tragedy and comedy. Battista Guarini's Il Pastor Fido (1583) mixed 'high' and 'low' characters. Beaumont and Fletcher followed his example in their Philaster (1609). Shakespeare's plays like Troilus and Cressida, The Winter's Tale and Cymbeline are classified as tragicomedy. Samuel Beckett's Waiting for Godot and Pinter's The Birthday Party are modern tragicomedies. Well-made play refers to a play that is neatly efficient in the construction of its plot, carefully constructed suspense as in the plays of Eugene Scribe (1791-1861) and Victorien Sardou (1831-1908). This tradition was replaced by Naturalism that brought in more serious concerns in the critical writings of Bernard Shaw. 4.5 Features of Different Genres of Poetry The word poetry is derived from the medieval English word "poetia" based on Greek word poeisis, meaning "'doer," or "creator" and as a comprehensive term covers any kind of metrical composition. Major genres of poetry developed in the hands of Homer, Theocritus, Sappho, Chaucer, Sidney, Ben Jonson, Donne, Milton, Marvell, Pope, Byron, Auden, Larkin, Hughes and others. According to use of language and metre, genres are also classified broadly into two types: verse and prose. Since the origin and development of poetry is closely related to the oral tradition several forms evolved during the classical period. The major verse forms are defined and described herein below with suitable examples: Alliterative verse refers to Middle English poems, such as William Langland's Piers Plowman and the Romance Sir Gawain and the Green Knight, that use the old alliterative meter. The verse is unrhymed, each line is divided into two half lines of two strong stresses by a pause, or caesura and at least one of the two stressed syllables in the first half-line alliterate with the first stressed syllable of the second

half-line. In the opening line of Piers Plowman all four of the stressed syllables alliterate. Ballad, evolves from oral tradition and was called the folk ballad, traditional or popular ballad which tells a story in metrical verse, a form of narrative folk song. Typically, the popular ballad is dramatic, condensed, and impersonal: the narrator begins with the climactic episode, tells the story tersely in action and dialogue and tells it without self-reference or the expression of personal attitudes or feelings. The most common stanza form—called the ballad stanza—is a quatrain in alternate four- and three- stress lines, with a rhyme scheme ABCB. In England, some of the best literary ballads were composed in the Romantic Period such as Coleridge's "Rime of the Ancient Mariner" and Keats' "La Belle Dame sans Merci." Chivalric romance or medieval romance is a type of narrative that developed in the Twelfth-Century France, at first written in verse, but later in prose as well. The romance represents a courtly and chivalric age, and is structured on a quest plot undertaken by a knight to gain a lady's favour. Its central interest is courtly love, together with tournaments fought, dragons and monsters slain for the damsel's sake. It stresses the chivalric ideals of courage, loyalty, honour, mercifulness to an opponent, elaborate manners, supernatural events, the mysterious effect of magic, spells, and enchantments, etc. Medieval chivalric romances have been divided into four classes of subjects: "The Matter of Britain" (Celtic subject, court of King Arthur); "The Matter of Rome" (classical history and legends); "The Matter of France" (Charlemagne and his knights); "The Matter of England" (King Horn and Guy of Warwick). Sir Gawain and the Green Knight, composed in Fourteenth- Century England, is a metrical romance about an Arthurian knight; and Thomas Malory's Morted' Arthur is an English version in prose of metrical romances about Arthur and his Knights of the Round Table. Elegy denotes any poem written in elegiac meter in Greek and Roman times, alternating hexameter and pentameterlines. The term now refers to the subject matter of change and loss frequently expressed in the elegiac verse form, especially in complaints about love or separation. Old English poems like "The Wanderer," "Deor's Lament," and "The Seafarer" are called elegies. John Donne's elegies are love poems and many of them emphasize mutability and loss. Milton's "Lycidas" (1638) mourn the

death of Edward King; Thomas Gray's Elegy Written in a Country Churchyard (1757) commemorates the dead; Alfred, Lord Tennyson's In Memoriam (1850) is an elegy on the death of Arthur Hallam. The dirge is also a versified expression of grief on the occasion of a particular person's death, but differs from the elegy in that it is short, is less formal, and is usually represented as a text to be sung; examples are Shakespeare's Ariel's song for Ferdinand in The TempestFull Fathom Five Thy Father Lies. Threnody is now used mainly as an equivalent for "dirge," and monody for an elegy or dirge which is presented as the utterance of a single person. John Milton describes his Lycidas (1637) in the subtitle as a "monody" and Matthew Arnold called his elegy on A. H. Clough Thyrsis: A Monody (1866). Pastoral elegy represents both the poet and the one he mourns as shepherds or "pastors" like Theocritus. English pastoral elegies are Spenser's Astrophel, on the death of Sir Philip Sidney (1595); Milton's Lycidas (1637); Shelley's Adonais (1821). Epic, is a long verse narrative, with proper magnitude and seriousness of theme and subject. Epic is narrated in a formal and

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elevated style, and revolves around a heroic or quasi-divine figure on whose actions depends the fate of a tribe, a nation,

or even the entire human race. Epic has been classified into two types: Primary and Secondary. The first type refers to "Traditional epics" also called "folk epics" or "primary epics" that were written usually long after their original composition as oral poems about a tribal or national hero during a warlike age. Homer's Iliad and Odyssey, the Anglo-Saxon Beowulf; the French Chanson de Roland and the Spanish Poema del Cid in the twelfth century; and the thirteenth century German epic Nibelungenlied, fall under this category. Secondary or "Literary epics" were composed in deliberate imitation of the traditional form. Virgil's Latin poem the Aeneid, Milton's Paradise Lost (1667), John Keats' fragmentary epic Hyperion, and William Blake's epics, or "prophetic books" like The Four Zoas, Milton, Jerusalem, and Shri Aurobindo's Savitri may be included under the genre of literary or secondary epic. Aristotle ranked epic as second only to tragedy. Renaissance critics like Sidney regarded epic as the highest of all genres. Lyric is derived from Greek "lyra" or a song rendered to the accompaniment of a lyre. Lyric is uttered by a single speaker in first person. It is a fairly short poem, expressing a state of mind, a process of perception, thought, feeling, or solitary musing. Indramatic lyrics the lyric speaker addresses another person as in John Donne's Canonization. Samuel

Taylor Coleridge's Frost at Midnight is a personal lyric and Ben Jonson's To the Memory of William Shakespeare is a public lyric. The genre includes extended ex- pressions of a complex thought and feeling, as in the long elegy and the meditative ode. Andrew Marvell's To His Coy Mistress, or Shakespeare's first seventeen sonnets addressed to a male youth are dramatic. Robert Burns' O my love's like a red, red rose is a song. In lyrics, the speaker may manifest and celebrate as in John Milton's L'Allegro and Il Penseroso and Yeats's Sailing to Byzantium. In some current us- ages, lyric means a poem written to be set to music for performance. Mock-epic poem is parody which imitates, in an elaborate and sustained manner the elevated form and style of the epic genre, but appropriates it to a trivial subject matter, as in Pope's The Rape of the Lock (1714), that uses epic grandeur of mighty conquest to present a trivial matter. Even the traditional supernatural machinery, an epical voyage, visit to the underworld, and a battle are included in this mock-heroic poem. The terms mock-heroicor heroi-comical are applied to dignified poetic forms which are purposely mismatched to a lowly subject as in Thomas Gray's comic "Ode on the Death of a Favorite Cat" (1748). Ode, denotes a long lyric poem that is serious in subject and treatment, elevated in style, and elaborate in its stanzaic structure. The composition is lyrical, having certain magnitude as seen in the classical odes of Theocritus, Sappho or Pindar. Odes were primarily modelled on Greek oda or songs by the chorusin Greek drama. Choric odes in classical drama were composed in three sets of stanzas: the strophe was sung by the chorus moving in a dance rhythm to the left; the antistrophe was sung while moving to the right; and the epode was performed standing still. In a close imitation of Pindar's form, Pindaric odes also called regular odes were composed in English with all the strophes and antistrophes written in one stanzapattern, and all the epodes in another, introduced into England by Ben Jonson's ode "To the Immortal Memory and Friendship of That Noble Pair, Sir Lucius Cary and Sir H. Morison" (1629) and used in Thomas Gray's "The Progress of Poesy" (1757). Abraham Cowley introduced the irregular ode in 1656 imitating the Pindaric style but disregarding the strophic triad, allowing each stanza to establish its own pattern of varying line lengths, number of lines, and rhyme scheme. Romantic poets perfected the personal ode of description and passionate meditation, as in Wordsworth's Ode: Intimations of Immortality (1807), Coleridge's Dejection: An Ode and Shelley's Ode to the West Wind. Horatian ode is calm, meditative, and colloquial, written in a single repeated stanzaic form, such as Marvell's An Horatian Ode upon Cromwell's Return from Ireland(1650) and Keats's ode To Autumn (1820). Pastoral Poetry was invented by the Greek poet Theocritus in the third century BC to represent the life of Sicilian shepherds or pastors. Virgil later imitated Theocritus in his Latin Eclogues. A traditional pastoral poem expresses an urban poet's nostalgic image of the supposed peace and simplicity of the life of shepherds and other rural folk in an idealized natural setting. The pastoral elegy developed from this form. Other terms often used synonymously with the pastoral are idyll, eclogue and bucolic poetry. Edmund Spenser's Shepherd's Calendar (1579), Sir Philip Sidney's Arcadia (1581–84), Christopher Marlowe's "The Passionate Shepherd to His Love" are among famous Elizabethan pastoral poems. John Gay, wrote a parody Shepherd's Week by applying its elegant formulas to the actual rural manners and language. Written in 1783, George Crabbe's The Village is more realistic as is Wordsworth's "Michael, A Pastoral Poem." Sonnet is

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a lyric-poem consisting of a single stanza of fourteen iambic pentameter lines linked by an intricate rhyme scheme.

There are two major patterns of rhyme in sonnets written in the English language: (a) the Italian or Petrarchan sonnet, with two main parts - an octave (eight lines) and a sestet (six lines) rhyming abbaabbacdecdeorabbaabbacdccdc; (b) the English sonnet, or the Shakespearean sonnet, with three quatrains and a concluding couplet, rhyming ababcdcdefef gg or in the Spenserian sonnet rhyming, ababbcbccdcdee. John Donne shifted from the subject of love to a variety of religious themes in his Holy Sonnets. In the nineteenth century, Wordsworth, Keats, Elizabeth Barrett Browning, Christina Rossetti, and Dante Gabriel Rossetti, and in the twentieth century, W. B. Yeats, Robert Frost, W. H. Auden, and Dylan Thomas were major sonneteers. Sidney in Astrophel and Stella (1580) Spenser in Amoretti (1595) Shakespeare's sonnets (1608), Wordsworth's The River, D. G. Rossetti's House of Life, Elizabeth Barrett Browning's Sonnets from the Portugueseare sonnet sequences, George Meredith's Modern Love (1862), which concerns a bitterly unhappy marriage, is sometimes called a sonnet sequence, composed of sixteen lines.

Verse satire refers to poems that depend on the art of diminishing or derogating a subject by making it ridiculous. The purpose of verse satire is to evoke laughter, fun, disdain or anger. In personal satire the target is an individual, and in public satire the butt of ridicule may be a type of person, a class, an institution, a nation, or even mankind. John Dryden's Mac Flecknoe (1682) is a neoclassical verse satire against poetasters in general and Thomas Shadwell in particular. In formal verse satire the satiric persona speaks out in the first person as in Pope's Moral Essays (1731–35), or else a character called the adversaries add credibility to the satiric speaker's comments as in Pope's "Epistle to Dr. Arbuthnot" (1735), in which Arbuthnot serves as adversarius. Two types of formal satire are the Horatian satire where the speaker is urbane, witty, and tolerant and wants "to laugh people out of their vices and follies" (Pope's Moral Essays); and Juvenalian satire where the speaker is a serious moralist who decries vices and errors to evoke from readers contempt and indignation (Samuel Johnson's "London"). Another form of verse satire is Indirect satire cast in a fictional narrative form (John Dryden's Absalom and Achitophel and "Mac Flecknoe"). Menippean satire is modelled on a Greek form developed by the cynic philosopher Menippus. Varronian satire is named after a Roman imitator, Varro. 4.6 Summary Different features of drama and poetry have been identified through different forms of the literary genres. Along with definition and characteristic features of these forms of drama and poetry, examples are provided for better understanding of the characteristic features. 4.7 Review Questions for Thought, Understanding and Self- Assessment (Answer in not more than 500 words; hints to answers are given in the units below) 1. Write a note on classification, growth and development of drama and poetry. 2. What are the basic features of drama? Discuss with reference to either tragedy or comedy.

3. How are the different forms of drama identified? Classify and define any two forms with reference to their characteristic features. 4. Write a note on Comedy of Manners. 5. How are the different forms of poetry identified? Classify and define any two forms with reference to subject matter, metre, rhyme and stanza structure. 6. What are the basic features of epic and mock-epic poetry? Compare and contrast. 7. Write a note on the Sonnet as a poetic form. 8. Write briefly on Elegy as a poetic form. 9. What is Pastoral Poetry? Explain briefly. 10. Write short notes on the following (in not more than 150 words) : a) Comedy b) Ballad c) Metrical pattern d) Verse satire e) Plot in tragedy f) Farce g) Sonnet h) Tragicomedy Note: Look for information of answers to the above questions in the units below – 1. Unit 4.3 2. Unit 4.4 3. Unit 4.4 4. Unit 4.4 5. Unit 4.5 6. Unit 4.5 7. Unit 4.5

8. Unit 4.5 9. Unit 4.5 10. Review all the units. Task for You: Discuss The Rape of the Lock as a mock-epic poem: cite lines from the poem to establish your viewpoint. OR Discuss any Shakespearean Tragedy according to the genre that you have come across in this unit. 4.8 References A Handbook to Literature (1986) by C. Hugh Holman and William Harmon A Dictionary of Modern Critical Terms (1973; revised 1987), edited by Roger Fowler Keywords (1976) by Raymond Williams, The Johns Hopkins Guide to Literary Theory and Criticism (1994), edited by Michael Groden and Martin Kreiswirth The Columbia Dictionary of Modern Literary and Cultural Criticism (1995), edited by Joseph Childers and Gary Henzi (eds.) A Dictionary of Cultural and Critical Theory (1996) edited by Michael Payne. The Penguin Dictionary of Critical Theory (2000) by David Macey A Glossary of Contemporary Literary Theory (4th edn., 2000) by Jeremy Hawthorn Princeton Encyclopedia of Poetry and Poetics (1965; expanded 1974) The Batsford Dictionary of Drama (1988) by Terry Hodgson The Oxford Companion to the Theatre, edited by Phyllis Hartnoll Dictionary of the Theatre: Terms, Concepts, and Analysis (1998) by Patrice Pavis, A Dictionary of Narratology (1987) by Gerald Prince A Dictionary of Stylistics (2nd edition 2001) by Katie Wales

4.9 Recommended Texts for Study A Handbook to Literature (1986) by C. Hugh Holman and William Harmon A Dictionary of Literary Terms (1977) by J. A. Cuddon. The Penguin Dictionary of Literary Terms and Literary Theory (1999), revised by Cuddon and by C. E. Preston. Longman Dictionary and Handbook of Poetry (1985) by Jack Myers and Michael Simms. The Concise Oxford Dictionary of Linguistics (1997) by P. H. Matthews. A Glossary of Literary Terms. (2009) Ninth Editionby M. H. Abrams and Geoffrey Galt Harpham.

Unit 5 ? Point of View, Focalisation, Topicalization, Thematization, Heterodiegetic and Homodiegetic Structure 5.1 Objectives 5.2 Introduction 5.3 Keywords of Narratology 5.4 Point of View 5.5 Focalisation 5.6 Topicalization 5.7 Thematization 5.8 Heterodiegetic and Homodiegetic Narrators 5.9 Summary 5.10 Review Questions 5.11 References and Recommended Books for Study 5.1 Objectives Learners will be: • Familiar with critical terms used in Narratology, • Understand key words of Narratology, • Learn different features of Narrativity. 5.2 Introduction Narratology denotes both the theory and the study of narrative (the text, image, thought) and narrative structure and the ways that these affect our perception of a literary text. Interest in the study of literary narratives gradually developed with Structuralism and Linguistics. Study of narrativity involves a theorisation of the general laws of literature, an

NSOU ? PGEL-9A 67 analysis of structure rather than ideology, or of form rather than content. This involves an interdisciplinary study that has brought together anthropology, linguistics, semiotics, psy- chology, and philosophy of language. 5.3 Keywords of Narratology According to the Swiss linguist Ferdinand de Saussure, any sign consists of a "signifier" and a "signified" - basically, a form and a meaning. For a narrative text - a complex sign - the signifier is a "discourse" (a mode of presentation) and the signified is a "story" (an action sequence). Hence, narratological investigation usually pursues one of two basic orientations: discourse narratology and story narratology. The former analyses the stylistic choices that determine the form or realisation of a narrative text, or performance, in the case of films and plays. Also, of interest are the pragmatic features that contextualise text or performance within the social and cultural framework of a narrative act. The story narratology, by contrast, focuses on the action units that "emplot" and arrange a stream of events into a trajectory of themes, motives and plot lines. In contemporary literary theory and criticism, Narratology is concerned with all types of narratives, literary and non-literary, fictional and non-fictional, verbal and non-verbal. Vladimir Propp, in Morphology of the Folktales (1928), studied Russian folktales and found that they all made use of a small number of functions (hero, helper, villain, test; prohibition, etc.). The arrangement too was found ordered and predictable. Narrative order was found to be a function of unfolding linear time, structured, as Aristotle had stated earlier, with a beginning, a middle and an end. Narrative functions are linked to one another in pre-determined sequences. He noticed that stories displaying various motifs manifest identical sequences of units. The tales begin with a journey or transportation of the hero to foreign lands either by a horse, or an eagle, or by a magic boat. The action invariants are called 'functions' by Propp. They are the primary elements while the various circumstances of their performance play only a secondary role. As a discipline, narratology began to take shape in 1966, the year in which the French journalCommunications brought out a special issue entitled "The structural analysis of narrative." The term narratology itself was coined three years later, by one of the contributors to that special issue, Tzvetan Todorov (1969: 9). Some theorists, among them

NSOU ? PGEL-9A 68 Gérard Genette, opt for restricting narratives to verbally narrated texts (1988: 17). On the other hand, Barthes (1966), Chatman (1990) and Bal (1985), argue that anything that tells a story, in whatever genre, constitutes a narrative. According to Bal, "Narratologyas a field of study is the ensemble of theories of narratives, narrative texts, images, spectacles, events – of cultural artefacts that tell a story" (3). Practically all theories of narrative distinguish between what is narrated (the "story") and how it is narrated (the "discourse"). There are several key terms of Narratology used since the time of Plato. Plato and Aristotle introduced words like muthos, diegesis, mimesis that are the basic words in Narratology. Tzvetan Todorov applied the term 'narratology' to the study of plot-structure (histoire) and text-structure (discours). Bakhtin viewed language in novelistic discourse as fundamentally dialogic: dialogically agitated and tension-filled environment of alien words, value judgments and accents, exhibiting heteroglossia. The "internal stratification" of language depends on an interplay among its social/class dialects, jargons, register variations of languages, and language that serve the specific sociopolitical purposes of the time. Bakhtin introduced the concept of topicalization with terms like heterotopia; Grossberg's used the phrases like "timing of space" and the "spacing of time" to define spatiotemporal aspect of narratives.Barthes stressed the active role of the reader in constructing a narrative based on "cues" in the text. Ian Watt applied the word thematization to realistic representation of the details of contemporary life. Genette introduced terms like homodiegetic, heterodiegetic, focalization; Chatman used overtness and covertness; Lanser applied words like voice, human limitation, omniscience; Stanzel used narrative situation, authorial, figural, reflector; and Bal developed the concept of focalizer and applied it to study literary narratives from the point of view of narrative discourse. Gerard Genette applied five central categories of narrative analysis: "Order," "Duration," "Frequency," "Mood," and "Voice. Some of these keywords and concepts are discussed in the following sections. 5.4 Point of View In Book X of the Republic, a difference is made between any literary representation and the truth because the representor is "capable of making every product there is only becausehis contact with things is slight and is restricted to how they look" (Leitch 73). This brings into account the question of perspective or point of view: Plato gives the example

69 of a bed painted from different points of view, giving different images of the bed. For Aristotle, "pure" narratives and dramatic impersonations are two varieties of mimesis because both represent a world. Literature was classifiedinto three types in accordance with who speaks in the work by Aristotle: lyric (uttered throughout in the first person); epic or narrative (in which the narrator speaks in the first person, then lets the characters speak for themselves); drama (in which the characters do all the talking).Literary mimesis depends on material (language), content (matter or subject), and form (structure). While in the diegetic or narrative mode the point of view of the narrator dominates the narrative, in the mimetic or dramatic, characters present acting from multiple points of view. Point of view refers to the position or vantage-point from which the events of a story are shown to be observed and presented to us. This vantage point or position usually depends on the narrator: while the third-person narrator is omniscient displaying an unrestricted knowledge ofthe events of the story from outside or a position above the events and characters, a first person narrator's point of view is normally restricted to his or her partial knowledge and experience. In several works like Fitzgerald's The Great Gatsby "multiple point of view" can be seen. The readers are shown the events from the positions of Nick Carraway and other characters in the novel. In Narratology, issues of perspective or point of view are now often treated under Genette's concept of focalization. Genette drew a distinction between focalization (who sees or who perceives) and narration (who speaks in a narrative). Point of view is an important feature of narrativity like content, discourse, transportation and persuasion. Every verbal text that claims to be a literary text involves speakers, narrators and writers who adapt their language and style of discourse to certain conventions imposed by literary and linguistic culture. Both the addresser and the addressee, in any discourse, are tuned in to socialized stylistic conventions. In any speech community, there are innumerable discourse genres based on the field, manner and mode of discourse. In literary texts too the point of view is often seen multiplied by the number of speakers involved in speech acts. Genette's notion of diégèse refers to the primary story level, specifically excluding the narratorial discourse which is constitutive of both Plato and Stanzel's understandings of diégèse. Genette distinguishes three basic features of narrativity: recit (the discourse or narrative itself); histoire (the narrative content); and narration (the act of narrative

70 production). For Genette, "the diégèse is [...] the universe in which the story takes place" (1988: 17). Stanzel's notion of "mediacy" has roots in the distinction between mimesis and haplediegesis in Plato's Republic. Genette and Stanzel agree with regard to the constitu- tive narratorial mediation of narrative, even though for Genette this is achieved through the narrating instance. For him, the narrator's speech act produces the story through the narrative discourse. Such speech acts contain the narrator's view point. For example, in Austen's novel Pride and Prejudice, the detached ironic commentaries of the principal authorial narrator allow the characters to offer their points of view either to reaffirm the reliability of the primary narrator or to contradict the statements. The opening sentence of the novel beginning, "It is a truth universally acknowledged...", is soon disputed by Mrs Bennet who is engaged in search for suitable husbands for her daughters. Bakhtinoffers an elaborate analysis of "dialogism" and its relationship to style in fictional narratives. Between any word and its object, between any word and its speaking subject, between any word and its active respondent(s), Bakhtin argues, there exists "an elastic environment of other, alien words about the same object"; and this "dialogically agitated and tension-filled environment of alien words, value judgments and accents" weaves in and out of discourse in complex patterns. According to Bakhtin, "Authorial speech, the speeches of narrator, inserted genres, the speech of characters and merely those fundamental compositional unit with whose help heteroglossia [raznoreèie] can enter the novel" (Leitch 1192-1193). According to Bal: A narrative text is a text in which an agent or subject conveys to an addressee ("tells" the reader, viewer, or listener) a story in a medium, such as language, imagery, sound, buildings, or a combination thereof. A story is the content of that text and produces a particular manifestation, inflection, and "colouring" of a fabula. A fabulais a series of logically and chronologically related events that are caused or experienced by actors. (5) Fabula combines two elements corresponding to Aristotle's concept of plot and character: "event" and "actor." An "event"is the transition from one state to another state, as in tragedy, the plot allows the tragic hero to pass from a state of happiness to misfortune. "Actors" or charactersare agents that perform actions, like the heroes in classical tragedy, or any agent that has the ability to cause or to experience an event. Crucial elements of stories and storytelling include plot, characters and narrative point of view. According to Genette there are three major aspects in a story: time, mode and

71 voice. Time includes the set of chronological relations in the story between the discourse of the recit and the abstract histoire. These relations are organized according to three major categories: order (the interaction between the chronology of the histoireand the textual arrangement of the events); duration (the length of events versus the length of their textual presentation); and frequency, (number of occurrences of an event and number of times it is narrated). Narrative mode refers to technique of selecting the events for narration using narrative distance and perspective. The narrator is absorbed in the question, - from what point of view, and in what sequence, and what is to be left out. The narrator has to defend the "tellability" of the story and comment on its lesson, purpose, or message. 5.5 Focalisation Genette defined focalization as point of view and distinguished three types of stories: non-focalized(using omniscient narrator); internally focalized,(focalisation restricted to that of a given character); and externally focalized (the narrator knows less than the character). "Focalization," as defined by Bal, "is the technical aspect, the placing of the point of view in or with a specific agent" (66).In order to understand the notion of focalization, the role of the narrator has to be kept in mind and the narrative situation is determined by the narrator and focalization together. The focalizer can be regarded as an aspect of the story narrated by the narrator.According to Bal: It is the represented colouring of the fabula by an agent of perception, the holder ofthe point of view. When we see focalization as part of narration, as isusually done, we fail to make a distinction between linguistic, visual, or auditive, hence, textual agents and the colouring, the object of theiractivity, which may be produced by a different agent. (13) While the language shapes the vision and modifies the world view, the narration and focalization are inter-related. The term focalization is often used in modern Narratology for point of view, for the kind of perspective from which the events of any story are witnessed and narrated. Usually in older forms of fictional narratives, events are observed by an omniscient narrator, but such observations are usually considered non-focalized and general. In several experimental forms of narrative such as the epistolary and first-person autobiographical modes, the events are witnessed from within the fictional world, using the internal focalization of inset

72 characters/participants, or from the restricted perspective of a single character. Raymond Williams in his essay "Realism and the Contemporary Novel" refers to the point of view from a mature perspective, presenting typical people in typical situations. Baldick differen- tiates "narrative's focalization" from "its narrative 'voice'", based on the difference between "seeing"and "speaking." (98). The relationship amongthe person who tells the story (narrator), the person whose view point is focalized (focalizer) and the person who acts (actor) constituteas the basis of focalization. There are two basic forms of narration according to the "voice" that the readers hear: the direct "first-person" or the indirect voice of "third-person." There are also novels where we have "second-person" narrator. Three forms of focalization can thus evolve based on the act of narrating, gazing, or performing. According to Bal, "[t]he most effective, the most frequent, and the least noticeable form ismotivation through looking" (28). Motivation becomes the prime function of focalization, reproducing what the character sees, that involves both internal motivation and externally induced motivation. Bal explains how focalization establishes the link of perception between subjectand object.Ascending in body, the focalizer descends in vision. (33). Point of view is first defined by Rabatel as "the expression of a perception, whose process, qualifications and modalizations are co-referential to the perceiving subject and express in a certain way the subjectivity of this perception" (Rabatel 1998: 13). Discussing perspective, Genette makes the subtle differentiation between problems of mode and problems of voice, the former being raised by the question "who sees?", while the latter are occasioned by the interrogation "who speaks?" Perspective is a question of focalization (or point of view); there are three types of stories: non-focalized, corresponding to the omniscient narrator, internally focalized, with a point of view restricted to that of a given character, and externally focalized, where the narrator knows less than the character. James Joyce's short story "Araby" is anchored on a focalizer's point of view when it presents, and does not transcend, the focalizer's thoughts, reflections and knowledge, his/ her actual and imaginary perceptions, as well as his/her cultural and ideological orientation.Multiple focalizationsinvolve the technique of presenting an episode each time seen through the eyes of a different focalizer. Typically, what is demonstrated by this technique is that different people tend to perceive or interpret the same event in radically different fashion. Texts that are told by more than one narrator (such as epistolary novels)

NSOU ? PGEL-9A 73 create multiple focalizations based on external focalizers. In the third paragraph of "Araby" collective focalization is used for plural narrators ('we narrative') or a group of characters ('collective reflectors'): The cold air stung us and we played till our bodies glowed. Our shouts echoed in the silent street. The career of our play brought us through the dark muddy lanes behind the houses, where we ran the gauntlet of the rough tribes from the cottages, to the back doors of the dark dripping gardens where odours arose from the ashpits... In Joyce's short story "Eveline," the temporal and psychological distance between the "narrating I" and the "experiencing I" is established within the narrative space. In "Araby" the "narrating I" is older (a 21-year old author) and wiser than the "experiencing I" (the 11-year boy). Whenever events are presented, it is presented from a certain perspective by some narrator or speaker. Usually, apoint of view is chosen, a certain angle or a certain way of perceiving the subject, object or event. This point of view is subjective in nature attempting to present a reliable or objective representation of the facts. This psychosomatic process modifies perception and is dependent on the position of the perceiving thing. Perception depends on several factors such as the attitude towards the object, the distance, the involvement, a priori knowledge, and purpose. 5.6 Topicalization Storytelling mode is an artifice and different than any ordinary conversational mode where we have multiple speakers who might be talking on the same topic. When a single speaker is speaking and others are listening, including the anonymous readers, the speech act can be considered as story-telling. The story may be narrated by an omniscient narrator. The story may also be told by an inset narrator who is not a part of the events narrated. A third possibility is that of a narrator who is also a participant, like Marlowe of Conrad's Heart of Darkness, who narrates the story based on his/her personal experi- ence. Hogan, however, distinguishes two types of narrators - personified and non- personified - and introduces the term topicalization to deal with the text's focus on a protagonist who is not the focalizer, as in Heart of Darkness (Kurtz) or The Great Gatsby (Jay Gatsby). The term is related to both the syntax and the appropriation of space

NSOU ? PGEL-9A 74 and time to the story. Through syntax, the narrative establishes the presence of space and time, thereby giving the narrative a spatio-temporal dimension. Certain constituent parts of the narrative or discourse may be emphasized by topicalizing them and placing them at the beginning of the sentence. According to Gerald Prince: On the level of the narrated, for instance, narratologists consider whether space isexplicitly mentioned and described, prominent or not, stable or changing, perceiverdependentor, on the contrary, autonomous, characterized by its position or by itsconstituents.(Phelan et al 475) There may be seen certain degrees of heterotopicality, that depend on "mixtures and inconsistencies, of gaps, breaches, and crackswithin spaces or between them" (ibid). 5.7 Thematization In modern Narratology, the foregrounding of theme though the title and emphasis on important thematic elements in a narrative, is referred to as thematization. According to Monika Fludernik: Yet another level of alterity emerges from the perspective of thereader/audience.... Readers like to immerse themselves in the worlds of fiction and in the livesof characters that are very different from their own situations. Ian Watt, in The Rise of the Novel relates realism in novel as an attempt towards thematization of contemporary life. This aspect of thematization depends on appropriation of the theme by the readers to the perspective of the author. There are several forms of fiction that present settings and characters with which the readers are not familiar, such as fables, biography, Gothic romance, historical novel, or even naturalistic fiction about the people from the margins of class, caste and gender. While in certain works fiction and realism are closely blended to make thematization clearly visible through deliberate familiarity, in certain works, thematization wholly depends on an imaginative approximation of recognition by the readers through "willing suspension of disbelief" or empathy. Both mimetic and diegetic representations in literary works depend on thematization. The information related to the central theme is often presented through parallel actions and often through the inclusion of off-stage or reported action. In drama and fiction multiple thematizations are also done through flashback or flash forward action.

5.8 Heterodiegetic and Homodiegetic Narrators Diegetic as used in the Poetics by Aristotle, as opposed to mimetic,here too means "pertaining to narrating." The Greek homos/Latin homo means "same/man" and Greek heteros means "other." Wayne Booth in The Rhetoric of Fiction finds narrative as the author's means of controlling his reader through the art of communicating with readers. The rhetorical resources are available to the writer of short story as he tries, consciously or unconsciously, to impose his fictional world upon the reader. Narration involves a struggle against time. With strategic deferral of time, meaning and information the narrator keeps the attention of the readers fixed. According to Genette there are three major aspects in a story: time, mode and voice. Voice refers to the speech act involved in narration, either on an extradiegetic level (situated outside the events), oran intradiegetic level (the main story and inset narratives embedded within one another). Accordingly, narrators are classified as heterodiegetic (outside narrators), homodiegetic (inside narrator, either partici- pant or observer). Chatman speaks of the process of "narrative transmission" as "the source or authority for the story" (1978: 22). For him, the process of narrative transmission centrally concerns the relationship between story time and discourse time as well as issues of voice and point of view. In Genette's Narrative Discourse (1972) and Chatman's Story and Discourse (1978) a question raised by the critics is, "Who speaks?" Obviously, the narrators of these stories are speaking to the narratee as if in a real-life face-to-face narrative situation. But who are these narrators? For example, in James Joyce's "Araby" and "Eveline" we find two different types of narratives, homodiegetic and heterodiegetic, respectively. The opening sentences used in these short stories are both descriptive. They are written in past tense, using a conventional SVO order. Joyce perhaps thought his readers wise enough to identify the speaker or any speech act and intentionally removed inverted commas or dashes. Thus, an important "voice marker" was withdrawn from his short stories. The first paragraphs of both "Araby" and "Eveline" do not use voice markers. No information about the narrators has been provided by the author in the first paragraph. Our sense of the quality and distinctness of the narrator's voice is not allowed to be concretized. None of the textual elements in these paragraphs project the identity of the narrator or the narrative voice.

However, the type of intonation used in the speech act is naturally and culturally appropriate for a narrator who is capable of a complex and associative thought process. The anonymous unidentifiable voice of the narrator personifies both the street and the houses. The content matter offers an image of restricted vision, abandonment, alienation, indifference, and paralysis in "Araby": North Richmond street being blind... An uninhabited house of two storeys stood at the blind end, detached from its neighbours in a square ground. The other houses of the street, conscious of decent lives within them, gazed at one another with brown imperturb- able faces. Multiple images are superimposed like a palimpsest, or like a manuscript, or a piece of writing material on which, later writing has been superimposed on effaced earlier writing. Instead of revealing the narrator the description offers images of something reused or altered but still bearing visible traces of some earlier images: image of North Richmond street, image of a desecrated and abandoned church, image of some abandoned eighteenth century houses, or the medieval landscape of the holy crusades. Even the subjective expressions of the narrator or "expressivity markers" that can indicate the narrator's beliefs, convictions, ideological orientations, age, gender, or background are not used in the opening paragraph of "Araby." Pragmatic signals or expressions that signal the narrator's awareness of an audience and the degree of his/her orientation towards it are missing. The abrupt opening discards the notional presence of implied addressee and hides the identity of the addresser. "Eveline" uses verbal storytelling. The opening paragraph projects a narrative voice, but the text's narrator is temporally, spatially, and ontologically separated from the readers and the character. The narrator belongs to a fictional, invented, imaginary and not a real world: She sat at the window watching the evening invade the avenue. Her head was leaned against the window curtains and in her nostrils was the odour of dusty cretonne. She was tired. There is a shift away from reflector-mode narration from first person account used in "Araby" to a third person reflective narration in "Eveline." This abrupt opening, according to Fillmore, "would have an absolutely jarring effect on the reader," and he proposes that

the narrator could have stated "She was probably tired" instead of makng a straightforward declarative statement (160). In the second paragraph of "Araby," the presence of the homodiegetic narrator is affirmed along with some "voice markers." Through the use of personal pronouns, the readers can feel the presence of somebody telling a story of personal experience. An inset communicative contact is made within the author-reader communicative framework. A new set of communicator - narrator and audience or addressee(s) - on the level of fictional mediation is placed. The narrator's presence as character on the level of action is also established. Now the narrator refers to "our house" and leads us into "the back drawing- room." The action of the narrator is now well defined: "I found," "I liked," "I found," On the "intratextual" level the participants involved in the narrative communication are now established. If this passage is read out loud the narration follows the confessional and intimate mode. The narrator is nameless although the narrative voice is characterized by "overtness" (Chatman). In homodiegetic narration, the narrator is omnipresent, audible and visible as in "Araby" while in heterodiegetic narratives, such as "Eveline," the narrator is not a visible participant or character. The homodiegetic narrator of "Araby" tells a story of personal experience, whereas a heterodiegetic narrator of "Eveline" tells a story about other people's experience. This presence of the narrator is either as a first-person or a third-person. Genette uses homodiegetic narrative, meaning, roughly the first-person narrative and heterodiegetic narrative or third-person narrative. In "Araby" homodiegetic narrative has been used as the story is told by a narrator who is also one of story's acting characters. In "Eveline" the story is told by a heterodiegetic narrator who is not present as a character in the story. The prefix "hetero-" alludes to the "different nature" of the narrator as compared to the characters. In "Araby" pronouns like "I, me, mine, we, us, our," etc., are used as opposed to "he, she, him, her, they, their," etc., used in "Eveline." For example, in "Araby" the word "I" has been used a hundred times and "me," eighteen times, while there is not a single use of these pronouns in 'Eveline." As a homodiegetic text "Araby" contains story-related action sentences having first-person pronouns indicating that the narrator was an active participant to the events depicted:

If my uncle was seen turning the corner, we hid in the shadow until we had seen him safely housed. Or if Mangan's sister came out on the doorstep to call her brother in to his tea, we watched her from our shadow peer up and down the street. We waited to see whether she would remain or go in and, if she remained, we left our shadow and walked up to Mangan's steps resignedly. "Eveline" is a heterodiegetic text as all of its story-related action sentences are third- person sentences: Home! She looked round the room, reviewing all its familiar objects which she had dusted once a week for so many years, wondering where on earth all the dust came from. Perhaps she would never see again those familiar objects from which she had never dreamed of being divided. There is an bsence of an "experiencing I" in the plain story-related action sentences which present an event involving one or more characters in the story. 5.9 Summary Through this discussion the students are made familiar withmajor critical terms and keyword derived from the theories of Narratology such as point of view, focalization, topicalization and thematization. Two forms of narrative – homodiegetic and heterodiegetic – are also discussed Thisanalysis of discourse and narrative structures involves an understanding of these key words. 5.10 Review Questions Review Questions for thought, understanding and self-assessment (Answer in not more than 500 words) 1. Discuss Narratology as a critical theory of discourse and narrative structures with reference to any three key words. 2. Define point of view from the perspective of modern Narratology with suitable examples. 3. Write a note on focalization as used in Narratology. 4. Write a note on Genette's concept of homodiegetic and heterodiegetic narrators.

5. Write a note on topicalization and thematization. 6. Write on the view of Narratology as opined by Bal. 7. Write briefly on Bakhtin's contribution to the theory of Narratology. 8. Discuss the importance of Genette in looking through the theory of Narratology. 9. Write a note on 'Araby' following the different parameters of narrative discourse. 10. Write short notes on the following: (write in not more than 150 words) a) Ferdinand de Saussure b) Addressor / Addressee c) Diegesis d) First person narrator e) Vantage point Look for information for answers to the above questions in the following units: Q1. Unit 5.3 Q2. Unit 5.4 Q3. Unit 5.5 Q4. Unit 5.8 Q5. Unit 5.6 and 5.7 Q6. Unit 5.3 and 5.5 Q7. Unit 5.3 and 5.4 Q8. Unit 5.3, 5.4, 5.5 and 5.8 Q9. Unit 5.5 and 5.8 Q10. Unit 5.3, 5.4, 5.5, and 5.8. Tasks for you: Discuss point of view with reference to Jane Austen's Pride and Prejudice. 5.11 References and Recommended Books for Study Aristotle. On Poetics. Tr. S. Benardete & M. David. South Bend: St. Augustine's Press, 2002. Print.

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NSOU ? PGEL-9A 82 Unit 6 ? Foregrounding Structure 6.1 Objectives 6.2 Introduction 6.3 Stylistics and Foregrounding 6.4 Axes of Deviation and Patterning 6.5 Foregrounding and Rhetorical Stylistics 6.5.1 Schemes 6.5.2 Tropes 6.6 Analysis of foregrounding in a Literary Text 6.6.1 Graphological foregrounding 6.6.2 Phonological Foregrounding 6.6.3 Morphological Foregrounding 6.6.4 Syntactical Foregrounding 6.6.5 Semantic Foregrounding 6.7 Summary 6.8 Review Questions 6.9 References and Recommended Books 6.1 Objectives To help learners: • Learn on the stylistic notion of foregrounding, • Understand applications of foregrounding for the purpose of prominence, • Learn the effective use of schemes and tropes for foregrounding. 6.2 Introduction The central focus of Stylistics is the analysis of the transformation of ordinary language into a text or a discourse through a process of foregrounding. The word foregrounding

NSOU ? PGEL-9A 83 takes its source material from the commonplace in language and as a technique involves a process of giving prominence to some linguistic items against the background of such commonplace language for the purpose of attracting the attention of the audience. It is a technique for "making strange" in language, a method of "defamiliarization" in textual composition derived from Viktor Shklovsky's use of the Russian word ostranenie. Art is seen as an artifice that lays bare or exposes the content through form, techniques and devices. A work of art is constructed by these formal elements and their arrangement. The concept of defamiliarization is closely connected with the concepts of foregrounding and literariness. Foregrounding refers to a form of textual patterning of language through a conscious craftsmanship, serving both the literary and aesthetic purpose. Foregrounding involves a conscious selection and patterning of language. Sometimes this selection involves distortion, deviation, and innovation that are motivated to serve the aesthetic purpose. This aestheti- cally purposeful anomaly or distortion is based on linguistic deviation from an expected linguistic norm, and innovative stylisation of the form of linguistic expression through patterning or verbal parallelism. 6.3 Stylistics and Foregrounding Stylistician investigates how a writer by deviating from an established norm and automated pattern foreground certain linguistic items to attract and surprise the readers. According to Geoffrey Leech, "the special name of 'foregrounding'… invokes the analogy of a figure seen against a background. The artistic deviation 'sticks out' from its background, the automatic system, like a figure in the foreground of a visual field" (57). Any "text" or literature, according to the Czech linguist Jan Mukarovsky, is characterised by a consistent and systematic character of foregrounded linguistic form and content. Mukarovsky, in his essay Standard Language and Poetic Language has observed: "The function of poetic language consists in the maximum foregrounding of the utterance… it is not used in the services of communication, but in order to place in the foreground the act of expression, the act of speech itself." (Qtd. Cuddon 325-6).

According to Katie Wales, the word "actualization" in literary stylistics "came to be used by some translator-critics as the direct equivalent of the Prague School term aktualisace, traditionally and more popularly known as foregrounding." According to J.A. Cuddon, foregrounding: "…denotes the use of devices and techniques which 'push' theact of expression into the foreground so that language draws attention to itself. This draws attention, in turn, to the way that literary language represents reality. Foregrounding occurs especially in poetic language." (325) Foregrounding is the artistic technique of revealing art and bringing the content into the foreground rather than concealing it. Literariness depends on the principle of defamiliarization or Shklovsky's concept of "making strange" in order to attract the attention of the readers to the foregrounded content. For example, in Thomas Sterne's novel Tristam Shandy, various literary devices are used to attract the reader's attention to what the writer and the narrator are doing. In poetry too such foregrounding works to reveal art. Philip Sidney's famous dictum, "nature's world is brazen, poetry turns it golden" is perhaps an early statement on the use of foregrounding in poetry. Coleridge, in Biographia Literaria (1817), speaks of the essential difference between the language of poetry and prose, and calls poetry "metrical." For Coleridge, the "prime merit" of literary genius is the ability to represent "familiar objects" in an unfamiliar manner in order to evoke "freshness of sensation."Paul Simpson, refers to foregrounding as "a form of textual patterning which is motivated specifically for literary- aesthetic purposes" (50). 6.4 Axes of Deviation and Patterning Foregrounding depends on two basic use of language: deviation and patterning. Both these are forms of linguistic distortion of some sort from the ordinary and commonplace language. However, such linguistic distortion is made consciously by the writer in order to serve an aesthetic purpose. Certain components of the text deviate from ordinary linguistic norm or anaspect of the text is brought into prominence through repetition or parallelism. Thus, stylistic analysis works on the intersection of two axes of linguistic deviation and patterning. According to Paul Simson:

"….foregrounding comes in two main guises: foregrounding as 'deviation from a norm' and foregrounding as 'more of the same.' Whether the foregrounded pattern deviates from a norm, or whether it replicates a pattern through parallelism, the point of foregrounding as a stylistic strategy is that it should acquire salience in the act of drawing attention to itself." (50). Foregrounding is an aesthetically purposeful distortion of ordinary language that is kept in the background in order to make the foregrounded content more attractive. Linguistic deviation and patterning are done on the levels of both form and content. In Style and Language, Roman Jakobson refers to the French poet Paul Valery, who called poetry a "sustained hesitation between the sound and the sense." Jakobson proposes a model of language which comprises six key functions (Jakobson 1960). These are the conative, phatic, referential, emotive, poetic and metalingual functions of language. Among these, poetic function consists of making connections within the utterancewith the help of words, images, and sounds all coded in a linguistic message. This poetic function stands out in respect of its particular appeal to stylistician. Jakobson defines "the poetic function" as something that "

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projects the principle of equivalence from the axis of selection into the axis of combination' (Jakobson 358). In

literary works there is an attempt to establish connections (a principle of equivalence) between the words the writer chooses from the pool of possible words (the axis of selection) and the words that are combined across the poetic line (the axis of combination.) This poetic function depends on connections or "equivalences" or to quote Coleridge, "a semblance of truth" in order to generate the linguistic message and sequence. Ordinary language is converted into poetic language with the help of meter, rhyme, symbols, imagery and distortion of language through patterning and deviation. For example, the opening lines of Blake's poem "The Tyger" displays both deviation and patterning that serve poetic function: Tyger, tyger burning bright, In the forests of the night. The spelling of tiger is an instance of morphological deviation as the poet has used an archaic and obsolete spelling to represent an ordinary tiger as strange. The readers are further attracted to this "new" creature because of the special emphasis laid on the word through repetition of the word. "Drawing on a mathematical sense of mapping ("project- ing") one functionupon another, Jakobson declares that 'the poetic function projects the

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principle of equivalence from the axis of selection into the axis of

combinatio (Leitch 1256). Ordinary, simple and straight forward communication is minimised and the metaphoric or equivalent meaning is emphasised. Any stylistic analysis of text therefore depends on this identification of deviation from the linguistic norm and patterning of language. According to Geoffrey Leech, the element of interest and surprise in any literary text depends on the foregrounded irregularity of form and content: The foregrounded figure is the linguistic deviation, and the background is the language— "the system taken for granted in any talk of 'deviation'. Just as the eye picks out the figure as the important and meaningful element in its field of vision, so the reader of poetry picks out the linguistic deviation..." (57) Jan Mukarovsky has stated, literature is distinguished by the "consistency and systematic character of foregrounding" (Qtd. Leech 57). Foregrounding depends on deviations and patterning on different levels: graphological, phonological, lexical, syntactical and semantic. 6.5 Foregrounding and Rhetorical Stylistics Foregrounding depends on the use of figures of speech or the smallest structural units of rhetorical stylistics. Such foregrounded irregularity of both form and content serving an aesthetic purpose can be seen in all kinds of texts from past to the present. The Greek sophist Gorgias of Leontini (c.483−c.376 BCE) was the first to use figures of speech in his writings. These later became known as Gorgianic figures and included figures of speech based on the phonological, morphological, and syntactic levels. Such as asyndeton, alliteration, assonance, pun, etc. As interest grew in oratory and rhetorical treatises, the figures of speech began to assume a systematic character. As figures of speech increased in number and complexity a fundamental distinction was made on the basis of their use of form or content into schemes and tropes, respectively. The word "schemes" is derived from the Greek word schçmata and "tropes" is derived from the Greek word tropoi. Most rhetorical devices that serve the purpose of foregrounding in the Greco-Roman tradition maintain this dichotomy. Henry Peacham in The Garden of Eloquence (1593) mentions the figures of the Grecians as Tropes and

NSOU ? PGEL-9A 87 Schemates of the Latins as figures, decorated with lights, colours and ornaments. According to Quintilian, "the name of trope (tropos) is applied to the transference of expressions from their natural and principal signification to another, with a view to the embellishment of style" (Institutiooratoria, 1 CE, 9.1., 4−5). Among the tropes are usually numbered such stylisticcategories as metaphor, catachrçsis, metonymy, synecdochç, hyperbolç, irony, allegory and periphrasis. The Frenchtheorist Petrus Ramus (1515−1572)subjected all the figures of speech to a consistent binary classification into tropes and figures (schemes), in his Arcadian Rhetorike (1588). Puttenham in Book 3 of Of Ornament (1589) differentiated figures of speech according to the appeal on ear, on conceit, or both on ear and conceit. A practical modern model has a bipartite structure with two basic components: rhetorical langue (Saussure) or competence (Chomsky) and rhetorical paroleor performance. Both schemes and tropes depend upon rhetorical licences or anomalies, ordeviations. Such rule-violating operations consist mainly of deviation and patterning. Quintilian proposed a "four-fold method" (quadripartita ratio) of adiectio, detractio, immutatio, and transmutation corresponding to additions, deletions, substitutions, and permutations of language units. On the linguistic levels, schemes and tropes are phonological, morphological, syntactical, and even work on the levels of semantics, graphemics, textuality, and intertextuality.Modern Linguistics and formal criticism regard Intonation as "the verbal factor of greatest sensitivity, elasticity, and freedom" (Voloshinov 1976: 104−5). 6.5.1 Schemes Derived from the Greek words representing "form" or" figure," schemes can be defined as any kind of figure or pattern of words or a "figure of arrangement of words in which the literal sense of the word is not affected by the arrangement" (Lanham 136). In classical rhetoric, the arrangement of a typical courtroom speech was described as a sequence of six parts: an introduction, statement of facts, partition, confirmation of the case, refutation of opponents, and conclusion. Rhetors were advised to order arguments according to their increasing or decreasing strength. Researchers in psychology and speech communication have attempted to find empirical bases for various strategies of arrange- ment. Modern mass media (print journalism, radio, TV, the Internet) also use a sequencing of information and arguments in order to appeal to an audience (Sloane 56).

NSOU ? PGEL-9A 88 Schemes, according to Geoffrey Leech, are "foregrounded repetitions of expression" (74). Schemes are those figures of speech which arrange words into schematised patterns of foregrounded irregularity of form on the phonological, morphological and syntactical levels. Schemes depend essentially on syntagmatic relationship. The schematized patterning of sounds, clusters, syllables and the rhythm based on accentual-syllabic scheme, what Jan Mukarovsky calls an aesthetically purposeful distortion of form. For Boris Tomashevsky too "Poetic speech is organised in terms of its sounds" (Leitch 1079). Schemes make the foregrounding effect through development of normal syntactic patterns by repetition and juxtaposition as well as through phonetic repetition. Common are those which depend upon parallelism and repetition. The following figures of speech fall under the category of schemes: (a) Figures based on repetition, such as tautology, epistrophe, anaphora, palilogia, apocope, syncope, etc. (b) Figures based on construction, such as interrogation, exclamation, chiasmus, hendiadys, zeugma, asyndeton, polysyndeton, hyperbaton. (c) Figures based on sound, such as assonance, consonance, alliteration, onomato- poeia, pun, euphony, cacophony, sibilance. 6.5.2 Tropes Whereas schemes basically involve patterning of form, the tropes make lexical and semantic deviations. During the classical period Quintilian made a division, according to Jennifer Richards: The term 'figure', he notes, often serves as a catch-all term for linguistic effects which involve either a substitution of one word for another which affects meaning ('trope'), or a change in syntactic structure for emphasis or ornament ('figure' or 'scheme'). Quintilian suggested that change in meaning occurs on a larger scale than in single words. The word is derived from Greek word tropoi meaning a turn and during the seventeenth century this term was used in rhetoric. In case of trope, according to Quintilian, through a change, the language is transferred from its natural and principal meaning to another for the sake of embellishment or ornamentation. Tropes include those figures of

NSOU ? PGEL-9A 89 speech that change the meaning of word or words. Geoffrey Leech describes tropes as "foregrounded irregularities of content" (74). According to Tzevan Todorov, tropes refer to figurative language based on an anomaly in meaning or content. H. P. Grice in Logic of Conversation used the phrase "maxim of quality" meaning a concern for truthfulness and says that this maxim of quality is sacrificed in case of tropes. While schemes depend on syntagmatic relationship, tropes depend essentially on paradigmatic relationship. Tropes are the result of unusual choices from the items which the grammar makes available in a given pattern. Several figures of speech fall under the category of tropes: (a) Figures based on similarity or resemblance, such as simile, metaphor, fable, parable. Allegory, hypo-catastasis. (b) Figures based on association, such as metonymy, synecdoche, hypallage or transferred epithet, allusion. (c) Figures based on contrast, such as anti-thesis, epigram, climax, anti-climax, oxymoron, paradox, condensed sentence. (d) Figures based on indirectness, such as innuendo, sarcasm, periphrasis, euphe- mism, meiosis, litotes. (e) Figures based on imagination, such as personification, personal metaphor, pathetic fallacy, apostrophe, invocation, hyperbole, vision or prosopopoeia. 6.6 Analysis of foregrounding in a Literary Text Tiger and the Deer - Sri Aurobindo Brilliant, crouching, slouching, what crept through the green heart of the forest, Gleaming eyes and mighty chest and soft soundless paws of grandeur and murder? The wind slipped through the leaves as if afraid lest its voice and the noise of its steps perturb the pitiless Splendour, Hardly daring to breathe. But the great beast crouched and crept, and crept and crouched a last time, noiseless, fatal, Till suddenly death leaped on the beautiful wild deer as it drank Unsuspecting from the great pool in the forest's coolness and shadow,

NSOU ? PGEL-9A 90 And it fell and, torn, died remembering its mate left sole in the deep woodland, - Destroyed, the mild harmless beauty by the strong cruel beauty in Nature. But a day may yet come when the tiger crouches and leaps no more in the dangerous heart of the forest, As the mammoth shakes no more the plains of Asia; Still then shall the beautiful wild deer drink from the coolness of great pools in the leaves' shadow. The mighty perish in their might; The slain survive the slayer. This poem by Sri Aurobindo, composed in 1930 and revised in 1942, describes wild animals in their simple, innocent and natural state. The natural world that is both docile and predatory has been presented with the help of effective foregrounding devices on the graphological, phonological, morphological, syntactical, and semantic levels. Through deviation and effective patterning of language certain linguistic items are given prominence against the background of ordinary language. Two most important aspects of Sri Aurobindo's poem are: first, thought structure; second, sound structure. Prose and Poem are structurally different. A Poem imposes line break. Sound in poetry is not merely decorative, it is also functional; whereas the thought content can be paraphrased and through this process poetry is lost. Sonic content of a poem cannot be transferred, translated or paraphrased. It is an entity that constitutes the poesis of the poem. The task of this analysis of stylistic devices is to see whether such foregrounding has been able to arrest the attention of the readers or not. 6.6.1 Graphological Foregrounding The graphic image of the poem casts an impression on the mind of the readers. Effective graphological foregrounding depends on the use of the printed visual image of the text. This poem uses the natural flow of descriptive prose language in the opening lines and gradually shapes the irregular line-length to foreground the natural wilderness of the forest and animals. The use of capitalization is regular and run-on lines add to the smooth flow of the verses.

6.6.2 Phonological Foregrounding Effective foregrounding on the phonological level is done on the level of phonemes, clusters, syllables, meter, rhyme, and rhythm. This poem works mainly on the phonologi- cal level to foreground images drawn from nature. The poet transports the readers into the realm of the wondrous, arousing a sense of bewilderment at the organic movement of the tiger through the thick impenetrable and inexplicable vegetation. The powerful, throbbing rhythm of the opening lines gives a sense of the tiger's robust energy and invincible strength. The "poetic effect" depends on "the magic of rhythm," according to Sri Aurobindo, and this make the phonological foregrounding more effective (Letters on Poetry, Literature and Art 168). The poetic effect of this poem depends on the slow but steady movement of the marauder and prowler. The kinesthetic image is thus orchestrated in the cadences of slow metrical momentum of the loaded polysyllables. The words appropriate the harsh consonance of palato alveolar affricate /tʃ/ and the nasal /K/ with the elongated diphthong /au/ in the words like "crouching" and "slouching" in the opening line. The dynamism of the image is carefully and rhythmically patterned and controlled by the sonic effect. Accent pattern has been effectively used to produce the desired rhythm. The consonance of hard voiceless plosives /k/ and /t/ in strongly accentuated syllables of words like "crouching," "crept," "heart" and "forest" is combined with tremulous vibration of /r/ (except in "heart").Through rhythmic parallelism, patterning of successive stressed and unstressed syllables, the poet produces an eerie sensation. The "gleaming eyes and mighty chest" and the "soft soundless paws of grandeur and murder" of the tiger in the second line containing eighteen syllables have a rhythmic harmony.The patterning of sibilants, the assonance of short vowels, and diphthongs, the alliteration of /s/, /m/ /g/, and the consonance of /s/, /t/, /l/, produce an auditory image of muted noiselessness. The rhyme scheme used by Sri Aurobindo in "The Tiger and the Deer" is an innovation on the poetic tradition:a b b c (quatrain)d e f b (quatrain)a b e a b (quintet). Rhyme, rhythm and intonation contribute immensely to the meaning of Sri Aurobindo's "The Tiger and the Deer."

6.6.3 Morphological Foregrounding Choice of words and their proper placement through patterning and deviation forms the basis of morphological foregrounding. In Sri Aurobindo's poetry the suprasegmental features of poetic discourse blend thought-substance and truth. This can be seen in his choice of words, the manner of unfolding, and the rhythm of the written poetic composition. While selecting the words, the poet has a menu of words of various structures, usage, properties. The poet has here made a combination of monomorphic and polymorphic words. In the first line this is seen: "Brilliant, crouching, slouching, what crept through the green heart of the forest." Registers, archaic words, poetic words, words belonging to grand, middle or plain style, word-shortening, formation and arrangement of words, lexical deviations, etc. – these are other features of morphological foregrounding in this poem.The predatory life of the tiger is wholly contained in its claws, its prey, and its senses, in the wind, the rustling leaves, the silent fatal steps, and the deathly dive. There is the antithetical image of the deer in the tall grass amid the serenity of the wild forest, the cool shadow of trees, reflected on the crystal-clear mirror of the pool, created through patterning of words.The poem captures the scene of the death of the deer through a sequence of words like "fell," "torn," and "died." However, to add pathos to the situation Sri Aurobindo romanticises the deer at the moment of death: the deer dies "remembering its mate left sole in the deep woodland." 6.6.4 Syntactical Foregrounding The poet deviates from the norms of ordinary language by employing unusual syntax to bring about the effect of foregrounding. While nouns and verbs dominate, the use of adjective and adverbs make the language descriptive. Brilliant evocative description of the tiger with the help of figurative interrogation draws the attention of the readers to physical prowess, magnificence, bright eyes, and the predatory movement. Schematized patterning of the language through figures based on contrast and construction make the syntactical foregrounding effective. Deviations from normal word order, use of syntactical ambiguity, combination of different kinds of sentences, voices, and narration, make the content visible to the readers. In Sri Aurobindo's poem similarity is super-induced upon contiguity: words are not just strung together for the sake of the thoughts they convey, as in ordinary speech,

but with an eye to the patterns of similarity, opposition, parallelism and so on created by their sound, meaning, rhythm and connotations. 6.6.5 Semantic Foregrounding Semantic foregrounding mainly depends on the use of tropes. Figures of speech based on comparison and association. Imagination and indirectness abound in this poem and serve the purpose of effective foregrounding. The personification of wind and the muffled silence enforced on its sneaky movement glorify the tiger's ravishing strides towards the deer. The violence of the predatory step and the fear lurking at the heart of the forest create an enigmatic and fearful atmosphere. Sri Aurobindo endeavours to make the world visible through words. He succeeds in the most enigmatic and climactic moments of the poem. The rhetorical language assumes a poetic nature. After the fatal leap of the tiger Sri Aurobindo allows the visual image of the tiger to be kept in suspended animation. This visual slide is immediately replaced by the image of the beautiful deer drinking in oblivion from the great pool in the cool and shadowy forest. The tranquility of the serene placid pool and the image of an innocent deer are both threatened by the impending disaster already pronounced by the poet. In this poem it is the nature of the signifier, the patterns of sound and rhythm, which determines what is signified. This poetic text is "semantically saturated," condensing more "information" than any other discourse. The poem concludes with a critique of imperialism. The gargantuan British Empire is the predatory beast pouncing on the mild harmless beauty "on the plains of Asia." Kantian master-slave dialectic is worked out to propose a possible utopian synthesis. In Sri Aurobindo's "The Tiger and the Deer" form and content cannot be separated. For the poet poetic art is a form of connective tissue. 6.7 Summary The central notion of Stylistics called foregrounding has been discussed in details. Foregrounding allows some linguistic item to gain more prominence over others on different levels like graphological, phonological, morphological, syntactical and semantic. Foregrounding works on the axes of patterning and deviation to arrest the attention of the readers. The use of schemes and tropes for effective foregrounding has also been discussed

in this unit. Sample questions are provided herein below along with a list of recommended books. 6.8 Review Questions Review Questions for thought, understanding and self-assessment: (Answer in not more than 500 words) 1. Define stylistics and the concept of foregrounding. 2. What do you understand by axes of deviation and patterning? Discuss with reference to Stylistics. 3. What do you understand by Rhetorical Stylistics? 4. Write a note on different levels of foregrounding. 5. How has Sri Aurobindo's poem Tiger and the Deer been analysed from the syntactical and semantic levels of stylistic concept? 6. Is Phonological Foregrounding important? Why? 7. How would Stylistics facilitate learner autonomy in learning? 8. What does Roman Jacobson mean by 'Poetic Function'? 9. Discuss literariness with examples from texts of your choice. 10. Write short notes on the following: (in not more than 150 words) a) Scheme b) Trope c) Lexical deviation d) Phonological patterning e) Graphological foregrounding Task for you Select any poem of your choice and work on Analysis of foregrounding as shown in Tiger and the Deer by Sri Aurobindo in this Unit. Look for information for answers to the above questions in the units below: Q1. Unit 6.3

Q2. Unit6.4 Q3. Unit 6.5 Q4. Units 6.6.1—6.6.5 Q5. Unit 6.6, 6.6.4, 6.6.5 Q6. Unit 6.6.2 Q7. All Units Q8. Unit 6.4 Q9. All Units Q10. Units 6.5.1,6.5.2, 6.4, 6.6.1, 6.6.2 6.9 References and Recommended Books Aristotle. On Rhetoric, translated by George Kennedy. New York: Oxford University Press, 1991. Print Booth, Wayne. The Rhetoric of Fiction, 2nd edition. Chicago: University of ChicagoPress, 1983. Print. Bradford, Richard. Stylistics. London: 1997. Print. Culler, Jonathan. Structuralist Poetics. London: Routledge. 1975. Print. Lanham, Richard A. A Handlist of Rhetorical Terms: a guide for students of English Literature. California: University of California Press, 1991.Print. Leech, Geoffrey N. A Linguistic Guide to English Poetry.1969. 15 th Impression.London: Longman, 1991. Print. Leitch, Vincent B. et al. Eds. The Norton Anthology of Theory and Criticism. New York: W. W. Norton & Company, 2001. Print. Richards, Jennifer. Rhetoric. New Critical Idiom. London: Routledge, 2008. Print. Simpson, Paul. Stylistics: a resource book for students. London: Routledge, 2004. Print. Sloane, Thomas. O. Ed. Encyclopedia of Rhetoric. London: Oxford University Press, 2006. Print. NSOU ? PGEL-9A 96

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NSOU ? PGEL-9A 97 Unit 7 ? Connotations and Denotations Structure 7.1 Objectives 7.2 Introduction 7.3 Denotation 7.4 Connotation 7.5 Referent 7.6 Tenor 7.7 Vehicle 7.8 Analysis of Denotations and Connotations in a Literary Text 7.9 Summary 7.10 Review Questions 7.11 References and Recommended Books 7.1 Objectives • To familiarise the students of Linguistics and English Language Teaching with concepts and words like Connotation and Denotation that are widely used in Stylistics, • To familiarise them with other related terms important in Stylistics. 7.2 Introduction This module is prepared to familiarise the students of Linguistics and English Language Teaching with concepts and words like connotation and denotation that are widely used in Stylistics. The Structuralist preoccupation with words like sign, signifier, signified and signification, finds application in linguistics through these words, connotation and denota- tion. These words are related to the literal and the metaphorical meanings, respectively. In any text, some linguistic items are given special significance and more prominence over others through such metaphorical use. Metaphors have two parts, a tenor and a vehicle.

NSOU ? PGEL-9A 98 An example from a poem has also been given. Sample questions are provided along with a list of books cited and recommended. 7.3 Denotation In order to understand language, we need a proper meaning of the words used in any particular language. For cognition of meaning, we primarily depend on the relations between a word and things it names or denotes. These things are referred to as extension or denotation. The literal meaning of words, once fixed, is retained by any dictionary. The word is assigned its proper grammatical function as well. A strict denotation is applied to the word that is usually universally accepted by the users of that linguistic community, or even by the user of the language that borrows and assimilates that word in its vocabulary. The structure of any word, however, involves a structure of meanings, evaluations and interpretations. In a scientific way, one can see denotation as an objective meaning attributed to a word that does not undergo any change under the pressure of its context. The denotation of the word is not extended to imply new meanings. Pure denotations are therefore prescribed and fixed. Rationally considered, denotation forms the core of ideal language by making the relation between term and meaning constant. The language is thus not dislocated from its literal meaning. Denotation is an act or process of denoting meaning. A direct and specific meaning is attributed to a word. It is a process of naming and attributing a proper meaning and grammatical function to a word. Denotation is a verbal sign that is fixed irrespective of the implied sense, feeling, tone or intention of the user using that word. In logic, it refers to the totality of things to which a term is applicable. According to J. A. Cuddon, denotation refers to "[t]he most literal and limited meaning of a word, regardless of what one may feel about it or the suggestions and ideas it connotes" (215). 7.4 Connotation While the tendency of rationality and science is to fix the objective meaning of the verbal sign and to stabilise the meaning as constant denotation, in several other fields of language there is an extension of the meaning through connotation. For example, the tendency of the poet is to disrupt this stability of denotation by continually modifying the

NSOU ? PGEL-9A 99 meaning through a verbal play in the context of its use. This violation of the dictionary or literal meaning into a modified literary meaning is called connotation in poetry. Even when the structure of meanings, evaluations and interpretations is primarily guided by the denotation, through connotations new meanings evolve. For the understanding of the meaning of any word we also depend on the relations between a word and certain characteristics. These characteristic intentions that the word conveys are called connota- tions. For example, the word "rose" as a noun, by whatever name one may call denotes a particular type of flower, but the same word as a noun has been variously attributed to love, religion, friendship, etc. Thus, connotation refers to something implicitly suggested by a word or thing. It is a form of suggesting of a meaning by a word that transcends the literal meaning of the thing it explicitly names or describes. Connotation is the additional significance or meaning of some word that crosses the limitation of its straightforward dictionary meaning. If denotation is the primary, connotation is the secondary meaning/s. Usually, the connotation of any word is formulated as a series of qualities, contexts, and emotional responses commonly associated with its referent, i.e., to which the word refers to. The meaning of the word depends on the context in which it is used. The meaning also depends on how the reader or listener interprets it. Tropes depend on the association of two sets of denotation and the implied and overlapping connotations. The connotative meaning depends on what the word connotes. Apart from the contextual meaning of the word, connotation also depends on the textual realisation of the word along with the rhetorical and inter-textual meanings. The signifier, or the word, is a combination of the sound and spelling of the word. The signifier (word) is disconnected from the signified (concept) and the referent (thing). Prescribed rule-governed creativity allows any speaker to use language and express thought. When the meaning is fixed, it is called denotation, but when the meaning is open-ended and transcends the denotation to connote something more, the meaning is called connotation. Additional meanings are added into language by figures of speech, especially tropes such as metaphor, metonymy, personification, etc. Such rhetoricity adds layers of connotations through substitution and supplement. Inter-textuality further adds new meanings through a dependence on poetical or rhetorical use of the word in other texts. Concepts, connota- tions, codes, conventions, allusions, etc., add to the multiplicity of meaning.

NSOU ? PGEL-9A 100 7.5 Referent Every meaningful word denotes something, i.e., every word has a meaning. A referent may be defined as the person or thing or idea to which any linguistic expression or symbol refers. The word is derived from the Latin word referentem, present participle of the verb referre, meaning "carry back." This means something, some process, or state of affairs, that exists in the world outside language. What is referred to is the thing that the word as a sign stands for. In Saussure's theory, the "sign," however, regards external reality as an unnecessary complication, preferring to replace the notion of the referent with the purely conceptual notion of the "signified."For example, if someone says, "She is a student of NSOU," the referent of the word "She" is a particular person, while the referent of NSOU is the particular institution. There can also be co-referential words, as in the following: "Smith had his job with him" in which both "Smith" and "him" are co-referential, since they both refer to the same person. In fields like semiotics and semantics, a distinction is drawn between a referent and a reference: a referent is the thing it signifies; reference is a relationship in which a sign or symbol signifies something. C. K. Odgen and I.A. Richards, in The Meaning of Meaning, write about a distinction between "things and thoughts". A difference has also been made between the referential language of factual information and the 'emotive' language of poetry. 7.6 Tenor Tenor is the subject to which a metaphorical expression is applied. According to I.A. Richards's The Philosophy of Rhetoric, any metaphorical expression has two parts: tenor and vehicle (96).The tenor refers to the subject to which the attributes are ascribed while the vehicle refers to the subject from which the attributes are derived. I.A. Richards argues that the total meaning of metaphor is the product of a complex interaction between the tenor and the vehicle. In a metaphor like "variety is the spice of life," the word "variety" is the tenor, while the metaphorical word "spice" is the vehicle. Geoffrey Leech explains the difference: With the aid of the metaphoric rule we actually understand 'Life is a walking shadow' as 'Life is like a walking shadow', or 'Life is, as it were, a walking shadow'. In notional terms, 'life' is the TENOR of the metaphor – that which is

NSOU ? PGEL-9A 101 actually under discussion – and the purported definition 'a walking shadow' is its VEHICLE – that is, the image or analogue in terms of which the tenor is represented. (151) In figures of speech based on comparison, association, contrast, indirectness and imagination, the identification of tenor and vehicle is important for stylistics. 7.7 Vehicle Vehicle is the object whose attributes are borrowed. For example, in the metaphoric line, "The camel is the ship of desert," the camel has been compared to a ship, describing the camel with attributes of ship. The "camel" is the tenor, and the "ship" is the vehicle. This distinction can be compared to the difference between "ground" and "figure." As our understanding of the metaphoric word is related to the word with which it has been compared with, both tenor and vehicle provide the basis and the figurative meaning, respectively. With the help of a metaphor, the attention of the reader is drawn towards the figurative meaning. Through our perception and understanding we create new objects. The camel is transformed into a ship, but this ship also sails in the desert instead of walking in the sand. The desert is therefore like the sea and sailing is like walking. Desert and the act of sailing are the tenors and the vehicles are sea and the act of walking, respectively. Task 1: Show the relationship between Tenor and Vehicle citing examples from any literary piece of your choice with at least 5 sentences. (Prose or Poetry or both). Your answer:

7.8 Analysis of Denotations and Connotations in a Literary Text In the present text, in the context of the emotive, powerful, 'poetic' lines, we see the use of connotation and denotation. The Sick Rose O Rose thou art sick. The invisible worm, That flies in the night In the howling storm: Has found out thy bed Of crimson joy: And his dark secret love Does thy life destroy. This poem by William Blake describes a rose. Choice of words and their proper placement, through patterning and deviation, form the basis of denotation and connotation. While selecting the words, the poet has a menu of words with fixed denotative meaning. The use of these words in the context, the rhetoricity and inter-textuality add more meanings to these words. For example, in the phrase "bed / Of crimson joy" the phrase "crimson joy" is the tenor and the "bed" is the vehicle. The word "bed" denotes the material while the same word connotes the metaphorical meaning of the "bed" of "crimson joy." Semantic foregrounding mainly depends on the use of tropes and allusions. Figures of speech based on comparison and imagination abound in this poem and serve the purpose of effective foregrounding. Task 2: Analyze Denotation and Connotation with any poem of your choice, as shown in Blake's poem The Sick Rose. Your answer:

7.9 Summary Through this module the students are familiarised with key words like connotation, denotation, referent, tenor and vehicle that are widely used in Stylistics. The words, denotation and connotation are related to the literal and the metaphorical meanings, respectively. A distinction has been drawn between a referent and a reference: while a referent is the thing signified, reference is a relationship in which a sign or symbol signifies something. Tenor and vehicle are identified as two parts of a metaphor. 7.10 Review Questions Review Questions for thought, understanding and self-assessment (answer in not more than 500 words) 1. What is denotation? Explain with suitable examples. 2. What do you understand by connotation? Discuss with illustrative references. 3. Write a note on the relationship between tenor and vehicle. 4. Write a note on the term 'referent' in stylistics. 5. Identify what the italicised word denotes and connotes: a) The calm lake was a mirror. b) The stormy ocean was a raging wolf. c) The moon is a white balloon. d) Laughter is the music of the soul. 6. Write a note on the hidden or underlying significance of a literary text citing examples . 7. Elaborate on the difference between a literary text and a text containing a report. 8. Is an advertisement a piece of literature? Justify your answer. 9. How does a knowledge of Stylistics help a reader to self-interpret any piece of literature? 10. Write short notes on the following: (in not more than 150 words) a. Pure denotation b. Inter-textuality c. Parts of metaphor

Look for information for answers to the above questions in the Units below: Q1 Unit 7.3 Q2 Unit 7.4 Q3 Units 7.6 and Unit 7.7 Q4 Unit 7.5 Q5 Units 7.3 and 7.4 Q6 A study of all units Q7 A study of all units. Q8 A study of all units Q9 A study of all units. Q10 Units 7.3, 7.4, 7.6 and 7.7 7.11 References and Recommended Books Aristotle. On Rhetoric, translated by George Kennedy. New York: Oxford University Press, 1991. Print Bradford, Richard. Stylistics. London: 1997. Print. Lanham, Richard A. A Hand list of Rhetorical Terms: a guide for students of English Literature. California: University of California Press, 1991. Print. Leech, Geoffrey N. A Linguistic Guide to English Poetry.1969. 15 th Impression. London: Longman, 1991. Print. Leitch, Vincent B. et al. Eds. The Norton Anthology of Theory and Criticism. New York: W. W. Norton & Company, 2001. Print. Odgen, C. K., and I. A. Richards. The Meaning of Meaning. A Study of the Influence of Language upon Thought and of the Science of Symbolism. 1923. Orlando: Harcourt B.J. Publishers. 1989. Print. Richards, I. A. The Philosophy of Rhetoric. New York: Oxford University Press, 1936. Print. Simpson, Paul. Stylistics: a resource book for students. London: Routledge, 2004. Print.

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Unit 8 ? Metre and Rhythm Structure 8.1 Objectives 8.2 Introduction 8.3 Stylistics and Poetic Form 8.4 Metre 8.5 Classification of Metre 8.6 Scansion 8.7 Rhythm 8.8 Summary 8.9 Review Questions 8.10 References and Recommended Books 8.1 Objectives To raise learner-awareness • of Poetic Form, • of Poetic Metre and Rhythm, • of the technique of Scansion. 8.2 Introduction This module is prepared to familiarise the students of Linguistics and English Language Teaching with the formal elements of poetry such as metre and rhythm. In any poetic text there is the use of metrical and rhythmic structure. Through a careful patterning of phonological structure, through arrangement of sounds and syllables, metrical pattern and rhythm are added to verse composition. Different types of metre and rhythmic structure have been discussed in this unit.

NSOU ? PGEL-9A 107 8.3 Stylistics and Poetic Form A poem is a composition meant for performance by human voice. The printed matter is the verbal score made by the poet-composer. A poem therefore stimulates and engages both eyes and ears. In order to appreciate the musical score, the terms metre and rhythm are analysed in prosody and stylistics. According to Boris Tomashevsky, "Poetic speech is organised in terms of its sounds" (Leitch 1079). Repetition and juxtaposition of sound and syllabic pattern can be found in poetry. Versification refers to the principles and practice of writing verse. According to Geoffrey Leech, "versification is a question of the interplay between two planes of structure: the ideally regular, quasi mathematical pattern called METRE, and the actual rhythm the language insists on, sometimes called the 'PROSE RHYTHM'" (103). Performance of poetry refers to "the potentiality of perfor- mance according to the rules of English rhythm," according to Leech (104). S.T. Coleridge insisted

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that there is an essential difference between the language of prose and the language of

poetry because along with rhythm, poetry is also metrically composed. In order to understand the patterns of English verse, in stylistics an analysis of the rhythm of English speech and the metrics of English verse tradition is done. A relation between verse form and other aspects of linguistic structure is drawn along with a relation between rhythm and metre. Poetry involves a careful patterning of sound that draws us closer to the core features of versification, i.e., rhythm and metre. When we hear someone reading aloud a prose piece or a piece of poetry, we can easily identify the difference based on the patterning of sound. This difference in case of poetry is due to the rhythmic structure and the metrical composition. While metre refers to the organised pattern of weak and strong syllables, foot division and length of the verse line, rhythm is related to the notion of period beat in the oral performance of the poem. Both are inter-related and constitute the verse- structure. 8.4 Metre Metre has been regarded as an essential part of poetry. Metre refers to the organisation of strong and weak syllables in a line. The alternation between accentuated syllables and weak syllables constitutes the metrical composition. In most of the poems, the metrical pattern is an organised one. If a poem's rhythm, or the patterning of the accented
NSOU ? PGEL-9A 108 and weak syllables, is structured into a recurrence of regular units, it is called metre. There are four metrical systems in English poetry: a) Accentual: the metre is based only on accent pattern b) Accentual-syllabic: the metre is based on the syllable and accent pattern c) Syllabic: metre is entirely based on the syllables d) Quantitative: the rhythm depends on the length of the syllable and the time it takes to utter a line rather than the number of accented syllables. In case of English poetry, most of the compositions use the accentual-syllabic metrical system. In accentual-syllabic verse the metre is determined by the number and alternations of the accented and unaccented syllables, organised into feet. Although the number of accented syllables may vary, the total number of syllables may vary, in each line there is a patterning and internal structure of syllables and accents. In metrics the syllables are the basic indivisible units. Each syllable has an accentual pattern, either strong or weak. These syllables are set in a rhythmical pattern. Syllable may be defined as the basic unit of pronunciation having just one vowel sound, with or without surrounding consonants, forming the whole or a part of a word. For example, there are two syllables in the word "water" and three in "watering." The words can be mono-syllabic or multi-syllabic like di-syllabic, tri-syllabic, tetra-syllabic, etc. All these syllables do not require the same emphasis, pitch, loudness or the same duration for articulation. All the syllables of a word or words in a line are not equally emphasised or accented. The accented syllables require more time for articulation while the weaker syllables require relatively lesser time. The syllables that receive accent are called stressed syllables and those weaker syllables that do not receive accent are called unstressed syllables: a) Accented or stressed syllables are represented by stress sign [´] on the top of the vowel sound. b) Unaccented or weak syllables are represented by this sign on the top of the vowel sound. Accent in phonetics and stylistics refers to that property of a syllable which makes it stand out in an utterance in relation to the neighbouring syllables. The emphasis falls on the accented syllable while the unaccented syllable requires a relatively lower pitch, loudness and time for articulation. Accent works on three domains contribute to the rhythm and metrical pattern:

a) word b) phrase c) sentence Lexical stress or word stress is a part of the characteristic way any language is pronounced. The word accent may be fixed, as in French, or it may be movable, as in English language. Word accent of the root-words in English are fixed but through addition of suffixes or compounding of words, the stress can shift or move from one syllable to another in English language. In connected speech, the accent pattern is also modified by the tone groups and intonation. 8.5 Classification of Metre In metrics the foot has been considered another basic unit of analysis. Foot refers to the time span of stressed and unstressed syllables that forms a rhythmic pattern with periodic beats. Different types of metrical feet can be determined according to the number of the stressed and unstressed syllable and how the syllables have been ordered. In English prosody there are three types of foot according to the number of syllables in a foot division: a) monosyllabic b) di-syllabic c) tri-syllabic These types of syllabic-foot are further classified according to the arrangement of the stressed and unstressed syllables.: Monosyllabic a) Acephalous: a monosyllabic foot at the beginning of a line [´] b) Catalectic: a monosyllabic foot at the end of a line [´] c) Hypermetrical: an unaccented syllable left alone at the end or beginning of a line, and is not counted as a foot Di-syllabic d) Iambus: a pair of syllables forming a foot in which the first syllable is unaccented and the second syllable is accented [´]

e) Trochee: a pair of syllables forming a foot in which the first syllable is accented and the second syllable is unaccented [´] f) Spondee: a pair of syllables forming a foot in which both the first syllable and the second syllable are accented [´ ´] g) Pyrrhic: a pair of syllables forming a foot in which both the first syllable and the second syllable are unaccented [ ] Tri-syllabic h) Anapaestic: a trisyllabic foot in which first two syllables are unaccented and the third syllable is stressed [´] i) Dactyl: a trisyllabic foot in which first syllable is accented and the second and third syllables are unaccented [´] j) Amphibrachic: a trisyllabic foot in which first syllables is unaccented, the second syllable is accented and the third syllable is unaccented [´] Task 1: Give examples of Mono, Di and Trisyllabic words with Stress marks on the specific syllables. You can choose from prose or poetry. Your answer: 8.6 Scansion Scansion in English prosody employs a system of symbols to reveal the mechanism of a poem, i.e., its metrical pattern, foot-division, and length. The main purpose of scansion is to enhance the reader's sensitivity to the ways in which rhythmic elements convey meaning in a poem. Metrical patterning and deviations in the pattern are often relevant to the meaning of the poem. In the graphic scansion the following primary symbols are used:

(— or ´) to represent a syllable that is stressed in context ( ) to represent a syllable that is unstressed in context (|) a vertical line to indicate a division between feet ( ) a double vertical line to show a caesura, a pause within a line of verse We can use these symbols for graphic scansion. First, the accented syllables are marked, then the unaccented syllables according to the natural rhythm of speech. The stressed and unstressed syllables are then divided in foot according to the metrical pattern. The feet are then counted to determine the length of the metrical pattern in the line. Only a few poems are absolutely regular and properly composed in a particular metre. Therefore, metre is usually determined by the type of foot that appears most frequently in a particular line, such as iambic or trochaic. Let us attempt a graphic scansion of the opening line of Thomas Gray's "Elegy Written in a Country Churchyard": DE DUM DE DUM DE DUM DE DUM DE DUM ´ ´ ´ ´ ´ The plough | man home | ward plods | His wea | ry way As there are five iambic feet in this line, this metrical scheme is iambic pentameter. In case there are six feet, the line would be called iambic hexameter; similarly for four feet, iambic tetrameter; for three feet, iambic trimeter; two feet, iambic dimeter; and for one foot, iambic monometer. Another example of graphic scansion is given below: DE DUM DE DUM DE DUM DE DUM DE DUM ´ ´ ´ ´ ´ Shall I | com pare | thee to | a sum | mer's day There arefive metrical feet in this line and the stress falls on the second syllable of each foot. Clearly this line too is composed in iambic pentameter. Task 2: Attempt a graphic scan of the following lines and identify the metrical pattern: A: a)

b) A crowd flowed over Howrah bridge... c) London bridge is falling down.

d) What can ail thee knight-at-arms? e) We hold these truths to be self-evident. Your answer: B: Cannon to the right of them, Cannon to the left of them, Cannon in front of them Volleyed and thundered; Stormed at with shot and shell, Boldly they rode and well, Into the jaws of death, Into the mouth of hell Rode the six hundred Your answer: 8.7 Rhythm Rhythm is an essential component of poetic language. In the articulated form the lines of poetry can be heard as a sequence of syllables in words of two or more syllables, one syllable is almost always given more emphasis than the other. When the metrical pattern is

organised properly there is some alternation between accentuated syllables and weak syllables. Rhythm is that repetition into a regular phrasing across a line of verse.

as it occurs at regular time intervals and repetition as the same pulses occur again and again. The "poetic effect" depends on "the magic of rhythm," according to Sri Aurobindo, and this makes the phonological foregrounding more effective (Letters on Poetry, Literature and Art 168). Accent pattern can be effectively used to produce the desired rhythm. Through rhythmic parallelism, patterning of successive stressed and unstressed syl- lables, the poet produces a desired rhythm. English is a stress-timed language and there is almost an equal time-gap (isochronous) between two accented syllables in English language. A line in poetic "language can be split into segments which are in some sense of equal duration.... although the rhythm of language is not isochronic in terms of crude physical measurement." according to Geffrey Leech (105). There is almost an equal time lapse between one stressed syllable and another. If we compare poetic composition to a musical composition, we can say that the utterances are divided into 'bars' or 'measures. According to Geoffrey Leech: Stripped of all subtleties,

These patterns of rhythm achieved through rhythmic parallelism organize themselves into verse lines. 8.8 Summary The language of poetry differs from the language of prose because of metre and rhythm. The syllables are either accented or unaccented and these are patterned in a metrical scheme and through the rhythmic parallelism and patterning of stressed and unstressed syllables, the rhythm is achieved. There are various forms of metres in English prosody. The metical structure of any poetic line can be done with the help of graphic scansion.

NSOU ? PGEL-9A 114 8.9 Review Questions Review Questions for thought, understanding and self-assessment (answer in not more than 500 words): 1. Discuss the importance of Poetic Form in Stylistics. 2. Define and explain Metre in English prosody. 3. What do you understand by Rhythm in Stylistics? Does Rhythm depend on the metrical pattern? Explain in your own words. 4. Write a note on the different types of Metre. 5. What is the importance of Scansion in poetry. 6. Write about the importance of Rhythm in the articulation of a poem, citing an example. 7. Discuss the difference between the language of prose and that of poetry. 8. What is syllable? How is it important in metre formation? 9. Discuss the importance of accented syllables. 10. Write short notes on the following: (in not more than 150 words) Prose Rhythm Foot in metre Rhythmic parallelism Look for information to answer the above questions in the Units below: Q1. Unit 8.3 Q2. Unit 8.3-8.5 Q3. Units 8.3, 8.7 Q4. Units 8.4 and 8.5 Q5. Unit 8.6 Q6. Units 8.3 and 8.7 Q7. Review of all previous Units Q8. Units 8.4, 8.5, 8.6 and 8.7 Q9. Units 8.4-8.7 Q10. Units 8.3, 8.5 and 8.6, 8.7

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NSOU ? PGEL-9A 116 Unit 9 ?Sound Patterning—Alliteration and Assonance affecting meaning Structure 9.1 Objectives 9.2 Introduction 9.3 Linguistic Styles in Literature 9.4 Interpretation of Sound Patterns 9.5 Alliteration 9.5.1 History of Alliteration 9.5.2 Examples of Alliteration In Everyday Speech 9.6 Assonance 9.6.1 Purpose, Significance, and Importance 9.6.2 Examples of Assonance 9.6.3 Writing Assonance 9.6.4 How Does Assonance Help You Analyze Literature? 9.6.5 How to Analyze Assonance 9.7 Consonance 9.7.1 Examples of Consonance 9.7.2 Purpose of Consonance 9.8 Difference between Assonance, Consonance, And Alliteration, And Slant Rhyme 9.9 Summing Up 9.10 Review Questions 9.11 Glossary of Terms 9.12 Books Recommended

9.1 Objectives After going through the unit you will be able to: • Gain a knowledge of the sound patterns of English Language, • Gain a knowledge of different Literary devices in sound patterns, • Raise awareness of style in Literature. 9.2 Introduction Language isusually studied atdifferent levels, viz:phonology(sound system), morphology (internal structureofwords),lexis(words), syntax (sentence structure), semantics(meaning), and discourse (contextual use of language). It is a semiotic system in the sense that itoperates on conventional symbols and sounds that help inhabitantsofaparticularspeech community tocommunicate.Communication itself takesplace because these symbols and signs are meaningful (i.e., messagesareassociated with orattached to them).Inliterary production,writersexploitor manipulate theresources of languageto encode meaning,transmit messagesand achieveaesthetic effects ingiventextualsituations. The peculiar way a writer goes aboutthis enterprise constitutes his style.HenceHalliday (1978) contends that style islanguage in use in relation to thevarious levels ofmeaningcontained in a workof literary text. Essentiallysound is one of the linguisticelements that are exploitedby writers to encode meaning. The two forms of human communication are capable of producing meaning, viz., Speech (Spoken) and writing (Written).The written for muses graphic symbols while the spoken form uses speech sounds.The air stream from the lungs provides the energy used in the production of human speech sounds which are vowels and consonants. The human vocalorgansaremade tobe able to produce anenormousnumberof these sounds,buteach languageselects only a few,which itthen putstogether,notin anarbitrary manner,but alsoaccording to many specific rules. In the English language, in Received Pronunciation (RP),there are twenty (20) vowel sounds and twenty-four (24) consonants,resulting in forty-four (44)phonemes. The vowel sounds are further broken down into monophthongs (12) and diphthongs (8).The critical point is that sound devices such as alliteration, assonance, onomatopoeia, syllablestructure, parallelism, repetition, etc. are usually deployed by writers for various creative works. Everyword in a languagehas its phonetic substance, vibration, and quality. Each sound behaves inacertainway; some jar

theear; others soothe.The creative language user exploits the inherent qualitiesin speech sounds in his word choices to produce a special effect. On the otherhand, we know that meaning is atthe centre of language use. Every linguisticexerciseaims to impart meaning or some kind or other.Thus various theories and approaches have been propounded by language scholarsto explicate the concept, viz., referential, imagistic, ideational, behavioural, and contextual theories of meaning. Stylistic meaning is one of the seventypesofmeaning identified by scholars,others being conceptual or denotative, connotative, collocative, reflected, affective, and thematic meaning (Leech 1974). It is observed that stylistic meanings are consideredinrelation to the situation in which an utteranceis made. That meansstylistic meaningrefers to meanings thatare shaped or conditioned bycontextualvariables or the environment ofuse. These factors (or variables) include geographical location,subject matter, medium (spoken orwritten), sex, age, role relationships, etc. Therefore, modern studies in stylistics seekto bring outthecombination of sounds that produces distinctive meaningsand aestheticeffectsin texts by applyingthe principles ofgeneral linguistics and stylistics. 9.3 Linguistic Styles in Literature The concept of 'linguistic style' in literature has been a subject of intense interest by language scholars through the ages. This has resulted in multifarious definitions and theories for its critical exploration. The Russian formalists and the Prague school of the 1920s, the structuralists of the 1960s, and the supporters of generative grammar, for instance, have all explained and approached the concept from their distinct perspectives. However, since this study focuses on the functional use of language, we may adopt M.A.K.Halliday's model of 'Systemic Functional Grammar' is the theoretical model for the analysis. The interest of this grammar is not only in describing the structure of language but also in explaining the properties of discourse and its functions in texts. In Hallidayan perception, a formal feature of a text is stylistic in the sense if it has a particular meaning, effect or value. This notion emphasizes how language functions in texts and the nexus between language and what it is used for or to achieve. The critical point here is that, whatever linguistic resource that is worth describing mustbe put to use, in the sense that the description and interpretation are necessarily based on the situational variables that prompted its use. Hence scholars argue that this approach recognizes the interdependency of style, meaning,

and context of the situation and thatthe latter should notbe subjected to second fiddle position origin or ending the analysis of style. In Systemic Functional Grammar, language structure is analyzed along the lines of semantics, phonology, lexicon, and grammar. Language function, on the other hand, is examined from three angles, viz. (a) ideational, (b) interpersonal, and (c) textual. These are referred to as the 'metafunctions of language'. (1) The ideational metafunction of language is synonymous with the 'field of discourse' (i.e., the subject matter or propositional content of a text and the context of language use, e.g., is it a religious or socio-political subject?). According to scholars, it implies that language serves as an instrument for the encoders (i.e., speakers and writers) to express and articulate their ideas and experiences internally. (2) The interpersonal or interactional metafunction, at another level, refers to the 'tenor of discourse (i.e., the social relationship that exists among the participants in aspecific discourse situation, which can influence or shape language use. According to scholars, it helpsto establish and sustain social relations. (3) The textual metafunction is particularly concerned with the 'mode of text representation' (i.e., spoken and written), the internal organization, and the communicative nature of a text. Scholars see Halliday's textual metafunction of language as an operational way of using language to organize, understand and express information for effective communication. It suggests the availability of an internal structure that makes it possible for the writer or speaker to construct texts that are not only coherent but also situationally appropriate. The main point is that the textual metafunction relates what is said in a text to ideas outside the discourse. 9.4 Interpretation of Sound Patterns

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The question of what and how a sound pattern communicates is one of the most unique aspects of literary appreciation.

First, let us accept that to a great extent, the 'music'of phonological schemes, however difficult that quality may be to analyze, is its own justification. One does not feel cheated because the alliterations of'measureless to man',
'sunless sea', etc. do not seem to have any external significance, for example, any imitative effect. On the other hand, there are ways in which external considerations may add a point to the patterning of sound, and two of them are now to be considered: 'chiming' and onomatopoeia. The alliteration of 'mice and men' is an example of 'chiming', the device of connecting 'two words by the similarity of sound so that we are made to think of their possible connections'.

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Here are three Shakespearean examples of such a phonetic bond between words: an alliterative bond in the

first case, and one of'pararhyme' in the second and third: • So foul and fair a day I have not seen [Macbeth, I.iii] (Macbeth's first words in the play, echoing the portentous 'Fair is foul and foul is fair' of the three witches.) • Big Mars seems bankrupt in their beggar'd host [Henry V, IV.ii] (A French Lord's contemptuous description of the English army on the morning of Agincourt.) • What thou wouldst highly, That wouldst thou holily [Macbeth, I.v] (Lady Macbeth on her husband.) We leave it to the reader to consider the implications of these connections. It is worthwhile pointing out, however, that the phonological bond is most striking when, as in these cases, it is between words that are grammatically paired but which contrast in reference and associations. Every individual has his peculiar ways(s) of doing things. Style is the term

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used to capture this inherent human phenomenon, which is also applicable to one's distinctive mode of expression, both orally and

in writing. The style of a writer (also known as 'idiolect') is, thus, his unique way or pattern of communicating his views, feelings, or messages. It is observed

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that a person's style is informed and shaped by the aggregate of his social and political background, religious inclination, cultural values, experience, educational attain- ment, geographical location, and

exposure. From the foregoing, it is clear

that language is not only a means of communication; it is also critical for literary creativity and production. This view is corroborated by Yule(1996)

who argues that

language can be used to bring into existence, by applying the imagination in some artistic technique.

Todorov(1977) echoes the same idea when he posited that literature has language as both its point
NSOU ? PGEL-9A 121 ofdeparture and its destination; language furnishes literature its abstract configuration. Literature is written in language using the techniques and features of language such as tone, grammatical structure, diction, and metaphor. This overwhelming fact justifies the examina- tion of thelanguage

of a given writer, not only to distil his distinctive style but also to enhance the interpretation and understanding of his

idiolect. Fundamentally, language is a complex phenomenon with varied integral layers

and constitutive levels, and elements of all these layers or levels are deployed or combined by a given author, to encode meaning and achieve aesthetic effects in his texts.

Hence it is posited that the verbal

style involves all the devices of language that are used to achieve communication goals in speech and writing.

This proposition implies that the language scholar should be interested in all of these constitutive layers or levels. Scholars capture

this view inter alia: A literary work is written in a language and to understand the work fully, there must be recourse to language in all its aspects –phonetics, phonology, semantics, syntax, etc. This fact explains why stylistic analysis applies the principles and techniques of general linguistics to the description and interpretation of salient graphological, phonologi- cal, syntactic, lexical, and semantic features of a text, with a view to characterizing a writer's

idiolect. 9.5 Alliteration Alliteration, in prosody, is the repetition of consonant sounds at the beginning of words or stressed syllables. Sometimes the repetition of initial vowel sounds (head rhyme) is also referred to as alliteration. As a poetic device, it is often discussed with assonance and consonance. In languages (such as Chinese) that emphasize tonality, the use of alliteration is rare or absent. Alliteration is the repetition of a consonant sound, often at the start of words. It can also be found in the middle of words, though, like the phrase "seashells by the seashore". While the earlier examples of alliteration were long sentences, even a phrase consisting of two words counts as alliteration. Furthermore, not every word needs to have a recurring sound scheme for the statement to be alliterative. We shall oftenfind prepositions or pronouns in between the words creating the repetition (e.g., "pushing past his persistent ponderings of paradoxes"). Thus,the phrase is still alliterative overall despite the breaks in between.

9.5.1 Origin and development of Alliteration The word 'alliteration'was first believed to be used in the early to mid-seventeenth century, although plenty of examples of alliteration can be found in documents much older. The term comes from the Latin word 'alliteratio', which translates into "to begin with the same letter". Contrary to its literal meaning, alliteration is based on pronunciation, not spelling. This means a phrase like 'past phone call' isnot alliterative even though both words begin with the same letter. However, the phrase 'silent city' is an example of alliteration. A repeating sound, not a repeating letter, is the indicator of alliteration. Alliteration thrives in poetry and music. Used sparingly, it can draw attention to a particular verse or phrase. Emily Dickinson's use of the 'm' sound in her poem 'Much Madness Is Divinest Sense' causes readers to focus on the theme of the titular madness and to ponder over what being mad even means. Over-using alliteration can lead to a more comedic effect. There are several modern comics that employ alliteration to enhance their routines. Alliteration is a literary device that reflects repetition in two or more nearby words of initial consonant sounds. It does not refer to the repetition of consonant letters that begin words, but rather the repetition of the consonant sound at the beginning of words. For example,the phrase 'kids' coats' is alliterative; although the words begin with different consonant letters, they produce the same consonant sounds. Similarly, the phrase 'phony people' is not alliterative; although both words begin with the same consonant, the initial consonant sounds are different.In addition, for alliteration to be effective, alliterative words should flow in quick succession. If there are too many non-alliterative words in between, then the literary device is not purposeful. For example, alliterative 'tongue twisters' are useful for encouraging language learners, generally children, to hear similar sounds repeated at the beginning of several words. A well-known alliterative tongue twister is: Peter Piper picked a peck of pickled peppers. A peck of pickled peppers Peter Piper picked. However, although alliterative tongue twisters are associated with children, they are useful for practicing and improving pronunciation, fluency, and articulation. They are often utilized by actors, politicians, and public speakers for verbal exercises in clarity of speaking. 9.5.2 Examples of Alliteration in Everyday Speech People use alliterative phrases frequently in everyday conversation. These phrases can sometimes sound cliché; however, they are effective in expressing both broad and familiar

meanings. Here are some examples of alliteration in everyday speech, e.g., rocky road, big business, kissing cousins, jumping jacks, no nonsense, tough talk, quick question, money matters, picture perfect, high heaven, etc. An alliteration is a common approach for advertising, marketing, and other elements of popular culture in that the repetition of initial letter sounds can be attention-grabbing and memorable for consumers, viewers, etc. Here are some familiar examples of alliteration in popular culture, e.g., Coca Cola, Dunkin' Donuts, Polly Pocket, Tonka Trucks, Weight Watchers, Rainbow Room, Dippin' Dots, Fantastic Four, Hip Hop, Paw Patrol, Door Dash, House Hunters, etc. Many artists and writers also utilize alliteration for fictional character names. This literary device allows for the creation of memorable as well as fun-sounding names, particularly in terms of children's entertainment or literature. Here are some examples of alliteration in fictional character names, e.g., Lois Lane, Peter Parker, Wonder Woman, Miss Muffet, Bob the Builder, Wicked Witch of the West, Mickey Mouse, Minnie Mouse, Bugs Bunny, Daffy Duck, Donald Duck, Daisy Duck, Pig Pen, Beetle Bailey, Peppa Pig, Holly Hobbie, Kris Kringle, Shaun the Sheep, etc. Because alliteration is such a bold and noticeable device, it may be used to call attention to a certain subject.Many great speech-makers have used alliteration to emphasize certain parts of their arguments. For example, see Martin Luther King, Jr.'s famous quote:"I have a dream that my four little children will one day live in a nation where they will not be judged by the color of their skin but by the content of their character". Here, King uses allitera- tion to emphasize that racism (judgment based on skin color) must be replaced by equality (judgment based on the content of character). Alliteration is a useful device in literary works. The repetition of initial consonant sounds can have a pleasing effect for readers and listeners. In addition, it calls attention to the rhetorical and artistic impact of the words in that alliteration signifies that the alliterative words are linked purposefully and thematically. This allows writers to turn the focus of their audience on the subject presented.Here are some examples of alliteration in literature: Example 1: The Raven (Edgar Allan Poe)

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Once upon a midnight dreary, while I pondered, weak and weary,

Over many a quaint and curious volume of forgotten lore— While I nodded, nearly napping, suddenly there came a tapping, As of someone gently rapping, rapping at my chamber door.
"Tis some visitor," I muttered, "tapping at my chamber door— Only this and nothing more." Ah, distinctly I remember it was in the bleak December; And each separate dying ember wrought its ghost upon the floor. Eagerly I wished the morrow;—vainly I had sought to borrow From my books surcease of sorrow—sorrow for the lost Lenore— For the rare and radiant maiden whom the angels name Lenore— Nameless here for evermore.

Thrilled me—filled me with fantastic terrors never felt before; So that now, to still the beating of my heart, I stood repeating "'Tis some visitor entreating entrance at my chamber door— Some late visitor entreating entrance at my chamber door;— This it is and nothing more." In this first stanza of his well-known poem, Edgar Alan Poe utilizes alliteration to build a poetic mood. The poet begins his descriptive alliteration with 'weak and weary' as well as 'nodded, nearly napping' to establish a somnambulate atmosphere. The repetition of these sounds enhances their poetic effect, emphasizing the disillusioned and heartbroken subject of the poem and the thematic intention of the poet. As a result, the sudden 'tapping' at the door is both a surprise to the poet and reader. Poe's use of alliteration in the first few stanzas continues throughout the entire poem. The presence of this literary device within the poetic lines reinforces the Raven's repetitious answer to the poet, 'nevermore', and underscores the escalating mood of fear, desperation, and frustration felt by the poet. This creates a similar effect for readers as they share in the poem's mood and the poet's emotions and experience. Example 2: Romeo and Juliet (William Shakespeare) From forth the fatal loins of these two foes A pair of star-crossed lovers take their life; Whose misadventured piteous overthrows Doth with their death bury their parents' strife. NSOU ? PGEL-9A 125 In the prologue of his tragic work, Shakespeare utilizes alliterative wording like 'fatal' and 'foes' as a means of foreshadowing the events of the play. This alliteration also calls attention to certain pairings of words in the prologue to emphasize the themes of 'Romeo and Juliet'. For example, 'fatal' is associated with 'foes', 'lovers' with 'life', and 'doth' with 'death'. These alliterative pairs reflect the pairing of characters in the tragedy, through love and conflict, including the feuding Capulet and Montague families, the romance between Romeo and Juliet, and even the cousins Tybalt and Benvolio. Therefore, the use of alliteration as a literary device in the prologue helps to create a sense of balance between the opposing forces of and within the overall play. In addition, the alliterative phrasing, most notably in the first line of this excerpt, provides melody and rhythm to the verse, indicating to the reader how the words may sound if spoken aloud or performed. This enhances Shakespeare's intended thematic effects of discord and harmony for the reader. Example 3: To an Athlete Dying Young (A.E. Housman) The time you won your town the race We chaired you through the market-place; Man and boy stood cheering by, And home we brought you shoulder-high. Today, the road all runners come, Shoulder-high we bring you home, And set you at your threshold down, Townsman of a stiller town. Smart lad, to slip betimes away From fields where glory does not stay, And early though the laurel grows It withers quicker than the rose. Eyes the shady night has shut Cannot see the record cut, And silence sounds no worse than cheers After earth has stopped the ears. Now you will not swell the rout

NSOU ? PGEL-9A 126 Of lads that wore their honours out, Runners whom renown outran And the name died before the man. So set, before its echoes fade, The fleet foot on the sill of shade, And hold to the low lintel up The still-defended challenge-cup. And round that early-laurelled head Will flock to gaze the strengthless dead, And find unwithered on its curls The garland briefer than a girl's. In this poem, Housman creates what may be considered a 'preemptive' elegy to an athlete who is dying. In each stanza, the poet incorporates alliteration as a literary device to emphasize the intention of the poem. In addition, the alliterative wording reflects the poet's use of the artistic expression as a means of elegizing the athlete. For example, the lines "Eyes the shady night has shut / Cannot see the record cut" each feature alliteration that underscores the theme of the poem. Once the athlete has died, indicated by the euphemistic phrase "his eyes are shut by the shady night", he will not have lived to see his legacy undone; upon his death, the athlete "cannot see" his record 'cut', as in broken or surpassed by someone else. Housman's use of alliteration also mirrors the power of the athlete. For example, the poet uses alliterative phrases such as 'fleet foot' and 'the road all runners come' to indicate that the athlete, in a sense, has won a race against time. Rather than outliving his renown among the living, the poet suggests that the athlete will be renowned among the dead as they flock to see his laurel. This creates a sense of irony in the poem in that the poet appears to appreciate the athlete dying young and triumphant instead of lamenting the early loss of someone young and strong.

that

have the same sounds and are relatively close in a particular line. The deployment of alliteration in a particular discourse situation is usually for aesthetic and functional purposes.

The significant stylistic point is that it is used

to foreground aspects of meaning and also to serve specific aesthetic purposes. In other words, the use of this device in a text also demonstrates how sound can be manipulated to convey stylistic meaning in a given

discourse. Certain sounds can affect the mood of a poem. Alliteration can be used to give a poem a calm, smooth feeling or a loud, harsh feeling. For example, the phrase 'Singing songs of the seaside' utilizes the 's' sound. This gives the phrase a soft and smooth sound. Meanwhile, the phrase 'Keep that crazy cat out!' uses a hard 'k' sound. This gives the phrase a harsh sound and adds a threatening tone. Alliteration is a useful sound device found in many types of literature but mostly in poetry. Businesses and advertisers use alliteration to call attention to company names and products. Many famous quotes and sayings also use alliteration. This is because the repetition of consonant sounds at the beginning of words allows rhythm and musicality. It also makes a phrase easy to memorize and fun to read or say out loud. 9.6 Assonance Assonance is a literary device in which the 'repetition of similar vowel sounds' takes place in two or more words in proximity to each other within a line of poetry or prose.

Assonance deals with the repetition of identical vowel sounds where there is no full rhyme. The sounds are produced when two syllables in words that have the same vowels and different consonants are placed close together.

Assonance most often refers to the repetition of internal vowel sounds in words that do not end the same. For example, "he fell asleep under the cherry tree" is a phrase that features assonance with the repetition of the long 'e' vowel, despite the fact that the words containing this vowel do not end in perfect rhymes. This allows writers the means of emphasizing important words in a phrase or line, as well as creating a sense of rhythm, enhancing mood, and offering a lyrical effect of words and sounds. In his poem 'Player Piano', John Updike offers a powerful example of assonance for his reader in the line "never my numb plunker fumbles". By repeating vowel sounds in 'numb', 'plunker', and 'fumbles', Updike is able to emphasize the 'clunky' rhythm and sounds of these words when put together. This creates an interesting contrast in consideration of the poem's title, which would more likely indicate the presence of melodious words and sounds in the poem.

9.6.1 Purpose, Significance, and Importance Assonance is equally as important in both poetry and prose. In any type of writing or communication that can benefit from some rhythmic structure, assonance will help to achieve that. Writers use assonance as a tool that enhances the lyrical quality of words which can help them be remembered or lend artistry to what is being expressed. Consequently, assonance helps bring pleasure to reading and/or listening to words. In addition to aesthetic value, assonance can also help a writer establish mood. Repeating sounds of any type are commonly used to both establish and maintain the mood. For example, if the mood should be gloomy, a writer may use repetition of "gloomy sounding" words.In contemporary poetry, the trend has been to move away from traditional rhyme and meter schemes and to uphold poetic quality in other ways. Assonance, consonance, and alliteration are all devices that use repetition to create effect and are all heavily used by contemporary poets in order to artistically create rhythm outside of traditional structures. While many may think that rhyme is one of the fundamental aspects of poetry, it was not at all common in Old English verse. The lexicon of Old English did not include many rhyming words. Instead, the chief poetic techniques of Old English story tellers were rhythm and meter, and consonance and assonance. Rhyme only became popular in English poetry later, after the Germanic language took on many new words from Romance languages. This is because Romance languages like French, Italian, and Spanish have many more words with similar endings. Indeed, rhyme was quite popular in the troubadour tradition, which began in France in the late 11th century and spread to Spain and Italy. Rhyme remained common in English verse for several hundred years but has once again fallen out of favour. Meanwhile, contemporary poets still use assonance, consonance, and alliteration to provide more subtle phonemic unity. Assonance can be used in all types of literature but is commonly found in poetry. Assonance provides poetic writing with rhythm and musicality. It also mirrors or changes the mood of a poem in order to match the subject matter. Beyond literature, assonance is also found in pop culture, especially in music. As you will hear, it is possible to use assonance in everyday speech. However, most people don't use it intentionally, unless trying to woo someone romantically! 9.6.2 Examples of Assonance Many common phrases utilize assonance. People use them in everyday speech for emphasis or to reflect a mood. Here are some examples of common uses of assonance:

• Son of a gun • The cat is out of the bag • Dumb luck • After awhile, crocodile • Chips and dip • Cock of the walk • Goodnight, sleep tight, don't let the bedbugs bite • Stranger danger • Winner, winner, chicken dinner • Motion of the ocean • Keep your eyes on the prize • Lean, mean, fighting machine • Wild child • Surf and turf Assonance is a useful device when it comes to song lyrics and titles. Here are some examples of assonance in well-known songs: • "Those Lazy-Hazy-Crazy Days of Summer" (Hans Carste) • "I recall Central Park in fall" ('Danke Schoen' Wayne Newton) • "Rock Around the Clock" (Bill Haley and His Comets) • "The rain in Spain stays mainly in the plain" (musical 'My Fair Lady') • "Back in Black" (AC/DC) • "Oh, give me a home where the buffalo roam" ('Home on the Range' Daniel E. Kelley and Brewster M. Higley) • "Only the Lonely" (Roy Orbison) • "Say hey, good lookin'. Whatcha got cookin'?" ('Hey Good Lookin' Hank Williams, Jr.) • "Crocodile Rock" (Elton John) • "Light My Fire" (The Doors) • "Silent night, holy night, all is calm, all is bright" ('Silent Night' Joseph Mohr)

Think you havenot heard of any famous phrases with assonance. Here are some well- known and recognizable examples

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of this: • Once upon a midnight dreary, while I pondered, weak and weary ('

The Raven' Allan Poe) • I do not like green eggs and ham. I do not like them Sam I Am. ('Green Eggs and Ham' Seuss) • Nine nice night nurses nursing nicely (English language tongue-twister) • Nutter Butter (American cookie brand) • This little light of mine, I'm going to let it shine (gospel/spiritual Harry Dixon Loes) • Girl with a Pearl Earring (painting by Johannes Vermeer) Assonance is an effective literary device. Here are some examples of assonance and how it adds to the artistic quality of well-known literary works: Example 1: Look, Stranger (W.H. Auden) Here at the small field's ending pause Where the chalk wall falls to the foam and it's tall ledges Oppose the pluck Auden utilizes assonance as a literary device in this poem to create a sense of rhythm and lyrical effect. The words 'chalk', 'wall', and 'falls', are not only repetitive in their vowel sounds but there are no words in between to separate them. This has a rhythmic effect for the reader that echoes the visual image that the words conjure forth. The awkward repetition of the vowel sound in these words creates a sense of crumbling in the way that a chalk wall would fall. Yet in addition to a rhythmic effect, the assonance in this part of Auden's poem is also lyrical. The uninterrupted repetition of the vowel in the second line mirrors a lyrical descent or even decrescendo of words and sounds. As a literary device, assonance creates poetic imagery and lyricism in Auden's work. Example 2: The Mother (Gwendolyn Brooks) Though why should I whine, Whine that the crime was other than mine?– Since anyhow you are dead. In this heart-wrenching poem about abortion, loss, and maternal love, Brooks utilizes assonance as a means of reinforcing the poet's guilt and suffering. The repetition of the long

NSOU ? PGEL-9A 131 'i' vowel in 'whine', 'crime', and 'mine' reflects the haunting sound of a baby's cries. In addition, the assonance in this poem mirrors the poet's own impulse to cry and whine as a result of her suffering. This vowel sound also reinforces to the reader the presence of the pronoun 'I' in the first line. The sound of her words underscores the poet's feelings of recurring guilt and the idea that the loss of her babies is a deliberate yet isolating action. The poet acknowledges her responsibility for the 'crime', while simultaneously separating herself as 'I' once again in a symbolic way from her babies, 'you'. Example 3: Up-Hill (Christina Rossetti) But is there for the night a resting-place? A roof for when the slow dark hours begin. May not the darkness hide it from my face? You cannot miss that inn. In her poem, Rossetti structures each stanza with queries and responses. This is effective for the reader in that the poem appears to have two voices: one that questions and one that answers. This balance between uncertainty and surety is enhanced by the poet's use of assonance in the final line of this stanza. Rossetti utilizes assonance in the form of repeated short 'i' vowels in 'miss' and 'inn'. This serves to reinforce a definitive tone of certainty in the response. In addition, the short vowel sound in those words creates a rhythm in the poem by emphasizing and punctuating those short words. This literary device sets forth an effective contrast between the last line of this stanza and the longer, more lyrical lines that precede it. 9.6.3 Writing Assonance As a literary device, assonance functions as a means of creating rhythm through stressing syllables with repetitious vowel sounds. In addition, assonance can regulate the pacing of a poem or line of text. For example, long vowel sounds tend to slow the pace of reading, whereas short vowel sounds tend to quicken a reader's pace. This control of pacing is an effective device utilized by writers to create or indicate the tone and mood of a literary work. Like any literary device, writers should avoid the overuse of assonance. Too many instances of assonance in any form of literature can be distracting and ineffective for the reader. Therefore, it is best to make subtle and sparing use of assonance. Here are some ways that writers benefit from incorporating assonance into their work:

NSOU ? PGEL-9A 132 Assonance can be used in all types of literature but is commonly found in poetry. Assonance provides poetic writing with rhythm and musicality. It also mirrors or changes the mood of a poem in order to match the subject matter. Beyond literature, assonance is also found in pop culture, especially in music. As we shall learn, it is possible to use assonance in everyday speech. However, most people don't use it intentionally, unless trying to woo someone romantically! (a) Use of Rhythm: Assonance allows writers to create a sense of rhythm in their work. This is especially effective when it comes to poetry. In writing, rhythm is based on patterns of syllables and sounds that are stressed and unstressed. With the repetition of vowel sounds, writers can control which syllables are stressed in a line of poetry or prose, thereby creating rhythms that are quick, slow, or a combination. This talent for assonance allows for variety in the pacing of words which enhances the experience for the reader. (b) Enhance Mood: In many art forms, sound is a crucial technique in setting a tone and enhancing mood. Assonance is an example of this technique in writing. With vowel sounds, in particular, a writer can create a somber, light-hearted, playful, or even chilling mood in a poem or work of prose, just through repetition. (c) Lyrical Effect: In addition to creating rhythm in a work of poetry or prose, assonance also creates a lyrical effect for the reader. Vowel repetition can enhance the meaning of words in literature as well as their musicality. Though assonance is more similar to internal than end rhyme, the quality of repeated sound can mimic the quality of a repeated note or chord in a phrase of music. This lyrical effect has great value for the reader of a line of poetry or prose. As a literary device, assonance can demonstrate the harmony and musical quality of word choice and language. 9.6.4 How Does Assonance Help You Analyze Literature? Now that we know what assonance is, we are probably wondering how it helps us analyze literature. There are three major ways assonance works: by creating rhythm, drawing attention to specific words, and by shaping the tone—or feeling—of the work. (a) How Assonance Creates Rhythm: Because assonance involves repetition, it can be used to create rhythm. This is especially important in poetry, where the

NSOU ? PGEL-9A 133 rhythm often affects the meaning of the poem. Take these lines from Edgar Allen Poe's "The Raven," for instance: And the Raven, never flitting, still is sitting, still is sitting On the pallid bust of Pallas just above my chamber door; There's quite a bit of assonance here, especially with the short "i" sound, which we've highlighted in bold above. The assonance gives the poem a drumming, march-like rhythm that mimics the terrified pounding of the speaker's heart! (b) How Assonance Draws Attention to Specific Words: Secondly, the repetitive nature of assonance draws the reader's attention to those words and phrases. In some cases, it can be the equivalent of the writer waving a red flag at the reader, signalling that there's something important going on in that part of the text.Let's look at the first two lines of William Wordsworth's "Daffodils" to see this in action: I

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wandered lonely as a cloud That floats on high o'er vales and hills,

Here, the assonance is in the long "o" sound, and it draws your attention to an important simile in the poem. In this comparison, the speaker imagines himself as a "lonely" cloud that "floats" high "o'er" the landscape. Through assonance, the speaker reveals that he sees himself as separate and isolated from the world around him. (c) How Assonance Shapes Tone and Meaning: Writers also use assonance to help create tones, or feelings, in their work. By stringing together different words and vowel sounds, writers can evoke everything from happiness to fear. Here's an example of this at work in Dylan Thomas' "Do not go gentle into that good night": Old age should burn and rave at close of day; Rage, rage, against the dying of the light To see how this creates a tone, try reading this passage out loud. The assonance of the long "a" makes you emphasize the sound as you read it, especially since those are also stressed syllables. (Not sure what a stressed syllable is? Check out

NSOU ? PGEL-9A 134 our guide to iambic pentameter.) The assonance makes these lines sound forceful, which adds to the lines' insistent—almost desperate—tone. When it comes to poetry, determining a poem's tones is an important step to uncovering the work's themes and messages. In the case of Thomas' poem, the tone of these lines helps us understand how Thomas feels about death. For him, death isn't something a person should accept passively—they should fight against it and embrace life as long as possible. So in this instance, assonance helps us determine the poem's tone, which in turn leads us to one of the poem's major themes! 9.6.5 How to Analyze Assonance Now that you know what assonance is, here are a few expert tips to help you find assonance and use it to analyze literature like a pro! (a) Read it out loud: Assonance is something we hear, rather than something we see. While we can look for similar vowels in words, English is a strange language where pronunciation can vary wildly, even when the spelling is almost identical. Take 'laughter' and 'slaughter', for example. Add one letter and the pronunciation becomes insanely different! By reading a poem out loud or listening to a recording of it, it becomes a lot easier to find the repetition of vowel sounds. It also is a lot easier to discern how assonance affects the poem's rhyme, rhythm, and emphasis. Reading a poem out loud is the best way to find assonance. (b) Look at how assonance affects: Once we have found the assonance, it is time to think about how it affects the text we are reading. One way to do this is to start thinking about how assonance contributes to how the passage and/or poem is read. Does it create short, staccato sounds or long, mournful ones? How do these sounds help show readers what the poem is about? For instance, when assonance happens in short words right next to each other (like 'the hard, stark markings on the car assembly line…') can mimic the sound of a factory, whereas longer, spread out assonance (the cool breeze moved along hills and moors) echoes the peacefulness of a breezy day! (c) Examine the word choice: Assonance only exists if a poet chooses a specific word that contains the same vowel sound as another word. That means each word in an assonant passage is important! Take a minute to examine the words the poet chooses. Are they related to each other in any way? Pull out a dictionary

NSOU ? PGEL-9A 135 and look up each word. Along with their definition, do the words have connotative, or implied, meanings that change the way we might interpret the passage? How would using a synonym change the meaning of that line? Investigating why a writer uses the words he does—and paying close attention to what those words mean—can help us uncover a poem's important themes. (d) Consider how assonance shapes a poem as a whole: Look at the passage, section, sentence, or line that contains the assonance. Like we mentioned before, assonance is often a way for authors to signal that a specific part of their work is important. Keeping that in mind, we ask ourselves what we think the purpose of that passage is in the overall scheme of the poem. What is the poet saying in this passage? Does it come at a key moment or an important turning point? Often, poets use assonance to make a point, so there is a good chance they are using assonance to communicate a specific message or idea! 9.7 Consonance Consonance is defined as a pleasing sound caused by the repetition of similar consonant sounds within groups of words or a literary work. This repetition often occurs at the end of words, but may also be found within words. When consonant sounds are repeated only at the beginning of words, that is called alliteration rather than consonance. Discover several consonance examples in sentences, phrases, and poems. Consonance, the recurrence or repetition of identical or similar consonants; specifically the correspondence of end or intermediate

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consonants unaccompanied by like correspondence of vowels at the end of two or more syllables, words, or other units of composition. As a poetic device, it is

often combined with assonance (the repetition of stressed vowel sounds within words with different end consonants) and alliteration (the repetition of initial consonant sounds). Consonance is also

occasionally used as an off-rhyme, but it is most commonly found as an internal sound effect,

as in Shakespeare's song, "The ousel cock so black of hue," or "The curfew tolls the knell of parting day," from Thomas Gray's "Elegy Written in a Country Church Yard."Some additional key details about consonance are as follows: • Consonance occurs when sounds, not letters, repeat. In the example above, the 'f' sound is what matters, not the different letters (such as 'ph') used to produce that sound.

NSOU ? PGEL-9A 136 • Consonance does not require that words with the same consonant sounds be directly next to each other. Consonance occurs so long as identical consonant sounds are relatively close together. • The repeated consonant sounds can occur anywhere within the words—at the beginning, middle, or end, and in stressed or unstressed syllables. In poetry, rhyme is not the only way to introduce memorability and musicality. Consonance presents poets with the possibility of playing around with the repetition of consonant sounds. It can help to think of consonance in relation to other literary terms. It is the counterpart to assonance, which refers to the repetition of vowel sounds instead of consonant ones, and has some overlap with alliteration, which is limited to sounds that repeat at the start of words. Poets frequently use consonance for the simple reason that it makes an arrangement of words more interesting and appealing to listeners. It intensifies the language. If someone is reading a poem that utilizes consonance, they might be drawn to go back and reread consonance-laced words, or linger over them for longer—a good outcome in poetry, where a single line is sometimes closely packed with meanings that need to be teased out. 9.7.1 ExamplesofConsonance The repetition of sounds appeals to our ears so much that you can find consonance examples in common pairings of words throughout the English language. Consider the following: First and last Odds and ends Short and sweet Struts and frets (from Shakespeare's Macbeth) Front and center A little better Along with alliteration, consonance is also part of what makes tongue twisters so tricky. Take one of the most well-known examples: Peter Piper picked a peck of pickled peppers. The alliteration might be what is most noticeable about this phrase, but it is the dense pack of 'k' sounds that often trips people up—and makes it fun to say.

NSOU ? PGEL-9A 137 9.7.2 PurposeofConsonance • Consonance is used as an intensifier of language. This intensifying occurs in several ways. • Consonance can make words more memorable. Alliterative consonance in par- ticular is used very commonly in branding and advertising for exactly this reason (think of brand names like 'Best Buy', 'Coca Cola', and 'Dunkin' Donuts'). • Consonance, like assonance, increases the sonic or 'musical' quality of words in a group, making the words stand out to the reader. It also encourages the reader to spend more time looking at, sounding out, and thinking about those words. • Because consonance encourages readers to pay more attention to language, it can have the effect of slowing down the reading process and strengthening reading comprehension as a result. • Consonance is of special use to poets because it encourages repeated reading of a group of words. Poets' lines are often more dense with meaning, wordplay, and figures of speech than a typical line of prose is. • Sometimes, consonant words can have special resonance with the meaning of the lines or sentences in which they occur. Many of the examples given above imitate, or do, the thing that is being described, rather than simply talking about it. The use of consonance can also create a rhyming effect and give a verse musicality. It is a key ingredient in what is known as 'half-rhyme', where words sound similar but fall short of a perfect rhyme. This form of rhyme is also known as 'slant rhyme', 'imperfect rhyme', or sometimes even 'lazy rhyme'. Contrary to what those monikers (i.e., nick- names) suggest, it can make for rich and sophisticated verse. Compared to when writing in perfect rhyme, poets taking this looser approach can draw from a much wider pool of complementary words, creating intrigue and surprise. Consonance is one of several poetic devices that can be used to heighten emotion or enhance an image in poetry. Some consonant sounds have immediate connotations. Think of the 's' sounds in sibilance—they often make words sound almost more whispered. The consonants at the beginning of 'ship', 'zip', 'charm', 'genre', and 'jewel' also have this effect. Depending on the context, they can evoke an air of mystery, solemnity, sleepiness, or intimacy. The opposite is true of hard consonant sounds like the 'ck' in 'cat' or the 'g' in 'good' or 'plosives' like 'b' and 'p'.

NSOU ? PGEL-9A 138 9.8 Difference Between Assonance, Consonance, Alliteration, and Slant Rhyme The techniques of assonance, alliteration, consonance, sibilance, and slant rhyme are all closely related and include the repetition of certain sounds in quick succession. Assonance and alliteration are often confused with each other when it comes to literary devices. They are similar in the sense that they rely on the repetition of a sound in words that are either adjacent or in close proximity to each other. However, assonance refers to the repetition of vowel sounds. Alliteration

is the repetition of the same letter or sound at the beginning of

words. An example of alliteration would be the title of a poem by Shel Silverstein: "Sarah Cynthia Sylvia Stout Would Not Take the Garbage Out". The first four words of this title repeat the sound of the consonant 's' even though the word Cynthia begins with a different consonant. Like assonance, alliteration is the repetition of sound for literary effect. However, assonance is strictly limited to repeated vowel sounds. Both assonance and alliteration can influence the rhythm of poetry and prose. In addition, the repetition of sound for both assonance and alliteration must take place in words that are near each other within a phrase or line. Otherwise, the effect is likely to go unnoticed by the reader. When used properly as literary devices, they can enhance the meaning of literature as well as the enjoyment and artful use of words and their sounds. Like rhyme, these three phonological schemes thrive on the similarity of specific phonemic segments in a line of poetry and are often classed as kinds of half-rhyme. Whereas alliteration involves a similarity in only the onsets of stressed syllables, and while consonance refers to the identity of the coda (and sometimes onsets and codas), assonance occurs in the repetition of the nucleus (i.e., vowels) flanked by different onsets and codas. Taken together as phonaesthetic devices then, all three impart melodic effects to an utterance through the identity between one whole syllable and another in a line of verse. The repetition of onset (alliteration) occurs in: • with beaded bubbles winking at the brim /b/ • and lift myself from the depths of deep despair /d/ The identity of coda - sometimes onset and coda- (consonance) is seen in: • The sailor sings of ropes and things • In ships upon the seas /s,z/

NSOU ? PGEL-9A 139 and the similarity in the nucleus (assonance) is found in: • Till the shining scythes went far and wide /ai/ • And cut it down to dry /ai/ All these instances of partial or half-rhyme are employed in verse as aspects of sound patterning as well as cohesion. The phonaesthetic principles which govern them are similar to those associated with onomatopoeia in the preceding section. It should be noted also that the three schemes—alliteration, consonance, and assonance—are sometimes used interchangeably with some overlapping in their segment categorization. Together with rhyme and onomatopoeia, they constitute an effective illustration of the expressiveness of the phonemes of the English syllable in poetry, and this is summarized as follows: • nucleus and coda only = end rhyme (full rhyme) • onset only = alliteration • nucleus (sometimes onset and coda) only = assonance (half rhyme) • coda (sometimes onset and coda) only = consonance • onset, rhyme, and semantics = onomatopoeia These three phonological tropes are exploited by authors mostly in poetry. Like the others, alliteration, assonance, and consonance function as the phonological linkage in meaning between two or more lexical items. They transcend their merely decorative attributes, and this is evident in the following examples: • The plowman homeward plods his weary way /pl/ /w/ (alliteration) • The cock's shrill clarion, or echoing horn/ k/ (alliteration) • Heaven did a recompense as largely send /e/ assonance) • He gained from Heaven ('twas all he wished) a friend /e/ (assonance) As can be seen, although the repeated phonemes do not exactly occur in consecutive words within the respective lines, they enable the reader to force a semantic linkage between the words despite the intervening, sometimes irrelevant words. As a result, the lexical items plowman and plods; weary and way and cock, clarion and echoing have a decidedly stronger semantic affinity with one another than with the other items in the line just as the items Heaven, recompense and send as well as Heaven and friend are more of the main 'messages' of the lines than the others.

NSOU ? PGEL-9A 140 Alliteration is a special case of consonance and it refers to the repetition of consonant sounds or blends at the beginning of words or in the stressed syllables of a line. Since consonance may happen anywhere in a word, the concepts are related but not identical. Historically, alliteration may also use different consonant sounds with similar properties, like the sounds 'z' and 's'. Lord Byron uses alliteration in his poem 'She Walks in Beauty', as shown here: "She walks in beauty, like the night / Of cloudless climes and starry skies". • living lyre /l/ (luxury; rest; happiness) • Full many a flower … born to blush /f, b/ (wings; scorn; neglect) • long lingering look behind /l/ (luxury; rest; eagerness) • listless length /l/ (luxury; rest; relaxation) • woeful wan like one forlorn /w/ (weak; unenthusiastic) • crazed with care or crossed /k/ (discomfort; cruelty) • dirges due /d/ (short and final; unhappy) Literary consonance is the repetition of the same consonant sounds. Like assonance, the repetition must be close enough to register in the ear of the listener. The repetition can happen anywhere in the words. Since the definition of assonance only includes vowel sounds, assonance and consonance can be understood to describe the same phenomena, yet with opposite meanings (an easy way to remember which one is which is that the word 'assonance' starts with a vowel and the word 'consonance' starts with a consonant). One such example of consonance is the 'l' sound from Mary Oliver's poem 'Wild Geese': "You only have to let the soft animal of your body / love what it loves". • teach the rustic moralist /st/ (discomfort; cruelty) • The sun upon the upland lawn /n/ (skill; active: repetitive) • seek his merits to disclose /s/ (soothing; smooth; soft) Alliteration, consonance, and assonance are all literary devices that are often utilized as a means of creating emphasis, attention, significance, and importance to words in poetry, prose, or speech. These literary devices can be used for both artistic and rhetorical effect. Alliteration almost exclusively refers to the repetition of initial consonant sounds across the start of several words in a line of text. The repetition of vowel sounds is generally excluded from alliteration and categorized instead as assonance. Assonance refers to the repetition of vowel sounds, whether at the beginning, middle, or end, of words in close proximity to each other in a line of text. Consonance, of which alliteration is

NSOU ? PGEL-9A 141 considered a subcategory, is the repetition of consonant sounds in successive words. Like assonance, consonance refers to the repetition of these sounds at the beginning, middle, or end of words. However, alliteration is limited to consonant sounds repeated at the beginning of words. 9.9 Summing Up In this Unit, our primary attention is on various issues and aspects of Sound Patterning with special reference to alliteration, assonance, and other rhetoric devices that are employed in such a manner in a piece of text that they affect the meaning of a text. To achieve this goal we have first tried to understand how language is studied at different levels (phonology, morphology, lexis, syntax, semantics, and discourse). In Section 9.2, we have emphasized the importance of linguistic styles in the literature. We have addressed different approaches and themes adopted in 'Systemic Functional Grammar' as envisaged by M.A.K. Halliday. In Section 9.3, we have provided some information on the interpretation of sound patterns. We have also addressed

the question of what and how a sound pattern communicates one of the most mysterious aspects of literary appreciation. In

Section 9.4, we have defined and discussed the form and features of alliteration with reference to the history of alliteration and have cited a few examples of alliteration in everyday speech. In Section 9.5, de have defined assonance as a literary device, discussed its purpose, significance, and importance; cites some examples of assonance; addressed how an author uses assonance in writing; addressed how does assonance help in analyzing literature, and how we can analyze assonance in texts. In Section 9.6, we have defined consonance, cited some examples of consonance, and explained the purpose of using consonance in texts. In Section 9.7, we have tried to mark a line of distinction between these three concepts: alliteration, assonance, and consonance. 9.10 Review Questions Review Questions for thought, understanding and self-assessment. Answer in not more than 500 words. (1) What are the major levels of analysis of language? Name them and discuss them. (2) What is a monophthong? How does it differ from a diphthong and a hiatus? NSOU ? PGEL-9A 142 (3) What are the basic arguments of Systemic Functional Grammar? (4) What are metafunctions of a language? What are their types? Discuss them. (5) What are normal ways of interpretation of sound patterns in a text? (6) What is alliteration? Discuss it with some examples (7) What is assonance? What is its importance? Give some examples of assonance. (8) How can you use assonance in writing? Explain with examples. (9) What is consonance? What are its purposes of use? Give some examples of consonance. (10) Discuss the basic difference between Alliteration, Assonance, and Consonance Look for answers to the above questions in the units mentioned below: Q1) Unit 9.1 Q2) Unit 9.1 Q3) Unit 9.2 Q4) Unit 9.2 Q5) Unit 9.3 Q6) Unit 9.4 Q7) Unit 9.5 Q8) Unit9.5.3 Q9) Unit 9.6 Q10) Unit 9.7 9.11 Glossary of Terms Diphthong: A diphthong (Greek: díphthongos "two sounds") is also known as a gliding vowel. It is a combination of two adjacent vowel sounds within the same syllable. Tech- nically, a diphthong is a vowel with two different targets: that is, the tongue (and/or other parts of the speech apparatus) moves during the pronunciation of the vowel. In most varieties of English, the phrase "no highway cowboy" has five distinct diphthongs, one in every syllable. Diphthongs contrast with monophthongs, where the tongue or other speech organs do not move and the syllable contains only a single vowel sound. For

instance, in English, the word ah is spoken as a monophthong (/QÐ/), while the word 'ow' is spoken as a diphthong in most varieties (/aŠ/). Where two adjacent vowel sounds occur in different syllables (e.g., in the English word re-elect) the result is described as hiatus, not as a diphthong. The English word hiatusis itself an example of both hiatus and diphthongs. Elegy: In English literature, an elegy is a poem of serious reflection, usually a lament for the dead. However, for all of its pervasiveness, elegy remains remarkably ill-defined: sometimes used as a catch-all to denominate texts of a somber or pessimistic tone, sometimes as a marker for textual monumentalizing, and sometimes strictly as a sign of a lament for the dead". The Greek term (elegeia "lament") originally referred to any verse written in elegiac couplets and covering a wide range of subject matter (death, love, war). The term also included epitaphs, sad and mournful songs, and commemorative verses. The Latin elegy of ancient Roman literature was most often erotic or mythological in nature. Because of its structural potential for rhetorical effects, the elegiac couplet was also used by both Greek and Roman poets for witty, humorous, and satiric subject matter. Half rhyme: Half rhyme includes the repetition of sounds that are similar but not quite rhyming. Usually, the consonant sounds are repeated while the vowel sounds are different, or the vowel sounds are the same while the consonants are different. Thus, slant rhyme can use either consonance or assonance, or it can be a combination of the two. There are many other names for this type of rhyme, including slant rhyme, lazy rhyme, near rhyme, approximate rhyme, suspended rhyme, imperfect rhyme, inexact rhyme, off rhyme, or analyzed rhyme. It is especially common in hip-hop lyrics. The following example is from a song called 'Little Mercy' by hip-hop group Doomtree: "We broke our backs stacking bricks / We never broke our promises." In this instance, there are several repeated sounds: the 'b' in broke, backs, and bricks; the 'k' in broke, backs, stacking, and bricks; the 'a' in backs and stacking; and the 'i' in bricks and promises. Irony: Irony (Greek eirôneía "feigned ignorance"), in its broadest sense, is a rhetorical device, literary technique, or event in which what on the surface appears to be the case or to be expected differs radically from what is actually the case. Irony can be categorized into different types, including verbal irony, dramatic irony, and situational irony. Verbal, dramatic, and situational irony are often used for emphasis in the assertion of truth. The ironic form of simile, used in sarcasm, and some forms of litotes can emphasize one's meaning by the deliberate use of language which states the opposite of the truth, denies the contrary of the truth, or drastically and obviously understates a factual connection. An irony

is a form of utterance that postulates a double audience, consisting of one party that hearing shall hear and shall not understand, and another party that, when more is meant than meets the ear, is aware both of that more and of the outsiders' incomprehension. Monophthong: A monophthong (Greek: monóphthongos "one sound") is a pure vowel sound, one whose articulation at both beginning and end is relatively fixed, and which does not glide up or down towards a new position of articulation. The monophthongs can be contrasted with diphthongs, where the vowel quality changes within the same syllable, and hiatus, where two vowels are next to each other in different syllables. A vowel sound whose quality does not change over the duration of the vowel is called a pure vowel. Pararhyme: It is a half-rhyme in which there is vowel variation within the same consonant pattern. "Strange Meeting" (1918) is a poem by Wilfred Owen, a war poet who used pararhyme in his writing. Here is a part of the poem that shows pararhyme: Too fast in thought or death to be bestirred./Then, as I probed them, one sprang up, and stared/With piteous recognition in fixed eyes,/Lifting distressful hands, as if to bless./And by his smile, I knew that sullen hall,/By his dead smile I knew we stood in Hell. The following short poem by Robert Graves is a demonstration in English in which each consonant sound before the caesura is repeated in the same order after the caesura: Billet spied,/Bolt sped./Across field/Crows fled,/Aloft, wounded,/ Left one dead. Phonaesthetics: It is the study of beauty and pleasantness associated with the sounds of certain words or parts of words. The term was first used in this sense, by J. R. R. Tolkien, during the mid-twentieth century. It is derived from the Greek (phôn "voice" or "sound") plus (aisthçtik "aesthetics"). Speech sounds have many aesthetic qualities, some of which are subjectively regarded as euphonious (pleasing) or cacophonous (displeasing). Phonaesthetics remains a budding and often subjective field of study, with no scientifically or otherwise formally established definition; today, it mostly exists as a marginal branch of psychology, phonetics, or poetics. David Crystal regards phonaesthetics as the study of "phonaesthesia" (i.e., sound symbolism and phonesthemes) that not just words but even certain sound combinations carry meaning. For example, he shows that English speakers tend to associate unpleasantness with the sound 'sl-' (e.g., sleazy, slime, slug, and slush) or they associate repetition lacking any particular shape with '-tter' (e.g., chatter, glitter, flutter, and shatter). Prologue: A prologue or prolog (from Greek prólogos "before the word") is an opening to a story that establishes the context and gives background details, often some

earlier story that ties into the main one, and other miscellaneous information. The Ancient Greek prólogos included the modern meaning of prologue, but was of wider significance, more like the meaning of preface. The importance, therefore, of the prologue in Greek drama was very great; it sometimes almost took the place of a romance, to which, or to an episode in which, the play itself succeeded. On the Latin stage the prologue was often more elaborate than it was in Athens, and in the careful composition of the poems which Plautus prefixes to his plays we see what importance he gave to this portion of the entertainment; sometimes, as in the preface to the Rudens, Plautus rises to the height of his genius in his adroit and romantic prologues, usually placed in the mouths of persons who make no appearance in the play itself. Rhythm: Rhythm (from Greek rhythmos "any regular recurring motion, symmetry") generally means a movement marked by the regulated succession of strong and weak elements, or of opposite or different conditions. This general meaning of regular recurrence or pattern in time can apply to a wide variety of cyclical natural phenomena having a periodicity or frequency of anything from microseconds to several seconds to several minutes or hours, or, at the most extreme, even over many years. Rhythm may be defined as the way in which one or more unaccented beats are grouped in relation to an accented one. In the performance arts, rhythm is the timing of events on a human scale; of musical sounds and silences that occur over time, of the steps of a dance, or the meter of spoken language and poetry. Sibilance: Sibilance is a special case of consonance wherein the consonant sound that is repeated is 's' or 'sh', which are called sibilant sounds. This example from Seamus Heaney's translation of Beowulf contains examples of sibilance: "There was Shield Sheafson, scourge of many tribes". Verse: In the countable sense, a verse is formally a single metrical line in a poetic composition. However, the verse has come to represent any division or grouping of words in a poetic composition, with groupings traditionally having been referred to as stanzas. In the uncountable (mass noun) sense verse refers to 'poetry' as contrasted to prose. Where the common unit of verse is based on meter or rhyme, the common unit of prose is purely grammatical, such as a sentence or paragraph. In the second sense, the verse is also used pejoratively in contrast to poetry to suggest work that is too pedestrian or too incompetent to be classed as poetry.

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NSOU ? PGEL-9A 148 Unit 10 ? Lexical Parallelism and Repetition (refrain and chorus) Structure 10.1 Objectives 10.2 Introduction 10.3 Importance of Parallelism 10.4 Examples of Parallelism 10.5 Types of Parallelism 10.5.1 Phonological Parallelism 10.5.2 Lexical Parallelism 10.5.3 Phrasal Parallelism 10.5.4 Clausal Parallelism 10.5.5 Syntactic Parallelism 10.5.6 Binary and Ternary Parallelism 10.6 Linguistic Structure in Parallelism 10.7 Using Parallel Structure in Writing 10.7.1 Create Sense of Rhythm 10.7.2 Create Sense of Relationship 10.8 Parallelism as A Rhetorical Device 10.9 Repetition 10.10 Repetition Vs. Non-Repetition 10.11 Types of Repetition 10.12 Difference Between Parallelism and Repetition 10.13 Summing Up 10.14 Review Questions 10.15 Glossary of Terms 10.16 Books Recommended

NSOU ? PGEL-9A 149 10.1 Objectives The objectives of the unit are: • Raising awareness of variation of Literary devices in Literary texts • Learning the use of Rhetoric in Texts • Raising awareness of style in Spoken and Written discourse 10.2 Introduction Lexical parallelism is a process of repetition of lexical items in the text. It is an important device for indicating the sentence connections in a text (i.e., discourse). The recurrent use of lexical items or lexical equivalents need not have the same syntactic function or parts-of-speech in the two sentences in which they occur. In English grammar, parallelism (also called parallel construction or parallel structure) is known as a process of repetition of the same grammatical forms in two or more parts of a sentence. E.g., "I like to jog, bake, paint, and watching movies". The term parallelism is defined differently by different authors. According to scholars, parallelism is a device which suggests a connection, simply because they form of one sentence or clause repeats the form of another. Scholars also argue that parallelism is a device that is frequently used in literary and related discourse, in which the repetition of forms suggests a connection to the reader through the principle of isomorphism in which the similarity of forms indicates the similarity of meaning. The term parallelism refers to the fact that the co-ordinate ideas should have a co-ordinate presentation. Several elements of equal importance should be expressed within a sentence. If one element is cast in a relative clause, the other should be expressed in relative clauses. By definition, parallelism is the repetition of grammatical elements in writing as well as in speaking. Parallelism influences the grammatical structure of sentences but can also impact the meaning of thoughts and ideas being presented. When writers utilize parallelism as a 'figure of speech', this literary device extends beyond just a technique of grammatical and sentence structure. It may feature repetition of a word or phrase for emphasis, or it can be used as a literary device to create a parallel position between opposite ideas through grammatical elements as a means of emphasizing contrast. Parallelism takes many forms in literature, such as anaphora, antithesis, asyndeton, epistrophe, etc. Parallelism is a

NSOU ? PGEL-9A 150 literary device in itself, but it is also a category under which other figures of speech fall, such as those mentioned previously. Therefore, these other literary devices and figures of speech are specific types of parallelism. One of the most well-known examples of parallelism is featured in Neil Armstrong's statement, made as he stepped on the moon: "That's one small step for man, one giant leap for mankind." The structure of the two noun phrases in this sentence is similar due to the repeated use of "one." This engages the audience's attention and emphasizes the contrast between "small step for man" and "giant leap for mankind." The significance of the event and the meaning of Armstrong's statement is enhanced through his use of parallelism. According to scholars, parallelism could be described as the

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in structure and sense. 10.3 Importance of Parallelism The principle of parallelism demands that unequal elements should be expressed in similar constructions. It also states that parallelism is the repetition of structure. It is the refusing surface formats but filling them with a different expression. For example, "He has plundered our seas, ravaged our coasts, burnt our towns". In this example, there are parallel clauses (verbs+ possessive + pronoun +direct object), but not identical actions. To sum up, we can say that parallelism may be defined as two sentences (phrases or clauses) having the same structure; therefore, a strong relationship between them and their occurrence is based on the sameness or oppositeness. (a) Parallelism exists where two close or adjacent sections of a text are similar. The similarity is usually structural where one or both structures are similar, or lexical similarities, where the words are similar (or opposite) in meaning. The similarity is partial exact repetition and partial difference, for example, look at the

NSOU ? PGEL-9A 151 following:"So in the agonies of Death, in the anguish of that dissolution, in the sorrow of that valediction, in the irreversibleness of that transmigration, I shall have a joy which shall no more evaporate than any soul shall evaporate, joy that shall pass up and put on a more glorious above, and be joy super-invested in glory"(Joh Donne, Sermon at St. Paul's (1625)).Here, for example, the three underlined structures are structurally and semantically similar. They share the structure 'in the', 'of that'. The words 'anguish' and 'sorrows' are similar in meaning on the one hand, and dissolution, transmigration, and valediction on the other. (b) Parallelism is an influential rhetorical device at the disposal of the writer or speaker. It consists of using the same general structure for multiple parts of a sentence, or multiple sentences in order to link them all. The following example is a famous one of Winston Churchill: "The inherent vice of capitalism is the unequal sharing of blessing; the inherent virtue of socialism is the equal sharing of miseries" .In this example, there is more than one sentence that is linked together by repeating the same grammatical structure. (c) Parallelism is a stylistic device that subsumes prominent patterns of repetition at the level of sound, grammatical structure, or meaning. For example Shape without form, shade without colour, paralyzed force, gesture without motion. (T.S. Eliot 1925)In example (3), there is a repetition of the same structure of the phrase. (d) Parallelism is the syntactic pattern, regardless of the semantic content. E.g., Adore Baal with your sacrifice, Dagon's Son with your offering(Greenstein Parker 14) (e) Parallelism is further defined as a unifying device that creates complex semantic relationships between the parallel verbal structure while establishing formal symmetries and correspondences, e.g. To err is a human; to forgive divine. (Alexander Pope) (f) Parallelism can be a recurrent syntactical similarity. Several parts of a sentence or several sentences are expressed in a similar way to show that the ideas in the parts or sentences are equal in importance. Parallelism also adds balance and rhythm and clarity to the sentence. (g) Parallelism is a balance of two or more elements in a sentence. Elements in a sentence are parallel when one construction (or one part of speech) matches

NSOU ? PGEL-9A 152 another: a phrase and a phrase, a clause and a clause, a verb and a verb, a noun and a noun, a gerund and a gerund, and so on. (h) Parallelism is an effective way to add smoothness and power to our writing. It allows the sentence to act as an arrow, pointing the reader to the targeted conclusion. If the sentence is not clear, the reader will miss the main ideas and concepts. (i) Parallelism is a rhetorical device of grammar in which words, phrases, and ideas of equivalent value share similar grammatical structures. For example:"Teach us, good lord, to serve thee as thou deservest; / To give and not to count the cost;/To fight and not to heed the wounds"(St. Richard's prayer). The grammatical structure is [to X and not to Y]. (j) Parallelism is a universal phenomenon that may exist in most poems, sermons, prose, and biblical verses. As such, it can be defined as the use of components in a sentence that is grammatically the same; or similar in their construction, sound, meaning, or meter. The correspondence of one verse, or line, with another, can be called parallelism when a proposition is delivered, and a second is subjoined to it, or drawn under it, equivalent, or contrasted with it, in sense; or similar to it in the form of grammatical construction, these I can parallel lines; and the words or phrases, answering one to another in the corresponding lines, parallel terms. (k) We can use parallelism as a linguistic feature that corroborates indirection. It is a form of 'tautology' that does not lead to boredom but ensures communicative efficacy. This is because parallel structures are often repeated but this repletion beautifies the text or utterance and makes meaning cleaner. (l) Parallelism is repeating a structure but filling it with new elements or using surface formats but filling them with different expressions. The parallel line does not simply repeat what has been said, but enriches it, deepens it, transforms it by adding fresh nuances and bringing in new elements, renders it more concrete and vivid and telling—that is, it generates new (contextual) semantic reality from the lexical (word) meaning of its component. (m) To say that two linguistic structures are parallel is to say that share a common structural frame, that within this frame, some elements or elements differ in form. Parallelistic systems of verbal art give us a direct insight into the speaker's own

conception of grammatical equivalences. It is a linguistic phenomenon, which explains the relationship that may be understood between units of linguistic structures, which are constructed parallel to each other or related in some other ways. Parallelism plays a significant role in strengthening, emphasizing, drawing attention to a parallel structure, and achieving a greater impact on the recipient(s). Parallelism is noted when different parts of a sentence or thoughts are formatted similarly to emphasize either commonalities or their difference. Parallelism gives a sentence a good rhythm and (usually) makes it easier to read. It means to give two or more parts of the sentences a similar form so as to give the whole a defined pattern. It is an expression used to refer to the repetition of syntactic structure or form in two or more configurations with new or different content. A parallel constituent is usually connected via junctive expressions. There are four major types of junctive expressions that are normally used to connect parallel constituents. (a) Conjunctions (e.g., and, also, moreover, furthermore, in addition, besides) (b) Disjunctions (e.g., either/or, whether or not) (c) Contrajunction (e.g., but, however, yet, nevertheless) (d) Subordination (e.g., because, since, as, thus, while, therefore) The Junctives have a significant function when used in a text. They link the text and establish a relation between the connected sentences. Moreover, junctives can be used to have control over how relations are recovered and set up by receivers. Accordingly, junctions operate as cohesive ties in parallelistic structures. 10.4 Examples of Parallelism Parallelism is an effective literary device when used properly. Here are some examples of parallelism and how it adds to the significance of well-known literary works: Example 1: Pygmalion (George Bernard Shaw) If you can't appreciate what you've got, you'd better get what you can appreciate. In this line from his famous play, Shaw utilizes parallelism to set forth a contrast of ideas by inverting the wording of the phrases but maintaining their grammatical structure. The effect for the reader/audience due to parallelism as a literary device in this line is the

connection between what someone has and what they appreciate. Professor Higgins, the speaker of the line, is calling Eliza's attention to the choice she is facing: she can either appreciate what she has in him as a companion, or she can pursue someone else. This choice between contrasting ideas in this line is underscored by Shaw's use of parallelism in the expression of it. This adds meaning to the situation Eliza is facing in the play, but also calls upon the reader/audience to consider the choice they would make in her stead. In addition, the reader/audience is also confronted with the potential contrast between appreciating what they have or pursuing what they would appreciate. Example 2: The Things They Carried (Tim O'Brien) To generalize about war is like generalizing about peace. Almost everything is true. Almost nothing is true. In O'Brien's story about soldiers in Vietnam, he uses parallelism to create a relationship between war and peace, though they seem to be opposing concepts. In this passage, O'Brien warns against generalizing about either war or peace as the outcome ends up the same—that almost everything is true and almost nothing is true. The repetition of grammatical structure in these three sentences enhances the relationship between war and peace by creating the sense that, in general, they are more alike than the opposite. This causes the reader to reflect on how this relationship between war and peace is possible. O'Brien's use of parallelism in this passage also creates a relationship between words and their meanings. When spoken in generalities, words such as war and peace lose their meanings. With this loss of meaning, the truth is lost as well. This parallel relationship between the meaning of words and the truth indicates to the reader that there is no meaning or truth to generalities when it comes to war or peace. Example 3: How Cruel Is the Story of Eve (Stevie Smith) Put up to barter, The tender feelings Buy her a husband to rule her Fool her to marry a master She must or rue it The Lord said it.

In her poem, Smith utilizes parallelism to create a sharp sense of rhythm to instill empathy in the reader for Eve and her story. The grammatical structure of the poetic lines creates the sense of a list being presented to the reader of Eve's judgments and punishments. The parallel pacing of the stanza's structure, in addition to the connotations and repetitive sounds of the words ('rule', 'fool', 'rue'), create a rhythm that is almost like a whip. This expands and reinforces the theme for the reader that Eve is a victim of her story and her fate as a woman. Many common phrases feature parallelism through repetition of words, structure, or other grammatical elements. This calls attention to the wording and can emphasize the phrase's meaning. Here are some common examples of parallelism: • he that will cheat at play, will cheat you any way • stupid is as stupid does • cousins by chance; friends by choice • luck is the idol of the idle • no pain, no gain • in for a penny, in for a pound • you get what you get • where there is smoke, there is fire • when the going gets tough, the tough get going • it takes one to know one • have money in your head, not in your heart • I think, therefore, I am • don't marry someone you can life with; marry someone you can't live without • today a reader, tomorrow a leader • fool me once, shame on you; fool me twice, shame on me Parallelism is found throughout the Bible, particularly in psalm verses and proverbs. One use of this literary device in Biblical poetry and phrasing is to create synonymous lines in which an idea is presented and then repeated by being rephrased with parallelism

NSOU ? PGEL-9A 156 to reinforce or emphasize the meaning. Here are some examples of parallelism in the Bible: • In the way of righteousness is life / And in its pathway there is no death (Prov. 12:28) • I am the rose of Sharon / And the lily of the valleys (Song 2:1) • As the deer pants for the water brooks / So pants my soul for You, O God (Ps. 42:1) • Hatred stirs up strife / But love covers all sins (Prov. 10:12) • For the Lord knows the way of the righteous / But the way of the ungodly shall perish (Ps, 1:6) • The earth is the Lord's and everything in it / the world, and all who live in it (Ps. 24) Parallelism is also found in many famous examples of poetry, prose, drama, speeches, and quotations to create an intentional effect for the reader. Here are some famous examples of parallelism: • Not everything that is faced can be changed; but nothing can be changed until it is faced. (James Baldwin) • Clap along if you feel like a room without a roof / Clap along if you feel like happiness is the truth (lyrics by Pharrell Williams) • ... and that government of the people, by the people, for the people shall not perish from the earth. (Abraham Lincoln) • Then practice losing farther, losing faster: places, and names, and where it was you meant to travel. None of these will bring disaster. (Elizabeth Bishop) • It is easier for a father to have children than for children to have a real father. (Pope John XXIII) • Be who you are and say what you feel, because those who mind don't matter, and those who matter don't mind. (Bernard M. Baruch) • You deserve to need me, not to have me. (Augusten Burroughs) • Follow love and it will flee; flee love and it will follow. (proverb) • To err is Human, to forgive, divine. (Alexander Pope)

NSOU ? PGEL-9A 157 • But the sad truth is that the truth is sad, and that what you want does not matter. (Lemony Snicket) 10.5 Types of Parallelism In English grammar, parallelism (also called parallel structure or parallel construction) is the repetition of the same grammatical form in two or more parts of a sentence. Maintaining parallel structure helps us avoid grammatically incorrect sentences and improves our writing style. Although lack of parallelism is not always strictly incorrect, sentences with the parallel structure are easier to read and add a sense of balance to writing. Parallel construction is most commonly used in sentences containing elements that appear in a series or a pair. It is also applied to headings and outlines in academic writing. Scholars demonstrate that at the level of linguistic structure we can distinguish several kinds of parallelism. 10.5.1 Phonological Parallelism Phonological parallelism is a kind of parallelism which requires sounds. It is the repetition of the same or similar sounds. There are two kinds of phonological parallelism. (a) The most common type of phonological parallelism requires coherent clumps of sound such as the end or beginning of a syllable and is exemplified by rhyme and alliteration. (b) There is another type of phonological parallelism, which is developed systematically in some literary tradition; this is parallelism between two longer and disconnected sequences of sounds and could be called sound pattern parallelism. Phonological parallelism includes four types: (a) Alliteration: Alliteration is the repetition of the initial consonants of the words, e.g., Sissy can see the sea. (b) Assonance: Assonance is the repetition of the same vowels of the word, e.g., Men sell the wedding bells. (c) Rhyme: Rhyme is the repetition of the same syllables in the sentence, e.g., Baa baa black sheep, have you any wool? Yes sir, Yes sir, three bags full! One for the master, one for the dame, And one for the little boy who lives down the lane.

NSOU ? PGEL-9A 158 (d) Meter: Meter is the repetition of rhythmic patterns, e.g., The big bad wolf, the big bad wolf. 10.5.2 Lexical Parallelism Lexical parallelism (i.e., parallelism at word level) is parallelism in meaning requiring words (lexical items). It is word-category repetition (e.g., noun, verb, etc.) or semantic class repetition (i.e., similar or contrastively paired words, embedded in parallel phrasal or verse structure). Let us consider the following examples which reflect parallelism at the level of lexical items. The examples include cases of superlative degree comparison, past perfect tense(s) of third-person singular, infinitive, and gerund. e.g., The longest period of economic growth since records began, an economy now bigger than that of Italy and France. The lowest unemployment and highest employment rate of any of our competitors for the first time since the 1950s. Living standards up, for everyone, and for the poorest up most. The biggest reductions in child poverty and biggest increase in investment for decades" (2004: Tony Blair). In this example, parallelism occurs in the lexical items (i.e., longest, lowest, highest, biggest, poorest) where the five lexical items manifest comparison at the superlative degree and end with the superlative suffix (-est) which create rhyme at the phonological level. The use of this number of parallel structures reflects the cumulation of information and strengthens the argument at hand. The use of parallel construction when items in a series have an equal level of importance. These items are usually joined by commas or semicolons along with 'and' or 'or'. On the word level, a noun should be grouped with other nouns, an adjective with other adjectives, and so on. Not parallel Parallel The company is looking for a candidate The company is looking for a candidate who who is friendly, organized, meticulous, is friendly, organized, meticulous, and and is going to arrive to work on time. punctual. When a series is composed of verbs, do not mix forms. For example, mixing an infinitive (a verb beginning with to) with a gerund (a verb form ending in -ing) breaks parallel structure.

NSOU ? PGEL-9A 159 Not parallel Parallel The participants in the workshop learned The participants in the workshop learned how to communicate, negotiate, and how to communicate, negotiate, and work working collaboratively for the most collaboratively for the most effective effective outcome. outcome.The participants in the workshop learned about communicating, negotiating, and working collaboratively for the most effective outcome. 10.5.3 Phrasal Parallelism Consider the following examples of parallel configurations in noun, verb, prepositional, adjectival, and adverbial phrases. Consider the following examples according to their availability in the speeches. This paragraph reflects parallelism in its highest forms i.e. through a recurrence of the same structure and lexical items (they too) as the phrase consists of a subject (they) and an adverb (too) at the beginning of each sentence. The use of two parallel structures in speeches reflects emphasis and assertion over the parallel configuration. e.g., "I am particularly pleased to welcome Sir Alan in the presence of so many entrepreneurs, so many business leaders and so many policy makers. And no-one is better qualified than Alan to speak about the great issues that face us today, how each of us, companies, governments and individuals, are having to respond to the speed, the scope and the scale of changing in the global economy" (2007: G. Brown). In this example, parallelism occurs in three noun phrases (so many entrepreneurs, so many business leaders, and so many policy makers) that are parallel to each other. Morphological parallelism also occurs between the noun phrases (the speed, the scope, the scale) where the definite article (the) is added continuously to the nouns (speed, scope, scale). The speaker in this example relied on the use of a series of three elements to achieve unity and have a greater impact on the audience. The parallel structure should be used to balance a series of phrases with the same grammatical structure. For example, avoid mixing noun phrases with verb phrases.

NSOU ? PGEL-9A 160 Not parallel Parallel Initial trials showed that exposure to the Initial trials showed that exposure to the chemical caused memory problems, chemical caused memory problems, intermittent dizziness, and deters sleep. intermittent dizziness, and insomnia. As with a series of verbs, a series of verb phrases should use parallel forms. We should not mix phrases based on an infinitive with phrases based on -ing verbs. Not parallel Parallel Her main duties were answering phone Her main duties were answering phone calls, filing records, and to conduct visitor calls, filing records, and conducting visitor surveys. surveys. 10.5.4 Clausal Parallelism Clausal parallelism can be achieved at the clause level. Consider the following examples: e.g., "You know better than me how we are and can continue to entrench our position as a world leader in business and financial services, but from the point of view of the government we insist that we will continue to implement our new risk-based light touch approach to regulation, we will make our planning system more flexible and responsive and of course we will work together on infrastructure to invest in our long term priorities" (2007: Tony Blair). In the above paragraph, parallelism is manifested through the use of three clauses (we will continue, we will make, we will work) as they share the same structure of a subject (we) followed by an auxiliary verb (will) and ended by a verb (continue, make, work). Pronouns are significant features of political speeches as they help a speaker to manipulate language in a way that would enable him/her to sound more persuasive and create a greater impact on his/her audience. In this example, the former British Prime Minister used the inclusive pronoun (we) to show the audience that elective work is needed to be done by both parties i.e. people and government. Politicians can never be certain that decisions they have made will always necessarily be seen in a positive light (or they may be aware that their positive claims could easily be re-interpreted in a more negative manner [...] therefore, by the use of 'we' [a speaker] spreads the load of responsibility. Parallelism is also applicable to a series of clauses in a sentence.

NSOU ? PGEL-9A 161 Not parallel Parallel The report card stated that the student The report card stated that the student often talked in class, that he bullied other often talked in class, that he bullied other students, and rarely finished his homework. students, and that he rarely finished his homework. The report card stated that the student often talked in class, bullied other students, and rarely finished his homework. 10.5.5 Syntactic Parallelism Syntactic parallelism is a parallelism in the sentence structure. It is parallelism in form and is parallelism between two sections of text that have the same syntactic components. e.g. "Now is the time to make real the promises of democracy; now is the time to rise from the dark and desolate valley of segregation to the sunlight path of racial justice; now is the time to lift our nation from the quick sands of racial justice to the solid rock of brotherhood." (Washington) The use of parallel construction when a sentence contains a pair of connected ideas. Pairs can be connected by coordinating conjunctions, which include and, nor, but, or and yet. Not parallel Parallel She planned to collect data by either using She planned to collect data by either an online survey or phone interviews. using an online survey or conducting phone interviews. She planned to collect data through either online surveys or phone interviews. Use parallel structure when apair of ideas is linked by correlative conjunction, such as not only...but also, either...or, and neither...nor. Not parallel Parallel His paper argues that the distinctive His paper argues that the distinctive divergence in the two artists' styles was divergence in the two artists' styles was not only shaped by their mutual rivalry shaped not only by their mutual rivalry but but also because of the idiosyncratic also by the idiosyncratic tastes of patrons. tastes of patrons.

NSOU ? PGEL-9A 162 The same rule applies to pairs connected by a word of comparison, such as over, than or as. Not parallel Parallel He prefers movie nights at home over He prefers movie nights at home over loud going to loud house parties. house parties.He prefers hosting movie nights at home over going to loud house parties. 10.5.6 Binary and Ternary parallelism Most parallelisms have two members. This kind is called 'binary parallelism', e.g., Found these songs so wild and wayward. Found these legends and tradition. I shall answer, I should tell you.The ternary parallelism, on the other hand, is a parallelism which has three parts. E.g., I should answer, I should tell you/In the bird's -nests of the forest/In the lodges of the beaver/In the hoofprint of the bison/In the eyry of the eagle! (Henry Wadsworth Longfellow Song of Hiawatha, 1855) The words that constitute the members of a parallelism are different but are related in meaning in some way. A pair or larger set of words that belong to the same area of meaning are said to belong to the same semantic field. 10.6 Linguistic Structure in Parallelism Linguistic parallelism refers to the pattern of repetition in discourse for creating a specific stylistic effect. It operates on different branches of linguistics, for example, it can be phonological when it takes the form of initial, medial, or end rhyme and it is most distinguished with the presence of alliteration and assonance. It is lexico semantic if it involves synonymous or antonymous words occurring in paradigmatic relation. It is syntactic when the parallel occurs at clausal or group level. At this level, the structures are equivalent: sameness of mood, textual pattern, and thematic structure constitute parallelism. Scholars explain that any sentence elements can be paralleled; any number of times although excess quickly becomes ridiculous. We might choose: (a) Parallel subjects with parallel modifiers attached to them e.g., Ferocious dragons breathing fire and wicked sorcerers casting their spells do their harm by night in the forest of darkness.

NSOU ? PGEL-9A 163 (b) Parallel verbs and adverbs e.g., I have always sought but obtained a parking space near the door.Quickly and happily he walked around the corner to buy the book. (c) Parallel verbs and direct objects e.g., He liked to eat watermelon and to avoid grapefruit. (d) Parallel prepositional phrases e.g., He found it difficult to vote for an ideal truth but against his own self-interest. The pilot walked down the aisle, through the door, and into the cockpit, singing "Up, Up, and away." (e) Parallel subordinate clauses e.g., These critics– who point out the beauties of style and ideas, who discover the faults of false constructions, and who discuss the application of the rules– usually help a lot in engendering and understanding of the writer's essay. e.g., When, at the conclusion of a prolonged episode of agonizing thought, you decide to buy this car; when, after a hundred frantic sessions of begging stone- faced bankers for the money, you can obtain sufficient funds; and when, after two more years of impatience and frustration, you finally get a driver's license, then come to see me and will talk about a deal. (f) Parallel participle, infinitive, and gerund phrases: e.g., He left the engine on, idling erratically and heating rapidly. e.g., To think accurately and to write precisely are interrelated goals. e.g., She liked sneaking up to Ted and putting the ice cream dow , because he cool about it. (g) Combination of parts-of-speech or sentence elements is used to form a statement, depending on what you have to say. In addition, parallelism does not have to be exact in its syntactical similarity. e.g., He ran up to the book shelves, grabbed a chair standing nearby, stepped painfully on his tip toes, and pulled the fifty pound volume on to top of him, crushing his ribs and impressing him with the power of knowledge. e.g., I shall never envy the honors which wit and learning obtain in any other course, if I can be numbered among writers who have given order to virtue, and confidence to truth.(Samuel Johnson)

NSOU ? PGEL-9A 164 e.g., For the end of a theoretical science is truth, but the end of a Practical science is performance. (Aristotle) (h) Parallel constructions with coordinating conjunctions (and, or, nor, but, for, yet) Not parallel e.g., At Lynchburg College, cheating can result in suspension or even be expelled from school. e.g., At Lynchburg College, cheating can result in 'noun' or even 'verb phrase' from school. Parallel e.g., At Lynchburg College, cheating can result in suspension or even expulsion from school. e.g., Ericka is not only very beautiful but also very intelligent. The words 'very beautiful' directly follow 'not only' so 'very intelligent' should follow 'but also'. Repeating the extra verb creates an unbalanced effect. e.g., The two girls enjoyed dancing, swimming, and going to the mall. e.g., The two girls enjoyed (noun), (noun), and (verb phrase). (i) Parallel items in a series (Listing) e.g., The two girls enjoyed dancing, swimming, and shopping. e.g., The two girls enjoyed (noun), (noun), and (noun). 10.7 Using Parallel Structure in Writing As a literary device, parallelism functions as a means of creating a harmonious flow and rhythm with words and phrases. This is effective for readers in that parallelism can capture a reader's attention and enhance the structure of writing to make the literary work more meaningful. Parallelism is also an effective way for writers to set up relationships between two or more things or ideas, through comparison or contrast. It is important that writers use parallelism sparingly in order for it to be effective. Too much repetition of grammatical elements can distract and/or fatigue a reader. For example, this well-known proverb features parallelism: Give a man a fish, and he eats for a day. Teach a man to fish, and

NSOU ? PGEL-9A 165 he eats for a life time. It is effective in that the repetition of sentence structure emphasizes the meaning and perceived truth of the proverb for the reader. However, if the proverb were to continue this repetitive structure, it would lose effectiveness: Give a man a fish, and he eats for a day. Teach a man to fish, and he eats for a life time. Teach a man to sell fish, and he eats steaks. Give a man a chain of seafood restaurants, and he eats whatever he wants. The continued parallelism undermines the initial meaning of the proverb. Here are some ways that writers benefit from incorporating parallelism into their work. 10.7.1 Create Sense of Rhythm Writers can create a sense of rhythm in their works with parallelism. Repeating grammatical elements such as words, sounds, a noun, or verb phrases, helps to pace writing for the reader. This adds to the artistic and/or poetic value of language in a literary work while allowing the writer to reinforce or elaborate on a particular idea. 10.7.2 Create Sense of Relationship Parallelism allows writers to create a sense of the relationship between words, phrases, and sentences, which then establishes relationships between things and ideas. This can be done through comparison or contrast, either within a single sentence or a group of sentences. By repeating grammatical elements, writers can draw the reader's focus towards similarities and differences in expression and therefore enhance meaning. 10.8 Parallelisms as a Rhetorical Device According to scholars, parallelism is a powerful rhetorical device to convince readers since elements in the sentence that are alike in the form are taken as a signal that they are fulfilling the same role in the expression. It is claimed that parallelism is a device for keeping the reader on track and the equivalent elements in structure call attention to their equivalence. It is a rhetorical device that often appears in public speeches. Parallelism can be argued as a stylistic device. The rhetorical function of parallelism is to strengthen, empower, emphasize, persuade and have a big impact on recipients. The connection between parallelism and public speeches lies in the fact public figures rely on linguistic repertoire in order to obtain and achieve their objectives and aims. One of these

NSOU ? PGEL-9A 166 linguistic configurations is parallelism. A language can be thought of as a resource which is drawn upon in order for goals to be achieved. The public speakers strive to gain the trust and support of people; they bring in persuasive to what they need. Van Dijk (1997: 12) argues that the persuasive function of text or talk is not limited to its rhetoric, but may also depend on style or meaning, or coherence. The fact that public speakers use an interwoven texture of rhetorical features, style, coherence, and meaning in order to persuade the audience to support Dijk's parallelism is distinguished as the repetition of identical or similar syntactic patterns in adjacent phrases, clauses, or sentences. The pattern of parallelism is usually doubled but may be repeated more times. It arises from the definition that parallelism is distinguished by the repeated syntactic forms that are in equivalence. Many scholars deal with parallelism more closely and suggest three subcategories. One is syntactic parallelism is often accompanied by lexical parallelism and involves a pair of parallel words, one in each section of the text. The words may have a similar form or number of syllables. The sentences may look the same but some elements may be changed or different word categories may be used. The similar structures seem to be complex and aesthetical. It means parallelism used in rhetoric seems convincing and makes the speech look good. Scholars argue that parallel structures help to focus on the main points and serve many advantages, such as providing an outcome which is clearly noticeable due to the slight variation, emphasizing the main points, or developing contrast. These structures are easily remembered. The importance of patterned speaking lies in manipulating and calling the audience's attention to the speaker's utterance. As a consequence of the presented definitions, it should be stressed that the uses and functions of listed devices are based on the speaker's will and his or her deliberate usage. The function of these devices is verified in the practical part of the thesis. 10.9 Repetition It is a well-known fact that there exist various ways of expressing people's attitude towards another person, any kind of thing or this or that phenomena; there are different variants of expressing similar, though not absolutely identical ideas. It is stylistics that deals with all variants of linguistic expressions and the sub-systems making up the general system of language. Stylistic devices play the greatest role in the analysis of any kind of literary text.

NSOU ? PGEL-9A 167 Among other figures of speech, repetition is one of the widely used syntactic stylistic devices. Repetition is also a stylistic device which falls under phonology within the broad area of stylistics. In this device,

It is also intended to intensify meaning as well as being an aspect of a particular thesis i.

a decorative device to add beauty and aesthetic effects to the work. We shall now present some aspects of repetition from the text to illustrate our views. Repetition is tolerated in legal language to escape misinterpretation. Nevertheless, repetition is commonly used in non-specialized text to produce emphasis. The question of repetition being positive or negative is not to be answered straightforwardly. Flower and Flower in their book 'The King's English' summarize that "We have instances of repetition that are good in themselves; we have repetition that is neither particularly good nor bad in them, but that offend simply by recurrence." (Flower and Flower 1922: 211). Therefore, repetition may be perceived as useful but also as useless in many cases depending on the speaker's skilful usage. We are concerned with the way in which people employ rhetorical devices to engage audience applause in literary texts. 10.10 Repetition vs. Non-Repetition Repetition is a figure of speech that shows the logical emphasis that is necessary to attract a reader's attention to the keyword or a key phrase of the text. It implies repeating sounds, words, expressions, and clauses in a certain succession or even with no particular placement of the words, in order to provide emphasis. There is no restriction in using repetition but too much repetition can be dull and even spoil its stylistic effect. According to different linguists' opinions, repetition is not a stylistic device if it shows the excited state of mind of the speaker. Look at the following example: "Stop!"—she cried, "Don't tell me! I don't want to hear, I don't want to hear what you've come for, and I don't want to hear." (J. Galsworthy) It seems that the above-mentioned example "I don't want to hear you" is not a case of repetition, it only shows an emotive state of mind of a speaker and her emotions. The NSOU ? PGEL-9A 168 followers of this idea consider that repetition only focuses on the logical emphasis of the utterance and not an emotional state. Others contradict this opinion as they believe that repetition is one of the devices, having its origin in the emotive language. Repetition when applied to the logical language becomes simply an instrument of grammar. Its origin is to be seen in the excitement accompanying the expression of a feeling being brought to its highest tension. Giving logical emphasis to the utterance is a really very important aspect in case of repetition. While repeating certain words, phrases, or sentences, a writer reminds readers of their importance, making them keywords, phrases, or sentences of the text. Notwithstanding this fact, when a word or a phrase is repeated not for logical emphasis but simply to show a speaker's emotional state, repetition should also be considered as a stylistic device. We came to such a conclusion considering the fact that all stylistic devices carry more or less a degree of emotiveness. It has been mentioned that not only words, phrases, clauses can be repeated but sounds as well. But the repetition of sounds is called alliteration which belongs not to syntactic stylistic devices but phonetic stylistic devices. The aim of alliteration is to impart a melodic effect to the utterance. "Deep into the darkness peering, long I stood there wondering, fearing, Doubting, dreaming no mortals ever dared to dream before". (E. A. Poe) Repetition of the sound 'd' definitely produces a melodic effect. It is mostly characteristic of poetry though, certain cases of alliteration are found in emotive prose as well. 10.11 Types of Repetition Repetition is classified according to compositional patterns. There are already eight set patterns which we would like to discuss separately. (a) Anaphora Anaphora or anaphoric repetition is called

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the repetition of a word or a phrase at the beginning of two or more

consecutive sentences. e.g., "Ignorant of the long and stealthy march of passion, and of the state to which it had reduced Fleur; ignorant of how Soams had watched her, ignorant of Fleur's reckless desperation….,ignorant of all this, everybody felt aggrieved." (J. Galsworthy)

Anaphoric repetition is met not only in emotive prose but is rather often used in poetry. e.g., Farewell to the mountains high covered with snow! Farewell to the straths and green valleys below! Farewell to the forests and wild-hanging woods! Farewell to the torrents and loud-pouring floods! (R. Burns) In the given example together with anaphoric repetition "farewell to the" is also observedparallelism of the syntactic composition of each line. Anaphora gives a literary text peculiar rhythm that, together with repetition of an anaphoric element, somehow brings that particular extract of prose and sound of poetic speech close together. But being used in poetry, anaphora increases the sound harmony of speech. (b) Epiphora Epiphora or epiphoric repetition is a type of repetition when one and the same word or phrase is placed at the end of consecutive sentences. It is also known as 'Epistrophe'. e.g., "Now this gentleman had a younger brother of still better appearance that himself, who had tried life as a cornet of dragoons, and found it a bore; and ad afterward tried it in the train of an English minister abroad, and found it a bore; and had then strolled to Jerusalem, and got bored there, and then gone yachting about the world, and got bored everywhere". (Charles Dickens) As we see the same sentence contains two kinds of epiphoric repetitions in different clauses. "And found it a bore" and "got bored". Epiphora even more than anaphora contributes to the rhythmic organization of speech due to the increase of intonation and sound identity at the final position of sentences. Epiphoric repetition can also be combined with anaphora within one sentence. e.g., "If he wishes to float into fairyland, he reads a book; If he wishes to dash into the thick of battle, he reads a book, if he wishes to soar into heaven, he reads a book." (Chesterton) As we see in the given example the combination of the two mentioned types of repetition is even complicated with syntactic parallelism. (c) Anadiplosis The third type of repetition is anadiplosis. It is a figure of speech that consists of the repetition of the same word at the end of one and the beginning of the following clauses, sentences.

e.g., "All service ranks the same with God, With God, whose puppets, best and worst, Are we." (Robert Browning) (d) Framing Framing is a type of repetition when it is arranged in the form of a frame, namely, the initial parts of a syntactical unit, in most cases of a paragraph, are repeated at the end of it. e.g., "No wonder his father wanted to know what Bosinney meant, no wonder." (G. Galsworthy)

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Framing makes the whole utterance more compact and more complete.

Framing is most effective in singling out paragraphs. It is more often met in poetry although we can find a great deal of it in emotive prose as well. This type of repetition can comprise any part of the text - a sentence a paragraph, a page. Its extreme case is when it starts from the title and comprises the whole text, i.e., the title and the last sentence of the text are the same. The material showed us that there can exist the so-called thematic framing, i.e., one and the same theme is repeating at the beginning and the end of the text. The function of framing is to elucidate the notion mentioned at the beginning of the sentence. Between two appearances of the repeated unit there comes the developing middle part which clarifies what was introduced in the beginning, so that by the time it is used for the second time its semantics is concretized and specified. (e) Root repetition In root-repetition, it is not the same words that are repeated but the same root. e.g. "Forsytes deprived of their mutter bone were wont to sulk. But John had little sulkiness in his composition." (G. Galsworthy) I felt just as natural as I would with anybody. Talked to him just as naturally, and everything. (D. Parker) As we see from the examples, in this type of repetition we deal with different words having different meanings ("to sulk" – verb and "sulkiness" - noun; "natural" - adjective and "naturally" - adverb), but the shades of meaning are perfectly clear. (f) Chain repetition This type of repetition smoothly develops logical reasoning. It is a thread of several successive anadiploses.

e.g., "A smile would come into Mr. Pickwick's face: the smile extended into a laugh, a laugh into a roar, and the roar became general". (Ch. Dickens) In this case loading of each word involved in chain repetition gradually increases. (g) Synonymous repetition Synonymous repetition is a repetition not of the same word but one word or phrase is repeated with its synonym. e.g., "The poetry of earth is never dead ... The poetry of earth ceasing never..." (Keats) "I nearly died! Honestly, I give you my word, I nearly passed away". (D. Parker) In both cases, words are changed with their euphemism forms. (h) Thematic repetition This is the case when the theme of the text is repeated without any particular models of repetition. It is also called the 'repetition of ideas' which is linked with antithesis—set off two ideas in balanced (parallel) opposition. e.g., "One small step for man, one giant leap for mankind."(Neil Armstrong) "Ask not what your country can do for you, but what you can do for your country."(John F. Kennedy) It can be said that apart from the existing type of repetition there may be some other types that are not addressed here. These types of repetitions have the same emotional loading as others and sometimes they can cause even stronger emotions, as they are either 'scattered' or 'hidden' and the emotions arise subconsciously. Speakers often forget the power of using repetition in speeches because of the negative stereotypes we have about being repetitive. Repetition means hounding, nagging, being redundant, and boring. Yet we forget that some of the world's best speeches have utilized repetitive rhetorical devices to reflect the natural rhythm of oral communication. When done stylistically, repetition helps the audience remember and recognize the importance of your message. 10.12 Difference Between Parallelism and Repetition It is difficult to distinguish between parallelism and repetition. They are similar literary devices in the sense that their function is based on something being repeated for effect. However, repetition specifically features the intentional use of a word or phrase, two or

more times in close proximity of each other. Parallelism, on the other hand, can involve the repetition of words or phrases, but it also must reflect the repetition of grammatical and/ or structural elements. In fact, the only requirement for parallelism as a literary device is the repetition of grammatical elements and/or structure in a written work–apart from strictly word or phrase repetition.A good example to demonstrate the difference between parallelism and repetition is a soliloquy spoken by the title character in Macbeth by William Shakespeare. The line, "Tomorrow, and tomorrow, and tomorrow" features word repetition. It also features parallelism due to the grammatical structure of the phrasing, utilizing 'and' as a conjunction. This grammatical similarity enhances the rhythm of the phrase and emphasizes the concept and meaning of 'tomorrow' as an ongoing, repeating aggregate of time and experience. There is another line in Macbeth's soliloquy that features repetition, but not parallelism: "Out, out, brief candle!" In this line, the word 'out' is repeated twice, but there is no indication of a repeating grammatical element. Though the effect of this repetition is to emphasize the word 'out' in terms of extinguishing the candle, which represents death, there is less of a poetic nature to the line than the repetition and parallelism of the 'tomorrow' phrase. Therefore, as literary devices, repetition emphasizes a word or phrase and can certainly reinforce its meaning; however, parallelism often adds even deeper meaning through the repetition of grammatical structure. Preminger and Brogan (1993: 877) state that parallelism is "the repetition of identical or similar syntactic patterns in adjacent phrases, clauses or sentences." The patterns of parallelism are usually doubled but may be repeated more times. It arises from the definition that parallelism is distinguished by the repeated syntactic forms that are in equivalence. The following example indicates its use (e.g., It starts with changing our hearts, and changing our minds, broadening our spirit. Scholars deal with parallelism more closely and suggest three subcategories. One is syntactic parallelism and the two others are lexical and phonological parallelism. Syntactic parallelism is often accompanied by lexical parallelism and involves a pair of parallel words, one in each section of the text. The words may have a similar form or number of syllables. The sentences may look the same but some elements may be changed or different word categories may be used. The words 'changing' and 'broadening' in the example represent lexical parallelism. Moreover, similar structures seem to be complex and aesthetical. This means that parallelism used in rhetoric seems convincing and makes the speech look good.

NSOU ? PGEL-9A 173 Osborn (1988:189) argues that parallel structures help it focus on the main points and serve many advantages, such as providing an outcome which is clearly noticeable due to the slight variation, emphasizing the main points, or developing contrast. These structures are easily remembered. We can see the importance of manipulating and calling the audience's attention to the speaker's utterance. Barrack Obama, the president of the USA, in his speech, has used the rhetorical and stylistic techniques of parallelism and repetition. To conclude we can say that parallelism is a specific type of repetition. 10.13 Summing Up To sum up, we can say that speech and language are central to meaningful discourses. The relationship between language and parallelism is a very significant one. Parallelism is considered both as a stylistic and rhetorical device and used in speech and text to persuade the audience and readers. The term parallelism is used to refer to a unique linguistic phenomenon that explains the relationship which may be understood between units of linguistic structures. We use different types of parallelism, such as lexical, syntactic, semantic, synthetic, binary, and ternary. The analysis of parallelism depends on three levels of analysis: phonological, semantic, and syntactic. Without the use of parallelism, our speech will be awkward and confusing. Parallelism plays an important role in persuading, convincing, and carrying the audience along. It is a great way to make a connection between ideas and claims and to advance an argument. In Introduction (Section 10.1), the basic definition of parallelism is explained; in Section 10.2, the importance of parallelism is investigated in stylistics and literary studies; in Section 10.3, some very common examples of parallelism are cited along with some examples taken from some literary texts; in Section 10.4, the primary types of parallelism are explained with examples and the discussion includes six major types (i.e., phonological parallelism, lexical parallelism, phrasal parallelism, clausal parallelism, syntactic parallelism, and binary and ternary parallelism); in Section 10.5, eight major linguistic structure of parallelism are explained with examples; in Section 10.6, some discussions on how parallelism structures can be applied in writing are presented (creating a sense of rhythm and creating a sense of relationship); in Section 10.7, effort is made to understand parallelism as a rhetorical device in literary text creation mechanism; in Section 10.8, the basic definition of repetition is presented for understanding the concept; in Section 10.9 the

NSOU ? PGEL-9A 174 differences between repetition and non-repetition is explained with examples; in Section 10.10, different types of repetition are explained with examples collected from different literary texts; and finally in Section 10.11, a line of difference is drawn between parallelism and repetition. 10.14 Review Questions Review Questions for thought, understanding and self-assessment. Answer in not more than 500 words. [1] What is parallelism? Can you provide a definition with some examples? [2] What is discourse? How does parallelism relate to discourse? [3] How can parallelism be a syntactic pattern regardless of the semantic content? [4] What are the major linguistic structures of parallelism? [5] How can you use parallel structures in writing? [6] What is phonological parallelism? What are its major types? [7] What is lexical parallelism? Explain it with examples [8] What is phrasal parallelism? Explain with examples [9] What is syntactic parallelism? Give some examples [10] Can you draw a difference between parallelism and repetition? Look for answers to the above questions in the units mentioned below: Q1) Unit 10.1, 10.2, 10.3. Q2) Unit 10.4, 10.5. Q3) Unit 10.2, 10.4.5 Q4) Unit 10.5 Q5) Unit 10.6 Q6) Unit 10.4.1 Q7) Unit 10.4.2 Q8) Unit 10.4.3 Q9) Unit 10.4.5 Q10) Unit 10.11
NSOU ? PGEL-9A 175 10.15 Glossary of terms Anaphora: Anaphora

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is the repetition of the same word or words at the beginning of successive phrases, clauses, or sentences

commonly in conjunction with climax and with parallelism. For example: To think on death it is a misery, / To think on life it is a vanity; / To think on the world verily it is. / To think that here man hath no perfect bliss. Another example: In books I find the dead as if they were alive; in books I foresee things to come; in books warlike affairs are set forth; from books come forth the laws of peace (Richard de Bury). Antithesis: Antithesis is used in writing or speech either as a proposition that contrasts with or reverses some previously mentioned proposition, or when two opposites are introduced together for contrasting effect. This is based on the logical phrase or term. Antithesis can be defined as "a figure of speech involving a seeming contradiction of ideas, words, clauses, or sentences within a balanced grammatical structure. Parallelism of expression serves to emphasize opposition of ideas". e.g., For many are called, but few are chosen. An antithesis must always contain two ideas within one statement. The ideas may not be structurally opposite, but they serve to be functionally opposite when comparing two ideas for emphasis. Asyndeton: Asyndeton is a literary scheme in which one or several conjunctions are deliberately omitted from a series of related clauses. Examples include veni, vidi, vici and its English translation "I came, I saw, I conquered". Its use can have the effect of speeding up the rhythm of a passage and making a single idea more memorable.

and occasionally as antistrophe. It is a figure of speech and the counterpart of anaphora. e.g., "What lies behind us and what lies before us are tiny compared to what lies within us."(Emerson). Isomorphism: In sociology, an isomorphism is a similarity of the processes or structure of one organization to those of another, be it the result of imitation or independent development under similar constraints. There are three main types of institutional isomorphism: normative, coercive, and mimetic.

NSOU ? PGEL-9A 176 Semantic Field: A semantic field is a set of words with various kinds of relation to one another, including similarity of meaning (synonymy), part-to-whole relations (a hyponym) is a part relative to a whole) and opposition of meaning (antonymy). Soliloquy: Soliloquy is a monologue addressed to oneself, thoughts spoken out loud without addressing another. Soliloquies are used as a device in drama to let a character make their thoughts known to the audience, address them directly or take it into their confidence. Soliloquy is used in drama, and it is a speech spoken by a character to reveal his or her inner thoughts. Examples of Soliloquy: From Romeo and Juliet-Juliet speak her thoughts aloud when she learns that Romeo is the son of her family's enemy: O Romeo, Romeo! Tautology: In literary criticism and rhetoric, a tautology is a statement that repeats an idea, using near-synonymous morphemes, words, or phrases, effectively "saying the same thing twice." Tautology and pleonasm are not consistently differentiated in literature. Like pleonasm, tautology is often considered a fault of style when unintentional. Intentional repetition may emphasize a thought or help the listener or reader understand a point. Sometimes logical tautologies like "Boys will be boys" are conflated with language tautologies, but a language tautology is not inherently true, while a logical tautology always is. e.g., Only time will tell if we stand the test of time, or After we change the game it won't remain the same. 10.16 Books Recommended [1]

Politics. London: Routledge. [3] Bradley, M.M. and Peter, J.L. (1999). "Affective norms for English words: Instruction manual and affective ratings." Technical Report C-1. The Center for Research in Psychophysiology, University of Florida. [4] Chilton, P. and Ilyin, M. (1993). "Metaphor in political discourse: The case of the common European house". Discourse and Society. 4(1): 7-31. [5] Fowler, H.W. (1983). (ed.). Modern English Usage (2nd ed.). Oxford: Oxford University Press. NSOU ? PGEL-9A 177 [6] Jakobson, R. (1968). "Poetry of grammar and grammar of poetry". Lingua, 21: 597-609. [7] Lakoff, G. (1980). Metaphors We Live By. Chicago: University of Chicago Press. [8] Lucas, S.E. (2008). The Art of Public Speaking. New York: McGraw-Hill Higher Education. [9] Mcguigan, B. (2008). Rhetorical Devices: A Handbook and Activities for Student Writers. Prestwick House Inc. [10] Osborn, M. (1988). Public Speaking. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company. [11] Preminger, A. & Brogan, T.V. (1993). The New Princeton Encyclopaedia of Poetry and Poetics. Princeton: Princeton University Press. [12] Van Dijk, T.A. (1994). "Discourse analysis and social analysis". Discourse and Society. 5: 163-44. [13] van Dijk, T.A. (ed.) (1997). Discourse Studies: A Multidisciplinary Introduction (Vol. 1 & 2). London: sage. [14] Verderber, R.F., Verderber, K.S., and Sellnow, D.D. (2007). The Challenge of Effective Speaking. Belmont: Thomson Wadsworth. [15] Vickers, B. (2002). In Defence of Rhetoric. Oxford: Clarendon Press. [16] Wilson, J. (1990). Politically Speaking. London: Basil Blackwell. [17] Short Mick. (2007). Style in fiction, 2nd edition. London: Longman.

NSOU ? PGEL-9A 178 Unit 11 ?Mimetic representations (onomatopoeia, pantomime) Structure 11.1 Objectives 11.2 Introduction 11.3 Onomatopoeia 11.4 Linguistic Study of Onomatopoeia 11.5 Types of Onomatopoeia 11.5.1 Animal Sounds 11.5.2 Human Sounds 11.5.3 Sound Effects of Objects 11.6 Varieties of Onomatopoeia 11.7 Objections against Onomatopoeia 11.8 Importance of Onomatopoeia 11.9 Pantomime 11.10 Early Period of Pantomime 11.11 Ancient Pantomime and Its Reception 11.12 Pantomime's Mediaeval Origin 11.13 Victorian Innovations 11.14 Major Parts of Pantomime 11.14.1 Pantomime Stories 11.14.2 Principal Boys and Pantomime Dames 11.14.3 Music Hall Stars 11.14.4 Animal Impersonators 11.14.5 Spectacle and Illusion 11.14.6 Plots 11.14.7 Transformation Scenes

11.15 Summing Up 11.16 Review Questions 11.17 Glossary of Terms 11.18 Books Recommended 11.1 Objectives The Objectives of the unit are: • Raising awareness of the wide range of sound patterns in the English Language, • Raising awareness of theatrical techniques used in plays and tracing its development over the ages. 11.2 Introduction The term onomatopoeia in Greek means "creating or making names", which means imitating sound using written text. For example, when we read the word splash, we can associate it with the sound of something that is falling into the water. Other examples of onomatopoeia would be words like swoosh, roar, mumble, slam, etc. By imitating the sounds that we come across in our daily life, onomatopoeia enhances the feeling or the sense associated with that particular word. While they do not mean anything more than the sound they make, they seem to have a significant effect on the way words are written, read, and understood. As its Greek root suggests, onomatopoeia is the making of a name or a word from a natural sound. Onomatopoeias are thus imitative words of these natural sounds. They are found in all languages of the world, and some linguists, in fact, believe they were the first words humans spoke when language was developed. Since direct imitation allows the hearer to understand the meaning most easily, it is the most obvious way to describe actions (e.g. punch, boom) and animals (e.g. cock, dodo), which constitute the most parts of the conversation between primordial humans. Therefore, the hypothesis is, indeed, reasonable. These primitive sounds have evolved over time and their remnants have become today's onomatopoeias in most of the natural languages.

Onomatopoeia, the imitative making of words from natural sounds, is a common phenomenon found in all languages of the world. The study of onomatopoeias is, however, inadequate considering its importance in the development of language. Onomatopoeia is a word which mimics the sound it represents. Unlike most words whose connection to the meanings they represent is abstract onomatopoeias have a direct connection to the words they represent. Onomatopoeias are used in poetry, comic books, advertising, and even in everyday speech. It is necessary to understand the various uses of these special words in a language and how their usages can create an extra shade of information and impact based on which a piece of a literary text can be interpreted to extract new ideas and information. Since onomatopoeias aim at imitating sounds produced by people, animals, nature, machines, and tools, they become an area of empirical investigation both for language users and learners. The last three categories are particularly challenging for imitation, as sounds are not produced by another vocal system and therefore imply strong imitative efforts. 11.3 Onomatopoeia Onomatopoeia indicates a process of word formation based on the imitation of natural sounds. For example, whisper, bang, or hiss in English and 'pera-pera', 'siku-siku', or 'geragera' in modern Japanese. The word is based on either the nature of the sound itself, as crash, or the name of the source of the sound, as cuckoo. The interpretation of sound changes as language changes. In particular, a large number of onomatopoeia words are found in many modern languages as function words. In the context of philosophical discussion in ancient Greece, onomatopoeic words were cited as an argument for the 'naturalness' of language or the appropriateness of words to their meaning. The hypothesis which argues that language is originated through the imitation of natural sounds is known as the 'bow-wow theory'. The question of onomatopoeia causes a lot of discord in the field of linguistics precisely because, on the one hand, this concept seems fairly simple, yet on the other hand, it is barely possible to describe in detail so that one can have a better understanding of this particular natural linguistic phenomenon. The best way to approach any subject of study is to start from the basics. In the Etymological Dictionary of Modern English, it is said that the term 'onomatopoeia' comes from the Greek words 'onoma' meaning "name" and 'poiein' meaning "I make", they make it a compound noun with the meaning of "the making

181 of a name", or "the name-making". Thus, the essential concept comes down to the formation of a word with a resemblance in sound to the thing signified. When we consider onomatopoeia in greater depth, we are faced with a more complex situation. While everyone agrees that onomatopoeia is the name of a relationship between the sound of a word and something else, there are divergent views both on the second term of the relationship and on the nature of the relation itself. The second term of the relation is variously referred to as sounds, sense, referent, and what is denoted. The relation that obtains between the two terms generates an extensive and heterogeneous collection of names: imitates, echoes, reflects, resembles, corresponds to, sounds like, expresses, reinforces, and has a natural or direct relation with (Bredin 1996). In order to proceed with the study, we have to opt for one of the nuances that fit with our perception of onomatopoeia the best. For this purpose, we choose to address this particular phenom- enon as a 'direct expression of sound, action or status'. 11.4 Linguistic Study of Onomatopoeia In the realm of linguistic study, it is commonly accepted that the sound for the word of a particular meaning is arbitrary; therefore, there is generally no connection between sound and meaning. This, however, is not absolutely correct, as we have a chance for neglecting the existence of a class of words, namely the onomatopoeias, which do appear in the everyday use of a natural language quite often. These are sound symbolism - that is, words whose pronunciations mimic the sounds generated in the external physical world and suggest meaning (e.g., meow for cat's voice) (Fromkin, Rodman and Hyams, 2002: 7 & 589). Despite the importance of onomatopoeias in the world's languages, the linguistic study of them is pitifully inadequate. Many linguistics regarded onomatopoeias as "second class citizens among words, since they are often polysemous, while at the same time, paradoxi- cally, applicable to only a narrow semantic range" (Falk 1973: 60). Of course, onomato- poeia is a modified type of coining in which a word is formed as an imitation of some natural sound. As on borrowing and the various means of making new words based on old ones, onomatopoeia involves a model that serves as the basis for the new words, but the onomatopoeic model is extralinguistic - it lives outside of the territory of language itself. NSOU ? PGEL-9A 182 Words like buzz, coo-coo, garr-garr, as well as those that represent animal noises, like moo, hisss are originally attempting to imitate natural sounds (Falk 1973: 63). Onomatopoeia is a general expression used in ordinary spoken and written language. Some kinds of onomatopoeic words imitate sounds, such as the sound of a clock: 'tick-tock'. Others mimic states or emotions, such as 'zig-zag'. The use of onomatopoeia varies with language and written works. For example, some Asian languages, especially Bengali, Tamil, Japanese and Korean, have a large number of onomatopoeia words, and these onomatopoeic words not only represent external objects and sounds but also states, movements, feelings, and emotions of human beings, and allow their expression in a lively manner. Some are rather skeptical about a view that seems to assume that a language is only a set of words which are used as names for entities (Yule 1996: 3).

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Onomatopoeia is a phonological device of stylistics in which the sounds suggest the meaning of words or expressions because the words are formed by imitating the actual or natural

sound that are associated with the things concerned. It is used

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to reflect sense in the sound of words which have similar sounds to the one described. This device is used by the author to foreground meaning and also for stylistic effects,

even though we agree with the argument

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that this power of suggesting natural sounds or other qualities is relatively weak—too weak to operate unsupported by meaning—and because of its range, is only latent (

Leech 1969). Onomatopoeia is typically described as involving the use of words which imitate sounds. The study of onomatopoeia is often approached through theories of sound symbolism. However, while such approaches provide rich descriptions of onomatopoeia, they have generally paid little attention to the role of onomatopoeia in communication. We need to focus on onomatopoeia as a phenomenon of communication considering what the use of onomatopoeia communicates and how it is being communicated. That means, onomatopoeia falls on the showing-saying continuum (Wharton, 2009) and involves elements of both showing and saying, contributing to relevance by providing direct evidence for some of the meaning it communicates. It is argued that onomatopoeia involves the exploitation of resemblances and that the non-arbitrary relationship between sound and meaning is a result of the communicator's attempts to recreate his sensory experience using sounds which provide a faithful enough representation of his experience. What is commu- nicated by the use of onomatopoeia is both vague and context-dependent: it amounts to what relevance theorists call an impression rather than a determinate meaning. Several

NSOU ? PGEL-9A 183 studies also extend to multimodal and cross-modal communicative behaviours and to pave ways for further investigation of the interface underlying verbal and non-verbal communi- cation. Onomatopoeia refers to words whose pronunciations imitate the sounds they describe. A dog's bark sounds like 'woof', so 'woof' is an example of onomatopoeia. Onomato- poeia can be used to describe the gears of machines working, the horn of a car honking, animals croaking or barking, or any number of other sounds. Onomatopoeia is a figure of speech and is especially useful for rhetorical effect. A good example of the onomatopoeic words is in the comic books and children rhymes which where lettering of these onomatopoeic words enhance the beauty of comic books and nursery rhymes effectively. 11.5 Types of Onomatopoeia For the characterization of onomatopoeia, there is no general consent about its classification. Most commonly, it is suggested that there are several subgroups of onomatopoeia according to their origin and use. In other words, onomatopoeias represent sounds of natural objects, animal sounds, movement of objects, sounds related to human bodily functions, physical reactions, mental conditions, emotional statuses, and many others. Let us refer to and examine some sounds that are related to animals, human beings, and objects. 11.5.1 Animal sounds Bee: On the other hand, the sound of a flying bee or mosquito is practically the same in many languages: 'bzzz' (French), 'buzz' (English). Cat: French 'miaou' and 'mrkgnao' and English meow stand for the sound a domestic cat makes. If we pay more careful attention, we may notice that cats 'meow' only in interaction with humans, while amongst other cats they never meow or purr. To a certain extent, this proves that they have as well developed a means of communi- cation of their own. A sound of a satisfied cat that is growling is expressed with 'ronron' and 'rrr' in French and 'purr' in English. Chicken and rooster: A sound of a chuckling chicken is expressed with 'cloc cloc' (cloucque) in French and 'cluck cluck' in English. A hen that has just laid her eggs

NSOU ? PGEL-9A 184 or is sensing danger will call 'cot-cot cot-cot-codec' in French and 'kuh-kuh-kuh- kuh-kack' in English. What is more interesting is that the onomatopoeia of a young chicken's cry in French is 'piou piou' while, in English, it is 'cheep'. On the other hand, a rooster's song is described with the word 'cocorico' in French and 'cock- a- doodle-doo' in English. Cricket: A cricket song is described with 'kic kic kic' in French and 'chirp' in English. Cuckoo: A very interesting example revolves around a specific kind of bird infamous for its habit of laying eggs in some other bird's nest. This bird is called a cuckoo, and its name stands for the particular sound it makes. The noun cuckoo in the English language has become a synonym for a foolish person but is as well used as a verb meaning 'to repeat continually', or, as an adjective denoting someone silly or crazy. According to Collins' Dictionary, the word draws its origin from the Middle English period when it was borrowed from the old French word 'coucou' (or cucu) which was echoic of the bird's cry. On the other hand, the French use the expression 'coucou' in everyday situations in order to say hello or merely to mark one's presence, as the example "Coucou! Nous voilà" shows. The bird says cuckoo in English and 'coucou' in French. Dog: Dogs bark 'ouaf ouaf' and 'voua voua' in France but 'woof woof' and 'bow wow' in England and USA. The sniffing dog sounds the same in both languages: 'sniff' or 'snif snif'. Frog: When it comes to the onomatopoeic sound a frog makes, we are faced with two fairly distinct examples in English – 'croak', and 'ribbit'. The reason for this kind of situation is relatively simple, that is, two species of frogs make different sounds; the one that croaks is more common, while the other one is found only in North America. In other words, the French equivalent of the English croak is 'croa croa', but there is no equivalent for' ribbit'. Goat and sheep: For denoting the bleat of a goat, sheep, or calf French use the expression 'bé bee', while the same is expressed in English by 'baa baa'. Interestingly enough, the English variation can be used both as a noun and as a verb. Owl: The particular sound of an owl is 'hou hou hou hou' in French, and 'twit twoo', 'terwit terwoo', and 'hoo-hoo' in English. In French, this onomatopoeic sound is also used as an expression of disapproval.

11.5.2 Human sounds Exclamations and interjections: 'Ahis' used in both English and French, meaning very much the same: joy, surprise, impatience, etc. 'Aie', on the other hand, is a purely French expression for the feelings of sudden pain, with variations such as 'oi', 'yaya', 'yai'. The English express the same with an 'ouch!' Disapproval or derision: It is usually shown with 'boo' in English and 'bouah' in French. Shushing: We can say 'chut' in French and 'shh' in English. Confusion: To express confusion, surprise, or disbelief, it is nasal 'hein?' in French and 'huh?' in English. Silence: To silently catch someone's attention, the English people use the interjection 'psst', whereas the French people opt for one of the following: 'hem' or 'kss kss'. Tiredness: When tired, people will usually pronounce something like 'puff' or 'huff' in English and 'ouf' in French. Speech sounds: When a person is speaking in a continuous meaningless chatter, it is described with 'blah-blah-blah' in English and 'patati patata' in French. Though fairly different expressions, the message is easily transmitted in both examples. Audacity: The indistinct manner of talking has the expression 'murmur' in English and 'murmure' in French. What is interesting to note here is that both have the expression in the form of a noun and verb. The French verbs 'babiller, grogner, murmuler', and 'grommeler', represent a mutter, indistinct chatter, or rumbling sounds. In English, the following verbs can be as well listed in the category of nouns: to mutter, to prattle, to chatter, and to babble. 11.5.3 Sound effects of objects Camera shot: 'click' in English and 'clic' in French. Car engine: 'vroom vroom, broom broom' in English and 'vroum vroum' in French. Only a slight difference in spelling is visible. Car horn: The sound of a car horn honking is 'honk honk' in English as opposed to 'tut- tut' in French. Old clock: An old-fashioned clock goes 'tick tock' in English and 'tic tac' in French. Old phone: An old-fashioned phone makes one of the following noises: 'ring ring, ringaling' in English and 'dring dring' in French.

Siren: The wailing of a siren, described with words 'nee naw, wee woo' in English, and 'pin pon' in French. Train: The machinery sounds of a train are 'woo woo' in English and 'chou chou' in French. Water dripping: 'plic ploc' in French and drip drop in English. It is noticeable from the English version that not only did the word for a small portion of water come directly from its onomatopoeic sound but the verb 'to drip' did as well. Wind blow: The expressions for the blowing of wind are numerous. The following are some of the best-known examples present in the English language: 'whoo', 'whine', 'whoosh', 'whizz', 'whistle', 'wheeze', 'how', 'l swish', 'rustle', 'zoom', 'sigh', and 'sough'. As we can see, the large majority of these words contain the letter 'w'. This example allows us to understand the importance of each sound of the word when we speak of onomatopoeia. Another thing is that the interconnection between the sounds of nature and the sounds of letters is evident. If we only form the letter 'w' with our mouth and start breathing deeply, we will hear the wind blowing from our lungs just as we have heard it outside in nature, which will make us feel powerful as well. The French language, on the other hand, has only a few words for wind- blowing: 'frou-frou', 'vromb', and 'hurl'. 11.6 Varieties of Onomatopoeia Onomatopoeia can make sentences powerful. It is important to understand where they can be used appropriately. Although onomatopoetic words are self-descriptive, they are not necessarily centered around adjectives. We can use them to enable readers to see or hear instead of just reading. The following example shows how onomatopoeia can make a huge difference in the way we read and understand a sentence. Example (with onomatopoeia): We sat huddled by the crackling fire as the rain splattered, and the thunder rumbled. Example (without onomatopoeia): We sat by the fire as it rained heavily, and the thunder continued. The above example shows how onomatopoeia brings a sentence to life. The first sentence describes the fire, rain, and thunder by bringing their intensities to light. However,

the second sentence fails in that area because it doesn't tell us enough about each of these things. Onomatopoeia can be used as nouns, verbs, and adjectives. We can either use them as interjections or add them to the overall flow of our sentences. Here are a few examples of onomatopoetic words that can be used in different forms. As an adjective Example 1: The evening was beautiful, with dazzling lights and rhythmic songs. Example 2: The shepherd guided his bleating sheep toward the cottage. As a noun Example 1: The child jumped into the pool with a splash. Example 2: The room was filled with the nostalgic chatter of the good old school days. As a verb Example 1: I gasped when I saw him covered in dirt. Example 2: The engine finally roared to life after several exhausting efforts. When we use these words, readers can easily understand the type of environment that has been associated with the onomatopoetic words and the overall sentence. Onomatopoeia can be understood in a number of different ways. In its narrowest and most literal sense, it

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refers to the purely mimetic power of language—its ability to imitate other (mostly non-linguistic)

sounds. In the opening lines of Spenser's Prothalamion, the italicized sibilants represent, in this literal way, the sound of the wind: e.g. Calm was the day, and through the trembling air, Sweet-breathing Zephyrus did softly play. Like /s/ and /z/, the sighing of the wind is a fricative sound, produced by the passage of air through gaps or past obstructions; there is consequently a resemblance on a fundamental physical level. An example of a similar kind is Keats's line: "Thou watches in the last oozings hours by hours" where the consonances of /st/ and /z/ are perhaps felt to mimic the sound of apples being squeezed in the cider-press - a kind of prolonged squishiness. But on a wider and rather more abstract interpretation, the phonological patterns of these two examples can be taken to represent not just the sound of what they describe,

NSOU ? PGEL-9A 188 but the activity as a whole. The connection is made not via the ear alone, but through the little-understood pathways of empathy and synaesthesia. Spenser's sibilants depict the wind by providing a phonetic correlate of its continuing, fluctuating motion: something we can feel and see (for example, in the fluttering of leaves on a tree), as well as hear. Similarly, Keats's line dwells not just on the sound of squashing, but on the general idea of squashing—the slow application of pressure to pulpy, crushable matter. The tactile element of this is perhaps more important than its auditory element. A very different effect, for which a similar explanation may be offered, is the pervading 'brittleness' of sound, discussed in Dylan Thohias's "This Bread I Break". The sudden cut- off effect of the post-vocalic plosives echoes the theme of 'breaking' which runs through the poem, and which is manifest in the four-times repeated item break/broke itself, and in the final word snap. Although this relationship might be put on a purely mimetic level, as an imitation of the actual sound made when a hard object is broken, in fact, the more abstract property of abruptness, which might be perceived in terms of any of the five senses, is most relevant to the analogy. In cases like these, we may say that the sound 'enacts the sense', rather than merely echoes it. On a third, even on a more abstract and mysterious plane of suggestion,

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onomatopoeic effects are attributable to the general 'colour' of sounds on such dimensionsas' hardness'/ 'softness', 'thinness'/ 'sonority'.

Although the judgment of whether a sound is 'hard' or 'soft', etc. is ultimately subjective, it seems that there is enough general agreement on such associations to form the basis of a general system or 'language' of sound symbolism. Moreover, this language is apparently common to different works of literature. The association between the consonant /I/ and the impression of 'softness', for instance, has been traced in the poetry of several languages by Ullmann, who cites the following lines by Keats as an English example: e.g., Wild thyme and valley-lilies whiter still Than Leda's love, and cresses from the rill. It is, in fact, possible to

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list classes of English consonants impressionistically on a scale of increasing hardness: (

a) liquids and nasals : /l/, /r/, /n/, /ij/ (as in 'thing'). (b) fricatives and aspirates : /v/, /3/ (as in 'there'), /f/, /s/, etc. (c) affricates : /tf/ (as in 'church'), /d'/ (as in 'judge').

The theme of 'sound enacting sense' can be extended to other fields apart from phonemic repetition. It is well known, for instance, that metre can be used mimetically, to suggest sluggish movement, galloping, etc. In his book "Articulate Energy" Donald Davie also makes us aware of various ways in which the syntax of a poem may enact, dramatize, or otherwise symbolically represent its content. The imitative function of language is not restricted to phonology, therefore, but belongs to the apparatus of expression as a whole. Poems may even be visually emblematic of their content, as is George Herbert's "Easter Wings", each stanza of which in print actually has the shape of a pair of wings.

11.7 Objections against Onomatopoeia Earl Anderson (1998) has listed four objections to onomatopoeia on linguistic grounds proposed by some linguists. The objections are as follows: [1] Onomatopoeias are conventional signs, not imitative echoes. [2] Even if onomatopoeias are imitative, they are not non-arbitrary. [3] Onomatopoeias exist on the margin of language, not as part of langue. [4] Onomatopoeias do not accurately imitative natural sounds. In response to these objections, Anderson pointed out that the capacity of a human being to mimic sounds is limited by the constraints of phonological systems and the structure of the human vocal tract. Therefore, an exact imitation of natural sounds by a human is not possible, and hence objection 4 is true but nevertheless cannot be used to prove that onomatopoeias are merely conventional. Moreover, since onomatopoeias are constrained by the phonological systems of different languages, they can only be a partial imitation of natural sounds. However, it does not naturally follow that onomatopoeias are conventional and arbitrary. As a matter of fact, onomatopoeia is a kind of iconicity, and it only requires a partial resemblance of the referent (Anderson 1998: 129). Max Müller (1891) regarded onomatopoeias as merely 'playthings', and not as a part of the language system. He argued that they are rootless, which means they have no etymology, and unproductive, which means they cannot generate new words. This, however, is contrary to the fact. It is possible to compile a dictionary of onomatopoeia, define the form and sense of onomatopoeias, and distinguish between physical and emotional onomatopoeias. Although scholars argue that the basic logic of the classification of onomatopoeia lies in their melodic similarities (Nowrouzi 1994: 93), there is, in fact, a natural relationship between the pronunciation of some words and what they refer to (Saghravanian, 1990: 151). Since natural things are better than artificial ones because they are more familiar to human beings, there is hardly any distance between what is said and its meaning in natural sounds (Shervanloo 1975: 338). For example, there is an indirect relation between the word laugh and its meaning, but the word 'ha-ha' is the act and voice of laughing. Onomatopoeia has a special function and importance in poetic texts. For most poetic texts, onomatopoeia is a basic source of appropriate sounds and poets use this phenom- enon in the texts in various ways to serve different purposes. In a metaphorical sense, onomatopoeia is one of those literary special effects that make long car trips, train trips, and airplane trips much more enjoyable (Thomas and Hill 2012). There are lots of different examples of onomatopoeias in texts of newspapers' comic section, old comic books, children's storybooks, and fairy tales. intimate studies of these texts may show how the phonemes from our surrounding contexts become excellent building blocks of onomatopoeic words which are used in these texts and how the lettering of these onomatopoeic words enhances the beauty of these texts (Sangoi 2012). Analysis of examples can show the effect and impact of onomatopoeias in transmitting the meaning of the original expressions (Hiroko 2006).

11.8 Importance of Onomatopoeia Appearing for the first time most likely as the simplest form of communication, it can be concluded that onomatopoeia has been around for thousands of years. Tearing its origin from primitive times, onomatopoeia was the very tool that allowed a basic message communication between humans. In other words, onomatopoeia most certainly played a significant part in the survival and successful development of our species. Today, it can be considered a very important component of both first and second language acquisition. On the web page of Yale University, a very interesting example of the means of incorporating onomatopoeia into children's language learning has been presented in the following way: "Since onomatopoeia is a form of poetry with sound words as its focus, children will have very little difficulty in creating a word that imitates the sound it represents. This perception of sound can be demonstrated through the

instruction of simple songs. Old favorites such as 'Old MacDonald Had A Farm' and 'The Wheels On The Bus' are songs among a few others that young children love to sing. Their perceptions of these songs are realistic enough for them to understand. The rhythms of these songs have a repetitive pattern that young children can follow and retain long after the song is over. The power of music and reading sound poetry is a lesson taught that many 'youngsters' have yet to realize. Singing simple songs and visually displaying what sound words look like, incorporates and gradually produces a level of reading, writing, and speaking that children can successfully master". What is intended to be emphasized in the text above is that onomatopoeia can be a perfect instrument for the most natural way of language acquisition for children—be it their first or second language. Out of this premise, we can deduce that this kind of introduction to a foreign language can be of much use for teenagers and adults as well. Learning to experience the sounds of another language through the eyes of the native speakers, must have a large positive impact on the process of understanding the reality of the language in focus. It is because onomatopoeia is more than a word (it can as well be an expression of feeling through a sigh, cry or shout), that its examination is of major importance in the understanding of the development of communication. Onomatopoeias are a valuable way to describe a sound, creating the actual sound in the reader's mind. This creates a vivid reading experience. For example, "The wind howled, hissed, and whooshed" is more expressive than "The wind blew". Onomatopoeia can provide a poem or a prose passage with sound imagery and rhythm which express the mood of the work. Furthermore, it makes descriptions more powerful and gives a sense of reality when readers can hear sounds while reading words. An onomatopoeia creates a sound that is recognizable as the thing it mimics. This allows the writer to be more expressive, especially when it comes to exciting, dramatic moments in a piece of writing. The use of onomatopoeia also makes writing more interesting. Some onomatopoeic words have developed their own definitions, 'whisper' is a perfect example. Onomatopoeia is a word that sounds like what it is describing. When we come across an onomatopoetic word, we can hear the sound of the word that is described. If we are a fan of comic books, we know that they are full of onomatopoeia. The panels in comic books are full of bubbles that include words like 'zap', 'bang', 'crash',

and 'pow'. In other forms of texts, onomatopoeia can even act as sentences or interjections that standalone. Example 1: I was walking down the lane when—bam! —a gigantic cat leaped over my shoulder from nowhere. Example 2: Swoosh! The ball flew by me like an invisible flash of light. Onomatopoeia is a way of increasing the poignancy of imagery in a poem, short story, or novel. These words help readers hear the sounds of words they represent. This should also mean that the reader is taken deeper into the story and is more willing to suspend their disbelief. While some onomatopoeic words are more easily spotted than others, they all have an effect. These words also help to create emphasize and remind a reader that this word and that which it describes is important. The author's intentions are more easily conveyed this way. We may end this discussion on onomatopoeia with a warning: it is easy to yield to the vague suggestiveness of sounds and to write enthusiastically, if loosely, about 'joyful peals of labials and liquids', 'the splendid gloom of repeated /u/s', 'the pastoral charm of the /a/s and /o/s', etc. Such remarks, whatever their value in recording the subjective impressions of the writer, must not be confused with well-based appeals to linguistic evidence. All too often imaginative reactions to the meanings of words are projected onto the sounds of which they are composed. We must be careful, therefore, to distinguish between the generally agreed symbolic range of a sound and its associative value as apprehended by a particular reader in a particular linguistic context. Onomatopoeias are useful and auditory-stimulating words. Their power to evoke meaning lies in their mimicry of the sounds which they represent. Because the text has the limitation of conveying sensory details through the filter of imagination, writers must use onomatopoeia from time to time in order to convey more exact meaning. Furthermore, having a separate word to designate a sound makes it much easier to communicate sound. Just as we have words for how things look, smell, feel, and taste, we also have words for sounds. However, every word that describes a sound is not an onomatopoeia. Culture plays a major role in the formation of such expressive words. Despite the slight differences between realizations of onomatopoeia in languages, the concept is, by all means, universal and most certainly of great importance for the understanding of commu- nication. Although the expressions of onomatopoeia are not universally the same, it is its

concept that is universal. The importance of onomatopoeic sounds lies in their variety and the colorfulness they add to every piece of writing they are used in. 11.9 Pantomime Pantomime is a term taken from the Greek and it means "An imitator of things". Originally it meant a performer, not a theatrical style. The performer would mime, often accompanied by music. In Great Britain, pantomime can only mean one thing—a festive entertainment, mostly late Victorian in origin where women often used to play the heroic male role, and men used to play the 'Dame' role, a comedian in skirts. The origin of pantomime goes back to ancient Rome; in theatrical performances often bawdy and rowdy that were banished by the onset of Christianity. The word pantomime means something different to residents of the United States—to them, it means a 'mime', a performer who needs no words to express himself. America takes the literal and original meaning of the word. The British know it affectionately as 'panto', a mixture of a fairy story, spectacle, song, and dance with much emphasis on audience participation. The Britishers owe this to their 'music hall' roots. While America had Vaudeville and burlesque, the British had Music Hall that eventually became a 'Variety'. Pantomime in the British Isles is an ever-changing art form—throughout its long existence, it has taken the best bits from various styles and theatrical fashions and always bows to the current and popular taste, whilst still maintaining its 'traditional' core and format. After the Roman times, 'pantomime' in its early form reappeared in 15th Century Italy with the popular theatrical entertainment known as the 'Commedia dell' arte'. These performances featured characters, some of which still exist in part, certainly in the spirit in today's pantomimes. These characters were collected from different regions of Italy. 'Spaviento' was Neapolitan. He was a boaster, a braggart. 'Gingurto' and 'Coviello' were a double act—they were the simpletons. From Milan came the character of 'Beltrama', another simple man, joined by 'Gelsomino', a dandy. The success of the 'Commedia dell'arte' traveled to Paris, and from there a short hop over the channel into Britain. In every place the dialogue was improvised, but the characters and the 'Business', especially comic business remained standard. Characters came and went. Some changed names, others vanished. 'Harlequin' emerged as the strong 'lead' character, along with his love interest, 'Columbine', 'Panta-

loon' and for a while 'Pulchinello'. Of all these characters 'Pulchinello' has become the longest-living one, especially in British Seaside resorts. He changed his name to 'Mr. Punch' when he became not an actor, but a puppet, and teamed up with Judy, the hangman, the policeman, the crocodile, and of course, Judy's baby. After the last war, there were 300 Punch & Judy men on the beaches of Britain, now there are about eight. Today 'Punch Professors' can be seen at Broadstairs, Weymouth, Llandudno, Clacton, and Weymouth among other resorts. The decline in British seaside holidays has seen the decline of Pulchinello. 11.10 Early Period of Pantomime Pantomime means non-speaking dancers in the Roman theatre who performed dra- matic scenes, acting all the characters in a story in succession using only masks, body movements, and rhythmic gestures. The pantomime, whose name means "imitator of everything", was the central figure of entertainment that became fashionable in Rome during the reign of Augustus (63 BCE-14 CE) and remained popular throughout the history of the Roman Empire. The Roman pantomime differed from its equally popular sister form, mime, in two ways: (a) Its themes were usually loftier, avoiding the farce and coarse humour that were common in mime; and, (b) Unlike the mime actor, the pantomime wore various masks, which identified the characters but precluded the actor's use of facial expressions. Thus the art of the pantomime was primarily one of posture and gesture, in which hand movements were particularly expressive and important. The pantomime, dressed like a tragic actor in a cloak and long tunic, usually performed solo, accompanied by an orchestra consisting of various wind and percussion instruments. Meanwhile, a chorus sang or recited a narrative piece, the libretto of which was usually adapted from a well-known tragedy, although historical or mythological stories also were common. Both the music and the librettos of the pantomimes were generally considered to be of little artistic value. The talent and skill of the pantomimes were of supreme importance, and the greatest performers enjoyed the favour of wealthy patricians and even emperors, such as Nero and Domitian in the 1st century CE. The early Christians decried the sensual, sometimes lascivious gestures of the dancers, and St. Augustine himself denounced the pantomime as being more

morally dangerous than the Roman circus. Despite such opposition, the pantomime enjoyed enormous popularity and success throughout the Roman Empire, and many were able to amass considerable fortunes. 11.11 Ancient Pantomime and its Reception Ancient pantomime, one of the greatest attractions on the ancient stage from the end of the first century BC until the end of the sixth century AD, was a lavish and highly skilled performance in which gestures, bodily movements, words, songs, and music contributed to stirring the emotions of the audience. Worshipped and despised at the same time, pantomimic dancers ignited the imagination of their contemporaries and threatened the rigid system of established cultural and social roles. Ancient authors report that this theatrical medium was introduced in Rome during the reign of Augustus by Pylades of Cilicia and Bathyllus of Alexandria. Given the complex and sophisticated nature of ancient pantomime, it seems likely that the two alleged founders of the genre did not invent a completely new theatrical art form, but substantially transformed one already in existence. In its most traditional and widespread form, ancient pantomime consisted of solo mute dance performances based on a tragic libretto called 'fabula saltica' usually sung by a chorus or a soloist. The dancer neither spoke nor sang but interpreted by his dancing a story usually based on a mythological theme. The performance was accompanied by a large orchestra made of wind and stringed instruments and the rhythm was maintained by the scabellum, which was operated by one of the musicians, usually the flute player, and attached to the foot. Ancient authors report that a single performer danced all the roles in succession relying on gesture and hand language (cheironomy) to describe the story sung by the chorus. The pantomimic thematic repertoire featured adaptations from the works of the best epic authors, dramatists, and poets such as Virgil, whose story of Dido's tragic love was one of the most popular on the pantomimic stage. The typical pantomimic costume consisted of a long silk tunic purposefully designed to follow and emphasize the movements of the dancer's body. A short mantle (pallium) usually complemented the pantomimic outfit and could be used as an expressive and versatile prop to represent different objects according to the roles. The dancer wore also a mask with a closed mouth, elaborate hair, and large holes for the eyes as attested by archaeological findings. The large eye-holes suggest that the expression of the dancer's eyes needed to

be visible through the mask attesting to the eloquent role attached to the dancer's gaze in an otherwise mute performance. The main extant source on ancient pantomime is the dialogue On the Dance written in Greek by the Syrian rhetorician Lucian of Samosata around the middle of the second century AD. Libanius' oration On Behalf of the Dancers, written probably around 361 AD, is also valuable for our knowledge of this ancient theatrical genre. Additional information about ancient pantomime is found in the ancient writers at large and several inscriptions and epigrams contained in the Anthologia Palatina and Latina. The cultural and historical importance of ancient pantomime is not confined to the ancient world, since this theatrical medium had a pivotal role in the rise of ballet as an autonomous art form in the age of Enlightenment. Dance reforms developed in the 18th century took ancient Greco-Roman pantomime as the model to set against the contempo- rary practice of dance as an ornamental divertissement devoid of any meaning and emotional content and consisting of a sheer display of technical virtuosity. The revival of interest in this ancient genre started through the popularisation of Lucian's dialogue On the Dance, in works such as Claude Ménestrier's Des Ballets Anciens et Moderns (1682). It was most probably the English ballet-master John Weaver (1673-1760) who first attempted to revive ancient pantomime with his staging of The Love of Mars and Venus in 1717 at Drury Lane and Orpheus and Eurydice the following year. Later in the century, the two most important 18th-century dance reformists, Gasparo Angiolini (1731-1803) and Jean-Georges Noverre (1727-1810), repeatedly expressed in their writings the intentions to follow in the steps of ancient pantomime and their adoption of Lucian's auctoritas as the guiding principle in their productions. The new art form, the ballet d'action, thus found in Greco-Roman pantomime an ancient and authoritative antecedent, which granted intellectual and aesthetic propriety to the new dance form; even more importantly, ancient pantomime provided firm evidence that dance had once been an independent and dignified art able to narrate complex stories as well as express a wide range of human emotions. 11.12 Pantomime's Mediaeval Origin Pantomime has its roots in 'Commedia dell'Arte', a 16th-century Italian entertainment which used dance, music, tumbling, acrobatics and featured a cast of mischievous stock characters. Harlequin was the quick-witted miscreant who carried a magic bat, wore a

NSOU ? PGEL-9A 197 mask, and dressed in clothes made of patches. During the 17th century, Harlequin and his companions, including Scaramouche, Pantaloon, Pierrot, Punch, and love-interest Colum- bine were improvising comic stories, singing, dancing, and cavorting their way across Europe. By the early 18th century, Commedia characters began to appear on the London stage in early pantomimes which were based on classical stories, set to music but without speech. Harlequin was the star of 18th-century pantomime, which proved popular with paying audiences. In 1732, John Rich, the most notable early Harlequin who danced but never spoke, built Covent Garden Theatre with the profits of his magical pantomimes. Rich also developed the Harlequinade, a comic chase scene telling the story of the lovers Harlequin and Columbine, who are kept apart by the girl's father, Pantaloon, and his servant, Clown. Harlequinades were mimed with music and lots of slapstick and tomfoolery and dominated pantomime for around 100 years. The term 'slapstick', meaning a certain type of clownish physical comedy, came from Rich's Harlequinades—his harlequin used a wooden bat to change the stage scenery by knocking down a series of hinged flaps. At Drury Lane Theatre meanwhile, the actor-manager David Garrick astonished audiences with a speaking Harlequin and employed Rich's pupil Henry Woodward to pen

NSOU ? PGEL-9A 198 new stories for him, some incorporating old English folk stories like Dick Whittington, Robin Hood, and the Children of the Wood. As pantomime evolved, more domestic stories and topical satire began to replace classical tales. After Joseph Grimaldi's Clown was such a hit in Mother Goose at Covent Garden in 1806, Clown began to edge out Harlequin as the star of the show. More change was afoot in pantomime in the 1830s with the rise in the popularity of elaborate scenery and stage effects, and the fairy-tale extravaganzas of James Robinson Planché, starring Lucy Eliza Vestris, first staged at the Olympic Theatre in 1831. 11.13 Victorian Innovations Until 1843, theatre licensing had restricted the use of a spoken word in performances. The Theatres Act lifted the restriction, allowing any theatre without a royal patent to produce a play with purely spoken dialogue. Now, witty puns, wordplay, and audience participation were added to the repertoire of mime, daring chase scenes, and spectacular

NSOU ? PGEL-9A 199 transformations. Favourite fairy-tale characters, magical animals, principal boys, and pantomime dames all became part of the mix. Any subject was fair game, as pantomimes combined nonsense tales with social satire, commenting on current events and innovations such as the exciting but still dangerous railways. By the late 19th century the most extravagant productions at the largest London theatres could last up to five hours and featured clever stage tricks, stunning costumes, and huge casts. It became customary for pantomimes to open on Boxing Day, forever linking this entertainment with Christmas and family. Pantomime became popular on a smaller scale too with families and friends performing pantomimes in Toy Theatre versions, with cardboard characters and abbrevi- ated scripts.

NSOU ? PGEL-9A 200 At this time the Pantomime and Harlequinade were the 'desert' to the main course of the evening, part of a lengthy programme. Gradually the Fairy Story element of pantomime came to the fore, and the quality of the writing improved. Chiefly responsible was E.L. Blanchard, author of the Drury Lane Pantomimes from 1852-1888. It was during this period that major changes began to occur. These changes were to transform pantomime into the template of today's entertainment. Blanchard's pantomimes or 'annuals' as he called them set the tone for productions everywhere. He was described as 'an exponent of Fairy Mythology', and was born in 1820, the son of an actor. His first script was for 'Jack and the Beanstalk' in 1844 in what is now The Old Vic, London. His first Drury Lane pantomime was in 1852. He established a style of rhyming verse and wit—often topical. Although pantomimes today rarely have rhyming couplets throughout (with the odd exception) this tradition is carried on by the 'immortals' who often begin a pantomime prologue today in rhyme. In Blanchard's 'Jack' in 1859, the hero is selling his cow to Fairy Crystalline: Crystaline: 'Well, give the calf' Jack: 'I do!' Crystaline: 'The beans are thine.' Jack: 'though this transaction bears a strange character, I look upon you as my Beany-factor!' The reliance on Clown and Harlequin was losing its grip—now the dialogue was becoming important. Other characters were emerging. In 1852, a Miss Ellington had become one of the first 'Principal Boys', playing the Prince in 'The Good Woman in The Wood' at the Lyceum Theatre. By the 1860s the role of Principal Boy was established and the role of Dame was beginning to threaten Harlequinaide's clown even further. By the 1870s pantomimes had begun to change dramatically in style. From the many varied and titled subjects, theatres began to restrict themselves to a few favourite stories. The popular ones being 'Cinderella', 'Dick Whittington', 'Jack and the Beanstalk' along with 'Mother Goose', 'Aladdin', 'Robinson Crusoe', 'Babes in the Wood' 'Goody Two Shoes'. Of these the intrinsically British stories were 'Babes', which was to eventually merge with 'Robin Hood', 'Robinson Crusoe', 'St. George and the Dragon' and 'Gulliver's Travels'. The other subjects were imported from the French court, like Perrault's 'Cinderella', 'Sleeping Beauty', 'Red Riding Hood' and 'Hop O'My Thumb'.

NSOU ? PGEL-9A 201 Red Riding Hood itself dates back to Roman times, then utilized by the Grimm Brothers. 'Puss In Boots' dates from an Italian version of 1534, utilized by Perrault. Pantomime adapted and enveloped all these cultures and presented them to the British public. 'Aladdin' had begun as one of the Tales from the Arabian Nights, and emerged as a serious play in London in 1788, and with Grimaldi in 1813. Robin Hood joined forces with the 'Babes in The Wood' at Drury Lane Theatre in 1857. The first 'Dick Whittington' Pantomime seems to be at Covent Garden in 1814. 'Goody Two Shoes' emerges from the pen of Oliver Goldsmith, written in 1765. With its slight plot which merges Nursery characters like Little Boy Blue as the playmate of 'Goody' and 'Little Bo Peep' as Jack Horner's sweetheart, it was eventually dropped, the confusion of plot being the chief reason. By the end of the century, pantomime had reached epic proportions. The 1900 production of 'Sleeping Beauty and the Beast' was one of the most lavish and successful pantomimes ever produced at Drury Lane Theatre. Combining the story of 'Beauty and the Beast' with 'Sleeping Beauty', it featured double the number of scenes and a range of locations, with settings including the Haunted Vaults of the Palace, a Fairy Parliament, and the Enchanted Crystal Garden. The grand finale was a transformation scene by set designer Bruce 'Sensation' Smith which represented Beauty's wedding gifts as well as a grand staircase and numerous fountains.

NSOU ? PGEL-9A 202 11.14 Major Parts of Pantomime 11.14.1 Pantomime stories Today's popular pantomime stories derive from various sources. Dick Whittington was based on the life of a real mayor of London who died in 1423. Written accounts of his life appeared as early as the 17th century, including Thomas Heywood's 1656 'The Famous and Remarkable History of Sir Richard Whittington', although there is no evidence he ever owned a cat. The 1862 pantomime version by the prolific pantomime author H.J. Byron saw Dick chased by a villain in a hot air balloon—the year that two English balloonists made the news for ascending to a record-breaking altitude. Robinson Crusoe was based on Daniel Defoe's novel 'The Life and Surprising Adventures of Robinson Crusoe' (1719), inspired by the true adventures of the ship's captain, Alexander Selkirk, who survived on a desert island for four years. Other stories are derived from European, Middle Eastern, and Asian folk tales and legends. The fairy tales published by the 17th-century French writer's Madame d'Aulnoy NSOU ? PGEL-9A 203 and Charles Perrault included the stories of Pretty Goldilocks, Cunning Cinders, Little Red Riding Hood, Puss in Boots, the Sleeping Beauty, and Cinderella. Rossini's 1817 opera La Cenerentola, based on Perrault's Cinderella story, had its London premiere in 1820 and appeared at Covent Garden the same year as Harlequin and Cinderella; or, the Little Glass Slipper. Cinderella was renowned for its magical transformation scene and is the only pantomime today to retain one, often with real Shetland ponies pulling Cinderella's coach. The bestselling collection of stories 'The Arabian Nights' was first published in an English edition in the early 18th century. Once translated, they inspired the pantomimes Aladdin's Wonderful Lamp, Ali Baba, and the Forty Thieves, and The Seven Voyages of Sinbad, reflecting popular interest in all things oriental. 11.14.2 Principal Boys and Pantomime Dames The theatrical device of gender-switching became a mainstay of Victorian pantomime. As early as 1837, actor-manager Lucy Eliza Vestris played a breeches role in Planché's production of Puss in Boots at the Olympic Theatre (Vestris played Ralph, while her husband Charles Mathews played the cat). In an era when women covered their legs with long skirts, acting in shorts and tights was considered risqué. Entrepreneurial theatre owner Augustus Harris capitalized on controversy by bringing Music Hall performers to his Drury Lane Theatre: Vesta Tilley, a male impersonator, and Marie Lloyd, 'Queen of the Music Halls', were among many female music hall stars who played principal boys. By the late 19 th Century the female principal boy was an accepted convention of pantomime. Men, however, had played women's roles throughout the history of theatre, as female performers were banned from the stage until after the Restoration in 1660. Pantomime drew on this convention — Samuel Simmons played Mother Goose as early as 1806. However artful his disguise, the dame's obvious masculinity remained an essential part of the gag in the 19th century. In 1861, H.J. Byron created the character of Widow Twankey in Aladdin or The Wonderful Scamp at the Strand Theatre, starring James Rogers as the widow, named after 'Twankay Tea'—a less than premium brand of tea imported from China. Female impersonators from Music Hall appeared as dames; Harris was credited with instigating the most legendary dame performer when he hired Music Hall star Dan Leno to play the wicked aunt in Babes in the Wood at Drury Lane in 1888. Leno continued to play the Christmas season at Drury Lane for the next 15 years, or as he would boast, "for the term of my natural life".

NSOU ? PGEL-9A 204 11.14.3 Music Hall Stars From the late 1860s, Music Hall performers were increasingly cast in pantomimes, bringing with them star quality and new audiences. The equivalent of modern-day celebrities, they became central to promoting pantomime and often brought raucous energy to the carefully staged productions. Some were inclined to pause the action to perform their own 'star turn', whether playing the saxophone, dancing a Can-Can, or singing a signature song. Lottie Collins's Ta-ra-ra-boom-de-ay was the 'show stopper' during Dick Whittington (1891), much to the approval of audiences and critics. 11.14.4 Animal Impersonators Live animals often appeared on stage in Victorian pantomime – donkeys were the preferred means of transport for clowns. Actors also made careers from dressing in elaborate animal costumes known as 'skins'. One of the most famous Victorian animal impersonators was actor and acrobat Charles Lauri Jnr, known as the 'Garrick of Animal Mimes'. He developed his own menagerie, playing 'Puss' in Puss in Boots and 'The Pug Dog' in Babes in the Wood, along with various turns as a monkey, bear, wolf, ostrich, and even a kangaroo. Interviewed in 1893, Lauri said, "I need hardly say that I am an entire believer in studying from life. When getting my poodle part I had one always with me at home and it was from him that I learnt nearly all my tricks".

NSOU ? PGEL-9A 205 11.14.5 Spectacle and Illusion Pantomime became increasingly focussed on elaborate set designs and special effects. Trick scenery and fast scene changes were created with systems of hinged flaps of canvas painted on both sides that switched to reveal new settings; pivots, flying systems, and traps in the stage. The 'star trap' covered an opening in the stage, beneath which an actor stood on a platform. At the release of a counterweight, they were propelled upwards for a magical, if perilous, flying entrance. Some theatres had enormous water tanks and pumps beneath the boards to create water effects such as rivers, fountains, and waterfalls. The lighting added to the magical effect; gas light was introduced in 1817 and electric light was first introduced to the London stage at the Savoy Theatre in 1881. Effects such as ghostly fogs were created using coloured silk, gauze, and glass. In Little Bo Peep (1892) large mirrors reflected and multiplied the procession of fairy-tale characters. The scenic changes and traps were coordinated by stagehands using whistle signals. Elaborate transformations often required over 50 pairs of hands, while hydraulic stage machinery, like that installed at Drury Lane Theatre in 1896, enabled even more dynamic scene changes and special effects. These spectacles were central to the action and pulled in audiences. Stage designers were famous and often featured in the new illustrated press, with images showing the process of design and construction.

NSOU ? PGEL-9A 206 11.14.6 Plots The titles and plots of popular tales, including Fairy Tales, began to be used, but whatever the title, the Harlequinade was the most important piece. The first parts of the entertainment were usually woven together by an immortal—a Fairy Queen for example. The story would have a moral tale to tell, but as it was concluding the Fairy would 'transform' the characters—whether Robinson Crusoe, Guy Fawkes, or Jack the Giant Killer into the well-known Harlequinade characters. She would point to her hero and heroine and declaim "Lovers stand forth. With you, we will begin. You will be fair Columbine-you, Harlequin." In the Tale of Guy Fawkes she announced "King James there—the bonnie Scottish loon, you will be a famous child for Pantaloon. The Guy Fawkes now is saved from rock and axe, I think he should pay the 'powder Tax'". In these early 'Pantomimes' the characters would change costumes in front of the audience. The Clown would step forward, and, just as Grimaldi always began would cry 'Hello! Here we are again!' a phrase copied until the demise of the Harlequinade. 11.14.7 Transformation Scenes By the mid-1800's the 'Transformation Scenes'—elaborate and spectacular scenic changes and tableaux became the most important part of these early pantomimes. In some cases, to the detriment of the comedy scenes, some complained. William Beverley, in 1849 created a scene called 'The Island of Jewels' where a palm tree gradually dropped its

leaves to reveal bejeweled fairy after fairy who created a tableau holding aloft a jewelled crown. His spectacle was widely copied. Managements vied with each other to create the most lavish transformations. Transparent curtains would reveal 'The Bower of Bliss' or 'The Realm of Delight'. In 1860, the Haymarket Theatre in London produced working fountains on stage in a bid to outdo the rivals. The scenery was of great importance to the audience in these days before photography, film, and media coverage. To the onlooker in London, it might be his or her first glimpse of the open country, or foreign temples, or the wilds of the Scottish moors. The tradition of a spectacular scene or transformation still exists in today's pantomimes—the jewelled cave in 'Aladdin', the revealing of Cinderella's Coach. Dick Whittington's dream sequences on Highgate Hill are direct descendants of Mr. Beverley's creations. 11.15 Summing Up This Unit has two distinct parts: onomatopoeia and pantomime – one relates to the use of the linguistic expression in the attempt of representation sound produced by natural objects, human beings, and materials; while the other deals with a different kind of literary genre that was enacted to represent life and belief systems of societies. The first part deals with onomatopoeia. In Section 11.1, an attempt is made to give a workable definition of onomatopoeia; in Section 11.2, the basic concept of onomato- poeia is discussed with reference to the observations of earlier scholars who looked at this phenomenon from different perspectives; in Section 11.3, an attempt is made to understand how onomatopoeia is envisaged in the realm of linguistic studies; in Section 11.4, different types of onomatopoeia (animal sounds, human sounds, and sound effects of objects) are described with examples taken from the real world; in Section 11.5, varieties of onomato- poeia are described with citations of examples from texts; in Section 11.6, some of the basic objections raised against onomatopoeia are discussed with reference to the views of some noted scholars; and in Section 11.7, the importance of onomatopoeia is registered not only in languages but also in other somatic-cum-cognitive understandings of sounds by human beings. The second part deals with Pantomime, a unique genre of theatrical performance that was made with dramatic scenes, acted in a story in succession using only masks, body movement, and rhythmic gestures. In Section 11.8, the primary concept of pantomime is

defined with some reference; in Section 11.9, some discussion on the early period of pantomime is reported; in Section 11.10, an effort is made to discuss the ancient pantomime and its reception by the common mass; in Section 11.11, the nature of pantomime's medieval origin is explored; in Section 11.12, the major features and innovations in the Victorian era are reported; and finally, in Section 11.13, the major features and components of pantomime are highlighted (i.e., stories, principal boys and pantomime dames, music hall stars, animal impersonators, spectacle and illusion, plots, transformation scenes). 11.16 Review Questions Review Questions and Tasks for thought, understanding and self-assessment. Answer in not more than 500 words. [1] What is onomatopoeia? Define the concept with examples from your own language. [2] What are the major linguistic aspects related to onomatopoeia? [3] Describe some of the major types of onomatopoeic sounds that are related to animals. [4] Describe some of the major types of onomatopoeic sounds that are related to human emotions feelings and mental states. [5] Describe some of the major types of onomatopoeic sounds that are related to physical materials and objects. [6] Discuss the major objections that are raised against onomatopoeia. [7] What is the importance of onomatopoeia in language, literature, and human cognition? [8] What is Pantomime? Give a brief idea about its origin and use in the early period. [9] How does pantomime evolve in the medieval period? [10] What are the innovations incorporated in the pantomime of the Victorian era? [11] What were the major features and components of pantomime? Discuss. Task-1 Describe major types of onomatopoeia in your language with examples. Task-2 Describe some of the major types of onomatopoeic sounds that are related to natural objects.

Look for answers to the above questions in the units mentioned below: Q1) Unit 11.1 , 11.2 Q2) Unit 11.3 Q3) Reference to different languages Q4) Unit 11.4 and General Knowledge Q5) Unit 11.4.1 Q6) Unit 11.4.2 Q7) Unit 11.4 3 Q8) Unit 11.6 Q9) Unit 11.7 Q10) Unit11.8, 11.9,11.10 Q11) Unit 11.11 Q12) Unit 11.12 Q13) Unit 11.13 11.17 Glossary of Terms Cheironomy: (or Chironomy) is a form of music conducting, typically with choral music and choral groups (choirs), where the use of hand gestures directs the musical perfor- mance. In the modern art form, conductors tend to hoist batons for indicating melodic curves and ornaments. Chorus: It is a group of persons singing in unison in an opera, oratorio, etc. In ancient Greece, it denoted (a) a lyric poem, believed to have been in dithyrambic form, that was sung and danced to, originally as a religious rite, by a company of persons; (b) an ode or series of odes sung by a group of actors in ancient Greek drama; and (c) the group of actors that performed the chorus and served as major participants in, commentators on, or as a supplement to the main action of the drama. Circus: A circus is a company of performers who put on diverse entertainment shows that may include clowns, acrobats, trained animals, trapeze acts, musicians, dancers, hoopers, tightrope walkers, jugglers, magicians, ventriloquists, and unicyclists as well as other manipulation and stunt-oriented artists. The term circus also describes the

performance which has followed various formats through its 250-year modern history. The format, in which a ringmaster introduces a variety of choreographed acts set to music, is developed in the latter part of the 19th century. Empathy: It is the capacity to understand or feel what another person is experiencing from within their frame of reference, that is, the capacity to place oneself in another's position. Empathy covers a broad range of emotional states: cognitive, emotional, somatic, and spiritual. It encompasses a broad range of phenomena, including caring for other people and having a desire to help them; experiencing emotions that match another person's emotions; discerning what another person is thinking or feeling; and making less distinct the differences between the self and the other. Iconism: The term 'icon' has the semiotic meaning ascribed to it by the philosopher Charles Sanders Peirce. According to Peirce, an icon is a non-arbitrary intentional sign—a designation which bears an intrinsic resemblance to the thing it designates. Iconism is the formation of a figure, representation, or semblance; a delineation or description. Libretto: A libretto (Italian for "booklet") is the text used in, or intended for, an extended musical work such as an opera, operetta, masque, oratorio, cantata, or musical. The term is also used to refer to the text of major liturgical works, such as the Mass, requiem and sacred cantata, or the storyline of a ballet. The libretto, from Italian, is the diminutive of the word Libro ("book"). A libretto is distinct from a synopsis or scenario of the plot, in that the libretto contains all the words and stage directions, while a synopsis summarizes the plot. Some ballet historians also use the word libretto to refer to the 15 to 40-page books which were on sale to 19 th - century ballet audiences in Paris and contained a very detailed description of the ballet's story, scene by scene. Mimicry: It is an evolved resemblance between an organism and another object, often an organism of another species. Mimicry may evolve between different species, or between individuals of the same species. Often, mimicry functions to protect a species from predators, making it an anti-predator adaptation. It evolves if a receiver (such as a predator) perceives the similarity between a mimic (the organism that has a resemblance) and a model (the organism it resembles) and as a result changes its behaviour in a way that provides a selective advantage to the mimic. The resem-

blances that evolve in mimicry can be visual, acoustic, chemical, tactile, or electric, or combinations of these sensory modalities. Pastoral: It is a lifestyle of shepherds herding livestock around open areas of land according to seasons and the changing availability of water and pasture. It lends its name to a genre of literature, art, and music that depicts such life in an idealized manner, typically for urban audiences. A pastoral is a work of this genre, also known as bucolic, from meaning a cowherd. Pastoral is a mode of literature in which the author employs various techniques to place the complex life into a simple one. Scholars distinguish pastoral as a mode rather than a genre and use this distinction on the recurring attitude of power. Pastoral literature holds a humble perspective toward nature. Sonority: It is the quality of having a deep, pleasant sound, or the degree to which some- thing has this sound. Sonority may refer to sonority hierarchy, a ranking of speech sounds (or phones) by amplitude as well as in music theory, a chord, particularly when speaking of non-traditional harmonies Synaesthesia: It is a perceptual phenomenon in which stimulation of one sensory or cognitive pathway leads to involuntary experiences in a second sensory or cognitive pathway. People who report a lifelong history of such experiences are known as synesthetes. Awareness of synesthetic perceptions varies from person to person. In one common form of synaesthesia, known as 'grapheme—color synaesthesia', letters or numbers are perceived as inherently colored. In spatial-sequence or number form synaesthesia, numbers, months of the year, or days of the week elicit precise locations in space or may appear as a three-dimensional map (clockwise or counter- clockwise). Tragedy: It is a genre of drama based on human suffering and, mainly, the terrible or sorrowful events that befall the main character. Traditionally, the intention of tragedy is to invoke an accompanying catharsis, or a "pain [that] awakens pleasure", for the audience. While many cultures have developed forms that provoke this paradoxical response, the term tragedy often refers to a specific tradition of drama that has played a unique and important role historically in Western civilization. That tradition has been multiple and discontinuous, yet the term has often been used to invoke a powerful effect of cultural identity and historical continuity in

NSOU ? PGEL-9A 212 one cultural form. In Aristotle's Poetics, tragedy is used to make genre distinctions, whether at the scale of poetry in general (where the tragic divides against epic and lyric) or at the scale of the drama (where tragedy is opposed to comedy). 11.18 Books Recommended

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NSOU ? PGEL-9A 214 Unit 12 ? Scansion Structure 12.1 Objectives 12.2 Introduction 12.3 The Syllable 12.4 Rhythm and Meter 12.5 Measure 12.6 Metrical Patterning and Graphic Scansion 12.7 Working With a poem 12.8 Summing up 12.9 Review Questions with Tasks 12.10 Tasks for Answer Clues 12.11 References for Further Reading 12.1 Objectives Objectives of this Unit are: a. to learn the importance of Stressed and Unstressed syllables and the use of Stress Marks b. to raise awareness of Rhythm in poetry c. to understand the Metrical Pattern in order to get the overall Meaning d. to become well versed in Style and stylistics in language and how it is rhetorically used, especially in poetry. 12.2 Introduction Scansion in the English Language contributes to Style and Metrical Patterns of Poetry, considering the lines into Feet of Stressed and Unstressed Syllables, and focusing on the

classification of stanza, structure, rhyme scheme and meaning. Scansion is also important for pauses at the right places, expression and style in articulation and speech. It is very important for Meaningful expression of language. 12.3 The Syllable A Syllable refers to an irreducible or unbreakable unit of speech sounds. A word may comprise one or more than one speech sound. The vowel of the syllable is its central element and called the Nucleus. Elements constituting a syllable are Vowels and/or Consonants. A word is made up of one or more syllables, namely Monosyllabic (one), Disyllabic (two),Trisyllabic(three),Polysyllabic (more than three).Examples: / cat(mono), / cat|ty(di), am| / bi|tion (tri), am| / bi|tious|ly (poly). In an English word of more than one syllable, one of the syllables is pronounced with a greater force or prominence or Stress than the others. This stressed syllable receives what is called Accent, and we get Accented and Unaccented, or Stressed and Unstressed syllables. In such words the syllable on which the maximum stress takes place is said to receive the Primary Accent. The next prominently stressed syllables are called Secondary Accents. For example, in the word E|xa|mi|na|tion consisting of five syllables, the syllable articulated with maximum stress is the fourth syllable (/ na), the next in force or stress is the second syllable (/ xa) , while the other syllables are comparatively weak in force or stress. The stressed syllables are marked with bars above them. This correct syllable pronunciation is possible with a knowledge of the English Sound System or English Phonology. The Stress in words and their syllables also denote a subtle pause in between the syllables and shows that we cannot articulate words in one breath or sweep of sound. Like Word Stress we also have Sentence Stress, that is, we pause at some points while speaking, instead of saying the whole of a sentence at one go. This gives Meaning to our Speech and our sentence stress also varies according to what exactly we want to mean. Example 1: / This is the man | who stole my bag. Here, according to the speaker's intention of identifying the culprit, 'this man' is more important than the bag, and therefore 'this' is articulated with more stress than the other words in the same utterance.

Example 2: Is / this bag yours? Here against his 'relates to the missing bag. Therefore, the word /this/ here gets more stress than the other words. The vertical bar splitting the sentences denote natural pause in speech. The tone of the voice plays a crucial role in determining stress. 12.4 Rhythm and Metre Rhythm (Greek rhuthmos, from rheo, to flow) means the measured movement or musical flow of language. It consists of the periodical recurrence of pauses and accents, producing a harmonical or harmonious effect in terms of articulation. Rhythm is a quality which is essential to prose and verse, for breaking the monotonous succession of accented or unaccented syllables in any passage, whether in prose or verse. A linear and flattened speech-articulation, is likely to be not very pleasing to hear. Metre (Greek metron, a measure) may be defined as a specific harmonic dispensation of syllables. It consists in the succession of regularly accented groups of syllables, called measures, arranged according to certain recognized standards, in lines of a determinate length. What the accent is to rhythm, the measure is to metre. Rhythm and Metre are often used as synonymous terms. However, there is a difference between them. Regularity of time intervals is the essential feature of rhythm. When a sentence in prose is so constructed that, the syllables on which there are stresses while reading it, occur at approximately equal intervals of time, the sentence becomes rhythmic. The rhythm of prose is varied, and is not governed by any numerical law. In metre, on the other hand, the number of syllables is measured with arithmetical exactness, and it is this which is the distinguishing feature of composition in verse or verification. Example from prose It was for / him that the / sun had been / darkened, that the / rocks had been / rent, that the / dead had / risen, that / all / nature had / shuddered at the / sufferings of her ex / piring / God.

Example from poetry For / them no / more the / blazing / hearth shall / burn Or / busy / housewife / ply her / evening / care. No / children / run to / lisp their / sire's re / turn, Or / climb his / knee's the / envied / kiss to / share. 12.5 Measure When the accent is found to recur at fixed intervals within a series of syllables or words,each of the regular combinations of unaccented and accented syllables is called a measure or foot. In the following lines, the measures have been marked off by vertical lines— a) "The / way | was / long| the / wind | was / cold." b) "I am mo| / narch of / all| I sur / vey." In English Prosody there can be one and only one accented syllable in a measure, and one or at most two unaccented syllables between two accented ones. The total number of syllables in an English measure can be two or three. Of disyllabic measures generally there are two varieties: 1) Trochaic – in which an accented syllable is followed by an unaccented one e.g. / Rich the | / trea-sure, / Sweet the| / plea-sure.(Dryden) / High-er | / still, and | / high-er, / From the| / earth thou | / spring-est,..(Shelley) Trochaic measures have a brisk and tripping movement and are used for gay and lively subjects. They are at times also used in devotional poetry. 2) Iambic- here the first syllable is unaccented, and the second is accented e.g. a) The / night| is / dark| and / I | am / far| from / home (Newman)

b) The / days| are / cold,| the / nights| are / long, The / north| wind / sings| a / dole| ful / song, (Wordsworth) The iambic measure is the most common in English poetry. It is smooth, graceful and stately. There are two other kinds of disyllabic measures, called Spondees and Pyrrhics, the former consisting of two accented, and the latter, of two unaccented syllables, sometimes used as variations from the regular disyllabic metre. Trisyllabic measures have three varieties: 1) Dactyllic in which one accented syllable is followed by two unaccented ones: e.g. / Can-non to| / right of them, / Can-non to| / left of them, (Tennyson). 2) Anapaestic in which one accented syllable is preceded by two unaccented ones e.g. Like a / child |from the / womb, |like a / ghost| from the / tomb. (Shelley). 3) Amphibrachic in which the middle syllable is accented and the other two are unaccented e.g. Most / friend-ship| is / feighn-ing, Most / lov-ing | mere / fol-ly.(Shakespeare) 12.6 Metrical Patterning and Graphic Scansion Graphic Scansion refers to the analysis and visual representation of a poem's metrical pattern. It has been adapted from ancient Greek and Roman 'quantitative verse', and in English Prosody is represented by a system of symbols to show the mechanics of a poem, that is, the predominant type of 'foot' or 'measure'(the smallest metrical unit of stressed and unstressed syllables), the feet or measure per line and the 'rhyme scheme'. The main purpose is to arouse Reader Sensitivity to the different ways in which rhythmic elements in poems convey meaning. Thus, the function of scansion is to divide the poetic form into measures by pointing out different syllables according to their lengths. It is a description of the break-down of rhythmic lines or verses into

measures, pointing out the places of accented and unaccented syllables, and working out the 'metre' of the poem. Our concern is the graphic scansion in literature and the symbols used. The primary symbols used in graphic scansion are: (-or /) to represent a syllable that is stressed in context; (?) to represent a syllable that is unstressed; a vertical line (|) to show the division between feet; and a double vertical (||) to show a 'caesura', and a pause within a line of verse. Now, not all poems are regular in pattern; metre is usually determined by the type of measure that is most frequent, that is, Iambic Pentameter or Trochaic Tetrameter, for example- a)

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Made / weak| by / time | and / fate| but / strong | in / will To / strive | to / seek | to / find | and / not | to / yield (

Iambic pentameter) b) / Now in | / deep and| / dread-ful / gloom / Clouds on| / clouds por-| / ten-tious| / spread (Trochaic tetrameter) 12.7 Working with examples from poems a) If / mu|sic / be the / food of / love, play / on... That / strain a / gain! It / had a / dy|ing / fall... These lines consist of unstressed syllables and stressed syllables with slanting bars. This pattern repeats five times, so it is iambic pentameter with un-rhyming lines known as blank verse. Note there are monosyllabic and disyllabic words, broken into syllables with vertical bars.(William Shakespeare's Twelfth Night). b) / Can-non to'| right of them, / Can-non to| / left of them, / Can-non in | / front of them / Volley'd| and / thun|der'd.... This is an example of dactylic dimetre with two feet in each line. Dactylic foot uses a stressed syllable followed by two unstressed syllables. This stressed syllable appears at

the beginning and in the middle of the lines. The rhyme scheme of this poem is irregular and unpredictable, and in this stanza it is AAAB. The syllable division is done by the use of vertical bars. (Alfred Lord Tennyson's The Charge of the Light Brigade). c) From / what highth / fal'n, so / much the / strong|er / proved He / with his / Thun|der: / and till / then who / knew The / force of / those dire / Arms? Yet / not for / those Nor / what the / Po|tent / Vic|tor in his / rage... This is a typical example of blank verse, using unrhyming lines with iambic pentametre (ten syllables in a line and five of them are stressed), from John Milton's Paradise Lost. 12.8 Summing Up Scansion demonstrates an orchestration of variation and regularity in poetry. It also helps us determine the natural rhythm of free and blank verse. It makes a poem enjoyable and meaningful at the same time by marking the stressed and unstressed syllables. On the whole, scansion explains how rhythm contributes to the beauty, significance and meaning of poetry. We have learnt on the concept 'Syllable' in Paper 3. In this unit we have learnt the application of the concept from literary contexts. There are review questions to check you understanding on the unit. 2.9 Review Questions Review questions for thought, understanding and self-assessment. Answer in not more than 500 words. Q1. What is a syllable? Give examples of different syllable types. Q2. Explain word stress with supporting examples. Q3. What is the difference between Rhythm and Metre?

Q4. Write briefly on the importance of expression and intonation in poetry. Q5. What is blank verse? Give examples. Q6. Write short notes on: (in not more than 150 words). Caesura Accent Measure Iambic Pentameter Trochaic tetrameter Q7. Explain Graphic Scansion with examples. Q8. Insert stress marks and point out the accented syllables in the following lines to arrive at meaning: a) Things seen are mightier than things heard. (Tennyson) b) I come to bury Caesar, not to praise him. (Shakespeare) Q9. Work out the task (lines from poems) below by pointing out the accent, metre and measure, completing thereby the process of scansion: a) The night is dark and I am far from home. b) The days are cold, the nights are long, The north wind sings a doleful song. Q10. Work out the scansion of the following verse lines "For bold in heart and act and word was he, Whenever slander breathed against the King, (Tennyson) Look for answers to the above questions 1-7 in the units mentioned below Q1. Unit 12.3 Q2. Unit 12.3 Q3. Unit 12.4 Q4. Units 12.4 and 12.5 Q5. Unit 12.7 Q6. Review of all units Q7. Unit 12.6

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Unit 13 ? Figures of Speech: Metaphor, Imagery and Symbolism: Contextual and Archetypal Structure 13.1 Objectives 13.2 Introduction 13.3 Why Writers Use Figures or Tropes 13.4 Figures of Speech /Tropes: Historical and Conceptual Study 13.5 Use of Figurative Language/ Tropes 13.5.1 Types of Figures/Tropes 13.5.2 Examples and Definitions of Figures 13.6 Metaphor, Imagery and Symbolism: Contextual and Archetypal 13.6.1 Image and symbol: Archetypal and Contextual 13.6.2 Some Other Examples of Figures/Tropes 13.7 Function of Figures/Tropes 13.8 Examples of Rhetoric 13.8.1 Exercises 13.9 Things to Keep in Mind: A Sum-up 13.10 Review Questions 13.11 References and Reading List 13.1 Objectives Our objective in this unit is to be introduced to 'rhetoric', and to knowing rhetorical devices and speeches, alongside literary devices as well, in so far as they differ from the

ordinary prose style of speech and writing. We are also going to learn a few of the features associated with or found in rhetorical or oratorical speeches. 13.2 Introduction The term 'Rhetoric' can be traced back to the Geek word 'rhetor', which literally means a 'public speaker', that is, an orator. Therefore, 'rhetoric' refers to the art of public speaking, knowledge of which is very important in the case of oratory. In its simplest form, Rhetoric can be called the art of persuasion, for every time someone writes or speaks, that person is engaging in an argument. He is attempting to persuade and influence the reader/audience directly or indirectly in order to change their minds to do something or think in some new way. Rhetoric helps achieve this. As for example, George Bernard Shaw presents, deliberately and consistently, a fierce rhetoric of arguments in his plays of ideas – plays pleasant and unpleasant, such as Arms and the Man and Mrs Warren's Profession or in his essay, "The Quintessence of Ibsenism" – in order to win his readers over to Fabian socialist views and common sense realism as against the romantic mystiques and myths of idealism and philistinism. We undertake in this unit a little detailed study of figures of speech such as Metaphor, Imagery and Symbolism: contextual and archetypal, as part of the spectrum of rhetorical and literary devices. 13.3 Why Writers Use Figures or Tropes Figures or Tropes add layers of meaning and aesthetic complexity to a writer's work. They can heighten the imagery of a text or create additional emotional resonance. Tropes enable writers to explore familiar concepts, emotions, and situations with a fresh perspective, keeping the readers engaged in feeling even the familiar in a novel and unfamiliar way.

13.4 Figures of Speech /Tropes: Historical and Conceptual Study Figures of Speech or Tropes refer to rhetorical and literary devices through which speakers or writers intend to express meanings of words differently than their literal meanings. In other words, it is the figurative use of words in which writers shift from the literal meanings of words to their non-literal meanings. The trope, in fact, could be a phrase, a word, or an image used to create artistic effect. We may find its use almost anywhere, such as in literature, political rhetoric, and everyday speech. In Aristotle's view there are three rhetorical strategies or 'proofs' which are the means or devices that writers and speakers make use of in order to influence or persuade their readers/ audience. Rhetoric, then, is the use of language for a particular purpose. Rhetorical strategies are linked to three types of 'proofs' in 'rhetorical appeals'. There are 'Logos' or the logical appeal; 'Pathos' or the emotional appeal, and finally, 'Ethos' or the ethical appeal. Modern words such as 'logical', 'pathetic' and 'ethical' are derived from these Greek terms. In his treatise on 'Rhetoric', Aristotle states that all these appeals must be used simultaneously in every persuasive discourse for a totality of impact on the readers or audience as the case may be. It may be mentioned that pathetic appeals or emotional appeals were considered to be just as important as logical proofs. Classical theoreticians such as Aristotle, Quintilian and Longinus systematized the theory of Rhetoric. In the Middle Ages one of the basic studies of the 'Trivium' which was introductory course for medieval Universities, comprised Latin grammar, Logic and Rhetoric. The Greek sophists made use of Rhetoric as a tool for effective argumentations, regardless of the truth or validity of their view point. This is the reason why according to Plato, Socrates had considered Rhetoric a superficial art. In the dialogue Protagoras, he exposes how Protagoras, a clever sophist, argues falsely with the help of rhetorical devices. Because Rhetoric can and has been used for this purpose, it has at times been disparaged. Rhetoric is, therefore, an art which is deliberately employed by the speaker/ writer to influence the audience/ reader and to sway their beliefs. In fine, the term 'rhetoric' means different things for different people. Wayne Booth in his book, The Rhetoric of Fiction discusses the diverse modes of narration a fiction-writer may adopt, at the level of rhetoric, to guide his or her reader through the narrative.

13.5 Use of Figurative Language/ Tropes Figurative or tropic language is phrasing that goes beyond the literal meaning of words to get a message or point across. This definition dates back to the mid-nineteenth century and comes from the Old French word "figuratif," meaning "metaphorical" or "figural transposition" of words for special effects. According to Locke, Rhetorical is "the art of speaking with propriety, elegance and force". For the addition of beauty and grace to the language used, Rhetoric employs Figures of Speech. It may be pertinent to reflect on the relationship between Rhetoric and grammar. Grammar teaches the user the rules for the correct use of language. Rhetoric uses embellishments as well in order to enhance the beauty and elegance of the composition. This is accomplished by the use of figurative language. 13.5.1 Types of Figure/Trope Depending upon the meanings and understanding of figures or tropes, it has been classified into several types. Some of its more common types include metaphor, simile, irony, hyperbole, allegory, litotes, pun, personification, simile, metonymy, and synecdoche. Here are some examples of the types of figure of speech or trope, some of which we will discuss briefly: more common are the ones given in the following images from sources mentioned with the copied image. These images give us an overview of the figures of speech that we are likely to see in literary works and in oratorical speeches. But it not a thorough coverage of all the figures that come within the ambit of rhetoric. We have to keep in mind that such images spring into visual impression of learners when they come to grasping so many figures of speech in literary artifacts, and it is expedient for a language teacher to tackle the subject in classroom situation by projecting images on the figurative language. In our age of internet such images are amply available or in cases a teacher may improvise drawings or sketches on the board to vivify lessons on the practice of figurative language. So, for the learners to know an enormous range of the figures of speech in the English language one of best effective ways is to take visual and tabular or diagrammatic impressions of a select list, at first of those which are recurrently used in literature, and to switch gradually over to more exhaustive lists. The following two pages present tabular images of the more common figures of speech, taken from internet resources.

NSOU ? PGEL-9A 229 13.5.2 Examples and Definitions of Figures Although our focus in this unit is, in particular, on Metaphor, Imagery and Symbolism: Contextual and Archetypal, we require to know them and their uses in tandem with other related figures or tropes. Let us take some relevant ones: Example no.1: Metaphor and Simile We begin with Metaphor and Simile and their correlatives such as Metonymy and Synecdoche as we find them spread out in all sorts of literary texts and or oratorical speeches. Whereas in a simile there is a direct comparison set up by the words – 'like' or 'as'- a metaphor suggests comparison between two thing not similar apparently. If we say that somebody's absence is like 'a long winter', this would be a simile. But if we say that 'it was a wintry greeting', it means that the greeting was lacking in warmth. Here the comparison is implicit and conceptual. It is then an example of metaphor. If we say 'he is a lion' I mean 'he is as brave as a lion'. But the expression 'he is like a lion, or he is as brave as a lion' it becomes a case for explicit comparison, that is, a simile. Metaphor gives an emotional and imaginative charge to a statement as in, 'I am walking the sunset path' or 'I am a man of yellowing years'.Other examples of metaphor are: a. The river snakes its way across the hills. b. On their shining tracks the waiting diesel engines purred softly. c. Where youth grows pale, spectre-thin and dies. Example no. 2 Metonymy Metonymy is a type of figure/trope in which an alternative name takes the place of the name of an original idea, both being closely associated in concept. In William Shakespeare's Hamlet, we can find the recurrent use of metonymy, such as, while the ghost of Hamlet's father appears and metonymically refers to his assassin: "The serpent that did sting thy father's life." In another case, we see when Polonius advises his son Laertes to "Give every man thy ear, but few they voice." This means to imply that he should pay attention to what others say, speaking little.

NSOU ? PGEL-9A 230 Example no. 3 Synecdoche Synecdoche is a type of figure/trope in which a part of a thing or idea represents the whole thing. In every case of Synecdoche the part used for the whole or vice-versa are both organically related to each other. T. S. Eliot uses this figure of speech several times in his poem The Love Song of J. Alfred Prufrock. The poet uses faces as a synecdoche in this line: "To prepare a face to meet the faces that you meet …" Here, the "face" represents the entire person. Again, he use eyes as a synecdoche in these lines: "And I have known the eyes already, known them all — The eyes that fix you in a formulated phrase …" Where, the eyes are a small part that represent the whole person. Then, he makes use of arms as a synecdoche to represent a whole woman as: "And I have known the arms already … Arms that lie along a table, or wrap about a shawl." Example no. 4 Irony Irony is used to imply a meaning opposite or contrary to the literal meaning of an idea, such as in the opening lines of Romeo and Juliet by William Shakespeare: "Two households, both alike in dignity…" Shakespeare persuades the audience to believe that Montague and Capulet are both noble families. However, as the narrative proceeds, we realise that both families are not noble. Many of their actions are not worth their good reputation in society. Shakespeare employs irony to posit this point of idea. Example no. 5 Hyperbole This type of figure/trope uses exaggerated statement for impressive effect or emphasis. It is contrary to understatement and, like metaphor and simile, is overstated to the point of ludicrity or ridicule. We usually find its usage in oral communication, and in literature, as well such as:

NSOU ? PGEL-9A 231 "As fair art thou, my bonnie lass, So deep in love am I; And I will love thee still, my dear, Till a' the seas gang dry. Till a' the seas gang dry, my dear, And the rocks melt wi' the sun: O I will love thee still, my dear, While the sands o' life shall run." (A Red, Red Rose by Robert Burns) In this poem, the poet uses hyperbole by overstating his love for his beloved, that he would love her until the seas dry, and the rocks melt with the sun. In fact, the poet has used exaggeration to emphasize the power and intensity of his love. Andrew Marvell's To His Coy Mistress is a beautiful poetic exhibit of hyperboles. Example no. 3 Litotes This type of figure/trope is opposite or antithetical to hyperbole, in that it is an understatement that negates its opposite.

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The grave's a fine a private place, But none, I think, do there embrace. (

To His Coy Mistress by Andrew Marvell) In these lines, the poet tries to understate the idea that he would be unable to be in sensual, bodily love with his mistress eternally, beyond life in this world, and suggests the opposite idea of having had no embrace in coffins or in the grave even though they could have privacy there. 13.6 Metaphor, Imagery and Symbolism: Contextual and Archetypal Metaphor A metaphor (from the Greek "metaphorá") is a figure of speech that directly and without the use of comparative terms such as "like" and "as" compares one thing to another

NSOU ? PGEL-9A 232 for rhetorical effect. While the most common metaphors use the structure "X stands for Y," the term "metaphor" itself is comprehensive, and can be used to include other literary terms, like similes. One of the most pronounced examples of metaphor in the English language comes from William Shakespeare's romantic comedy, As You Like It. Let us look at

it: All the world's a stage, And all the men and women merely players.

Shakespeare is comparing the world to a stage of drama, and the comparison is rhetorical. By comparing the world to a stage, and the people in the world as players on it, he is inviting us to conceive the similarities between the two, and by extension, the meaning of human nature and our place in the universe. In Act II, Scene 2 of Shakespeare's romantic tragedy, Romeo and Juliet, Romeo stands in the Capulets' orchard, looking at his beloved Juliet's window, and says: But, soft! what light through yonder window breaks? It is the east, and Juliet is the sun. These two lines contain a metaphor because Romeo is comparing Juliet to the sun – a comparison in likeness of thoughts or impressions between two unallied objects. Extended Metaphor In Jonathan Swift's essay, "A Modest Proposal" he proposes that the best way to solve the problem of childhood poverty is to eat the poor children: I have been assured...that a young healthy child well nursed is, at a year old, a most delicious nourishing and wholesome food, whether stewed, roasted, baked, or boiled; and I make no doubt that it will equally serve in a fricassee, or a ragoust. Swift is using satire in extended metaphor to critique the cruelty of the society he lives in, which ignores the suffering of the poor. By writing an outlandish metaphoric proposal, he hopes to evoke compassion for the poor. Mixed Metaphor Occasionally an author blends two metaphors which do not normally go together. This called a mixed metaphor. Example: When I graduate, I hope to become a well-oiled cog in the bee-hive of industry. Here, a 'well-oiled cog', associated with industry, does not go with 'beehive'. NSOU ? PGEL-9A 233 13.6.1 Image and symbol: Archetypal and Contextual An image signifies a word-paint, use of words with pictorial qualities, words evocative of visualisation in the reader's mind. Its appeal is directly to the visual imagination of the reader, and as such is universal. A symbol is something different. It transposes a word or object-referent to an abstract idea: love, hatred, empathy, a vision beyond the immediate such as of eternity or mortality etc. Symbolism can be constructed out of almost anything under the sun and beyond. It is a verbal referent to an object the transcends itself to encompass ideas or ideation that are not in the object itself. We find in literature two types of symbolism: archetypal (traditional) and contextual (personal). Virgin Mary, the Holy Ghost, The crown of Jesus, Phoenix, the pagan Muses, Greek and Roman divinities and mythopoeic figures – all these are recurrently used by authors to distil a symbolic tone into their texts. But contextual symbolism is varied and unpredictable, depending for its interpretation and meaning on the context of its use. Anything under the sun and beyond can suffice to be a contextual symbol for the writer to use for a higher language of perception beyond the literal frame. Macbeth's 'out, out, brief candle' is an example of contextual symbolism, signifying a weary, wishful mood for dying, an intense awareness of mortality. Yeats's use of the 'falcon' gyring or spiralling away from the 'falconer' contextually symbolises the centreless world where things fall apart. Yeats uses a range of personal or contextual symbols to suggest eternity, such as 'winding stair, Again his depiction of ancient sages burning in raging fire on the Byzantium cathedral wall symbolises the sense of purity and salvation. Keats's address to the nightingale as an 'immortal' bird or his 'cold pastoral' symbolises in context the poet's merger with a stasis of eternity amidst flux. Milton's 'forced fingers rude' to pluck unripe berries signify poetic humility and reluctance to write an elegy on the premature death of his friend, Lycidas (Edward King). Auden's reference to Icarus's fall unnoticed by the peasant woman and the mariners symbolises the motif of an individual's tragedy, while mundane life goes on. The 'brown' granite houses, cold and 'imperturbable' on the North Richmond Street, in his short story Araby evokes symbolically the idea of dull, monotonous aristocratic Irish life. But the colour word 'brown' reappears in the depiction of the adolescent hero's idol of beauty, Mangan's sister while on way to school he pursues the 'brown figure' of the girl. Here 'brown' symbolises the romantic and dreamy adoration of the girl by the boy. It is a blend of repetition and symbolism – in the film-

NSOU ? PGEL-9A 234 maker Sergei Eisenstein's term – it an effective use of 'reciprocal identities' and íntra- referential motifs'. In Mansfield's short story, The Fly, the death of the fly symbolises the futility of all plucky, devilish struggle against an overmastering power, be it war, over-riding profession or ink drops on the fly. Thus, we see how contextual symbolism varies according as the context varies. The recurrent and conventional uses of items from historical and scriptural literature in order to symbolise an idea belong to the class, Archetypal Symbolism. Down the traditions of romances and of the romantic as well as modern poetry or fiction, we come across types of Archetypal Symbolism. 13.6.2 Some Other Examples of Figures/Tropes a. Simile: Maya Angelou uses similes throughout her poem, Still I Rise: You may trod me in the very dirt But still, like dust, I'll rise. In this trope, Angelou makes an explicit comparison between her ability to rise above obstacles and the way dust rises when trodden. The comparing term 'like'makes it an example of simile. b. Chiasmus: Chiasmus has a Greek origin, indicating the crosswise placement of a passage consisting of two balanced parts which have their elements reversed, as in the allusion to the hanged criminal in Oscar Wilde's The Ballad of Reading Goal, For his mourners will be outcast men, And outcasts always mourn. Chiasmus thus consists in an inversion of the words and phrases when repeated on subsequently referred to in the same sentence, the purpose being to make a statement more emphatic and impressive. Other examples: May you stand long, and long stand the terror of tyrants. (Burke) Beauty is truth, truth beauty. (Keats) d. Hyperbaton: Hyperbaton is a figure of speech in which the typical, natural order of words is changed as certain words are forced out of normal syntactic order for rhetorical effect. The word hyperbaton derives from the Greek word hyperbatos

NSOU ? PGEL-9A 235 meaning "transposed" or "inverted."Hyperbaton is similar to anastrophe, which is the inversion of the natural word- order, or reversal of the word arrangement, in a sentence with the aim to create rhetorical effect. Hyperbaton is unique because it is a device that allows writers to bypass typical grammatical expectations and rules in order

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to create sentences and phrases that are more complex, intriguing, and challenging for the reader. This can be as complicated as a sentence entirely rewritten and jumbled or as simple as the movement of one adjective or noun. In

changing "She was sweet" to "Sweet, she was," the writer emphasizes sweetness in a unique hyperbatonic fashion. The everyday expression, 'Right you are' is also hyperbatonic. The following excerpts from "anyone lived in a pretty how town" by E.E. Cummings showsa very suggestive use of hyperbaton: anyone lived in a pretty how town (with up so floating many bells down) spring summer autumn winter he sang his didn't he danced his did. Women and men(both little and small) cared for anyone not at all they sowed their isn't they reaped their same sun moon stars rain Hyperbaton can be dramatic and strange, or it can be subtle and poetic. e. Hypallage Hypallage is a figure of speech in which an adjective or participle (an epithet) grammatically qualifies a noun other than the person or thing it is actually describing. Hypallage is sometimes defined more broadly as the inversion or radical rearrangement of normal word order, an extreme type of anastrophe or hyperbaton. Examples : 1. I lighted a thoughtful cigarette and, dismissing Archimedes for the nonce, allowed my mind to dwell once more on the ghastly jam into which I had been thrust by young Stiffy's ill-advised behaviour."(P.G. Wodehouse, The Code of the Woosters, 1938) 2. Winter kept us warm, covering Earth in forgetful snow, feeding A little life with dried tubers.(T.S. Eliot, The Waste Land)

NSOU ? PGEL-9A 236 3. anyone lived in a pretty how town(with up so floating many bells down) (

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E.E. Cummings, "anyone lived in a pretty how town") [

I]n short, 'tis of such a nature, as my father once told my Uncle Toby, upon the close of a long dissertation upon the subject: "You can scarce," said he, "combine two ideas together upon it, brother Toby, without an hypallage."— What's that? cried my uncle Toby. The cart before the horse, replied my father. (Laurence Sterne, The Life and Opinions of Tristram Shandy, 1759-1767) Like enallage, hypallage is an apparent mistake. All changes of grammatical function are not valid cases of hypallage. Puttenham, who calls hypallage the changeling, points out that the user of this figure perverts meaning by shifting the application of words: ' . . . as he should say for . . . come dine with me and stay not, come stay with and me and dine not.(Bernard Marie Dupriez and Albert W. Halsall, A Dictionary of Literary Devices. Univ. of Toronto Press, 1991) 13.7 Function of Figures/Tropes Let us now look at the function of Figure/Trope. Since trope is a figurative expression, its major function is to give additional meanings to the texts, and persuade readers to think deeper than the apparent meaning of the surface text or oratorical communication, to understand the given idea or the character in a deep structure of meaning. It transposes ideas into concrete metaphoric echoes and imagery. that produces pleasing aesthetic effects on the audience's senses. Through the use of figure/trope, writers intensify normal human feelings into extraordinary emotions, where they feel that those emotions are revelatory or 'mantric', to put it after Sri Aurobindo in "The Future of Poetry". Moreover, most types of trope present comparisons that make the understanding of the text easier and vivid for readers. Rhetorical or tropic uses are numerous. They include figures such as 'apostrophe', 'chiasmus', 'zeugma', 'invocation', 'rhetorical question', 'rhetorical irony', 'metaphor', 'image' 'symbolism: contextual and archetypal', 'personification', 'metonymy', 'synecdoche', 'hyperbaton' and 'hypallage' among other figures of speech.

NSOU ? PGEL-9A 237 13.8 Examples of Rhetoric Here is the opening section of Ronald W. Clark's EINSTEIN: The Life and Times The life of Albert Einstein has a dramatic quality that does not rest exclusively on his theory of relativity. For the extravagant timing of history linked him with three shattering developments of the twentieth century; the rise of modern Germany, the birth of nuclear weapons, and the growth of Zionism. Their impact on his simple contributed to drive him into a contact with the affairs of the world for which he had little taste. The result would have made him a unique historical figure even had he not radically altered man's ideas of the physical world. Yet Einstein was also something more, something very from the Delphic, hair-haloed oracle of his later years. To the end he retained a touch of clowning humor as well as a resigned and understanding amusement at the follies of the human race. Behind the great man there lurked a perpetual glint in the eye, a fundamental irreverence for authority, and an unexpected sense of the ridiculous that could unlatch a deep belly laugh that shook the windows; together with decent moral purpose, it combined to make him a character rich in his own non-scientific right. • What has Ronald W. Clark meant to say in this extract from the opening section of his book EINSTEIN: The Life and Times? The italicized parts appear to be more rhetorical than literal. Can we write the content of this extract in a simpler and more ordinary prose style, without the rhetorical overtones? If we can identify the pieces of rhetoric employed by Clark, what are they? Point out allusion, metaphor, oxymoron and/or any other figures if there are any of the kinds used by Clark. • Remember rhetorical flourish is likely to go with speeches more tendentiously than with writings, as the speaker, much more than the writer, intends to create effect on the audience. 13.8.1 Tasks Read the following two passages and say which one is rhetorical, which one is not, that is, a bland narration. Give reasons in support of your choice. a. A few years ago seven swallows were caught near their nests at Bremen in Germany. They were marked with a red dye on some of their red feathers, so that

NSOU ? PGEL-9A 238 could easily be seen. Then they were taken by aeroplane to Croydon, near London: this is a distance of 400 miles. b. Friends and Comrades, the light has gone out of our lives and there is darkness everywhere. I do not know what to tell you and how to say it. Our beloved leader Bapuji as we called him, the Father of the Nation, is no more. Perhaps I was wrong to say that. Nevertheless, we will not see him again as we have seen him for these many years. We will not run to him for advice and seek solace from him, and that is a terrible blow, not to me only but to millions and millions in this country. ... The light has gone out, I said, and yet I was wrong. For the light that shone in this country was no ordinary light. The light that has illumined this country for these many, many years will illumine this country for many more years, and a thousand years later that light will still be seen in this country, and the world will see it, and it will give solace to innumerable hearts. [Jawaharlal Nehru's speech broadcast from All India Radio on January 30, 1948. Cf. Jawaharlal Nehru's Speeches, Vol. I, Publication Division, Government of India, New Delhi.] 13.9 Things to Keep in Mind: A Sum-up Poetry lifts the veil from the hidden beauty of the world, and makes familiar objects be as if they were not familiar." — Percy Bysshe Shelley The range of study in this course material targets chiefly rhetorical devices, although rhetoric is a subject that enmeshes with literary devices that are more typical of literature than ordinary speech or writing. They are the poet's cup of tea, and poetry takes them in, for special artistry peculiar to it. Figures/Tropes in the English language are many, based on turns of meaning and sound patterns, and the units in this elective course touches upon only a select few. It is advisable to look for the figures of speech in its comprehensive range in thebook suggested hereunder: RICHARD E MEZO, Fire i' the Blood: A Handbook of Figurative Language

NSOU ? PGEL-9A 239 13.10 Review Questions Review Questions and Tasks for thought, Understanding and self-assessment Answer in not more than 500 words. 1. Give a brief appraisal on metaphor and its effectiveness as a vehicle of expression 2. How would you distinguish between metaphor and simile? 3. Write a note on the functions of the figures of speech in language 4. What is the difference between rhetorical devices and literary devices? 5. Locate and explain the figures of speech in the following lines: a. The river snakes its way across the hills. b. On their shining tracks the waiting diesel engines purred softly. c. Where youth grows pale, spectre-thin and dies. 6. What is image? Why is image universally perceived or perceptible? 7. What is symbol? What is the difference between 'image' and 'symbol'? 8. How would you distinguish between archetypal symbol and contextual symbol? 9. Illustrate a few archetypal symbols from literary texts. 10. Illustrate a few private or contextual symbols from literary texts. Look for answers to the above questions in the units mentioned below: Q1. Units13.5.1, 13.5.2, 13.6 Q2. Unit 13.5.2 Q3. Units 13.4, 13.5, 13.7 Q4. Unit 13.4-13.8 Q5. Self-work-out tasks Q6. Units 13.6, 13.6.1 Q7. Unit13.6.1 Q8. Unit13.6 Q9. Self-work-out task Q10. Self-work-out task Note: For self-work-out tasks, refer to the respective units.

NSOU ? PGEL-9A 240 13.11 Reference and Reading List 1. Bose, Rai Radhika Nath and Sterling, T.S. (1960). Elements of English Rhetoric and Prosody, Nineteenth Edition, Chuckervertty, Chatterjee & Co, Calcutta. 2. Bradford, Barbara. (1988). Intonation in Context, Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. 3. Leech, Geoffrey N. (1991). A Linguistic Guide to English Poetry. London: Longman. 4. Richards, I.A. (1936). The Philosophy of Rhetoric. New York: Oxford University Press.

NSOU ? PGEL-9A 241 Unit 14 ?Figures of Speech [Apostrophe, Personification, Metonymy, Synecdoche] Structure 14.1 Objectives 14.2 Introduction 14.3 Figures/Tropes: Basic Types and Illustrations 14.3.1 Figures Based on Inversion 14.3.2 Figures Based on Overstatement/Understatement 14.3.3 Figures Based on Reference 14.3.4 Metonymy and Synecdoche: Definitions and Illustrations 14.4 Other Figures Based on Substitutions 14.4.1 Figures or Trope vs. Cliché 14.4.2 A Few Common Examples of Figures/Tropes in Literature 14.5 Rhetoric and English Language Teaching 14.6 Tings to Keep in Mind: A Sum-up 14.7 Review questions/Tasks 14. 8 Further Resources on Figures/Tropes/ Reading List 14.1 Objectives Our objectives in this unit are to know how the figures of speech embellishes our language in order to intensify its emotional appeal and get it across to the readers or audience in a more vivid and impressive way. Language which is a bland literal assemble of statements and narration may suit a simple official communique or just the passing of necessary information as in a manual. Coming to literary texts and oratorical speeches, we can hardly afford to go without rhetorical and literary devices. In this Unit, we are to concentrate specially on Apostrophe, Personification, Metonymy, Synecdoche in concurrence with a wider spectrum of figures-of-speech study.

NSOU ? PGEL-9A 242 14.2 Introduction In the previous unit we have had an idea of what figure of speech means. To revise it, a figure of speech, sometimes called trope, is a figural turn of language or speech that allows words deviate in some subtle way from their bland literal meaning that they be, as authorially intended, understood in an extra-literal or figurative way. Figures/Tropes are intended to exploit comparison or association to move readers away from the denotative definition of words towards a more multifaceted meaning or perception of a higher language beyond the text or speech. Figures/Tropes appear in all genres of literature, as well as everyday speech, advertising, and political rhetoric. The word trope first appeared in English in the 1530s. It is derived from the Latin tropus, which means "figure of speech," and originated in the Greek word tropos, which means "a turn, direction, way, fashion, or manner. 14.3 Figures/Tropes: Basic Types and Illustrations There are many different types of figures/tropes. However, they can be separated into five categories: inversion, overstatement/understatement, reference, substitution, and wordplay/puns: Figures based on sound are classed as 'literary devices', such as 'rhythm', 'rhyme', alliteration', 'assonance', 'onomatopoeia'. 14.3.1 Figures Based on Inversion Irony: This occurs when words or events convey something different - often the opposites - of their actual meanings. There are three different types of irony: verbal, situational, and dramatic. Oxymoron: This figure of speech uses contradictory words as a paired unit. Let us consider how Alfred Lord Tennyson describes Sir Lancelot in Idylls of the King: "His honour rooted in dishonour stood / And faith unfaithful kept him falsely true." Even though Lancelot is the most loyal and honourable of King Arthur's knights, his forbidden affair with the queen undercuts that image, making him "falsely true." Paradox: A paradox is using contradictory or conflicting ideas to make a valid point underneath its apparent antithetical structure.

Difference between a Paradox and an Oxymoron An oxymoron is a specific type of paradox that is short and an immediate comparison of two opposite words that seem to cancel each other out. An oxymoron is used as a descriptor while a paradox is used to provoke deeper thinking or consideration. Oxymoron is a miniature form of paradox. Examples of Oxymoron Jumbo shrimp(a shrimp is very small, and jumbo usually refers to something much larger than average), Act naturally (if one is acting, it is, by definition, not natural), Deafening silence (very loud sounds would cause hearing damage, and silence is the opposite of that). Examples of Paradox One can find paradox examples in all types of language and writing: speech, songs, poems, literary works, etc. Paradoxes in Everyday Speech Paradoxes are common in phrases heard every day that are considered a normal part of the lexicon. Examples: Less is more, Fight fire with fire, The beginning of the end, You have to have money to make money, so on and so forth. Paradoxes in Literature In William Shakespeare's Romeo and Juliet, Juliet delivered her paradoxical speech from her balcony, unaware of Romeo below the balcony."O Romeo, Romeo, wherefore art thou Romeo?" This is the first line of a speech delivered by Juliet when she learns of Romeo's identity as the son of her family's sworn enemy. She is questioning 'why' he is Romeo here, meaning why he does have to belong to this family when she is in love with him, knowing that it will cause nothing but problems. Juliet delivering her famous speech from her balcony is an example of paradox in literature. There are many examples of paradoxes in both classical and contemporary literature. The following paradoxes are from Shakespeare's Romeo and Juliet: "Alas, that love, whose view is muffled still, Should, without eyes, see pathways to his will!"

These lines appear in the opening scene of the play, and refers to the adage that love is blind, but Romeo wants it to see a way for his love to work out anyway. The contrasting elements of blindness versus sight create the paradox here. Incidentally, if we read Joseph Heller's novelCatch-22, we will be simply amazed by the brilliance of paradoxes that Heller's narrative style bristles with. Synaesthesia: This device takes words specific to one of the five senses and uses them to describe a different sense. For example, describing the sound of someone's voice as "honeyed," when honey is something associated with taste. There is a plethora of Synaesthesia in the Bengali poems of Jibanananda Das, a refreshingly modern and sensuous voice breaking free of Tagorean influence. 14.3.2 Figures Based on Overstatement/Understatement Grandiloquence: This is the use of pompous or grandiose speech for impressive oratorical or theatrical effect. Hyperbole: This is the use of an extreme exaggeration for dramatic or comic effect; for example, saying "I was waiting in line forever" or "I'm so hungry I could eat a horse." Litotes: This figure of speech affirms an idea by contradicting its opposites. For example, to convey the idea that the cappuccino is delicious if one says "This cappuccino isnot bad", it becomes at once the use of the figure - litotes. 14.3.3 Figures Based on Reference Allegory: This is a story with a hidden moral, often with a political, or cultural message. The characters and plots of allegories often symbolize real-life people, events, and ideas, but they donot explicitly state the comparison. Allegories can be historical and political, such as George Orwell's novel Animal Farm, or conceptual, such as C. S. Lewis's book The Lion, the Witch and the Wardrobe. Allusion: This is a reference within the text to another creative work, myth or history. For example, W. H. Auden makes an allusion to Pieter Brueghel's painting "The Fall of Icarus" in his poem Musee des Beaux Arts. Poets like Milton, John Donne and T S Eliot are highly allusive. Metaphor: We discussed metaphor already in Unit 13. This is a repetition of our earlier discussion in a synoptic form to revise what we have learnt in our previous study.

This figure of speech is an implicit comparison between two different things, used for poetic or dramatic effect in order to highlight a conceptual link or affinity between the two compared items. Metaphors are mostly associated with literature, but they appear in everyday life as well; for example, we may metaphorically speak things like "I'm such a pig" after overeating, or describe a trusted and supportive friend as being "my rock.". Simile: Similar to metaphor, this figure of speech is an explicit comparison between two things with the use of like or as. Though primarily associated with poetry, we encounter similes all the time—in movies (the famous Forrest Gump line "Life is like a box of chocolates"), marketing (State Farm Insurance's slogan "Like a good neighbour, State Farm is there"), music (The lyric "My heart cold like assassins" from Jay-Z's song "Big Pimpin'"), political discourse ("America is a melting pot"), and everyday speech ("I'm as busy as a bee"). Apostrophe Apostrophe: Apostrophe is a figure of speech based on imagination where an impassioned and short address is made to nature, or an inanimate object, an abstract idea or deed or even an absent person, imagining the same to be living or present and listening to the speaker.A classic example is Wordsworth's apostrophe: "Milton! thou shouldn't, be living at this hour" . as it is our syllabic focus, Apostrophe is to taken up more elaborately in tandem with the other foci: Personification, Metonymy, Synecdoche. Apostrophe An apostrophe, in figurative language, is the direct address to an absent person, object, or abstract idea. An apostrophe is often used to begin a poem to establish the primary subject or mood. It is also a way for the author to use personification to clarify a complex idea, or to bring any character into the work. One of the most well-known examples of apostrophe is in Shakespeare's The Tragedy of Macbeth where Macbeth's dagger comes to life, personifying his own conscience as he prepares to slay King Duncan. Macbeth, both terrified and mesmerized, says, "Is this a dagger which I see before me / The dagger toward my hand? Come, let me clutch thee! / I have thee not, and yet I see thee still."

NSOU ? PGEL-9A 246 Personification: Writers employ personification when they attribute qualities of greater animation to concepts, objects, or animals which are less animate or inanimate. It is frequently defined as "giving human qualities to non-human entities," such as when we say, "That dog is smiling" or "The wind is laughing." Personification also includes non- human comparisons, such as when T.S. Eliot likens the London fog to a cat in his poem The Love Song of J. Alfred Prufrock.So we see that personification is the attribution of human qualities to an inanimate object, animal, or abstract idea. Personification is used to simplify a more complex concept, to provide humour, or to provide a more clear look at a complicated idea or situation. Personification is most often used in poetry to create an image or to help establish a mood of pathetic fallacy or empathy. Robert Frost uses personification in his poem Stopping By Woods on a Snowy Evening when he gives the horse human qualities: "He gives his harness bells a shake /To ask if there is some mistake." Horses do not ask questions, but the horse's confusion seems to parody the narrator's own confusion and reluctance to keep moving as he stands and stares at the beauty of a snowy evening. 14.3.4 Metonymy and Synecdoche: Definitions and Illustrations Metonymy relates to a word or term being replaced by something conventionally or ceremonially or functionally associated with it. In the sentence, "The pen is mightier than the sword," for example, pen stands for the concept of diplomacy while sword is a substitute for the concept of warfare. Synecdoche refers to a whole by its part(s) or at times to a part by its whole. Referring to a car as "wheels" is an example of Synecdoche. Metonymy as a figure or trope derives from the noun, metonym which means, according to The Oxford Dictionary, a word, name, or expression used as a substitute for something else with which it is closely associated. For example, Washington is a metonym for the federal government of the US. The relationship between the two as involved in the use of metonymy is incidental or ceremonial. For example if we say after Tennyson that the sceptre and crown must tumble down, we mean to say that the sceptre and crown are related to the king incidentally or ceremonially, and the powers of monarchy do not last for ever. The expression is metonymic. Similarly, if we say, 'Look at the red cap in the crowd', we mean the person wearing the red cap. In this,

NSOU ? PGEL-9A 247 the red cap incidentally or ceremonially substitutes the person who wears it. The red cap signifying its wearer is a metonym. In Synecdoche, this substitution is based upon an organic and integral association between the two: the part for the whole or vice-versa.In fact, Synecdoche is derived from the Greek word synekdoche: "simultaneous meaning." As a literary device, synecdoche allows for a smaller component of something to stand in for the larger whole, in a rhetorical manner.In T.S. Eliot's poem The Love Song of J. Alfred Prufrock, the speaker exclaims, "I should have been a pair of ragged claws / Scuttling across the floors of silent seas." Eliot refers here to a crab, which he reduces down to one of the crab's most characteristic features: its claws. The speaker of the poem — presumably Prufrock — has such a low estimation of himself that he equates himself to but one small part of a small, insignificant creature that dwells on the bottom of the ocean. In this poem, Eliot's use of synecdoche signifies the extent to which the poem's speaker is deep into himself. In

Samuel Taylor Coleridge's poem The Rime of the Ancient Mariner, the

speaker, an old and repentant sailor reliving his past sin of killing an innocent albatross, refers to a time on a ship when, "

The western wave was all a-flame. / The day was

wellnigh done!" Coleridge selects a wave as a part that stands for the whole ocean. In referring to the wave as "a-flame," the speaker reveals the time of day: sunset. However, by referring to the wave/ocean as aflame, the speaker also foreshadows the turbulence he and his fellow sailors will face at the fall of night. In this poem, Coleridge's use of synecdocheplays a role of foreshadowing the future.In Percy Bysshe Shelley's poem "Ozymandias," a character refers to a statue buried in the sands which "Tell that its sculptor well those passions read / Which yet survive, stamped on these lifeless things, / The hand that mocked them and the heart that fed." Here, Shelley refers to the sculptor of the statue as "hands." In so doing, Shelley points to the relative insignificance of the so-called "great works," which are ultimately nothing more than fragile human creations in the passage of time. In this poem, Shelley's use of synecdoche diminishes the importance of both great works, as well as those who create them viz- a-viz time-flux.In William Wordsworth's poem We Are Seven, the speaker converses with a little girl whose six brothers and sisters have all died. She insists that she still does have six siblings. In an effort to distinguish between her and her dead siblings, the speaker exclaims "You run about, my little Maid, / Your limbs they are alive." Wordsworth equates a part of the little girl - her limbs - with her whole person, who

NSOU ? PGEL-9A 248 is very much alive. In this poem, Wordsworth's use of synecdoche suggests the close association the speaker makes between a live body and being alive. The little girl's insistence that her siblings are alive (even though their bodies are not), suggests a different kind of aliveness the speaker does not realise.Thus the use of Metonymy and Synecdoche deepens the emotional charge and visionary content of poetry, or for that matter, literature as a whole. 14.4 Other Figures Based on Substitutions Euphemism: When people replace a harsh, taboo, or unpleasant term with more delicate phrasing, that is a euphemism. For instance, saying someone has "a bun in the oven" is a more delicate way of saying they're pregnant. Puns: They are wilful and intriguing play of words that takes advantage of multiple meanings of a word or words that sound similar for a special humorous effect. Innuendo: This is a word, phrase, or sentence that contains a hidden (and often sexually suggestive) meaning. Malapropism: This occurs when one confuses a word with a similar word; for example, saying "A rolling stone gathers no moths" rather than the correct "A rolling stone gathers no moss." Paraprosdokian: This literary device refers to an unexpected twist at the end of a phrase or sentence, leading to a surprising—and frequently humorous—ending. 14.4.1 Figures or Trope vs. Cliché The word 'figure' or 'trope' has a secondary meaning that may seem almost synonymous with cliché, as it is used to indicate a familiar pattern, concept, image, or device. This colloquial usage generally occurs more in the realm of cultural criticism rather than in literature. As such, this instance of trope does not require a layer of figurative meaning the way literary figures/tropes do. A significant difference between cliché and this secondary meaning of trope is that clichés are considered overused and prudently avoided, while tropes do not carry the same stigma. Instead, figures/tropes are simply seen as recurrent and cognizable devices, similar to archetypes, used for furthering reading and receptive pleasure and understanding.

NSOU ? PGEL-9A 249 14.4.2 A Few Common Examples of Figures/Tropes in Literature Rhetorica.net has a wonderful list of tropes and schemes in classical rhetoric. 1. Metaphor With our previous knowledge of metaphor let us now look at how Shakespeare, a master of metaphors, creates dramatic effect with the help of metaphors. In Act II, Scene 2 of Shakespeare's romantic tragedy, Romeo and Juliet, Romeo stands in the Capulets' orchard, looking at his beloved Juliet's window, and says: But, soft! what light through yonder window breaks? It is the east, and Juliet is the sun. These two lines contain a very apt metaphor because Romeo is comparing Juliet to the sun – a comparison in likeness of thoughts or impressions between two unallied objects. In The Rape of the Lock, Alexander Pope sets up an extended metaphor in the sun- comparisons of the heroine of this mock-epic, Belinda. Indeed, where there is a literary text going as far back as to the Old English period, there must be metaphoric charges and echoes gripping the mind of readers. Even in the simulated stream of consciousness in James Joyce's Ulysses we note constant orchestration of metaphors. 2. Simile: Maya Angelou, Still I Rise Angelou uses similes throughout her poem: You may trod me in the very dirt But still, like dust, I'll rise. In this trope, Angelou makes an explicit comparison between her ability to rise above obstacles and the way dust rises when trodden or kicked. 3. Extended Metaphor: In Jonathan Swift's famous essay, A Modest Proposal he proposes that the best way to solve the problem of childhood poverty is to eat the poor children: I have been assured...that a young healthy child well nursed is, at a year old, a most delicious nourishing and wholesome food, whether stewed, NSOU ? PGEL-9A 250 roasted, baked, or boiled; and I make no doubt that it will equally serve in a fricassee, or a ragout. Swift is using satire in extended metaphor to critique the cruelty of the society he lives in, which ignores the suffering of the poor. By writing an outlandish metaphoric proposal, he hopes to evoke compassion for the poor. 4. Mixed Metaphor Occasionally an author blends two metaphors which do not normally go together. This called a mixed metaphor. Example: When I graduate, I hope to become a well-oiled cog in the bee-hive of industry. Here, a 'well-oiled cog', associated with industry, does not go with 'beehive'. 5. Chiasmus: Chiasmus has a Greek origin, indicating the crosswise placement of a passage consisting of two balanced parts which have their elements reversed, as in the allusion to the hanged criminal in Oscar Wilde's The Ballad of Reading Goal, For his mourners will be outcast men, And outcasts always mourn. Chiasmus thus consists in an inversion of the words and phrases when repeated on subsequently referred to in the same sentence, the purpose being to make a statement more emphatic and impressive. Other examples: May you stand long, and long stand the terror of tyrants. (Burke) Beauty is truth, truth beauty. (Keats) 6. Zeugma: Figure in which one verb is used for two nouns. The moment and the vessel passed. (Tennyson) Banners on high and battles passed below.(Byron) 7. Invocation: Invocation is an appeal usually directed to Calliope, the chief muse of epic poetry, mother of the archetypal Greek poet, Orpheus, or in extended use to a higher power, metaphorical or symbolic (Wordsworth's Immortality, Coleridge's Dejection, Shelley's West Wind, Keats's Nightingale or Psyche - in which the poet solicits or invokes the divine or supernatural assistance at the beginning of an epic or any long contemplative work.

NSOU ? PGEL-9A 251 The Invocation occurs at the beginning of Milton's Paradise Lost. Milton's appeal, however, is not to Calliope but to Urania, who is officially the Muse of astronomy, but is here converted to a holy spirit. Sing Heavenly Muse that on the secret topof Ors on Sinai did inspire That Shepherd who first taught the chosen seed, In the beginning how Heaven and Earth Rose out of Chass ...(Milton). 8. Rhetorical Question: Rhetorical Question refers to a question asked not to get information, but to achieve a stylistic effect. Often, a writer or a speaker adds emphasis to a point by putting it in the question form, the answer to which supports his argument. Shylock's speech in Shakespeare's The Merchant of Venice Hath not a few eyes ... if you prick us do we not bleed .... if you poison us do we not die? .... and if you wrong us shall we not revenge? The answer to all these questions would and should be in the affirmative. The same answer is subtly imposed upon the speakers by the pattern used here, and the speaker's point is confirmed. 9. Rhetorical Irony: Rhetorical Irony is a device by which a writer expresses a meaning contradictory to the stated or apparent one. Irony may be of various types, but probably the simplest and most commonly used is 'verbal irony' or 'rhetorical irony'. It occurs when the attitude of the speaker/writer is opposite to what is literally said. When Hamlet feigning madness says that his father has been dead for two hours, Ophelia corrects him: Nay 'tis twice two months, my lord." Hamlet: "So long?... O Heavens! die two months ago and not forgotten yet? Then there's hope that a great man's memory may out live his life half a year. Here Hamlet's ironical delight is self-subversive, more expressive of his grief than any outburst of anger.

NSOU ? PGEL-9A 252 14.5 Rhetoric and English Language Teaching There are two views – one in favour of and the other against the use of such rhetorical devices in language teaching. The anti-rhetoric view shows its strong resentment in using such figures of speech and does not find the space of them in language teaching, whereas the pro-rhetoric school pleads for using both rhetorical and literary devices in language teaching ifthe texts are wisely selected. The judicious or creative use of figures of speech is according to this school is conducive to second language learning. A language teacher is supposed to look at them from the language teaching point of view. This course material primarily analyses the representative figures of speech, states some examples with their language features and ultimately justifies how figures of speech support language teaching and learning. 14.6 Tings to Keep in Mind: A Sum-up Figures of speech is the forte of creative writers across genres, and of oratorical speakers. One may be tempted to overburden a piece of writing or a speech with theflamboyance and flourish of rhetoric. It is here that a good writer or speaker is apt to take caution and goes as far as a judicious mingling of rhetoric with bland prose or verse is possible. 14.7 Review questions/Tasks Review questions/Tasks for thought, understanding and self-assessment. Textual Examples of Figures of Speech/Tropes This section presents some examples of figures of speech used in different texts of poetry. We are to locate, identify and justify the given figures: 1. Identify and justify the figures of speech in the following: The broken wall, the burning roof and tower, And Agamemnon dead.(W.B Yeats in Leda and the Swan)

NSOU ? PGEL-9A 253 2. Identify and justify the figures of speech in the following: When the stars threw down their spears And watered heaven with their tears Did he smile his work to see Did he who made the Lamb make thee ? (William Blake in The Tyger) 3. Identify and justify the figures of speech in the following: Thou by the Indian Ganges' side I by the tide of Humber would complain. (Andrew Marvell in To His Coy Mistress) 4. Identify and justify the figures of speech in the following: The throwers throw only now and then, But the gatherers Continue with their hoarding forever. (Prakash Subedi in At the Temple) 5. Identify and justify the figures of speech in the following: Was he free? Was he happy? The question is absurd: Had anything been wrong? We Certainly should have heard.(W.H Auden in The Unknown Citizen) 6. Identify and justify the figures of speech in the following: This city now doth, like a garment, wear The beauty of the morning; silent bare. (William Wordsworth in Composed upon Westminster Bridge) 7. Identify and justify the figures of speech in the following: My manhood is cast down I weep like a child for the past.(D. H. Lawrence in Piano)

NSOU ? PGEL-9A 254 8. Identify and justify the figures of speech in the following: O Rose, thou art sick: The invisible worm, That flies in the night In the howling storm.(William Blake in The Sick Rose) 9. Identify and justify the figures of speech in the following: My vegetable love should grow, Vaster than empires, and more slow.(Andrew Marvell in To His Coy Mistress) 10. Identify and justify the figures of speech in the following: It is an ever fixed mark, That looks an tempest and is never shaken It is the star to every wandering bark.(Shakespeare in Marriage of True Minds) 11. Identify and justify the figures of speech in the following: This city now doth, like a garment, wear The beauty of the morning; silent bare. (Wordsworth in Composed upon Westminster Bridge) 12. Identify and justify the figures of speech in the following: O Rose, thou art sick: The invisible worm, That flies in the night In the howling storm.(William Blake in The Sick Rose)

NSOU ? PGEL-9A 255 14.8 Further Resources on Figures/Tropes Rhetorica.net has a wonderful list of tropes and schemes in classical rhetoric. YouTube channel bookslikewhoa did a very useful video "Know Your Tropes: Literary Fiction", which addresses Figures/Tropes in their popular, colloquial usage. Reading List 1. Literary Terms by Karl Beckson and Arthur Ganz.Farrar, Straus and Giroux (1989) 2. Figurative Vs Trope – What is the Difference: wikidiff.com 3. Difference between Trope and Figure: Definition and Examples : supersummary.com 4. Rhetorica.net

Unit 15 ? Stylistic Analysis of Texts−1 Structure 15.1 Objectives 15.2 Introduction 15.3 Stylistic Analysis Method [SAM] 15.3.1 Stylistics: A Diachronic View 15.3.2 Narrative and Narrator 15.3.3 The Point of View 15.3.4 Characterisation 15.3.5 Style 15.4 Things to Keep in Mind: A Sum-up 15.5 Review Questions 15.1 Objectives Our aim in this unit is to achieve proficiency in stylistic approach to literary text analysis. Each literary text cutting across generic divisions is unique, and has its own style of presentation. By going through this unit we are supposed to gain some knowledge into the style of how an author textualises his theme and motivic elements, with an added stress on the linguistic features of his writing as means to meanings. Whereas in Unit no. 15 we adopt a theoretical approach to stylistics in understanding an artifact, in particular, fictional narrative or drama, we do a practical approach to stylistic analysis of poetry in Unit no. 16. 15.2 Introduction Stylistics, at present, is considered part of Applied Linguistics. Modern Stylistics has existed in some form ever since Charles Bally coined the word "Stylisticque" in 1909. Its roots, however, can be traced to Aristotle's rhetorical studies. At its most basic level, Stylistics is the study of literary texts, mostly depending on Linguistics methods.

The stylistic analysis of a text is based on the theoretical knowledge of the available stylistic resources and is aimed at unfolding the author's message through drawing upon the implicit information created by a cluster of means, such as the choice of vocabulary, the use of stylistic devices at different language levels, the peculiarities of the presentation of characters and events. There are no hard and fast rules about text interpretation but the following recommendations and logical steps can be helpful to the learners. 15.3 Stylistic Analysis Method [SAM] 15.3.1 Stylistics: A Diachronic View Historically speaking, the study of style can be traced back to the literary scholarships of the Greeks and Romans in the fifth century BC. In this period the rhetoric was the dominant art. This discipline was a set of rules and strategies which enable writers and orators to speak well. In other words, they fully decorated the language with all the figures and tropes to bring about changes in the feelings and opinions of the audience. In stylistic analysis method we take generally a structure analysis procedure to critically approach a narrative or dramatic construct. In case of a non-narrative and non-dramatic construct we prefer a synthetic approach. In this unit we are focussing on the former, and in the following unit, that is, unit no. 16, we will go in for the latter. As mentioned above, stylistic analysis comprises two stages: the analysis of a text and the synthesis of the main idea or theme (message) of the text. The first stage, in its turn, is subdivided into several successive procedures. Firstly, we are supposed to touch on some aspects of the writer's creative activities, mention his most important books and outline the distinctive traits of the writer's attitude, outlook and vision. The necessary information can be had from the available resources on literature. Moreover, some relevant facts can be found in the preface to a book or the flap literature or blurb at the end of it. However, we should not go into a detailed analysis of the writer's creative concepts, but concentrate more on the linguistic aspects of the text. After this the text should be split (in accordance with its contents) into a few logical parts. The interrelation between different components of a literary text is called composition. The four structural components of the composition are exposition, complication, climax and denouement, if it happens to be a story in dramatic or narrative form.

Exposition introduces time, place and characters of the story. It is usually to be found at the beginning of the story, but it may also be interwoven in the narrative by means of flashbacks, so that the reader gradually comes to know the characters and events leading up to the present. The particular time and physical location of the story form the setting. Such details as the time of the year, certain parts of the landscape, the weather, colours, sounds or other seemingly uninteresting physical details may be of great importance. The setting can have various functions in a given story: 1) it can provide a realistic background, 2) it can conjure up the necessary environment or ambience, 3) it can help describe the characters indirectly, 4) it creates a reality world to which we can refer the characters and their actions. Complication brews up unveiling the actions, and involving the thoughts and feelings of the reader in order that we can understand the implications and directions of actions, as well. Climax unfolds the decisive moment on which the final actions depend and the personal destinies of the characters take shape. It is the point at which the forces in the conflict reach the highest intensity. Denouement comes with 'the untying of the knot' that the story purports to present to its finality. Not all stories must have a denouement. Some stories may close right after the climax, leaving it to the reader to infer what the outcome of the conflict or climactic actions will be. Stylistic analysis method looks to the perceptive and discerning reader to creatively participate in the narrative to generate, reconstruct and at the furthest end to deconstruct the meaning of a given text. If these structural parts are not found in a given text, which is homogeneously progressive in its structure, we are supposed to mention it. Sometimes a plot follows the chronological order of incidents or events. At other times there may be cuts and jumps back and forth in time (flashbacks and foreshadowing). The step next to plot scrutiny is the analysis of the general character of the text, i.e. the way of telling about or showing forth the characters, incidents and events. The author's choice of characters, events, situations, details and his choice of words is by no means accidental. Whatever leads us to enter the author's attitude to his subject matter is called tone. Like the tone of voice the tone of a story may communicate amusement, anger, affection, sorrow, contempt and a host of other feelings. 15.3.2 Narrative and Narrator It is important to distinguish between the author, writing or telling the story, and the narrator or the person or voice who is actually telling the story. The author may either select

a first-person narrative (subjectivized or homodiegetic) or get one or the other of the characters belonging to the textual world to tell of things that only he or she saw and felt (objectivised or heterodiegetic). In a third-person narrative (objectivized) the omniscient narrator outside the textual world moves in and out of the characters' thoughts, and comments freely on what the characters think, say and do. Thus, there are four types of narrator in a literary text: I. The narrator is not opposed to the author and does not belong to the story (textual world) − authorial omniscient narrator. II. The narrator is not opposed to the author and is inside the textual world, either a. In the centre − authorial narrator-persona; b. On the periphery−authorial narrator-witness. III. The narrator who is opposed to the author and is outside the story − omniscient narrator opposed to the author(false author); IV. The narrator is opposed to the author and is a fictitious story-teller, either: a. In the centre − narrator-persona opposed to the author; b. On the periphery−narrator-witness opposed to the author. 15.3.3 The Point of View The way a story is presented is the key element in a fictional construct. This involves both the perspective of vision, the point from which the characters, events and other details are viewed, and the words the story is told in. This aspect is called the focus or point of view. A. It may be the narrator's point of view, which is embedded in a narrator-focalizer. It is called external focalization, also known as unlimited (non-concentric) narrative perspective. B. The character's point of view takes the form of a character-focalizer (chief character or onlooker). It is called internal focalization(limited/concentric narrative perspective). We find commonly the combination of the two types (especially in the 3rd person narratives), when the narrator's external (unlimited) point of view suffers frequent switch- overs to the internal character-focalizer's limited views.

In general any work of fiction consists of relatively independent elements − narration, description, dialogue, narrated monologue, interior monologue, spoken soliloquy, digressions, and authorial intrusive comment. Description tends to be static, as it is a verbal portraiture of an object, person or scene. It may be detailed and direct or impressionistic, choosing striking details. Digression consists of an insertion of material that has no immediate relation to the theme or action. It may be lyrical, philosophical or critical. The character's plane is represented by different forms of direct speech (inward and outward). Through dialogue the characters are better revealed. Dialogue brings the actions nearer the reader, makes them seem more rapid and more intense. Interior monologue is a verbal echo of the thought-process and feelings of a character. There is the form of narrated monologue, which is the third-person rendering of the character's consciousness. It is a variant of reported speech. 15.3.4 Characterisation The narration of the different facets (physical, moral, social) of a character is known as characterization. When the author describes the character himself or makes another do it, it is direct characterisation. When the author shows the character in action, and lets the reader judge a character for himself/ herself, the author uses the indirect method of characterisation. Characters are 'round' if they are complex and growing in the course of the story. Flat characters are usually one-sided, constructed round a single trait. If two characters have distinctly opposing traits, one serves as a foil to the other, and this contrastive method of characterisation throws each other into relief. Round and flat characters have different functions in the conflict of the story. Conflict may be external, i.e. between human beings themselves or between man and circumstance or environment (individual against nature, individual against the overmastering order/values of family and society). Internal conflict takes place in the mind of the character who is torn between opposing forces within his personality. The next step of analysis is the characterisation of stylistically coloured elements of each compositional part, taking into account the following aspects. 15.3.5 Style 1. Phonetic level: We are expected to point out such devices as alliteration, assonance, onomatopoeia and to show what stylistic effects they create, how they

NSOU ? PGEL-9A 261 help to unfold the author's message, what additional information they give the reader about the traits of character and the author's attitude to them. 2. Phono-graphical level: Attention is to be paid here to graphons, changes in the spelling of words, peculiarities of the print-style, macro- and micro-segmentation of the text. 3. Lexical peculiarities: We are supposed to - – characterise the vocabulary of the narrative from the stylistic viewpoint, and specify its stylistic colouring (neutral, literary, colloquial); – analyse specific word-groups, if any, and comment on their specific connotative aspects (terms, archaisms, dialectism, poetic words) and their importance to the expression of the author's theme and the reader's understanding of the story as a whole; – look for key-words or key-phrases which are recurrent in the text and which help to develop the plot and the theme of the literary work; technically this is called 'intra-referential motivation' – observe the character of vocabulary and syntactical constructions used in dialogues and monologues and draw inferences about the people who speak them; – look for groups of words with common connotation (negative, positive, lyrical, ironical) and words which become contextual synonyms or antonyms in the text under analysis. 4. Syntactic peculiarities: Here attention is to be paid to the length and complexity of the sentences, the types of syntactic structures (characteristic of oral and written speech), the use of specific syntactic devices, i.e. repetitions, parallel constructions, inversion, break, etc. Mention should be made of the types of connection between the parts of a complex sentence – asyndetic or syndetic, pointing out the relevant stylistic effects. 5. Semasiological peculiarities: One should comment on the implications of such devices as metaphors, metonymies, puns, irony, hyperboles, oxymorons, understatements, antithesis, climax, litotes, periphrasis or any other tropes used. In the process of the text analysis we should not break the tropes and stylistic devices into the above-mentioned groups, but just comment on the stylistically

NSOU ? PGEL-9A 262 marked elements as they occur in the text.After that we are to sum up our observations as to the author's stylistic inventory and highlight the main features which characterise the author's style. At the end of the analysis (the second stage) we formulate the unifying general idea or vision about life that the story points up. While formulating the message, we should not retell the contents of the narrative once more, but concentrate on the moral and philosophical aspect of the text. 15.4 Things to Keep in Mind: A Sum-up In stylistic analysis method the things we need to keep in mind are: how the story is structured along an evolving plotline, how the distinctive narratology is involved and moderated by the author to bring out a story-sense, how the syntactic and lexical peculiarities are controlled by the author and how the phonetic and phono-graphical levels of narration are to be addressed. 15.5 Review Questions Review Questions for thought, understanding and self-assessment. Answer in not more than 500 words. 1. Give a short description of Diachronic View about Stylistics. 2. What are the initial steps towards the appreciation of a fictional narrative in the Stylistic analysis method? 3. What are the different methods of the narrative style as far as a fictional construct is concerned? 4. Write a short review on the role of the first-person narrator, keeping in mind the stylistic approach to it. 5. What are the phonetic and phono-graphical levels of analysis? 6. How important are the syntactic peculiarities in the appreciation of a literary text? What are to be paid attention to, in dealing with them? 7. What are Semasiological peculiarities, and how far important are they in stylistic analysis?

NSOU ? PGEL-9A 263 8. Discuss how plot is structured in a narrative. 9. Write a note on the different modes of characterisation in novelistic and dramatic literature. 10. Which aspect of the story is called focus or point of view? Discuss briefly. Look for answers to the above questions in the units mentioned below. Q1. Unit 15.3.1 Q2. Unit 15.3.2-15.3.5 Q3. Unit 15.3.2-15.3.5 Q4. Unit 15.3.2 Q5. Unit 15.3.5 Q6. Unit 15.3.5 Q7. Unit 15 .3.5 Q8. Unit 15.3.1 Q9. Unit 15.3.4 Q10. Unit 15.3.3 References for further Reading- Stated in Unit 16.

NSOU ? PGEL-9A 264 Unit 16 ? Stylistic Analysis of texts 2 (perception of higher language) Structure 16.1 Objectives 16.2 Introduction 16.3 Form and Content 16.4 Monist, Dualist and Pluralist Approaches 16.4.1 The Dualist Approach 16.4.2 The Pluralist Approach 16.4.3 The Use of Deviant Constructions 16.5 Linguistics and Stylistics 16.6 An Example of a Stylistic Analysis 16.6.1 Deviation and Parallelism 16.6.2 Congruence of Foregrounding in the Final Stanza 16.6.3 Inference from Stylistic Analysis of the Poem 16.7 Things to Keep in Mind: A Sum-up 16.8 Review Questions and Tasks 16.9 Answer Key 16.10 References 16.1 Objectives Our aim in this unit is to know the art of scrutiny and explication of a text from its linguistic analysis. We are going to get an idea of stylistics as it is applied to literary criticism for a higher language of perception. In this unit, we will also apply the stylistic method to understanding a poem from the plane of language as used by the poet.

16.2 Introduction According to Paul Simpson, What sets Stylistics apart from other types of critical practice, is itsemphasis on the language of the text – what captures the essence of the stylistic method is the primayit assigns to language. Style can be defined as any particular or distinctive manner of using language, that is, a particular way of stating something either verbally or in the written form. This is an area where close reading is a necessity. It familiarizes the reader with the distinctive style of a particular author or poet. Hence, critics can draw our attention to the satirical style of Dryden and Pope, the lofty elevated Miltonic style, or the prevalence of simple and common words in Wordsworth's style. Similarly, the style of Jane Austen can never be confused with that of Dickens. All possess distinct and individual styles in their choice of language, and other linguistic features. The selection of words would depend on the knowledge and choice of vocabulary, time, place, the role of the user, the purpose as well as attitude which is dictated by social and cultural factors like family background, level of education, time place etc. 16.3 Form and Content The relationship between the form and the content of a literary work has raised serious points of discussion among Linguists. To the general reader the form of a literary work would mean the arrangement of the context as presented by the author. It may refer to the style adopted, the structure or the tone of the topic. There are different genres of literature such as novels, short stories, poems etc., each with its individual form selected by the author or poet to be most suitable for the context. These forms may have many sub-forms. For instance, in the case of poetry these may be narrative poem, ballad, epic, elegy or sonnet, free verse, even limerick or haiku. The poet's choice would depend on his context. Similarly, the purpose of the novel may present many choices to the author. The novel is usually divided into chapters, a play into acts or scenes. Content is basically what the text communicates. It explains what the text is about, that is, the information that is contained in it. Thus in a literary work, e.g., a novel, content would refer to plot, characters, its setting and theme. In a poem, content would express

its idea. The poet has a wide choice as regards its form as mentioned earlier. Therefore, content refers to what a text says, while form would indicate how it is said. Thus form presents the structure, while content may include plot, characters, themes and settings. Here lies the key difference between the two. 16.4 Monist, Dualist and Pluralist Approaches All these different approaches refer to conflicting theories about the relationship between form and content. The Monist Approach: One group of critics claims that the form and content of a literary work are inseparable and indistinguishable from each other. These have been termed the Monists. According to them, the form of a literary work cannot be altered without directly affecting its content. Among the critics who advocate this line of thinking is Mukarovsky of the Prague School of Poetics, as well as New Critics like John Crowe Ransom and Cleanth Brooks. For this reason, the Monists feel no literary work can be paraphrased because that will alter the form and with it the content of the text. Brooks supports this point of view in his book, The Well Wrought Urn focus is on, where his poetry. Other critics have questioned whether this theory would be effective when analysing a prose text. 16.4.1 The Dualist Approach This theory makes a distinction between what the writer says (content) and how he presents it (form). This would mean that the core/central idea can be expressed in different forms without making any changes in the significance o the idea. Plato, the Greek philosopher, offers the closest argument that one philosophical body and soul are separate entities and one (the soul) lives on even when the body has died. The Dualist group of critics has generally followed this theory. A contrary theory, supporting the Monist approach is that how words are arranged, punctuation and other features are used by the author, the various levels and their interpretations are brought out by his techniques, make us feel that the theory that prose is not poetic enough to suit the Monist approach may notal ways be acceptable on justifiable. 16.4.2 The Pluralist Approach This school claims focus on the complexities of a literary work and its interpretation. These critics hold that both the Monist and Dualist groups of critics are some what simplistic in their approaches and fail to analyse a literary work with all its complexities.

NSOU ? PGEL-9A 267 Two more linguistic terms are used frequently in Stylistics. These are Foregrounding and Deviations in language. According to Richard Nordquist, in literary studies and in Stylistics, foregrounding is a linguistic strategy of calling attention to certain language features, by which the reader concentrates on "what is said" rather than on "how it is said." Thus in systematic and functional Linguistics "foregrounding" refers to a prominent portion of the text that contributes meaning and provides a contrast with the background which forms the relevant context for the fore grounded material. M. A. K. Halliday also has characterized foregrounding as "motivated prominence". His definition of this technique is "The phenomena of linguistic highlighting, whereby some features of the language of the text stand out in some way." (Halliday, 1977). Thus, foregrounding is essentially a technique for "making strange" in language as may be concluded from Shlovsky's Russian term "ostranenie", a method of defamiliarisation in the text. Whether the pattern of the foregrounding material deviates from an accepted norm or whether it replicates a pattern through parallelism, the point of foregrounding as a "stylistic strategy is that it should acquire silence in the act of drawing attention to itself." (Simpson 2004). 16.4.3 The Use of Deviant Constructions The technique of foregrounding leads us to the use of deviant constructions by the poet/ author. In Linguistics, a unit of language is considered to be deviant if it does not confirm to rules (of the language used) formed on the basis of data and also on a native user's intuitions. In the case of poetry, despite poetic deviation, poetry has its own rules and norms which separate it from ordinary language and goes on to create its own patterns. Even Wordsworth, who asserted that poetry should be written in the everyday language of man, made use of deviations in order to communicate his message effectively. 16.5 Linguistics and Stylistics Keith Green states that "Stylistics arose partly because of the need in literary criticism to work with a set of agreed-upon and defined terms for the analysis and description of a particular kind of language, the language of literature. Such a language …. would be built upon modern linguistic analysis." (2006)

NSOU ? PGEL-9A 268 Relatively speaking, linguistic terms have well-established and inflexible meanings, and there is a large core of terminology and set of concepts, which most Linguistic models follow, but sometimes alternative theories tend to lend new technical terms, for instance, "style" may mean different things to different people. Hence the need for precision cannot be exaggerated. One of the major contributions of Stylistics to literary criticism is the effort it makes to explain how a text derives its meaning, and also focusing on the reader response. It makes the reader aware of its methods. 16.6 An Example of a Stylistic Analysis The following example text has been written by Dan McIntyre, one of the course tutors for the lecture/seminar-based course at Lancaster University that mirrors this web-based course. A Stylistic Analysis of '(listen)' by E. E. Cummings How do we begin a stylistic analysis? It is a good idea to start with our initial impressions about the text we are going to analyse. As we do the actual analysis we may come out dismissing our initial opinions. It may so happen that the linguistic structure of the text does not support our interpretation. We may have to then reconsider it in the light of our stylistic analysis. Let us now look at our chosen poem. '(listen)' is taken from E. E. Cummings's 1964 collection 73 Poems, of which it is number 63. None of the poems in the collection have titles but are instead referred to by number. The poem '(listen)' is typical of Cummings' style and contains some striking irregularities of form and language in comparison to 'traditional' poetry. For example, the absence of capitalisation is strikingly irregular. Then we note the strange use of punctuation and the seemingly odd structure of particular phrases. Cummings' poems pamper lots of deviation and '(listen)' is no exception. One of the reasons for this is Cummings's intention to break free of conventional poetic styles. Yet, deviation is not simply meant for shocking the readers. Nor do the linguistic irregularities he uses are arbitrary. In the past, certain critics even disparaged his odd use of language, claiming that it is of no interpretative value. R. P. Blackmur, for example, a critic writing in 1954, had this to say about the strange linguistic choices in Cummings' poems:

NSOU ? PGEL-9A 269 …extensive consideration of these peculiarities today has very little importance, carries almost no reference to the meaning of the poems. (Blackmur 1954: 320) We quote here the poem: '(listen)' by E. E. Cummings [1]this a dog barks and how crazily houses eyes people smiles [5] faces streets steeples are eagerly tumbl ing through wonder ful sunlight [10]- look – selves,stir:writhe o-p-e-n-i-n-g are (leaves; flowers) dreams ,come quickly, come [15]run run with me now jum, shout(laugh dance, cry, sing)for it's Spring [20]- irrevocably; and in earth, sky, trees :every where a miracle arrives [25](yes)

you and I may not hurry it with a thousand poems my darling [30]but nobody will stop it With All The Policemen In The World [E. E. Cummings, 73 Poems] The view that Blackmur gives is now considered dated. Dan McIntyre, one of the course tutors for the online lecture/seminar-based English courses at Lancaster University says, What he refers to as 'peculiarities' are in fact highly significant linguistic deviations, and it is important for us to assume that every element of any piece of writing has a possible interpretative significance. You might ask if this is actually the case. Do we really infer meaning from every bit of a text? Well, the evidence we have would suggest that we do. Researchers such as Van Peer (1980; 1986) have found that readers do indeed pick up on the smallest details of a text and use them to construct a meaningful interpretation. [Lancaster University Website] The stylistic analysis of E. E. Cummings's poem will enable us to see the element of foregrounding within it thoroughly, and will also establish the fact how stylistics can be an effective tool for the interpretation of a literary text. Let us begin with the first impression of the poem. Like many of Cummings's poems, '(listen)'seems to celebrate the imminent arrival of the Spring and all the joys and spirit of renewals it brings. Alongside the references to new life we note an underlying pattern of sexual connotations. The poem appears to be an address to a lover to share the poet's happiness, and to accept the inevitability of the natural world. The motifs of the rejuvenating Spring and sexual urge, and nature and man are, indeed, interwoven, conjuring a sort of quirky humour, so typical of Cummings. The poem presents an ambivalent plea to a lover to let nature take its course. The poem is not overtly descriptive in its treatment of the Spring. Instead, we are offered a set of random images (e.g. houses, smiles, people, streets) and subtle actions. We would do well to take a close look at the significance of this poem about the Spring

in section 3.1. The poetic persona seemingly says that, like the arrival of the Spring, his love is inevitable and cannot be stopped. '(listen)' does not posit an abstruse theme, difficult to understand. What is difficult is to relate the numerous 'strange' stylistic features to our interpretation. We can begin by looking at the foregrounded features of the poem. Now that we have come to an initial interpretation of the poem, we can move on and try a thorough linguistic analysis of it. Analysis We can look at the words and how they are presented in the poem. And we may dismiss the deviant grammatical and graphological elements. An examination of the lexical features, is perhaps a good place to start from, with a more detailed linguistic analysis. We will consider how other poetic effects contribute to the overall meaning of the poem later on. Lexical Features Let us first consider the open-class words in the poem. Open-class words are those which bear the burden of meaning in a language, as opposed to closed class (grammatical) words such as determiners (e.g. this, that, the) and prepositions (e.g. in, at, on). Closed class words function like adhesives or sentential 'glue' and arrange additively open class words in meaningful statements. Table 1 shows how the open class words are distributed throughout the poem across their categories as nouns, verbs, adjectives and adverbs. Table 1 Open class words in '(listen)'

NOUNS	LEXICAL VERBS/ PARTICIPLES	ADJECTIVES	ADVERBS
dog	listen	wonderful	crazily
houses	barks		easily
eyes	tumbling		quickly
people	look		irrevocably
smiles	stir		
faces	writhe		
streets	opening		

steeples come (x2) sunlight run (x2) leaves jump flowers shout dreams laugh earth dance sky cry trees sing miracle [i]'s [non-lexical] poems arrives policemen hurry world stop 19 21 1 4 We can see that the poem dished out mainly nouns and verbs. The nouns are mostly concrete referring to physical objects - and only two of the nouns are abstract (dreams and miracle). It is possible to split the nouns into two rough areas of meaning, or semantic fields. Table 2 shows how we can do this: Table 2 Distribution of Nouns within two basic semantic classes

NOUNS RELATED TO NATURE	NOUNS RELATED TO HUMANS
dog, sunlight, leaves, flowers, earth, sky, trees, miracle, world	houses, eyes, people, smiles, faces, streets, steeples, dreams, poems, policemen
9 referents to nature	10 referents to humans

Man and Nature are projected on the Theme and motifs emerge form a stylistic lexical and semantic level as inter-related reading of the text The mixture in the poem of nouns belonging to these two different semantic justify what we perceive as an interconnection between nature and man. Our initial impression of the

poem was that there was some kind of conflict between these two elements and this is explained in part by the above table. The two abstract nouns, dreams and miracle, could belong to either category and might be seen to connect the two semantic classes. If we now look at the verbs in the poem we can see that they create a sense of dramatic immediacy as we read it. They also contribute to our understanding of it as an address to another person. All the verbs which are marked for tense (finite verbs) are in the present tense. So we have present simple verbs such as 'barks' [2], 'is' [19] and 'arrives' [24] and present progressive forms such as 'are [eagerly] tumb/ling' [6/7/8] and 'o-p-e-n-i-n-g/are' [12/13]. In addition to helping establish the sense of immediacy, the progressive present participles ('tumbling' and 'opening') indicate the ongoing ('stretched') nature of the actions. This contributes to the idea of the inevitability of nature –the Spring is arriving even as the poet speaks. This is also reinforced by the four adverbs of manner, which convey a sense of pace (quickly), excitement (crazily, eagerly) and inevitability (irrevocably). The sense we get of the poem being an address to another person is achieved through the use of directive or imperative verbs. 12 of the verbs in the poem take this form (listen, look, come (x2), run (x2), jump, shout, laugh, dance, cry, sing). Directives are used for commanding (Do your job!), inviting (Come in), warning (Mind your head) etc. In '(listen)' they appear to have been used (1) to plead with, and to urge the addressee to join the speaker's celebration of the Spring, and (2) to share, and contribute to, his feelings of happiness (for example, in the lines 'run run/with me now' and 'sing)for it's Spring'). In the final stanza there is a second person pronoun ('you') and that in line 29 this addressee is referred to as 'my darling', suggesting a romantic relationship between the speaker and whoever he/she is addressing. There are no unusual words in the poem - no neologisms, for example, and no unconventional affixations, which Cummings often uses in his other poems. However, some of the words are arranged on the page in a seemingly strange way. Wonderful, for example, runs across two lines and as a consequence is highly foregrounded. Dividing the word across the morphemes (wonder and ful) allows for two interpretative effects. We first read the word as a noun wonder, and then as an adjective wonder-ful. The graphological deviation here foregrounds the word and creates a dense texture of meaning. Deviation is an apparent feature in '(listen)', and it is worth a more detailed exploration of meaning via stylistic analysis. We can also consider parallelism and the foregrounding effects that this poem creates.

16.6.1 Deviation and Parallelism Perhaps the most striking aspect of deviation in '(listen)' is the almost constant use of lower case letters where we would normally expect capitals. Although this is typical of Cummings's poetry, we cannot attribute any more significance to it than his whim to break with normal convention. However, one of the effects of this graphological deviation is to foreground any instances where Cummings does use capitalisation. Because of this we can infer that the word 'Spring' in line 19 is an important concept in the poem, since it is the first word we come across with initial capitalisation. Likewise, the final line of the poem [31] is highly foregrounded by each word beginning with a capital letter. This emphasises the idea being expressed here; namely that nothing (least of all poetry) and nobody is able to arrest the progression of the Spring and the poet's effulgent love for his addressee - not even powerful people such as policemen. Cummings perhaps chooses 'policemen' because they are a stereotypical example of state powers. In addition to the graphological deviations, there are also a number of grammatical deviations in the poem. Many of these occur through Cummings' tendency to use punctuation where it would not normally be necessary. So, for instance, we get phrases being bracketed where there is no grammatical need, in order to express the notion of two events happening at the same time. An example would be in lines 12 and 13 - 'o-p-e-n- i-n-g/are (leaves; flowers) dreams'. Here, the bracketed part of line 13 seems to mean that leaves and flowers are physically opening at the same time as the poet's dreams are opening metaphorically. Again, this contributes to our understanding of the poem as being very active and dynamic. Note the additional semantic deviation here - dreams cannot actually open and so this part of the line is foregrounded too, possibly to suggest that with the arrival of Spring the speaker becomes more aware of his dreams and aspirations, more 'open' in the sense of receptive and unguarded. Cummings captures the idea of a multitude of thoughts occurring simultaneously by breaking grammatical conventions. In addition to his use of bracketed phrases, groups of nouns are often run together without punctuation (e.g. lines 3 to 6 and line 22), and we also find both definite and indefinite reference within the same clause ('this a dog barks'; a possible explanation for this is that this is used to show that the speaker is referring to a specific dog, but a is also used because the speaker is not familiar with the animal - i.e. is not aware of its name. By using both definite and indefinite reference the poet is able to convey this idea.). Such features, remember, are what Blackmur (1954) dismissed as 'peculiarities'. However, if we examine these closely we can see that there is actually a systematicity to the deviations, and that they do indeed contribute to meaning. We can see an example of this in lines 7 and 8. Here, Cummings divides the word tumbling so that the

progressive morpheme -ing appears on a separate line. This foregrounds the verb and also creates a homological effect, or what Short (2000) refers to as a 'graphology-symbolic' effect. This is where a word or a piece of text actually looks like the concept that it represents In lines 7 and 8 the verb appears to 'tumble' from one line to the next and so we understand the action to be an important concept within the poem. Similarly, in line 12 Cummings uses deviant punctuation to split the progressive participle 'opening' into its component letters ('o-p-e-n-i-n-g'). Again this foregrounds the verb and creates the homological effect of the word actually opening. We may notice as well that the hyphens also suggest that the opening is a long-drawn-out process, reminiscent of the slowness with which flowers bloom, especially when contrasted with the following line which contains no spaces between words and punctuation marks. If we look closely at the occurrences of graphological deviation in the poem, we can see that it often works to foreground the dynamic verbs - those verbs which imply action of some sort. Line 10 ('-look-') is an example of this. The line consists of a single verb in the imperative mood, foregrounded by a hyphen on either side of it. The initial verb of line 14 is also foregrounded due to the deviant punctuation (a comma is used to begin the line). And in line 11 ('selves;stir:writhe') the verbs are foregrounded through being connected by a colon and by the lack of spaces between the words. Other actions are foregrounded in different ways. In line 15 we get repetition of the verb, and in lines 16, 17 and 18 the verbs occur in an unpunctuated list, with the list in brackets running on to a new line. And line 12 is foregrounded at a number of different levels; graphology (which we have already mentioned), grammar (through an inversion of the expected subject-verb-object word order, which has the effect of placing the emphasis of the clause on the action) and semantics - by having an inanimate abstract noun ('dreams') functioning as the subject of a dynamic verb. All these deviations focus our attention on the actions in '(listen)' and contribute to the sense we have of the poem being very dynamic. You can see, then, that our stylistic analysis is so far upholding our initial interpretation of the poem. In addition to the graphological deviation in the poem, there is also some degree of graphological parallelism in the arrangement of the poem into stanzas. There are several possible ways of describing the graphological organisation of the poem. It may be seen as five 6-line stanzas (the first line of each stanza being separated from the remaining 5 by a line space), with a stand-alone line at the end of the poem. Alternatively, we might describe it as being made up of five 5-line stanzas, all interspersed with a single line. However you prefer to see it, what this seems to suggest is that there is some order to the poem. It is not the chaotic graphological jumble that it first appears. It is difficult, though, to know what

to make of the parallel structure of the poem, and if we were to try and relate it to our initial impression of the poem it would be a pretty tenuous interpretation. However, one researcher who has studied a number of Cummings poems suggests that graphological parallelism is a significant stylistic feature in his poetry. Dixit (1977) studied a corpus of E. E. Cummings poems in detail and concluded that, far from being arbitrary examples of deviation, the poems are, in fact, systematically deviant. She explains : When the poet chooses to talk about spring, his poem displays a regular cyclic structure like that of the seasons themselves.(Dixit 1977: 87-88) Obviously, it is no accident that Cummings structured the poem as he did, and the above is one possible explanation as to why he did as such. Another instance of parallelism in the poem occurs at the phonological level, where we find the repetition of particular sounds. Although '(listen)' does not have a rhyme scheme of any regularity (in fact, all that saves it from being defined as free verse is the regularity of its graphological organisation on the page), Cummings does make use of internal rhyme at particular points within the poem. There is no strict pattern to its occurrence, yet there is some degree of phonological parallelism in each stanza except the last two. Often we find a repetition of vowel sounds in words in close proximity to each other, as we can see in the examples below (vowel sounds are in bold italics): Table 3 Distribution of repetitive sounds [bold and italicised] how crazily houses[3] eyes p eople smiles steeples are eagerly[4] ...wonder/ful sunlight[6] , come quickly come[8,9])sing for it's Spring[14] [19] What we can note from this is that the absence of phonological parallelism in the last stanza again foregrounds this part of the poem. The last stanza, then, is thick with deviations, which suggests its importance in stylistic interpretative terms. 16.6.2 Congruence of Foregrounding in the Final Stanza As we have seen so far, there is a strong element of foregrounding in the final stanza of '(listen)'. This is what Leech (1969) describes as 'congruence' of foregrounding, which is where we get lots of different types of foregrounding occurring at once. This is obviously

very important for our interpretation of the poem, but before coming to any overall conclusion about meaning, let us considers again exactly what elements are foregroundedhere. First there is the internal deviation we noticed with the initial capitalisation of each word in the last line. Secondly, unlike in the other stanzas, there is a lack of any sort of phonological parallelism, and (disregarding the obvious lack of punctuation) the grammatical ordering of the stanza follows conventional rules of syntax. What is interesting about these foregrounded elements is that they are all the result of internal deviation, and are all foregrounded because they conform to our normal expectations of written language. In addition to the numerous deviant features of the poem in the other stanzas, what we have in the last stanza is a kind of 'reverse' deviation. The most strongly foregrounded features of '(listen)' are those which we would usually define as 'normal'. The effect of all this is to make it unusually easy for us to understand the last stanza. Now the final message of the poem is made extremely clear -nothing and nobody can stop the progress of the Spring and the poet's love - the implication being, perhaps, that we should not struggle against these forces, but simply resign ourselves to accepting and becoming participants in them. 16.6.3 Inference from Stylistic Analysis of the Poem Now we have analysed the poem stylistically we are in a position to draw inferences as to the theme of the poem. Our analysis of '(listen)' shows how we can use stylistics to uphold an interpretation of a poem, and how it can also highlight elements of a poem that we might otherwise have missed. It also enables us to speculate on precisely why E. E. Cummings chooses to use such seemingly odd stylistic techniques in '(listen)'. For example, we saw that deviant punctuation is linked to the foregrounding of dynamic verbs, explaining why we perceive so much 'movement' in the poem. Analysing the poem stylistically also highlights how the most internally deviant features of the poem are those which we would usually consider to be 'normal', non-deviant language in both everyday communication and within poetry, and suggests a reason as to why this might be. Stylistics, then, is a help in explaining a text which we might not have otherwise understood. [Due acknowledgement to Dan McIntyre, course tutor at Lancaster University for his stylistic analysis of '(listen)' by E. E. Cummings, as this part of the unit freely draws on his views] 16.7 Things to Keep in Mind: A Sum-up Stylistics is more concerned with the printed words in the New Critical mode rather than with the biography of the author. It takes meticulous care of lexical, syntactic, semantic

and graphological uniqueness of a literary artifact, and explores the text with the linguistic tools of criticism. In this mode of criticism even deviant constructions and graphological deviations are taken note of for their creative integration with theme and motifs. They are considered foregrounded features. The ultimate end of stylistic analysis criticism is to reach for a higher language of perception out of a literary text. The linguistic priorities in stylistic analysis set it apart from other critical practices. 16.8 Review Questions and Tasks Review Questions and Tasks for thought, understanding and self-assessment. Answer all questions in not more than 500 words. 1. What sets Stylistics apart from other types of critical practice? 2. How would you define form and content in literary texts, and their relationship? 3. Write a short note on 'style' as applied to literary criticism. 4. Comment on the 'monist approach' in stylistic analysis. 5. What is the 'dualist approach' as far as stylistics is concerned. 6. Summarise your views on the 'pluralist approach' in the application of stylistic analysis. 7. Frame in your own words a stylistic appreciation of a poem of your choice. 8. How many forms of deviant constructions do you note in E E Cummings's poem, '(listen)'? 9. Explain in stylistic terms the lexical features in E E Cummings's poem, '(listen)' 10. Even though a poem may seem difficult and abstruse, stylistic analysis can effectively reveal its theme. Discuss with illustration from a poem of your choice. 16.9 Answer Key Look for answers to the above questions from the units given below Q1. Unit 16.1 Q2. Unit 16.3 Q3. Unit 16.1 Q4. Unit 16.4 Q5. Unit 16.4 Q6. Unit 16.4.2

Q7. Self-work-out task, refer to 16.6 Q8. Unit 16.6 and 16.6.1 Q9. Unit 16.6 Q10. Self-work-out task, refer to 16.6 16.10 References Blackmur, R. P. (1954). Language as Gesture: Essays in Poetry. London: George Allen & Unwin Ltd. Cummings, E. E. (1964). 73 Poems. London: Faber and Faber. Dixit, R. (1977). 'Patterns of Deviation in Selected Poems of E. E. Cummings.' Unpublished M.A. dissertation. Lancaster University.

| 100% | MATCHING BLOCK 65/67 | W |

Leech, G. N. (1969) A Linguistic Guide to English Poetry. London: Longman.

Bernard Marie Dupriez and Albert W. Halsall. (1991), A Dictionary of Literary Devices. Univ. of Toronto Press. Short, M. (2000). 'Graphological Deviation, Style Variation and Point of View in Marabou Stork Nightmares by Irvine Welsh.' Journal of Literary Studies/ Tydskrif vir Literatuur Wetenskap 15 (3/4): 305-323. Van Peer, W. (1980). 'The Stylistic Theory of Foregrounding: A Theoretical and Empirical Investigation.' Unpublished Ph.D. Thesis. Lancaster University. Van Peer, W. (1986). Stylistics and Psychology: Investigations of Foregrounding. London: Croom Helm. Simpson, Paul. (2014). Stylistics: A Resource Book for Students. London: Taylor & Francis. Internet Resources: Literary Terms.net / Rhetoric.net. Style and Stylistics: An Overview, Prasannata Ramtirthe, Research Scholar. Savitribai Phule Pune University. "Pune Research World" [An International Journal of Interdisciplinary Studies, Vol 1. Issue 4]. Analysis and Use of Figures of Speech. Lok Raj Regmi. Journal of NELTA Surkhet Vol. 4 December, 2014.
NSOU ? PGEL-9A 280 NOTES

Hit and source - focused comparison, Side by Side

Submitted text	As student entered the text in the submitted document.
Matching text	As the text appears in the source.

1/67 | **SUBMITTED TEXT** | 9 WORDS | **100%** | **MATCHING TEXT** | 9 WORDS

Coleridge's The Rime of the Ancient Mariner the following

SA 3 Thesis Khalil Abdullah Abdulghaffar Abdulqader GI5668 Linguistics AMU.docx (D131469866)

2/67 | **SUBMITTED TEXT** | 10 WORDS | **100%** | **MATCHING TEXT** | 10 WORDS

Nor dim nor red, like God's own head/The glorious sun uprist.

SA 3 Thesis Khalil Abdullah Abdulghaffar Abdulqader GI5668 Linguistics AMU.docx (D131469866)

3/67 | **SUBMITTED TEXT** | 8 WORDS | **100%** | **MATCHING TEXT** | 8 WORDS

Tyger, tyger burning bright/In the forest of the night.

Tyger! Tyger! burning bright, In the forest of the night. 9.

W https://www.arjhss.com/wp-content/uploads/2019/01/B211120.pdf

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4/67 | **SUBMITTED TEXT** | 11 WORDS | **90%** | **MATCHING TEXT** | 11 WORDS

Peter Verdonk in The Stylistics of Poetry: Context, Cognition, Discourse, History,

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5/67 | **SUBMITTED TEXT** | 19 WORDS | **100%** | **MATCHING TEXT** | 19 WORDS

a lyric poem consisting of a single stanza of fourteen iambic pentameter lines linked by an intricate rhyme scheme.

a lyric poem consisting of a single stanza of fourteen iambic pentameter lines linked by an intricate rhyme scheme;

W https://quizlet.com/328752538/fairview-ib-literary-and-rhetorical-terms-flash-cards/

| 6/67 | **SUBMITTED TEXT** | 21 WORDS | **79%** | **MATCHING TEXT** | 21 WORDS |

elevated style, and revolves around a heroic or quasi-divine figure on whose actions depends the fate of a tribe, a nation,

elevated style and centered on a heroic or quasi-divine figure on whose actions depends the fate of a tribe or nation

W   https://quizlet.com/328752538/fairview-ib-literary-and-rhetorical-terms-flash-cards/

| 7/67 | **SUBMITTED TEXT** | 18 WORDS | **100%** | **MATCHING TEXT** | 18 WORDS |

a lyric-poem consisting of a single stanza of fourteen iambic pentameter lines linked by an intricate rhyme scheme.

a lyric poem consisting of a single stanza of fourteen iambic pentameter lines linked by an intricate rhyme scheme;

W   https://quizlet.com/328752538/fairview-ib-literary-and-rhetorical-terms-flash-cards/

| 8/67 | **SUBMITTED TEXT** | 18 WORDS | **82%** | **MATCHING TEXT** | 18 WORDS |

Leech, Geoffrey N.; Short, Michael. 1981. Style in fiction: a linguistic introduction to English fictional prose. London: Longman.

SA   Lulav MA Thesis 16- 06 -2015.doc (D14852291)

| 9/67 | **SUBMITTED TEXT** | 13 WORDS | **87%** | **MATCHING TEXT** | 13 WORDS |

Baldick, Chris. The Concise Oxford Dictionary of Literary Terms. 1990. Second Ed., Oxford:

SA   Lulav MA Thesis 16- 06 -2015.doc (D14852291)

| 10/67 | **SUBMITTED TEXT** | 14 WORDS | **89%** | **MATCHING TEXT** | 14 WORDS |

Short, Michael. 1981. Style in fiction: a linguistic introduction to English fictional prose. London: Longman.

SA   Lulav MA Thesis 16- 06 -2015.doc (D14852291)

| 11/67 | **SUBMITTED TEXT** | 18 WORDS | **91%** | **MATCHING TEXT** | 18 WORDS |

projects the principle of equivalence from the axis of selection into the axis of combination' (Jakobson 358). In

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12/67	**SUBMITTED TEXT**	13 WORDS	**100%**	**MATCHING TEXT**	13 WORDS

principle of equivalence from the axis of selection into the axis of

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13/67	**SUBMITTED TEXT**	15 WORDS	**89%**	**MATCHING TEXT**	15 WORDS

Short, Michael. Style in fiction: a linguistic introduction to English fictional prose. London: Longman, 1981.

SA Lulav MA Thesis 16- 06 -2015.doc (D14852291)

14/67	**SUBMITTED TEXT**	15 WORDS	**80%**	**MATCHING TEXT**	15 WORDS

that there is an essential difference between the language of prose and the language of

SA 3 Thesis Khalil Abdullah Abdulghaffar Abdulqader GI5668 Linguistics AMU.docx (D131469866)

15/67	**SUBMITTED TEXT**	12 WORDS	**100%**	**MATCHING TEXT**	12 WORDS

It was the best of times, it was the worst of times

It was the best of times, it was the worst of times. . ."

W https://www.flashcardmachine.com/ap-languageandapliterature.html

16/67	**SUBMITTED TEXT**	15 WORDS	**90%**	**MATCHING TEXT**	15 WORDS

Rhythm is a patterned movement of pulses in time which is defined both by periodicity

SA 3 Thesis Khalil Abdullah Abdulghaffar Abdulqader GI5668 Linguistics AMU.docx (D131469866)

17/67	**SUBMITTED TEXT**	29 WORDS	**83%**	**MATCHING TEXT**	29 WORDS

conventional English metre is nothing more than rhythmic parallelism: a patterning of the succession of stressed and unstressed syllables with greater regularity than is necessary for spoken English in general. (111)

conventional English metre is nothing but a 'rhythmic paralleUsm' or 'a patterning of the succession of stressed and unstressed syllables with greater regularity than is necessary for spoken English in general' (

W http://lib.unipune.ac.in:8080/xmlui/bitstream/handle/123456789/1565/09_chapter%204.pdf?sequence=9 ...

| 18/67 | SUBMITTED TEXT | 20 WORDS | 92% | MATCHING TEXT | 20 WORDS |

The question of what and how a sound pattern communicates is one of the most unique aspects of literary appreciation.

SA Hayelom Baro.pdf (D46271228)

| 19/67 | SUBMITTED TEXT | 17 WORDS | 64% | MATCHING TEXT | 17 WORDS |

Here are three Shakespearean examples of such a phonetic bond between words: an alliterative bond in the

SA Hayelom Baro.pdf (D46271228)

| 20/67 | SUBMITTED TEXT | 19 WORDS | 47% | MATCHING TEXT | 19 WORDS |

used to capture this inherent human phenomenon, which is also applicable to one's distinctive mode of expression, both orally and

SA Hayelom Baro.pdf (D46271228)

| 21/67 | SUBMITTED TEXT | 27 WORDS | 69% | MATCHING TEXT | 27 WORDS |

that a person's style is informed and shaped by the aggregate of his social and political background, religious inclination, cultural values, experience, educational attain- ment, geographical location, and

SA Hayelom Baro.pdf (D46271228)

| 22/67 | SUBMITTED TEXT | 25 WORDS | 79% | MATCHING TEXT | 25 WORDS |

that language is not only a means of communication; it is also critical for literary creativity and production. This view is corroborated by Yule(1996)

SA Hayelom Baro.pdf (D46271228)

| 23/67 | SUBMITTED TEXT | 16 WORDS | 81% | MATCHING TEXT | 16 WORDS |

language can be used to bring into existence, by applying the imagination in some artistic technique.

SA Hayelom Baro.pdf (D46271228)

| 24/67 | SUBMITTED TEXT | 21 WORDS | 71% | MATCHING TEXT | 21 WORDS |

of a given writer, not only to distil his distinctive style but also to enhance the interpretation and understanding of his

SA Hayelom Baro.pdf (D46271228)

| 25/67 | SUBMITTED TEXT | 28 WORDS | 53% | MATCHING TEXT | 28 WORDS |

and constitutive levels, and elements of all these layers or levels are deployed or combined by a given author, to encode meaning and achieve aesthetic effects in his texts.

SA Hayelom Baro.pdf (D46271228)

| 26/67 | SUBMITTED TEXT | 18 WORDS | 91% | MATCHING TEXT | 18 WORDS |

style involves all the devices of language that are used to achieve communication goals in speech and writing.

SA Hayelom Baro.pdf (D46271228)

| 27/67 | SUBMITTED TEXT | 67 WORDS | 56% | MATCHING TEXT | 67 WORDS |

this view inter alia: A literary work is written in a language and to understand the work fully, there must be recourse to language in all its aspects −phonetics, phonology, semantics, syntax, etc. This fact explains why stylistic analysis applies the principles and techniques of general linguistics to the description and interpretation of salient graphological, phonologi- cal, syntactic, lexical, and semantic features of a text, with a view to characterizing a writer's

SA Hayelom Baro.pdf (D46271228)

| 28/67 | SUBMITTED TEXT | 11 WORDS | 100% | MATCHING TEXT | 11 WORDS |

Once upon a midnight dreary, while I pondered, weak and weary,

SA Poetry Terminology.docx (D110776162)

| 29/67 | SUBMITTED TEXT | 10 WORDS | 100% | MATCHING TEXT | 10 WORDS |

And the silken, sad, uncertain rustling of each purple curtain

SA 3 Thesis Khalil Abdullah Abdulghaffar Abdulqader GI5668 Linguistics AMU.docx (D131469866)

| 30/67 | SUBMITTED TEXT | 14 WORDS | 100% | MATCHING TEXT | 14 WORDS |

Alliteration is the repetition of initial consonant sounds within a line of discourse.

SA Hayelom Baro.pdf (D46271228)

| 31/67 | SUBMITTED TEXT | 10 WORDS | 100% | MATCHING TEXT | 10 WORDS |

It is the use of words that begin with alphabets

SA Hayelom Baro.pdf (D46271228)

| 32/67 | SUBMITTED TEXT | 27 WORDS | 82% | MATCHING TEXT | 27 WORDS |

have the same sounds and are relatively close in a particular line. The deployment of alliteration in a particular discourse situation is usually for aesthetic and functional purposes.

SA Hayelom Baro.pdf (D46271228)

| 33/67 | SUBMITTED TEXT | 36 WORDS | 95% | MATCHING TEXT | 36 WORDS |

to foreground aspects of meaning and also to serve specific aesthetic purposes. In other words, the use of this device in a text also demonstrates how sound can be manipulated to convey stylistic meaning in a given

SA Hayelom Baro.pdf (D46271228)

| 34/67 | SUBMITTED TEXT | 66 WORDS | 100% | MATCHING TEXT | 66 WORDS |

Assonance deals with the repetition of identical vowel sounds where there is no full rhyme. The sounds are produced when two syllables in words that have the same vowels and different consonants are placed close together.

SA Hayelom Baro.pdf (D46271228)

| 35/67 | SUBMITTED TEXT | 13 WORDS | 87% | MATCHING TEXT | 13 WORDS |

of this: • Once upon a midnight dreary, while I pondered, weak and weary ('

SA Poetry Terminology.docx (D110776162)

| 36/67 | SUBMITTED TEXT | 13 WORDS | 100% | MATCHING TEXT | 13 WORDS |

wandered lonely as a cloud That floats on high o'er vales and hills,

SA MA English Sem II Linguistics and Stylistics Analysis of Text.pdf (D132432284)

| 37/67 | SUBMITTED TEXT | 26 WORDS | 42% | MATCHING TEXT | 26 WORDS |

consonants unaccompanied by like correspondence of vowels at the end of two or more syllables, words, or other units of composition. As a poetic device, it is

SA version -1.docx (D109476400)

| 38/67 | SUBMITTED TEXT | 16 WORDS | 100% | MATCHING TEXT | 16 WORDS |

occasionally used as an off-rhyme, but it is most commonly found as an internal sound effect,

SA version -1.docx (D109476400)

| 39/67 | SUBMITTED TEXT | 13 WORDS | 76% | MATCHING TEXT | 13 WORDS |

is the repetition of the same letter or sound at the beginning of

SA Hayelom Baro.pdf (D46271228)

| 40/67 | SUBMITTED TEXT | 15 WORDS | 100% | MATCHING TEXT | 15 WORDS |

Short, M.H. (1981). Style in Fiction: A Linguistic Introduction to English Fictional Prose. London: Longman.

Short, M.H. (1981), Style in Fiction: A linguistic introduction to English Fictional prose. London: Longman. [10].

W https://www.arjhss.com/wp-content/uploads/2019/01/B211120.pdf

| 41/67 | SUBMITTED TEXT | 20 WORDS | 95% | MATCHING TEXT | 20 WORDS |

the question of what and how a sound pattern communicates one of the most mysterious aspects of literary appreciation. In

SA Hayelom Baro.pdf (D46271228)

| 42/67 | SUBMITTED TEXT | 32 WORDS | 79% | MATCHING TEXT | 32 WORDS |

similarity of features of successive lines of poetry. Parallelism applies not only to poetry texts but texts of all sorts where there is deliberate manipulation of linguistic resources to achieve beauty and convey meaning.

SA Hayelom Baro.pdf (D46271228)

| 43/67 | SUBMITTED TEXT | 48 WORDS | 88% | MATCHING TEXT | 48 WORDS |

This rhetorical structural pattern or device deals with the phonetic bond that exists between two or more lexical items in a text, which have a paradigmatic or syntagmatic relationship. One of the stylistic effects of linguistic parallelism is to invest lexical items with the same value, the three levels of

SA Hayelom Baro.pdf (D46271228)

| 44/67 | SUBMITTED TEXT | 15 WORDS | 100% | MATCHING TEXT | 15 WORDS |

linguistic organization - syntactic, semantic, and phonetic – converging on and reinforcing each other.

SA Hayelom Baro.pdf (D46271228)

| 45/67 | SUBMITTED TEXT | 17 WORDS | 88% | MATCHING TEXT | 17 WORDS |

The stylistic effect of parallelism is to invest the given items with the same value i.e., intra-textually

SA Hayelom Baro.pdf (D46271228)

| 46/67 | SUBMITTED TEXT | 19 WORDS | 100% | MATCHING TEXT | 19 WORDS |

parallel words are repeated in lines to draw the reader's attention to what the writer is actually saying.

SA Hayelom Baro.pdf (D46271228)

| 47/67 | SUBMITTED TEXT | 40 WORDS | 75% | MATCHING TEXT | 40 WORDS |

e. using it in a logical way to present content as real. When some words are repeated, they add rhythmic effects to the lines in which they occur. Therefore, authors use this device not only to achieve realism but also as

SA Hayelom Baro.pdf (D46271228)

| 48/67 | SUBMITTED TEXT | 15 WORDS | 66% | MATCHING TEXT | 15 WORDS |

the repetition of a word or a phrase at the beginning of two or more

SA 3 Thesis Khalil Abdullah Abdulghaffar Abdulqader GI5668 Linguistics AMU.docx (D131469866)

| 49/67 | SUBMITTED TEXT | 11 WORDS | 100% | MATCHING TEXT | 11 WORDS |

Framing makes the whole utterance more compact and more complete.

SA Language of Power and Surveillance A Stylistic Comparison of Atwood's The Handmaid 's Tale and Th … (D110338538)

| 50/67 | SUBMITTED TEXT | 18 WORDS | 66% | MATCHING TEXT | 18 WORDS |

is the repetition of the same word or words at the beginning of successive phrases, clauses, or sentences

SA 2015_1626_Shilpa_Joshi.pdf (D128630685)

| 51/67 | SUBMITTED TEXT | 26 WORDS | 80% | MATCHING TEXT | 26 WORDS |

Epistrophe: Epistrophe is the repetition of the same word or words at the end of successive phrases, clauses, or sentences. It is also known as epiphora

SA 2015_1626_Shilpa_Joshi.pdf (D128630685)

| 52/67 | SUBMITTED TEXT | 22 WORDS | 60% | MATCHING TEXT | 22 WORDS |

Baldick, Chris. (2001). The Concise Oxford Dictionary of Literary Terms. 2nd Edition. Oxford: Oxford University Press. [2] Beard, A. (2000). The Language of

SA Lulav MA Thesis 16- 06 -2015.doc (D14852291)

| 53/67 | SUBMITTED TEXT | 28 WORDS | 100% | MATCHING TEXT | 28 WORDS |

Onomatopoeia is a phonological device of stylistics in which the sounds suggest the meaning of words or expressions because the words are formed by imitating the actual or natural

SA Hayelom Baro.pdf (D46271228)

| 54/67 | SUBMITTED TEXT | 30 WORDS | 100% | MATCHING TEXT | 30 WORDS |

to reflect sense in the sound of words which have similar sounds to the one described. This device is used by the author to foreground meaning and also for stylistic effects,

SA Hayelom Baro.pdf (D46271228)

| 55/67 | SUBMITTED TEXT | 25 WORDS | 100% | MATCHING TEXT | 25 WORDS |

that this power of suggesting natural sounds or other qualities is relatively weak—too weak to operate unsupported by meaning—and because of its range, is only latent (

SA Hayelom Baro.pdf (D46271228)

| 56/67 | SUBMITTED TEXT | 16 WORDS | 82% | MATCHING TEXT | 16 WORDS |

onomatopoeic effects are attributable to the general 'colour' of sounds on such dimensionsas' hardness'/ 'softness', 'thinness'/ 'sonority'.

onomatopoeic effects are attributable to the general 'colour' of sounds on such 'SX dimensions as •hardness"/ 'softness' and 'thinness/ sonority'.

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refers to the purely mimetic power of language—its ability to imitate other (mostly non-linguistic)

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Made weak by time and fate, but strong in will To strive, to seek, to find, and not to yield. -- -

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The grave's a fine a private place, But none, I think, do there embrace. (

The grave is a fine and private place, / But none I think do there embrace. 3.6.5

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Yule, G. 2006. The study of language. (3rd ed.). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

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| 62/67 | SUBMITTED TEXT | 13 WORDS | 100% | MATCHING TEXT | 13 WORDS |

it: All the world's a stage, And all the men and women merely players.

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Samuel Taylor Coleridge's poem The Rime of the Ancient Mariner, the

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The western wave was all a-flame. / The day was

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PREFACE In the curricular structure introduced by this University for students of Post-Graduate degree programme, the opportunity to pursue Post-Graduate course in a subject is introduced by this University is equally available to all learners. Instead of being guided by any presumption about ability level, it would perhaps stand to reason if receptivity of a learner is judged in the course of the learning process. That would be entirely in keeping with the objectives of open education which does not believe in artificial differentiation. I am happy to note that the university has been recently accredited by National Assessment and Accreditation Council of India (NAAC) with grade "A". Keeping this in view, study materials of the Post-Graduate level in different subjects are being prepared on the basis of a well laid-out syllabus. The course structure combines the best elements in the approved syllabi of Central and State Universities in respective subjects. It has been so designed as to be upgradable with the addition of new information as well as results of fresh thinking and analysis. The accepted methodology of distance education has been followed in the preparation of these study materials. Co-operation in every form of experienced scholars is indispensable for a work of this kind. We, therefore, owe an enormous debt of gratitude to everyone whose tireless efforts went into the writing, editing, and devising of a proper lay-out of the materials. Practically speaking, their role amounts to an involvement in 'invisible teaching'. For, whoever makes use of these study materials would virtually derive the benefit of learning under their collective care without each being seen by the other. The more a learner would seriously pursue these study materials the easier it will be for him or her to reach out to larger horizons of a subject. Care has also been taken to make the language lucid and presentation attractive so that they may be rated as quality self-learning materials. If anything remains still obscure of difficult to follow, arrangements are there to come to terms with them through the counselling sessions regularly available at the network of study centres set up the University. Needless to add, a great deal of these efforts are still experiment—in fact, pioneering in certain areas. Naturally, there is every possibility of some lapse or deficiency here and there. However, these do admit of rectification and further improvement in due course. On the whole, therefore, these study materials are expected to evoke wider appreciation the more they receive serious attention of all concerned. Professor (Dr.) Subha Sankar Sarkar Vice-Chancellor

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NSOU ? PGEL-9B 9 Unit 1 ? Grammar and Communication-1 Structure 1.1 Objectives 1.2 Introduction 1.3 Factors of Grammar in Communication 1.4 Functions of Grammar Items 1.5 Grammatical Sentences 1.6 Spatial Relations 1.7 Change of Location 1.7.1 Across and Along (Path) 1.7.2 Over 1.7.3 Under 1.7.4 Above and Below 1.8 Summary 1.9 Review Questions 1.10 References and Reading List 1.1 Objectives The unit enables learners to: (i) learn the language methodically, (ii) perform easily in complex situations, (iii) use language in different contexts correctly, (iv) maximize the ability to synchronize knowledge and skills. 1.2 Introduction to Style and Stylistics Language is an important source through which purposeful communication takes place, and grammar is not disassociated from communication. In fact, the major pitfalls in

NSOU ? PGEL-9B 10 communication are avoided by the proper use of grammar. Grammar is not just a set of rules or structures but is essentially a set of strategies used to communicate effectively. According to Diane Larsen-Freeman, (Teaching Languages: From Grammar to Grammaring) grammar should be perceived as the fifth skill of language. She calls "grammaring" as "the ability to use the grammatical structures accurately and meaningfully to communicate effectively." (p. 142-143) 1.3 Role of Grammar in Communication Grammar is an important facet which plays a major role in conveying the intention of people correctly. Grammar and communication are analogous to each other. The functionality of grammar effects communication in various ways. Intelligibility Grammar pitches in coherence and conciseness. The subtle difference between grammatical and ungrammatical sentences is based on the correct usage of grammar. As Beverly points out, grammar "is the sound, structure, and meaning system of language. All languages have grammar, and each language has its own rules of grammar" (2007, p.1). People who speak a language are able to communicate with each other because they know the grammar system and structure of that language. 1.4 Functions of Grammar Items According to Azar (2007), the role of grammar is to "help students discover the nature of language, i.e., the language consists of predictable patterns that make what we say, read, hear, and write intelligibly" (p.3). The comprehension of English Language depends on not on the complexity of grammar but on writing grammatically correct sentences. The functions of grammar depend on the use of verbs, adverbs, adjectives, prepositions, punctuation, homonyms, homophones and heteronyms. The functions of some of the above grammar items are discussed below. Punctuation: The meaning of the two sentences is changed by putting a simple comma. 1st example: 'Let's eat Grandpa' and 'Let's eat, Grandpa'.

NSOU ? PGEL-9B 11 Hang him not, leave him. (positive) Hang him, not leave him. (negative) A misplaced comma, changes the intended meaning of the sentences completely. While introducing oneself or someone, the basic structures that are used are forms of 'be' in the present tense. For example, I am, he/she/it is, you (both singular and plural) are, they /we are, etc. Introducing Self: Good morning, I am Rithvik Sharma. I am from Pune. I work for Global Media Company, Hyderabad. Introducing Others Meet my friend, Ravi. He is an entrepreneur. He lives in Bengaluru. 1.5 Grammatical Sentences Grammar is necessary in communication as it helps to frame acceptable sentences in any language. Compare the following sentences: I go usually to work by car. I usually go to work by car. Though the meaning is understood in the first sentence, the second sentence is an acceptable sentence, as it is grammatically correct. Many people believe that English grammar is expedient and important only to educators, forgetting the point that grammar is the foundation of communication. Understanding grammar enables the learners to think logically and clearly. Knowing the rules of grammar helps the learner to be confident in using a language. Knowledge of grammar is essential for clear and effective communication. Grammar helps you not being misunderstood while expressing your ideas and viewpoint. The usage of proper grammatical structures stimulates Active Learning process.

NSOU ? PGEL-9B 12 Task 1 Look at the following passage which describes Pampore, a town in Kashmir: Autumn in the Valley is tinged mauve from saffron blossoms. Every autumn, Pampore town, 13 kms south of Srinagar, turns into a carpet of purple from the thousands of fallen saffron blooms. Men, women and children, baskets in hand, brave the chilly mornings to pick the flowers. Kashmiri saffron is considered the best in the world. (The Hindu, Magazine, Framed Colour purple pg. 11, Nov.24, 2019) Note how the appropriate use of tense and adjectives help in communicating the meaning accurately to the readers. Task 2 Read the following example taken from a newspaper. The author has communicated clearly with the audience by using right adjectives and the correct tense. Dylan Thomas, born last month more than a 100 years ago, is remembered more for his bohemian life than his poetry. But his metaphors are still magical and his dilemmas of negotiating a colonial predicament are still real, especially for Anglophonic Indian poets. (The Hindu, Magazine, Literary Review p. 7 The poet, the wandered, the young dog, Nov. 24, 2019) Grammar is an essential component of a language. It improves fluency and helps the person to organize and express his/her ideas clearly without any difficulty. No language can be spoken or written without the grammatical component. It is not an end in itself but it is a means to an end. Task 3 Read the following paragraph: "Every hotel guest/lodging must take care of the things and room security and may not do the activity outside hotel function/lodging and if there are things destruction from the hotel/lodging every guest must change and the things owned by guest which are not saved to hotel taker/lodging there are lost things/ broken the settler of the hotel or lodging not responsible...". The above paragraph gives an overall gist of the context and the global meaning. Nevertheless, the subject-verb agreement and the correct use tenses are missing. Thus the message is not communicated clearly and effectively. Task 4 Study the following sentences: Doctor accused of lying to fly is detained by the police He is a former Mr. Vincent native....

NSOU ? PGEL-9B 13 She is Linda, plans to teach a course next summer .....on Indian Philosophy at Delhi University. Now read the following sentences: Doctor, who is accused of lying to fly, is detained by the police. He is Mr. Vincent, who is a former native of Brazil. She is Linda, who plans to teach a course on Indian Philosophy next summer at Delhi University. The second set of sentences is clear in communicating the idea as they have the appropriate relative pronouns. Knowledge of grammar rules help in developing learners' ability to think logically and clearly. A person with poor knowledge of grammar leaves a negative impression. Some believe that good grammar is a sign of intelligence and proper education. Grammar is a language component, which is indispensible to master the four language skills, viz, listening, speaking, reading and writing. Examples: 1. She is a fair lady. She is fair. In the first sentence, 'fair' means unbiased. In the second, 'fair' refers to complexion. This is the advantage of mastering vocabulary. It includes learning of homonyms, phrases and phrasal verbs, one word substitutes and correct spellings. 2. 'Vital' and 'important' are words, which are considered synonyms but they cannot often be used to convey related ideas: (i) The Police got important proofs to prove their stand. (ii) Brain is a vital organ which sends nerve impulses. A remarkable feature of the English Language is the lexico-grammatical use of prepositions. Prepositions are often termed as the 'biggest small words' in English. Though they are generally short words, they are very important to convey meaning in a sentence. A misused preposition leads to ambiguity and miscommunication as can be seen in the following examples: The girl is rolling in the grass. You have to submit the assignment within a week's time.

NSOU ? PGEL-9B 14 However, when used correctly they provide the necessary link between the various parts of a sentence which allows the speaker/writer to speak/write more precisely. Prepositions explain the temporal, spatial or logical relationship of the object to another word in the sentence or part of the sentence. 1.6 Spatial Relationships When spatial relationships are expressed, an image for each type of relationship that exists between a person or thing is established or moves along with a reference point, usually another entity. It is this principle of prominence which helps to explain why it is natural to say that the 'pen is on the table', instead of 'the table is under the pen.' Usually, the non-native speakers are sometimes confused while using the prepositions 'in' and 'on' and 'at'. There are different prepositions which explain the spatial relationships. At: preposition determines the point in space. eg: Tom is at the cinema. Meenu is at the football match. I met my old friend at the supermarket. On: expresses the contact with a surface. eg: A mole on my right hand wrist. The baby is crawling on the floor. The remote is on the table. In: expresses containment. e.g: Scientists believe that there is a milky way in the space. Eifel tower is in Paris. There is a beaver bird's nest in the garden. Now, let us understand the meaning expressed by the above spatial prepositions. 'At' is used when the function is more specific than general. It is used when premises is implied. For instance, 'at the cinema' implies 'in order to watch a film' or when the speaker is not at the same location. In the sentence, 'Tom is at the cinema', the speaker cannot tell us the exact location of Tom. Tom may be in the queue outside the cinema, or inside watching the film.

NSOU ? PGEL-9B 15 In case, the speaker is outside the cinema and if somebody questions him where Tom is, the response would be location specific. Tom is in the cinema or he is inside. 'On' is used when the object is in contact with and is supported by a surface, horizontal or vertical. Eg: there is a book on the floor. There is a lizard on the wall. These prepositions indicate place, time, reference or condition. e.g: My son dropped me to college on his motorbike. Larger vehicles used in transit which has a walkway, on the bus/train, on the plane or on board a ship. eg: Few people suffer from sea sickness when they travel on ship for several days. 'In' is used when there is no walk way. e.g: In a boat, in the car or in the helicopter. However, when we refer to a train, we say in the second class compartment or in the pantry, which are visualized or conceptualized as containers. If a vehicle is not in use, it may be considered as a container. e.g: The children are playing in the abandoned truck. 'In' explains containment. e.g: Strong security forces are deployed in Hyderabad. Containment may refer to completeness or may be in part. e.g: There are ten old coins in my purse. (Complete) The man in pink shirt and blue jeans.(Incomplete) Note: There is a lot of difference in meaning between 'in the corner of a room' and 'at the corner of the street'. The first one denotes position whereas the second one tells us about place/condition. 1.7 Change of location Change of location implies movement. Let us take the two words, 'source' and 'location', to represent the initial location and the goal or final location. The word 'source' is followed by the preposition 'from', while 'location' is often marked by 'to' in combination with 'on' to talk about a surface (onto) or 'in' for a container (into).

NSOU ? PGEL-9B 16 However, 'home' in 'go home' is an exception. It does not express the idea of final location or goal explicitly. Note: The explicit encoding of location in the statement 'stay at home' against the inexplicit meaning from 'stay home'. e.g: Let's stay home tonight. What made you stay at home without working? Look at the usage 'of' and 'out of' I took the money out of my purse. Source He ran out of the house. I walk from the bus stop to college (From- source to goal) The clock fell off the table onto the floor. (off: source; onto: goal) The boy fell off the mountain into the water. (off: source; into: goal) 1.7.1 Across and Along (Path) We went from the bus stop along street no. 5 to the stadium. Both 'across' and 'along' express the meaning of a path. However, there is a slight difference between the two. While 'along' follows a horizontal axis, 'across' means crossing the axis or an open space, at an angle or from one side to another. We walked along the banks of Godavari. She walks across the fields to go home. 'Through' means moving from one point to another point and then out of it. Ex: He rushed through the doorway. It can also suggest two dimensional meaning e.g: You can go through the park to reach the place quickly. It can also be three dimensional, in terms of volume. e.g: Children enjoyed watching the train pass through the tunnel. e.g: Walk past the stadium and you will find the super market you are searching for. 'Past' is similar to 'along', but with respect to some fixed point. Through can be an adjective, adverb or a preposition. The other spatial prepositions used in various functional contexts include 'over', 'under', 'up' and 'down'.

NSOU ? PGEL-9B 17 1.7.2 Over The preposition 'over' is used in different ways. 'Over' is used to talk about movement and position at a higher level than something else. e.g: The beautiful bird flew over the lake. An umbrella is used to protect both from sun and rain. We ferried in a small boat over the lake to reach our cottage in Dal Lake. Shall we go over the road and see if there is a stationery shop on the other side? Buy a plastic cover and put over your computer, if you are worried about dust. 'Over' is also used to express 'period of time'. What are your plans over this winter break? 'Over' is also used with numbers. It means 'more than' a particular number or limit e.g: There were over two hundred people at the conference. The hand luggage should not weigh over 10 kilos. Rita could not participate in running as she was over the age limit. 'Over' is generally used to express a 'period of time'. It refers to the period from the beginning to ending or start to finish and not to any one moment during that time. e.g: I arrived in the afternoon. (Correct) I arrived over the afternoon. (Incorrect) 1.7.3 Under It gives the meaning vertically below, but there is some intervening space. It is the opposite of 'over'. It functions with verbs of location and motion. The distance is reduced. e.g: There is a blanket under the pillow. The children sat on a bench under the tree. I pushed the assignment under the door. Note the difference of meaning between these two sentences. e.g: He wears a T-shirt under his sweater. He wears a sweater over his T-shirt. 'Above' and 'below' though similar to 'over' and 'under', but does not have absolute verticality as a requirement. e.g: The castle is built above the town, below the castle there is a river.

NSOU ? PGEL-9B 18 1.7.4 Above and Below 'Above' and 'below' are similar to 'over' and 'under', but absolute verticality is not a Requirement The castle stands above the town. Below the castle, there is a river. 'Up' and 'down' determine a higher or lower position respectively. e.g: There is a cafeteria down the road. (movement through that position) 'Up' and 'down' are also used as adverb particles in phrasal verbs and prepositional phrases. e.g: I will help you, if you take up the responsibility of leading the team. They were trying to bring down the Government by withdrawing the support. Thus, small change in the positioning or usage of a grammatical component brings in a lot of change in the meaning conveyed. 1.8 Summary This Unit mainly focused on one facet of Functional Grammar. The other rims of it would be detailed in Unit II. In this Unit, it is explained that as the technological development is changing the world, people are tending towards using shortcuts in grammar, thereby becoming dependent on machines to produce grammatically correct sentences. They concentrate on only understanding part of language, but not on comprehension of it, which is leading to miscommunication and misunderstanding among people. To overcome this issue, learning grammar as a functional unit becomes advertent. So, this Unit unwraps a new scenario in the usage of functions rather than structures of grammar. 1.9 Review Questions 1. How does grammar help to perform language functions? 2. Explain the role of grammar in active learning of the language with examples. 3. How important is punctuation in sentences? Elucidate. 4. Write a note on the use of the following vocabulary items in communication: a. synonyms and antonyms b. phrases c. homonyms

NSOU ? PGEL-9B 19 5. How many kinds of prepositions do we use? Explain by giving two examples for each. 6. Match the Language functions with the Language forms/ Grammar items from the following: a. Expressing needs and likes 1. Present continuous, adverbs b. Describing people, places, things 2. Indirect/direct objects, subject/verb Agreement, pronouns. c. Describing actions 3. Nouns, pronouns, adjectives d. Retelling past events 4. Future tenses (going to, will), conditional e. Making predictions 5. Past tense, perfect tense (present and past) 7. Do you agree with the following statement? Justify. a. Proper grammar is necessary for readability, communication and clarity. b. An investment in grammar is an investment in yourself. Using proper grammar in your writing will gain you respect and credibility. 8. Mention the preposition from the following sentences: a. The earth I'm walking upon does not recognize me. b. In addition to his car, he has a jeep. c. Your mark is below average. d. Nobody came to the party except Shyam and lily. e. Besides, it is still early for me. 9. Give examples for the following preposition indicating change of location denoting: a) to: indicating a destination or direction, b) towards: in the direction of someone or something, c) through: movement from one side to another, d) into: movement that enters a space, usually with a verb that expresses movement, e) over: movement at a higher level than something else.

NSOU ? PGEL-9B 20 10. Define the prepositions in the following sentences: a) We walked along the river. The cars were parked along the all along the road. b) We are going to have a picnic in the garden. Put the pen in the cabinet. 1.10 References and Reading List 1. Azar, B. (2007). Grammar-based teaching: A practitioner's perspective. TESL- EJ, 11(2). http://tesl-ej.org/ej42/a1.html. 2. Beverly, A. H. (2007). "The role of grammar in improving student's writing." http://www.sadlier-oxford.com/docs/language/paper_chin.cfm. 3. Cater Ronald and Michael McCarthy. (2008). Cambridge Grammar of English. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. 4. Dean, Geoff. (2003) Grammar for Improving Writing and Reading in Secondary School, Routledge, Pro Quest Ebook Central. http://ebookcentral.proquest.com/lib/britishcouncilonlineebooks/detail.action? docID=1694461. Created from british council online-ebooks on 2019-11-21 07:48:51. 5. Givón, T.(1993). English Grammar : A function-based introduction. Volume I, John Benjamins Publishing Company, 1993. ProQuest Ebook Central,. http://ebookcentral.proquest.com/lib/britishcouncilonlineebooks/ detail.action?docID=861546. Created from british council online-ebooks on 2019-11-20 06:46:50.

NSOU ? PGEL-9B 21 Unit 2 ? Grammar and Communication-2 Structure 1.1 Objectives 1.2 Introduction 2.3 How are Grammar and Communication Linked? 2.4 Nouns 2.5 Pronouns 2.6 Verbs 2.6.1 Condition Verbs 2.6.2 Regular Verbs 2.6.3 Irregular Verbs 2.6.4 Phrasal Verbs (Grammatical unit) 2.7 Tense 2.8 Prepositions 2.8.1 Prepositional phrases 2.9 Affixes 2.9.1 Prefixes 2.9.2 Suffixes 2.9.3 Noun Suffixes 2.9.4 Adjective Suffixes 2.9.5 Verb Suffixes 2.10 Sentence, Clause and Phrase 2.11 Summary 2.12 Review Questions 2.13 References 2.14 Reading list

NSOU ? PGEL-9B 22 4.1 Objectives The unit intends to enable learners to develop the ability to: • understand the importance of grammatical function, • use grammar appropriately, • construct functionally correct oral and written sentences, • use prepositions contextually and appropriately, • improve their language skills. 4.2 Introduction In this unit, the learners will learn about the role of grammar in communication. The grammatical units in any sentence are related to the content of that particular sentence. These two aspects are inseparably connected. Grammatical elements of a language provide a unity of content, expression, a unity of form and meaning. 2.3 How are Grammar and Communication linked? The following sets of examples explain the relative dependency of grammar and communication: 1. (a) Friend 1: Ravi, the door is not closed. (b) Friend 2: Oh, sorry. 2. (a) Colleague: Ravi, would you close the door? (b) Colleague: Sure. 3. (a) Boss: Ravi, shut the door. (b) Subordinate: Yes, Sir The above examples direct the listener to close the door. However, while sentence 1 (a) is an example of a declarative sentence, sentence 2 (a) is an interrogative sentence and sentence 3 (a) is an imperative one. Grammar is not only related to the content and expression but also related to the different language items in the sentences. The different units of language are orderly NSOU ? PGEL-9B 23 arranged in sentences. If their order is changed, the meaning also changes, thereby modifying the meaning of the sentence. e.g. Sarala looks pretty. If the adverb 'really' is placed after the subject, the grammatical function of the adverb changes to 'subject adjunct'. Sarala really looks lovely. Hence, the position of grammatical structures in terms of nouns, pronouns, verbs, phrasal verbs, prefixes, suffixes, prepositions, root words, clauses, phrases, idioms and use of identical words would function differently if their sequential arrangement is altered. 2.4 Nouns a) Proper Nouns 'Nouns are naming words.' The words describing specific names of people are called Proper Nouns. e.g. Rani, Uganda, Copier, Orange County etc. b) Common Nouns The words which are used to identify a person or thing in a general way are called Common Nouns: e.g. Man, Keys, Boy, Girl (by gender) Baby, Child, Youth (by age) Pharmacist, Mechanic, Director (by occupation) Fans of cine heroes/heroines, Reader, Navigator (by interests) c) Collective Nouns The words which tell about a collection of or group of people, places or things are called Collective Nouns: Bunch of flowers, Herd of cattle, Flock of birds, Fleet of ships, etc. Certain Foreign words are also used as Nouns. e.g. Curriculum, Stimulus, Index, Matrix etc.

NSOU ? PGEL-9B 24 d) One-form Nouns: Certain nouns are both singular and plural. Always Plural: thanks, scissors, spectacles, etc. Always Singular: News, equipment, headquarters, etc. Title Nouns: Some nouns have courtesy title. Miss. Kete, Mr.Brown, Messrs.Venkarrama & co., etc. 2.5 Pronouns Pronouns change their faces from Nominative to Possessive and Objective cases. i) Nominative Case Person Singular Plural First person(s) speaking I We Second person(s) spoken to You You Third person(s) spoken about He, She, It They ii) Possessive Case

Person Singular Plural First my, mine our, ours Second your, yours your, yours Third his, her,

its their, theirs iii) Objective case Person Singular Plural First person(s) speaking me us Second person(s) spoken to you you Third person(s) spoken about him, her, it them 2.6 Verbs Verb is the heart of a sentence. Verb is an important element in most sentences, and it carries the primary meaning. In English, there are a few sentences which do not require a verb. They are generally called verbless sentences. Every sentence has a verb to be NSOU ? PGEL-9B 25 meaningful. The study of types of verbs, the time of its action, would help to improve communication. Types of verbs: There are different types of categorization of verbs. However, the three types of verbs given below are verbs that are associated with time and tense. There are 3 kinds of verbs. 1. Action Verbs 2. State Verbs 3. Condition Verbs Action Verbs: These verbs can take direct or indirect objects. e.g. I teach English. He purchased a flat. The Horse ran fast. He can't write legibly. State of being Verbs: They do not possess Direct or Indirect Objects in a sentence. e.g. The spectacles are expensive. The new Principal has taken charge today. I would be in Hyderabad next week. I have lunch every day. 2.6.1 Condition Verbs These verbs connect an adjective to the subject. They refer to the condition of senses: taste, smell, appearance and become. e.g. The candidate, who stood opposite to me, appears dangerous. The Macaroni cooked by my mother tastes delicious. Mr. Ram became the CEO. However, the verbs used to refer senses and are not used as condition verbs can have an object e.g. The child heard the siren and started crying. I smelled the smoke. Verbs are named 'Transitive' and 'Intransitive' based on whether they depend on object in a sentence or not.

e.g. The clock struck twelve. Birds flew. Tapathi did. Clark suggested. The verb needs a predicate nominative or adjective or adverb but never object. e.g. He will be co-captain.(The underlined word is predicate nominative.) The equipment is obsolete. (The underlined word is predicate adjective.) The child cried continuously. (The underlined word is predicate adverb.) In addition to the above types, there are Regular and Irregular Verbs. 2.6.2 Regular Verbs Present Past Present Participle Past Participle Enrich Enriched Enriching Enriched Close Closed Closing Closed 2.6.3 Irregular Verbs Present Past Present Participle Past Participle Know Knew Knowing Known Bring Brought Bringing Brought 2.6.4 Phrasal Verbs (Grammatical unit) The idiomatic use of verbs changes the expression. e.g. The spectators broke into tears. Look about you. In the above sentences, 'broke into' means crying and 'look about' means careful rather than their literal meaning. 2.7 Tense Tense is a form of a verb. Tense is a feature of verb that indicates the time of occurrence of the action. However, labels like past and present may extend beyond their meaning.

The Present Indefinite Tense (Simple Present) which is used to denote habits, customs and practice can be expressed by using adverbs such as often, usually and never. e.g. He often forgets to eat. Arati usually goes to bed early. Ram never comes late. a) Simple Past is to denote actions already completed. E.g. He ate the fruit. b) Simple future is used to denote probable actions yet to happen. e.g. I will go to USA next year. c) Perfect Tense is used to denote action of the main verb in relation to a specific time period. e.g. She has a beautiful face. I have written a novel. I had an old car. The action that would be completed in a specific point of time in future is denoted by Future Perfect Tense. e.g. I would have engaged French classes. 2.8 Prepositions Prepositions are usually used before a noun or Pronoun to establish their relation with other parts of a sentence. Some Prepositions can change the meaning of sentences. e.g. The Monkey is sitting on the tree. The Monkey is jumping in the bushes. The Monkey is sitting beside a man carrying banana. So, to express ourselves clearly, we need to use Prepositions accurately. Prepositions to denote position are 'in', 'inside', 'at', 'underneath', etc. e.g. My mother is inside the locked room. The suitcase is in the attic.

The old woman is standing at the bus stop. A small lizard slid underneath the carpet. Prepositions to denote transport are 'in', 'on', 'by' e.g. We are talking to them on latest issues. There are 30 books in the shelf. The girl often comes on her bike to college. I travelled to U.K by air. I walk on foot. Prepositions to suggest time are 'until' and 'till'. e.g. The University Website will not open until 19 th February. You have to take care of the office till I return. Prepositions to suggest movement are 'to', 'into', 'with', etc. e.g. We are going to the cinema. Pour water into the bottle. Prepositions to suggest agent e.g. On this issue, I agree with her but Most of the time I agree to her suggestions. I can do wonders with my team. I am suffering from Pneumonia. Do you wish to talk about your experiences? Never dream of parachuting to an alien land. 2.8.1 Prepositional phrases These have prepositions and complements (words that follow prepositions). The complement is a noun phrase or a pronoun, an adverb phrase or an -ing clause. Prepositional phrases give important details of the words they modify. They answer the questions which one, what kind, how, where, when, to what extent, etc. Examples: 1. It's a machine for washing clothes. (-ing clause) 2. I met my old friend at a party. (Where?) 3. They left the place just before us (When?)

Prepositional phrases are a group of words made up of a preposition and its object or any of the object's modifiers (an article or an adjective). They cannot stand independently, but are parts of sentences. They convey what or where something happened. Hence, they are essential for comprehending a sentence. e.g : in the nest, on the tree, in and out etc. Prepositional phrases can modify a Noun or a Pronoun, or another Verb or a phrase and or a clause. When a Prepositional phrase modifies a Noun/Pronoun, it is an Adjectival Phrase specifying a person or thing. e.g. P.T. Usha is the runner with fastest time. The book with thousand pages is worth reading. A prepositional phrase modifying a verb is an Adverbial phrase. e.g. C.A is the most difficult Course for any one. I participated in the marathon with enthusiasm. Sometimes, prepositional phrases are mistaken for conjunctions. If a preposition has an object, then it is a conjunction. If a preposition is at the end of a clause, then it is an adverb. e.g. After my class, I went into my room. (conjunction) After lunch, I ate a fruit. (preposition) I heard the song somewhere before. (adverb) The book with tattered cover is seen in the shelf. My father gave me a present, put inside a wrapped box. Our Principal put out a memo for the undisciplined students. The Green Audi car beside another car, was the one I wanted to buy. Idioms play an important role in the English language and their use is so widespread that understanding idiomatic expressions is essential to maintaining successful communication. Idiomatic expressions indicate a speaker's attitude and emotions. Besides, idiomatic expressions are also used to perform communicative functions such as commenting, mocking at someone or conveying a humorous view of the persons they refer to. Idioms add meaning to any situation, events or persons which are described. For example, to describe heavy downpour, the idiom," it's raining cats and dogs" is used.

NSOU ? PGEL-9B 30 Idiomatic expressions are used to make comments or recommendations. e.g. Practice makes a man perfect Better late than never. Unknowingly, he had touched a raw nerve. In spite of the bombing halt, the war in the South continued. 2.9 Affixes 2.9.1 Prefixes A prefix is placed before the stem of a word to form a new word. A stem is a part of a word, which is responsible for its lexical meaning. In other words, 'stem' is a part of a word to which affixes can be added. For example in the word unimportant, 'un' is a prefix and 'important' is the word. By adding a prefix to the beginning of a word, the meaning of a word is changed. Some antonyms are formed by adding prefixes. For example, when the prefix un- is added to the word happy, the word unhappy is created. A prefix is also called a pre-formative because it alters the form of the words to which it is affixed. They are inflectional, in nature and helps in creating a new form of the word with the same basic meaning, and same lexical category. e.g. Prefix meaning word Pre- before prelude Bi- two biannual Amphi- around amphibian Anti- opposite antibiotic Inter- between interact 2.9.2 Suffixes A suffix is a word or syllable used or added at the end of the word to change the form of the word from Noun to Noun form, Noun to adjective or a noun to a verb. e.g. Suffix meaning word -er compare lower -ful full of peaceful

NSOU ? PGEL-9B 31 -ous full of joyous -ness state of being kindness -ly stated way perfectly -ed past tense hopped 2.9.3 Noun Suffixes a) -eer Meaning: engaged in something, associated with something Examples: auctioneer, volunteer, engineer, profiteer b) -er Meaning: someone who performs an action Examples: helper, teacher, preacher, dancer c) -ion Meaning: the action or process of Examples: celebration, opinion, decision, revision d) -ity Meaning: the state or condition of Examples: probability, equality, abnormality, civility e) -ment Meaning: the action or result of Examples: movement, retirement, abandonment, establishment f) -ness Meaning: a state or quality Examples: fondness, awareness, kindness, darkness g) -or Meaning: a person who is something Examples: distributor, investigator, translator, conductor h) -sion Meaning: state or being Examples: depression, confusion, tension, compulsion

NSOU ? PGEL-9B 32 i) -ship Meaning: position held Examples: worship, ownership, courtship, internship j) -th Meaning: state or quality Examples: strength, labyrinth, depth, warmth 2.9.4 Adjective Suffixes Suffix Meaning Examples Write your examples —able, capable of being preventable, —ible adaptable, predictable, credible —al pertaining to theatrical, natural, criminal, seasonal —ant inclined to or vigilant, defiant, tending to brilliant, reliant —ary of or relating to budgetary, planetary, military, honorary —ful full of or notable of grateful, beautiful, wonderful, fanciful —ic relating to iconic, organic, heroic, poetic —ious, having qualities of gracious, cautious, —ous humorous, fabulous —ive quality or nature of creative, expensive, expressive, pensive —less without something hopeless, faultless, fearless, restless —y made up of or brainy, fruity, tasty, characterized by grouchy

NSOU ? PGEL-9B 33 2.9.5 Verb Suffixes • -ed Meaning: past-tense version of a verb Examples: laughed, climbed, called, missed • -en Meaning: become Examples: soften, fasten, lengthen, strengthen • -er Meaning: action or process, making an adjective comparative Examples: faster, bigger, fuller, longer • -ing Meaning: verb form/present participle of an action Examples: laughing, swimming, driving, writing • -ize, -ise Meaning: to cause or to become Examples: memorialize, authorize, commercialize, advertise Adverb Suffixes • -ly Meaning: in what manner something is being done Examples: bravely, simply, honestly, gladly • -ward Meaning: in a certain direction Examples: backward, wayward, awkward, afterward • -wise Meaning: in relation to Examples: clockwise, edgewise, lengthwise, otherwise 2.10 Sentence, Clause and Phrase Sentences: Generally we perceive four types of sentences though there are more than these types mentioned here.

NSOU ? PGEL-9B 34 1. Declarative or Assertive sentences: These are sentences used to state information. e.g. Raghu said that he would come to the party. He is very bold. I love movies!In this sentence, the exclamatory mark express emotion. 2. Imperative Sentences: These sentences give commands or requests. e.g. Go out. (command) Could you fetch me water? (not an interrogative but request) Have fun! (command) 3. Interrogative Sentences: They are used to ask questions with 'wh' words. Sometimes, in place of 'wh' words helping verbs such as 'do', 'did' are used. e.g. Which game do you like? What did you do? Why are you here? 4. Exclamatory Sentences: They express emotions. e.g. Oh! How beautiful is the scenary! What a high rise building it is! Phrases: A phrase is a systematic organization of certain words like nouns with verbs or verbs with prepositions etc. Random words will not make a phrase. There should be a definite order of words in a phrase. e.g. Birds fly. But not flying birds So, there is a definite order or a head-word in a phrase. Clauses Clause is a group of words in a sentence with a subject and a predicate. Further, depending on the number of clauses the sentences are divided into Simple, Compound and Complex sentences. A Clause can have any number of phrases, anoun phrase, a verb phrase or an adjective phrase. e.g. The ferocious Tiger frightened the little white rabbit. Noun phrase verb phrase adjective phrase

Generally, there are two kinds of clauses. They are Independent and dependent Clauses. An independent clause can stand alone and give meaning. However, a Dependent Clause depends on another clause to give complete meaning. Whereas dependent Clause cannot stand alone, depends on another clause for complete sense. e.g. I wore the shirt that I bought in the Exhibition. Independent dependent In addition to the above Grammatical Units, Vocabulary items like Homonyms, Homophones and Homographs also make communication intelligible. e.g. Addenda and agenda Break and brake fallacy-dictum, notion-concept etc. The importance and significance of Grammar in Communication is dealt through several examples. The functions of various Grammatical Items would be explained in the ensuing Units. 2.11 Summary Through this module the students are familiarised with aspects of grammar such as nouns, verbs, affixes, phrases and clauses. We are familiar with these grammatical items, and the unit is a recap of the items and their use in the language. The module also dealt with kinds of sentences. There are few review questions to test your comprehension of the unit and a list of book for further study on the topic. 2.12 Review Questions 1. What are the different types of Nouns and 2. What are state verbs. Give two examples. 3. What is the relation of a 'preposition phrase' with other parts of a sentence? 4. Fill the blanks with correct prepositions. a. My father is _____ business.

b. I can't sanction this project _____ you submit the proposal. c. The tiger is enclosed _____ a cage. d. We commute _____ bus to office every day. e. I am suffering _____ cold and fever for the past one week. f. After walking long distance, the daily laborer rested _____ a tree. g. John went _____ fetch vegetables. h. His wife would be unhappy _____ he accepts her wish. 5. What are Transitive and Intransitive Verbs? Give two examples. 6. What are the four types of sentences? Give example for each type of a sentence. 7. Define a clause and phrase. 8. Write any two nouns which are always (i) singular (ii) plural 9. Write briefly on how grammar and communication are linked. 10. Explain 'state verbs' and 'Action Verbs'. Give examples. 2.13 References 1. Nunan, David. (2012). Learner-Centered English Language Education : The Selected Works of David Nunan, Routledge. ProQuest Ebook Central, https:/ /ebookcentral- proquest-com.library.britishcouncil.org.in:4443/lib/britishcouncilonline- ebooks/detail.action?docID=1074914. 2. Coventry, Kenny R., and Simon C. Garrod. (2004). Saying, Seeing and Acting : The Psychological Semantics of Spatial Prepositions, Taylor & Francis Group. ProQuest Ebook Central, https://ebookcentral-proquest-com.library.britishcouncil.org.in:4443/lib/britishcouncilonline-ebooks/ detail.action?docID=201057. 3. "Stay home." The Merriam-Webster.com Dictionary, Merriam-Webster Inc., https://www.merriam-webster.com/dictionary/stay%20home. Accessed 1 December 2019.

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Unit 3 ?Grammatical Analysis of Language Function-1 Structure 3.1 Objectives 3.2 Introduction 3.3 Grammatical Forms and their Functions 3.4 Punctuation marks in Communication 3.5 Spatial Prepositions 3.6 Adjectives as Modifiers 3.7 Collocation 3.8 Adverbs 3.9 Summary 3.10 Review Questions 3.11 References and Reading List 3.1 Objectives After going through the unit, you would develop ability to: • Differentiate language and its functions, • Know the position of various structures and their function, • Speak and write intelligible language, • Differentiate between Parts of Language and their function, • Comprehend the change of meaning in sentences with the position of various grammatical structures. 3.2 Introduction The study of functions focuses on the manner in which grammatical aspects are used to perform language functions. Language functions refer to the purpose for which the

NSOU ? PGEL-9B 39 speech or writing is used. For instance, in oral communication we give instructions, introduce oneself or others and make requests to name a few. For instance both in academic writing and technical writing a range of specific functions are used in order to communicate effectively. These language functions include describing processes, comparing and contrasting things or ideas and classifying objects and or ideas etc. 3.3 Grammatical forms and their functions Grammar is the study of meaning which is built through the appropriate choice of words and structures like singular or plural, clauses, prepositions and tenses etc. Grammar is related to the meaning which is semantic. Grammar is also concerned with how language is used in and for communication. It is functional. Language has many set of systems and they offer innumerable choice of structures to create meaning and to perform many language functions. For example, if I want to know the NAME, I will use 1. What's your name? 2. May I know your name please? 3. Tell me your name, please. 4. I would like to know your name. Though all the above examples convey the same meaning of knowing somebody's name, yet there is a lot of difference in the language function. All the above sentences have the word 'name' but there is a lot of difference in the choice of other words. Hence, the first sentence is an interrogative sentence, the second sentence and the last sentence uses auxiliary verbs to form an interrogative and a declarative sentence respectively. However, the third sentence is an imperative sentence. Hence, the position of grammatical structures in terms of Tenses, phrasal verbs, suffixes, prepositions, root words, clauses, phrases, Idioms and use of identical words would function differently if their sequential arrangement is altered. Punctuation marks play an important role in communicating the correct meaning. A mismatch of the punctuation or no punctuation marks lead to confusion and ambiguity. Thus, the entire process of communication is affected negatively.

NSOU ? PGEL-9B 40 3.4 Punctuation mark in Communication The Cambridge English Dictionary defines punctuation mark as a mark that you add to a text to show the divisions between different parts of it. Common punctuation marks are periods, commas, colons, semi colons, question marks, capital letters, quotation marks, dashes, em dashes, en dashes, hyphen, apostrophe and exclamatory marks. Punctuation marks help the reader to understand the meaning of the text clearly. Punctuation tells the reader where each sentence ends. Punctuation marks also help the reader understand the writer's emotions and intentions about the subject. While correct punctuation marks make meaning explicit and clear, incorrect punctuation marks confuse the readers. For example an exclamatory mark(!) tells the reader that the writer is either excited or disappointed. Example 1: Here is a paragraph without punctuation marks: Do you like to sing My mom and I sing in a choir that meets every Tuesday Last week we sang Christmas carols at a nursing home The residents of the nursing home enjoyed our visit It was fun Would you like to join us next Tuesday You can see that it is very difficult to read as every sentence runs into the next sentence. Here is the same paragraph with punctuation marks: Do you like to sing? My mom and I sing in a choir that meets every Tuesday. Last week, we sang Christmas carols at a nursing home. The residents of the nursing home enjoyed our visit. It was fun! Would you like to join us next Tuesday? Assertive sentences, Interrogative sentences, and exclamatory sentences are separated by appropriate punctuation marks. In the above example, the underlined sentence shows that the writer is excited about singing and enjoyed singing. The writer also enquires the listener if he/she is interested to join their choir with an interrogative ending. Example 2: 1. David wants to marry Ruth 2. David wants to marry Ruth? 3. David wants to marry Ruth!

NSOU ? PGEL-9B 41 The words in all the three sentences are the same but there is a lot of meaning variation with the change in the punctuation mark. The first sentence uses a period at the end. It states a fact. The second sentence has a question mark (?). The writer is surprised or confused and seeks clarification. The third sentence has an exclamatory mark (!). The writer is excited at the news. Example 3: Sentence 1: Jill likes to eat chocolate hot pizza broccoli. Sentence 2: Jill likes to eat chocolate, hot pizza and broccoli. The first sentence tells that Jill likes chocolate, flavored hot pizza and broccoli. In the second sentence using commas, clearly indicates that Jill likes to eat three food items, chocolate, hot pizza and broccoli. Thus, the function of a comma (,) in a sentence is to separate phrases, ideas and items in the list. Commas help to avoid confusion. Example 4: Absolutely "NO" Dogs in Restroom (The writer's intention is to convey that there are no dogs in the rest room. But with wrongly placed quotation marks, the meaning is distorted.) 'Beautiful' 2 storey, 2-Bed House for Rent.(Misplaced quotation mark and hyphen) Restroom, out of order, 'forever'. (the word in quotes convey a wrong sense) These are a few examples on the importance of punctuation. Without punctuation, writing is ambiguous. In speaking we give pauses to denote commas. 3.5 Spatial Preposition Spatial prepositions are used to indicate the position of someone or something, the place they are going to or coming from, or the direction someone or something is moving. Ex: The house is situated on your left.(direction) The voice is coming from the mountains.(direction) He searched for the lost keys in the auditorium.(spatial) I am waiting at the door.(spatial)

NSOU ? PGEL-9B 42 Most prepositions are single words such as, in, from, off, towards, inside, into, around, across etc. However, there are many prepositions which consist of more than one word, which are used to talk about destination or place. Some common prepositions that fall under this category are, away from, close by, close to, in between, next to, on top of etc. Fig.1 In the above picture there are many places. If somebody asks you to direct them to the sports centre from grocery store, you use the prepositions like in, from, off, towards, inside, into, around, across, next two, behind, in between etc. Below are the instructions where prepositions function to give directions. From the grocery store, walk a kilometer straight from the signal, across the Pine Street till you reach the next signal. You will find a barber's shop to your left. When you cross the 2nd signal, walk 10 steps ahead, you will find the Sports Centre to your left. Walk forward the S.D lane, take first right and then second left. The house you are searching for is between the More Super market and a fruit shop. English has many prepositions. Prepositions like at, in to etc function both as spatial and temporal prepositions. Hence, the function of the preposition in a sentence depends on the context in which it is used. Some prepositions are used with restricted group of words. For example, Agree to——— verb + preposition Application for —— noun + preposition At home ————preposition + noun Familiar with——— adjective + preposition

NSOU ? PGEL-9B 43 'Astride' is primarily used to tell that a person has one leg on each side of something, usually sitting on it to ride or riding. e.g: She proudly sat astride her new bike. When 'before' is used to indicate position, the object is generally either a person or group of people. Ex: The students received their prizes before a huge gathering. In situations where 'all over' is used, generally has a large or indefinite area as its object. e.g: Hundreds of people are protesting all over seeking immediate justice. The broken pieces of the glass spread all over the room. Introducing one self and others is a common situation that we come across both in formal and informal situations. While introducing oneself or others tenses play a significant role. Look at the following examples. e.g: Hello Ravi, I am Kiran. Hello Gautam, meet my friend Rahul. He is Rahul, my childhood friend. He is an Engineer in Microsoft. Previously, he worked for Google and Tata Tele Services. He is singer and a practicing lawyer. (Use of present tense and past tense) 3.6 Adjectives as Modifiers Adjectives are used in describing people, places, situations and process and modifying things. This is because adjectives help in identifying or describing someone or something in detail. Meticulous description is possible by using appropriate adjectives. Adjectives are used in modifying a noun. e.g: New ideas from young employees are encouraged. We could not locate any good hotel for arranging a get together. The most important points to remember before using an adjective: • Whether it is used before a noun or after a link verb • Is it qualitative adjective or a classifying adjective.

NSOU ? PGEL-9B 44 Adjectives function as a modifier that modifies a noun group. e.g: Mary is carrying a black, battered, old suitcase. The main purpose is to say that Mary is carrying a suitcase. The adjectives black, battered and old give more description about the suitcase. When an adjective is placed with the link verb, then the focus is on the adjective. e.g: The suitcase Mary is carrying is black, old and battered. Here the main function of the adjectives is describing the suitcase, hence the focus is on the adjectives, 'black', 'old' and 'battered.' Task 1 Read the description below taken from the novel The Better Man by Anita Nair. The author uses adjectives to describe the village, Kaikurussi, the place where the story is set. "The fields were everywhere. Endless shades of green that stretched into the horizon on one side and the foot of the Pulmooth Mountain on the other. Speckled only with the bright blouses of the women as they stood ankle-deep in water-logged mud and pulled out the young paddy plants. When a breeze blew, the tops of the paddy rippled and turned the sheets of sedate jade into gleaming splashes of emerald". (50) Task 2 Let's understand how these adjectives are used to describe a place. The present paragraph is taken from the novel The Lowland written by Jhumpa Lahiri. She uses adjectives to give a vivid picture of the landscape. "Subhash had never seen such grass, as uniform as a carpet, unfurled over sloping contours of earth. Undulating like dunes in a desert, or gentle dips and swells in a sea. It was shorn so finely on the putting green that it felt like moss when he pressed against it. The ground below was as smooth as a scalp, the grass appearing a shade lighter there." (Lahiripg 6) Based on the two examples given here, adjectives are used with different functions. The quintessential details of any aspect, place, situation, person or situation can be clearly explained with the use of adjectives. Some common adjectives used to describe people are brave, enthusiastic, talkative, gregarious, sociable, calm, short tempered, patient, loving, caring etc.

NSOU ? PGEL-9B 45 Task 3 Let's look at another example of the function of an adjective in describing people. Now, if you have to describe your mother or your favorite teacher or sibling, adjectives are used. Let's say you have to describe your friend. Identify a few adjectives from the list given above and describe. Revanth, my friend is calm, loving and sociable. Task 4 Read the advertisement given below. It is brought in by a Tourism Department. You can identify various adjectives used with various functions. These adjectives woo the reader to visit the place. A careful reading of this advertisement drives home the point that effective use of adjectives is important both in personal as well as in professional life. "Bali, the perfect holiday destination for nature lovers, awaits you with this 6-night holiday. Built on an offshore rock formation is the Tanah Lot temple, and no visit to this iconic site is complete without a photo session. Be enthralled by the sunset views and enjoy an incredible guided tour here. The traditional Barong dance, narrating the story of the fight between good and evil, is truly a fascinating performance. Enjoy an authentic Indonesian lunch during a guided Kintamani tour". Let us examine the use of adjective in the word 'black bird'. In this situation the bird is described. Now, examine the word 'Blackbird.' This is referred to as collocation. In the first situation it is a free combination whereas, in the second it is a fixed combination. Let us understand what a collocation is and its function in the language. J. R. Firth is often quoted having said "you know a word by the company it keeps (Firth, 1957: 11) 3.7 Collocation Collocation is a term that refers to the mechanism, or fact, that certain words are regularly found in the company of other words. Knowing and learning collocations is 'of vital importance to those learners of English who are speakers of other languages.' (Benson et al. 1986) Collocations play a major role to speak and write natural English. For example, 'heavy smoker, not big smoker, 'free of charge' as 'free of' collocates with charge not cost or payment. If the right collocations are not chosen, though the meaning

NSOU ? PGEL-9B 46 is conveyed, it does not sound natural. Below is a spectrum of collocations adapted from Howert (1996) and Carter (1987). A. Free Combination: a) run a risk, b) make an attempt B. Restricted Combination (i) Adjective + noun: a) hardened + criminal, b) extenuating + circumstance (ii) adverb + verb: a) readily + admit, b) totally + unaware (iii) verb + noun: a) renovate + house, b) shrug + shoulder (iv) noun + verb: a) brake + screech, b) cloud + drift Knowledge of collocations is essential in order to express clearly in fewer sentences thus keeping the both spoken and written communicate on lucid and simple. Task 5 Look at the difference 1. The police arrested the people for having sex the wrong way. This in fact can be made simple by using the appropriate collocation- sexual abuse. 2. In India people have the opportunity to say what they want. Instead, 'In India people have Freedom of expression'- is a better choice. 3.8 Adverbs Adverbs perform a wide range of function. Adverbs in English are inflected forms of adjectives and are used to generally modify verbs. Adverbs and adjectives are used to describe, modify either events or things. The difference between the two is marked by its functional usage. They are used in modifying a noun or a verb. e.g. This paint is especially made of waterproof and anti-corrosion substance.- Emphasizes the use of a particular paint. I ran fast and could win the medal. Adverbs give additional information on manner, place, time, frequency, certainty and other details related to the verb or adjective it modifies. This will enhance the reader's understanding and comprehension of the given topic.

NSOU ? PGEL-9B 47 e.g. I worked yesterday—Time I sang melodiously in the competition — Manner I often make mistakes with numbers— Frequency Adverbs also function as modifiers modifying noun phrases, prepositional phrases and clauses. e.g. I bought only fruits- Only modifies fruits. It emphasizes that nothing else other than fruits were bought. Ravi drove us almost to the airport when the car troubled.-Almost modifies the phrase to the airport. Certainly we need to be responsible during this pandemic. Certainly modifies the sentence as a whole. Adverbs function as modifiers of adjectives and other adverbs to indicate the degree of intensity. e.g. You are quite right in your analysis- Adverb quite modifies the adjective right Helen is exceptionally beautiful- Adverb exceptionally modifies adjective beautiful Wow! Maggie noodles can be prepared really quickly. Adverb really modifying another adverb quickly Thus knowledge of grammar components and their functions in various communicative acts help a speaker or a writer to communicate clearly. 3.9 Summary This unit introduced you to the language functions and forms; spatial prepositions, adjectives as modifiers, adverbs, through a range of tasks and illustrations. We have also learnt on collocation of free combinations and restricted combinations. To test your comprehension, there is a set of review questions and to further learn on the topic consult the reading list.

NSOU ? PGEL-9B 48 3.10 Review Questions 1. 'The efficient use of grammatical components is mandatory to write a meaningful sentence." Elucidate. 2. Define Adjectives and write how do they function as modifiers? 3. What are Spatial and Temporal prepositions? Illustrate with suitable examples. 4. Write the appropriate prepositions used with the following words. a. Agree b. b. discover c. c. connection 5. Explain the importance of collocations by giving examples. 6. What are adverbs? How do they function? 7. Describe your favourite author, hero or person in 100 words. 8. Categorize the following collocations: a. on time b. give credit c. out of the question 9. Discuss the following language forms from the following: a. A new station is under construction. b. Never tell lies out of tales. c. She is the best by far. 10. Identify the prepositional phrase from the following: a. The chapter is well organized in terms of ideas. b. The mango trees are in full bearing. c. Do not speak at the same time. d. Students can buy books at a discount. e. Took a bus just in case.

NSOU ? PGEL-9B 49 3.11 References and Reading List Benson, M. et al. (1986). Lexicographical Description of English. Amsterdam: John Benjamins Publishing. https://books.google.co.in/books/about/Lexicographic_Description_of_English.html?id=SPHll4ciI9QC&redir_esc=y Carter, R. (1987). Vocabulary: Applied Linguistic Perspectives. London: Allen and Unwin. Firth, J. R. (1957). Studies in Linguistic Analysis. Oxford: Blackwell. https://cs.brown.edu/courses/csci2952d/readings/lecture1-firth.pdf Howert, P. (1996). Phraseology of English Academic Writing. In Lexicographica. Series Maior 75. Tübingen: M. Niemeyer. Lahiri Jhumpa. (2013). The Lowland. Noida. New York: Alfred A. Knopf and Random House. Mathesius, Vilém. (1975).

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A Functional Analysis of Present Day English on a General Linguistic Basis, edited by

Josef Vachek, The Hague- Paris: Academia Publishing House. https://books.google.co.in/books?id=ZdbLSkaPMJwC&pg=PA3&source Nair, Anita. (2000). The Better Man. India: Penguin Random House.
NSOU ? PGEL-9B 50 Unit 4 ?Grammatical Analysis of Language Functions-2 Structure 4.1 Objectives 4.2 Introduction 4.3 Verbs 4.3.1 Finite Verbs 4.3.2 Non-finite Verbs 4.3.3 Transitive and Intransitive Verbs 4.3.4 Lexical verbs 4.3.5 Auxiliary 4.3.6 Modal Auxiliary 4.4 Present Tense, Past Tense and Future Tense. 4.5 Summary 4.6 Review Questions 4.7 References 4.8 Reading List 4.1 Objectives After going through the unit you would develop ability to: • Recognize the importance of proper use of Tenses. • Identify various functions of a verb, • Uses the tenses aptly in various situations, • Improve your Professional Skills. 4.2 Introduction In the previous units we understood the functional aspects of prepositions, adjectives, adverbs and collocations. This unit focuses on tenses and their functional use. Tense is 'time
NSOU ? PGEL-9B 51 of action'. Depending on the time, tense changes its function. Grammatical analysis proceeds from word and sentence to text and discourse structure (form) and functions. 4.3 Verbs Before we go into the details, it is essential to know the various kinds of verbs in English. A verb is a word that indicates an action or a state of being or a condition. Verb in English has three forms; Present form, Past form and Past Participle form. Forms of the verbs S. Present Form-1 st form Past Form-2 nd form Participle- 3 rd form No. of the verb of the verb of the verb 1 Drink Drank Drunk 2 Run Ran Run 3 Write Wrote Written 4 Cut Cut Cut 5. Go Went Gone 6. Eat Ate Eaten 7. Come Came Come 8. Sing Sang Sung 9. Build Built Built 10. Send Sent Sent 11. Bring Brought Brought 12. Buy Bought Bought Depending on the change in the form, the verbs are divided into two. Finite and Non Finite Verbs. 4.3.1 Finite verbs Finite verbs change their form when there is a change in the number of persons in the subject.
NSOU ? PGEL-9B 52 e.g: I go to market everyday He/she goes to market everyday They go to market every day. 4.3.2 Non-Finite Verbs Non-Finite verbs do not change their group when there is a change in the number of persons in the subject. So, we don't see tense for non-finite verbs. They are mainly three types: Infinitives, gerunds and participles Infinitive: It is to + verb form. e.g: I wanted to get fruits from the market. But infinitive can take the form of adjectives, adverbs or nouns by its position. Some examples to state are: e.g. He refused to accept the appointment letter. (Adjective) I go to eat. (Noun) She requested us to listen her lecture. (Adverb) The 'Gerund' is verb+ ing but not continuity of action. e.g. He is the living legend. (Adjective) I saw you struggling to climb up. (Adjective) The 'participle' is either present or past, functions as an adjective. e.g: The Piano played, failed. Fish is rich in Fatty Acids and is a balanced diet. She carried a singing doll. In some sentences verbs function as subject complements. They are called Linking Verbs. e.g: She became lazy. It seems to be raining. A meaningful sentence generally requires a subject, a verb and an object. But based on the requirement of an object to complete the meaning in a sentence, verbs are divided into two types.
NSOU ? PGEL-9B 53 4.3.3 Transitive and Intransitive Verbs Transitive verb: It requires an object to give complete meaning to a sentence. e.g: I bought…… What did I buy? I bought a car. After adding the object, i.e car, the sentence gives a complete meaning. So, bought is a transitive verb. Intransitive Verb: It does not require an object to complete the meaning of a sentence. e.g: She smiled. The puppy died. There are another group of verbs namely, Lexical Verbs and Auxiliary verbs. 4.3.4 Lexical verbs Lexical verbs express action or state of being. In fact, they are the main verbs in a sentence. e.g: I walk a kilometer every day. 4.3.5 Auxiliary Verbs Auxiliary verbs are also called helping verbs. They help the main verbs. If there is no main verb in the sentence, then the auxiliary verb is considered to be the main verb. e.g: I teach English. (Lexical Verb) I am a teacher. (Auxiliary verb) Auxiliary verbs are forms of -be in the present tense (am, is, are) forms of be in the past tense (was, were), in perfect tense (has, have, had), modal (do, did). e.g: I was playing cricket yesterday. (was- auxiliary verb, Play is the lexical verb in the continuous tense form) I goggled for information. (Lexical Verb) I was goggling for information on language functions. (Auxiliary Verb) They are watching T.V. We were talking to Ravi in the meeting. Did you visit London?

NSOU ? PGEL-9B 54 The auxiliaries can be further classified into grammatical auxiliaries and modal auxiliaries. Grammatical auxiliaries are sometimes referred to as primary auxiliaries as they have purely grammatical function to perform. Grammatical auxiliaries are am, is, are generally referred to as forms of be in the present tense are used in forming simple present or present continuous or progressive tense. Was/were referred to as forms of be in the past tense are used in forming past simple or past continuous tense or progressive tense. 'Has, have' are used in forming present perfect tense and' had' past perfect tense. 'Do' is used in sentences that do not contain an auxiliary verb. e.g: Do you love her? I do love her. 4.3.6 Modal Auxiliaries Verbs such as shall, will, would, can, could may, might are called modals. Modal auxiliaries help in expressing ability, possibility, seeking permission or informing possibility, uncertainty, intention, suggestion or a promise. Can, could are used to seek or give permission. e.g: Tushar can sing well.(ability) Tushar could sing beautifully at the age of five.(past ability) I suppose, I could visit my mother-in-law after the lock down.(future possibility) May, Might – expresses to avail permission. Might is the past form of may and expresses greater uncertainty. May I come in? (Permission) If everything goes according to the plan, I might visit Ladakh this summer. (Possibility) Will, would express willingness to do something. Will is also used to express intentions and to make predictions. Would is the past tense of will. e.g: I will take my son to the museum today. (Intention) As a young boy, Sachin would practice playing cricket for three hours every day. (past action) Shall is used when giving a suggestion or making a promise. Shall I refer to few more books to complete the article. (asking for a suggestion)

NSOU ? PGEL-9B 55 Should is used when giving advice. It is also used to express obligation or expectation. You should see the Dal lake when you visit Srinagar. Action Verbs State Verbs: Action verbs refer to action whereas state verbs refer to a state of being. Action Verbs have continuous form but state verbs do not. Action Verbs: Write-writing Read- reading etc. State Verbs: know, like, believe etc. A careful distinction should be made between tense and time. Time is an extra linguistic category. It exists independently of language. Tense is a linguistic concept. Tense refers to the form of the verb to identify the time of the situation or action. It expresses the temporal relation between the time of the situation and the action. In English there are three major Tenses. 4.4 Present Tense, Past Tense and Future Tense Each tense has four forms. Present Tense: In this tense, the form of the verb shows actions that happen in the present, or at the time of speaking or writing. e.g: People depend on money. There are no buses on the roads now Forms: Simple

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Present, Present Continuous or progressive, Present Perfect, and Present Perfect Continuous. Simple Present Tense is

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used to describe habitual actions, universal truths, giving instructions, planned future actions, commentaries and in exclamatory sentences, proverbs and maxims. While making interrogative sentences, do is changed to does. Am/is+ action verb should be used to represent Simple Present. e.g: I am a teacher. I teach English. She is a teacher. 's' or 'es' or 'ies' is added to the verb if the subject is III person, singular. The dog licks.

NSOU ? PGEL-9B 56 The baby cries. She catches early train and goes to her native place. Open the window. (instruction) You will go to the USA next January. (planned future action) Oh! How beautiful the scenery is! (exclamation) Does she give you the cheque? (interrogative) A bird in hand is worth two in the bush. (proverb) 1. Imagine that you attended an interview. The interviewer asked the following questions. • What is your name? • Tell me about yourself. • What are your hobbies? • What is your favourite dish? • Who is your role model? • Talk about tasks related to your job that you do daily. A careful observation of the questions indicates that the verbs used are in Simple Present Tense. Now, let us answer. • My name is Akash. • I am a student of Hyderabad Central University. I am proactive and reliable. • My hobbies are playing cricket and collecting stamps. • My favourite dish is Paneer Kofta. • My mother is my role model. • I work with colleagues from different cultures, I prepare Google docs and forms, I use English in my job to communicate. The responses are also in Simple Present. 2. Now read the following instructions given by World Health Organization on the precautions to take to reduce chances of being infected or spreading of COVID- 19.

NSOU ? PGEL-9B 57 • Regularly and thoroughly clean your hands with an alcohol-based hand rub or wash them with soap and water. • Maintain at least 1 metre (3 feet) distance between yourself and others. • Avoid going to crowded places. • Avoid touching eyes, nose and mouth. • Make sure you, and the people around you, follow good respiratory hygiene. • Stay home and self-isolate even with minor symptoms such as cough, headache, mild fever, until you recover. • Keep up to date on the latest information from trusted sources, such as WHO and your National and Local health authorities. 3. A woman shoots her husband. Then she holds him underwater for over 5 minutes. Finally, she hangs him. But 5 minutes later, they both go out together and enjoy a wonderful dinner together. 4. Read the following instructions on how to prepare power point presentation. • Keep it simple. • Write only six sentences in one slide. • Use colours that make reading easy. • Use appropriate font. Present Progressive (Continuous) Tense: Am + is + action verb/main verb +ing (if the subject is singular) Am + are + action verb/main verb + ing (if the subject is plural) The present continuous tense is used to describe an action continued at the time of speaking/writing. Which project are you working on now? I am working on Artificial Intelligence Based Project. I am leading a team of eight. However this example is also appropriate according to the situation. e.g: Today all the countries are fighting with and against Covid-19. A temporary action that may not be actually continued at the time of speaking. e.g: "Scientists are conducting experiments to know if life is possible on the Moon", said a news reporter.

NSOU ? PGEL-9B 58 An event which is planned to take place in future. e.g: Anita Nair is planning to release another novel next summer. Present Perfect Tense: The present perfect tense is used to talk about an action that is completed in the immediate past or a state or habit started in the past and is still continuing. e.g: has/have+ participle of the action verb In a job interview you can talk about your projects or courses that you have completed recently. She has just completed a project on collaborative teaching in association with UNESCO. I have completed a basic course in Child Psychology. In an interview you can talk about your likes and dislikes using Perfect Tense. e.g: I have always enjoyed working on interdisciplinary and multidisciplinary project. I never liked to sit at one place and perform routine tasks. If you have recently completed your degree you can use this tense. I have graduated from Massachusetts Institute of Technology this month. Present Perfect Progressive (Continuous) Tense This

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tense is used to talk about an action that began in the past and

is continuing in the present. Has + been + main verb + ing (subject is singular) or have + been + main verb + ing (subject is plural) In an interview if one wants to talk about a project that she/he is presently on, we can use this Tense. She has been working on this project for four years now. There has been a lot of technology advancement since last year. These technological changes have been dictating the completion of the project. Interviewer: What has changed in all those years? R.K. Laxman: Politics has gone from bad to worse! Yet politicians have been extending support. Past Tense: Past Tense has four forms. The Simple Past, Past Progressive (Continuous), Past Perfect, Past Perfect Progressive (Continuous). NSOU ? PGEL-9B 59 Simple Past Simple Past indicates an action completed in the past, before speaking or writing. Simple past is adding -ed, -ied, or -d to the basic form of the Verb. Was/were + past form of the verb A candidate can use Simple Past in a job interview to talk about his education or studies and also his/her completed projects if he/she has experience. e.g: I completed graduation in Sciences from Osmania University, moved to IISC Bangalore, done PG there. I worked for 2 years in TESLA. Past Progressive (Continuous) Tense indicates an action which continued for some time in past, but exact time limit is unknown. This tense is also used to express a frequently repeated habitual action in the past and refers to an action in progress when something else happened in the past. In this Tense, be forms used are given below. Was + present participle form of the main verb. (subject is singular) Were + present participle form of the main verb. (subject is plural) e.g: While I was at IISC Bangalore as a student, I was visiting many pharmaceutical companies frequently. As part of my job, I was visiting Government agencies for the sanction of various funded projects. They were watching a movie till late night. The train was leaving the station when we reached there. Past Perfect Tense: It is used to indicate two completed actions, one before the other or at a particular point of time in the past. Had+ -en/ -ed + past participle form of the verb. e.g: Mr. Lorry came silently forward, leaving the daughter by the door. When he had stood, for a minute or two, by the side of Defarge, the shoemaker looked up. Darkness had fallen on him. He had taken my property forcefully.

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Past Perfect Progressive (Continuous) Tense: It is used to indicate an action that began before a certain time in the past and continued up to that

point of time or stopped just before it in the past.

NSOU ? PGEL-9B 60 Structure: had + been+ main verb + ing. e.g. Saturday night, I watched a science fiction. The next day was Sunday. It was a pleasant morning. I was dreaming of winning a medal from the Prime Minister for developing the Aarogya Setu app. I was in a jubilant mood giving interviews. I had been dreaming of this big day when my mother screamed and hurried me to wake up. India's economy had been falling since Covid 19 affected the Country. Future Tense: It is used to indicate the actions which happen after the time of speaking or writing. e.g. I will participate in an Essay writing competition, next week. It has four forms: Simple Future, Future Progressive (Continuous), Future Perfect and Future Perfect Progressive (Continuous). Simple Future: Indicates an action which we think or believe will happen in the future. will/shall+ main verb. e.g. My college will open soon after the lockdown. It indicates an action which will be in progress at some point of time in the future. Am/is/are + going + to + main verb e.g. I am going to write the Exam. It is going to rain. Future (Progressive) Continuous Tense: It indicates an action which will be in progress at some point of time in the future. will/shall + be+ main verb + ing (present participle form) e.g. I will be attending my cousin's wedding next month. Future Perfect Tense: It indicates

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an action which will have happened by a certain time in the future. Will/shall + have +

past participle form of the verb. e.g. By 2025, I shall have completed writing three books. He shall have taken the tablet.

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Future Perfect Progressive (continuous) Tense: It indicates an action which will be in progress over a period of time that will end in the future. NSOU ? PGEL-9B 61 Will/shall/have + been +

verb + ing. (present participle) e.g. I will have been working in the university for two years next June. She will have been learning French for 5 years by the time she graduates. 4.5 Summary The unit is a recap of the concept 'tense' from our background knowledge. It is an overview of 12 different tenses, with examples, usage tips and signal words. From working on the unit we can now think on how to teach the topic and create interesting activities for the ESL learner. As well as think on whether, the inductive method or the deductive method would be appropriate for the learners for learning the grammatical functions. There are few review questions to test comprehension of the topic. 4.6 Review Questions 1. Elaborate various Tenses writing their function. 2. How do you make use of modal auxiliary verbs? 3. Match the following words in 'A' with the words in 'B' A B a. Will 1. Present Tense b. Have 2. Simple Perfect Tense c. Has 3. Past perfect tense d. Is 4. Past continuous e. Was 5. Present continuous f. Will be 6. Future tense g. Had 7. Present perfect tense h. Will have been 8. Future continuous i. Are 9. Present 'be' form j. Have been 10. perfect continuous 11. simple past 12. Simple tense

NSOU ? PGEL-9B 62 4. Explain the various types of verbs. 5. Analyse the following sentences and correct if necessary. a. They do hungry. b. She run to catch the bus. c. My sister is not ask me about my match. d. What is he want? e. I do go for my classes. f. You are play in their dormitory. g. She sell seashells on sea shore. h. What is they want? i. What does her favourite food? j. They is lazy. 6. Discuss the difference in the following sentences: a) During the play, Sam stood up and dropped his mobile. b) During the play, Sam stands up and drops his mobile. 7. Circle the incorrect sentence and write its correct form. a. She sing in the shower all the time. My Brother sang at the church on Sunday. b. I still cannot believe they broke the glass. I breaked a different glass last year. c. In the summer, my family visit the seas. Last year, we visited the seas. 8. Do you agree with the following statements? Why? Why not? a. English tenses are used for realizing the narrative function of a text. b. Grammatical analysis and grammatical function are same. c. Tense selections (signal words) help the reader to interpret the time line of a narrative. 9. Write the tense forms for the following and explain what do they express? A. Present simple: I play basket ball. B. Present continuous: C. Present Perfect: D. Present perfect continuous:

NSOU ? PGEL-9B 63 10. Classify the following in terms of State, activity and achievement and justify. a. Ravi is hoping to win the game on Sunday. b. Ravi is beginning to win the game on Sunday. c. Ravi is training to win the game on Sunday. 4.7 References 1. Declerck, Renaat. The Grammar of the English Tense System : A Comprehensive Analysis, De Gruyter, Inc., 2006. Pro Quest Ebook Central. 2. https://www.riddles.com/riddles-for-adults. 3. https://www.who.int/emergencies/diseases/novel-coronavirus-2019/advice-for- public. 4. Skills Annexe, Functional English for success by Orient Blackswan Pvt.Ltd. 5. Reader's Digest, March 2020. 4.8 Reading List 1. Bates, E. & B. MacWhinney. 1982. "Functional approaches to grammar". In E. Wanner & L. Gleitman (eds.) Language Acquisition: The State of the Art. London: Routledge. 2. Cottrell, S. 1999. The Study Skills Handbook. London: Macmillan Press Ltd. 3. Greenbaum, S. & R. Quirk. 1990. A Student's Grammar of the English Language. London: Longman. 4. Selinger, H. 1984. "Issues in the testing of English for Specific Purposes", Language Testing1.2: 202-220.

NSOU ? PGEL-9B 64 Unit 5 ?Grammatical Analysis of Language Functions-3 Structure 5.1 Objectives 5.2 Introduction 5.3 Situational Function of Language 5.3.1 Narration 5.3.2 Comparison and Conclusion 5.3.3 Making Request 5.3.4 Persuasion 5.4 Linkers and Connectors 5.4.1 Uses of Linkers and Connectors 5.5 Transition words 5.6 Summary 5.7 Review Questions 5.8 References 5.9 Reading List 5.1 Objectives After going through the unit you would develop ability to: • Use language precisely in various situations, • Know various language functions, • Differentiate language forms and its functions, • Differentiate language usage and use of grammatical functions in language. • Adopt techniques of good speaking and writing. 5.2 Introduction The manner in which people use language is determined by the context, purpose or

NSOU ? PGEL-9B 65 intentions of the speaker or writer. Thus language is mainly functional. In any language context, be it a casual conversation, a letter to the editor or a speech, performs a specific function. Since, language is used to communicate; function takes an important position than the structure. Nevertheless, without understanding the structure it is difficult to perform the function. Hence, language form and function- both are essential for better communication and for communication with specific purpose. For example, when we communicate with a person of a different language or with a small child, meaningful communication is important. For this, we do not need correct structure of sentences. But their function is more important than the structure. The key point that influences Language Function is vocabulary. The words are grouped or structured to give meaningful relationship. This is called grammar. Grammatical Function has an important place in language. It is closely connected with the social issues, because language is primarily used for communication. Halliday explains that 'the internal organization of language is not arbitrary but embodies a positive reflection of the functions that the language has evolved to serve the life of a common man.' (Fontaine pp 5) Language function in academics mostly depends on situations. Whereas, for written academic purpose its form is vital. All grammatical items should be used here. 5.3 Situational Function of language 5.3.1 Situation 1: Narration Read the paragraph given below. Jim made new friends joined an american legion post and the knights of columbus and became an active member of the sthugh roman catholic church he never talked about his past and his friends didnt pry one once said to him from your accent you must be from newyorkjim replied I guess so Now read the following paragraph with appropriate punctuation marks. Jim made new friends, joined an American Legion post and the Knights of Columbus, and became an active member of the St Hugh Roman Catholic Church. He never talked about his past, and his friends didn't pry. One once said to him, "From your accent, you must be from New York." Jim replied, "I guess so." A careful reading of the two paragraphs makes it explicit that appropriate punctuation marks convey exact meaning. Thus, punctuation marks are functional language units.

NSOU ? PGEL-9B 66 5.3.2 Situation 2 Comparison and Conclusion (statements). 1. Ram asked Pizza while talking to his sister. "Give it to him, not to her". 2. Those two men travelling in the caravan, will arrive tomorrow. 3. I met Usha, my friend in the market this morning, but I did not talk to her. 4. That novel was written by my uncle who is in America. 5. 'The Ode to West Wind' is better than 'The ode to Nightingale'. 6. News is spreading faster now. (Noun is plural in form, but used singular in meaning) In the above sentences pronouns and nouns function to express comparison or conclusions. Now let us write the observations based on the above examples In the first example given above, the pronouns, him, her, have common reference to the nouns. In the 2 nd example, it is difficult to understand who the pronouns refer to. But it is a meaningful statement. In the 5 th example, the function is comparison by using Nouns. 5.3.3 Situation 3: Making requests Could you help me in finding the Government Hospital? I need more readings of this book. Shall I return this book after one more month? Stop using Plastic Bags. In the above sentences, though they state the purpose of request, they have different form. First sentence is Interrogative, 2nd is Assertive and 3rd one is Imperative. Grammatical function of Language is quite visible in these examples. 5.3.4 Situation 4: Persuasion Covid-19, a symbol for a big fight between Human being and Environment, has two facets. Though the negative shade of this invisible virus is visible, the positive side also persists. It is a blessing in disguise. It is creating tremors and dreaded fear of Death on one hand, on the other, becoming a means to create clean Environment and teaching mankind how to make the Earth safer place to live. Covid-19 virus has become not to be cured

of or cared for. Corona has its impact on the whole World and encircling entire humanity. It has divided the world apart. When we read the above paragraph, we can understand clearly that the writer persuades the reader to know her view point on the issue. Thus, the communicative function of language depends on the grammatical components used appropriately. According to Halliday, "it could be theorized that, like children who learned to talk because language served a function for them, speakers learned to use language in order to fulfill a number of functions given a particular cultural and social context." (Martínez-Flor, De Gruyter) Task 1 Apostrophe is used to mark possession and is used in contractions to specify where a letter is omitted in the word. A singular possession is marked by adding's after the possessor. The plural possessive is marked by adding s' after the possessor. e.g. It is Ravi's pen. (singular possession). I live in Sai Baba Officers' Colony. (Plural possession) If the apostrophe is misplaced, the meaning conveyed would become either unacceptable or ambiguous. Example for this: My husband's brother. My husbands' brother. Replacement or misplaced apostrophe distorts the language function of the apostrophe. The following paragraph is taken from a lesson The Adventure of the Blue Carbuncle, an extract adapted from a Sherlock Holmes mystery by Sir Arthur Conan Doyle. Read the following paragraphs to understand the Language function of a few prepositions. 1. I called on my friend Sherlock Holmes on the second morning after Christmas. He was sitting on the sofa in a brown dressing gown, holding a pipe, with a pile of crumpled morning papers at hand. Beside the couch was a wooden chair. On the back of the chair hung a dirty, worn, hard, felt hat. A lens and forceps lay upon the seat of the chair. Obviously Homes had hung the hat over the chair in order to examine it. 2. All the shops are opened in accordance with the Government order. But, instead of following social distance, people are congregating in groups to get their daily essentials. People should refrain from roaming aimlessly on roads.

They should cooperate in restoring normalcy, together with taking care of themselves. Using masks as well as sanitizer is compulsory to keep oneself away from Covid 19. In the second example, prepositions are clubbed with certain other words to function differently, conveying the meaning other than the words themselves. Your answer: 5.4 Linkers and Connectors Linkers and connectors are used for descriptions. They help us in understanding the chronological order of the facts, events that happen across time, compare and contrast information, giving explanation for the graphical images and they help us in understanding the main idea of the text. These linkers and connectors are used in narrative and descriptive essays. They are also used in explaining a process or an experiment conducted. Task 2 Read the paragraph: The Human Body The human body is a wonderful piece of work that Nature has created. It may not be beautiful like the body of a butterfly or a peacock but it is shaped deftly. It can do many types of work which other animals cannot. It is not strong like the body of a tiger. However, in place of physical strength it has a sharp brain. Unlike any other animal, human beings are able to use brain and create new things the world has ever known. All the Technological Advancements today is the result of human intelligence. On the other hand, by using brain they can overcome many obstacles in creating new scientific tools. By sitting in an aeroplane, humans can fly faster than a kite, by riding a motorcycle can travel faster than a leopard, and by firing a machine gun can fight like a tiger. In spite of all this, the human beings suffer from many diseases because of the weakness for habits such as smoking, drinking and overeating. When it is healthy, the body can give great

pleasure but when it is sick it can cause great pain. The wise man would always keep his body fit because a healthy mind can work only in a healthy body. Some of the linkers in the paragraph are highlighted. 'But' is a linker that speaks of the contrast of beauty and strength between animals and the human body. 'In spite of', 'on the other hand', 'unlike' and 'faster than' are linkers used to show contrasts. 'Such as' and 'all' are linkers which illustrate the weaknesses of human body by giving examples. 'When' is a linker showing time, what happens when the body is healthy or falls sick. 'Because' is a linker that states the reason for keeping the body fit and healthy. Connectors are the words that join two or more words, phrases and sentences together. They convey the same meaning of a conjunction, but differ in their function. While conjunctions join a noun with another noun, two independent clauses or different sentences and group of words, connectors join large groups of words or phrases and sentences. The same connectors are useful in constructing Simple, Compound and Complex Sentences. Connectors are used to make lengthy sentences as we do not always need to express in short sentences to have expressive value. e.g. a) Rina and Rima are twins. ('and' is a conjunction, it joins two nouns and it is a Simple sentence). b) I don't know cooking. However, I am learning to cook of late. (However connects two groups of words which relate to each other. It is a compound sentence). c) Even though she is a good singer, she couldn't sing well in the concert. d) First of all, let me congratulate the winners. e) She is too short, so she couldn't get selection for NDA. (connectors of addition and a complex sentence) f) She is too short to get admission into Armed forces. 5.4.1 Linkers and Connectors are words and phrases that help in the progression of ideas either in speaking or writing. They are part of Grammar used to communicate effectively. Linkers are used to show: a. Cause and Effect: since, because, so, therefore, owing toetc.. b. Purpose: in order to, other than, so as to, so thatetc

c. Consequence: consequently, as a result, thereforeetc. d. Addition: moreover, furthermore, as well as, in addition toetc. e. Summing up: in short, to sum up, at the end, lastly, finallyetc. f. Showing the chronology of events: firstly, then, eventually, in short, to sum up etc. g. Rephrasing (in other words): and so on, henceforth, for instance etc. Connectors are used to show: a. Contrast: but, yet, in spite of, on the other hand, on the contrary etc. b. Reason and Cause: so as to, because of, in order to etc. c. Succession: first of all, in short, at the verge of, last but not the least, finally etc. d. Order: at first sight, in the first place, to begin with etc. e. Conclusion: finally, actually, at last etc. Uses of Linkers and Connectors a) Use of linkers and connectors in describing a process. Read the procedure to be followed in an Engineering Chemistry lab for conducting an experiment to estimate the hardness of water by EDTA method: Determination of total hardness: Firstly, Pipette out 10 ml of tap water into a conical flask. Then, add 2 to 3 ml of buffer solution and 1 to 2 drops of EBT indicator to the water in the conical flask. Eventually, the colour of the contents in the conical flask would be wine red. Next, Titrate the solution with EDTA solution, till the wine red colour changes to blue. This is the end point. Finally, record the burette reading, say V 2 (y ml). Repeat the titration till you get concordant values. The words highlighted in bold help you to follow the step wise procedure to obtain the final result. Thus, linkers, connectors and transition words guide the reader to understand and follow the step wise procedures of a given experiment or task. Usage of Idioms in sentences makes the language function clearly and intelligibly. Idioms are widely used in describing a situation or to convey meaning clearly. They are used in describing persons and are used in giving instructions or cautioning. Let us look at few examples of idiomatic expressions in various communicative platforms. b) Use of linkers and connectors in describing a situation. Add fuel to the fire/flame – to make things worse.

e.g. The migrant workers are adding fuel to fire by not taking any safety measures in the present COVID-19 situation. Against the grain – that which goes against the expected way. e.g. Chandrayaan has gone against the grain. Round the clock— continually, non-stop e.g. Doctors and nurses are working round the clock to cure Corona patients. Avoid something like the plague – stay away from something completely. e.g. People should avoid alcohol like plague. An axe to grind –a problem to discuss. e.g. America has an axe to grind with China on the Corona virus infliction. To back someone up – to support him/her. e.g. All the Chief Ministers backed the Prime Minister in his decision to continue lockdown. Ball and chain – a special burden; sometimes a husband or wife is jokingly referred to as a "ball and chain." e.g. Educated populace, who do not follow Safety Instructions by the Government during a pandemic are ball and chain to the Government. c) Use of linkers and connectors in describing a person [His/her] bark is worse than his/her bite – describes a person with a gruff demeanor but who isn't that tough. e.g. My mother-in-law donated Rs.10,000/- for an orphanage proving that her bark is worse than her bite. d) Use of linkers and connectors in describing market situation All the rage – very fashionable and popular. e.g. Palazzo and Cold shoulder is all the rage. Apples and oranges – two entirely different matters (often used to refute comparison). e.g. Veena and Sita are given the same Project. Their execution of the project is apples and oranges. e) Use of linkers and connectors in Instructions All ears – to be listening intently. e.g. Listen to the audio clipping with all ears.

f) Use of linkers and connectors in making Caution All that glitters is not gold – a proverb to describe something shiny with no value. e.g. Do not trust everybody blindly. Because all that glitters is not gold. Don't judge a book by its cover- Do not come to conclusions. e.g. The speaker gave an excellent presentation. Yet, we should not judge a book by its cover. g) Use of linkers and connectors in making Suggestions A bird in hand is worth two in the bush- Better to hold onto something that you have now, instead of thinking of something you are not sure of. e.g. Accept the offer letter from the company without a second thought. A bird in hand is worth two in the bush. Make hay when the sun shines- Take advantage of the present situation. e.g. Save when you earn. Make hay when the sun shines. Bag of tricks – useful tools to help a situation. e.g. A good administrator should have his/her bag of tricks ready. The ball is in your court – it is your turn to do something. e.g. I sent my application to pursue MS at University of Texas and waiting for admission. Now the ball is in their court. Beat around (about) the bush – hesitate in getting to the point; speak indirectly. e.g. While giving presentations, don't beat around the bush. Better safe than sorry – it is better to choose the secure route in life than have regrets. e.g. Do not procrastinate. It is better to be safe than sorry. Thus mastery on the usage and understanding the grammatical functions of language and vocabulary aspects of it will help an individual to be a better communicator in Speaking and writing. 5.5 Transition words They indicate the steps to be followed either to complete a task or to describe a process or a situation. Firstly, secondly, next, thirdly, finally, eventually are a few transition words which are used in describing a stage wise event, process or a situation.

NSOU ? PGEL-9B 73 Task 3 Read the paragraph below to understand the function of transition words. John and Carol's "dream vacation" didn't go off as planned at all. First of all, their flight was delayed unexpectedly. They had to wait for six hours at the airport. Moreover, during the flight, there was a lot of turbulence and Carol got sick. When they finally landed, they found that the rental car agency didn't have a car ready for them. Fortunately, they were able to rent a car from another company. On the other hand, the weather was rainy and cold in Paris. Correspondingly, they had to spend more money than they'd planned because everything was so expensive. They were too disappointed. However, there were many enjoyable moments also. Your Answer: 5.6 Summary Through this module the students are familiarized with the key concept of language function. Learners understand that language is context based, purpose driven. Eventually, language is primarily functional. Learners also understand the role of connectors and linkers, idioms in performing the language function. Thus both form and function are essential for better communication and for communication with specific purpose. 5.7 Review Questions 1. Analyze the use of various grammatical forms performing different language functions. 2. Develop a story in 300 words using the transition words of language. 3. How different are the functions of linkers and connectors?

NSOU ? PGEL-9B 74 4. What are the phrases used in formal requests, apologies, enquiry, arguing and disagreeing? 5. Use the following idioms in sentences of your own. a. have cold shoulder b. cats and dogs c. ball and chain d. eggs in the basket 6. Specify the idioms used in the following situations. a. giving instructions b. giving suggestions c. describing a person 7. Write any four linkers used to show (i) summing up (ii) chronology of events. 8. Write any four connectors used to show (i) reason and cause (ii) contrast 9. Explain the function of an apostrophe. 10. How does punctuation help in conveying the meaning? 5.8 References 1. Fontaine Lise. (2013). Analysing English Grammar- A Systemic Functional Introduction, Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. 2. Uso-Juan Esther et. al. (2006). Current Trends in the Development and Teaching of the Four Language Skills, ed. by Esther Usó-Juan, and Alicia Martínez-Flor, New York: Mouton De Gruyter, Inc.. 3. Sera, Lucia. (2004). Boat load of Idioms : Over a Thousand English Expressions. Waterbury CT: Vocalis. 4. Edgar Thorpe and Showick Thorpe, Objective English, 4 th edition. New Delhi: Pearson Publications. https://books.google.co.in/books?id=L0u1pEljGrUC&pg=PR1&source= gbs_selected_pages&cad=2#v 5. Engineering Chemistry Laboratory Workbook, Department of Freshman Engineering, Geethanjali College of Engineering and Technology.

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NSOU ? PGEL-9B 76 Unit 6 ? Block/Situations - Grading Structure 6.1 Objectives 6.2 Introduction 6.3 Situations 6.3.1 Introducing Self 6.3.2 Introducing other to you 6.3.3 Making a Request 6.3.4 Seeking Permission 6.3.5 Expressing disagreements 6.3.6 Turning disagreements in arguments 6.3.7 Complaining 6.4 Expressing Gratitude 6.5 Giving Directions 6.5.1 Asking Directions 6.6 Describing a person 6.7 Summary 6.8 Review Questions 6.9 Reading List 6.1 Objectives After going through the unit, you will develop ability to: • Gain necessary skills to participate in various situations with appropriate language, • Use correct grammatical items, • Assess the ability to use language in various situations, • Socialize with the people around.

6.2 Introduction Human beings are gregarious social beings. They are involved in various situations in their life time. They need language to deal with the situations. The language used by people in various situations and contexts differ in their structure but perform certain functions. People need to know basic grammatical items to form correct sentences to convey appropriate information in different situations. In this unit, we will discuss the use of language in varied situations and concentrate on the gradual changes that occur in the use of language. 6.3 Situations The gradation in the use and functions of language depends on the meaning and context of the situations. I have taken the gradation of Situations, beginning with Introduction of Self and one's experience. A number of situations are explained below. 6.3.1 Introducing Self A 10 year old child talking to his/her class mate: Ravi: Hi, I'm Ravi, Raghu. Raghu: what do you want? Ravi: Nothing. Simply, I talk to you. In the above model situation, the language items are simple Nouns and verbs. Concentration is more on meaning rather than grammar. Now, the same child as college student attended a symposium where he meets people from various parts of the county and needs to introduce self to few people who gathered at the coffee. Read the example given below: Mr. Mohan: Hello Mr. Raj, I am Mr. Mohan from Hyderabad. Mr. Raj: Hi! Mohan, I am Raj, working in EFLU, Shillong Campus. Mr. Mohan: How do you do?

Raj: I am fine. Thank you. How do you do? I don't think we've met earlier. Mr. Mohan: Yes Raj. We haven't met earlier. But I have seen you giving excellent presentation. Raj: Thank you. I 'll catch you later. In the above example, the situation is same. But the usage of vocabulary, Grammar and syntactical usage is upgraded- modal verbs, wishing, commending, polite reply and question forms are used. 6.3.2 Introducing others to you You are a newly appointed Manager in Bank of Baroda. Assistant Manager of the Bank introduces the bank employees to you. Assistant Manager: Good morning. Let me introduce our new Manager, Mr. Aman. I would give brief information about him. He worked for 10 years in Maharashtra, as a clerk and on promotion posted as Manager here. He is also an active member of various NGOs. Welcome Sir. Manager: Nice meeting you all. Let us hope for a fruitful, working environment in the days to come. The language used is complex and the use of collocations show grading. 6.3.3 Making a Request "I don't want milk. Give me coffee". A child to his mother. Give me that book. In the above two sentences, the language is simple. The second example sounds like an order. But it is a request in informal situations. A son can say this to mother. Could you possibly give me a glass of water? Here it is a formal, polite request. May be with an unknown person. Use of adverb shows grading. You suddenly need to leave to Bangalore on an important meeting. Request your colleague Amar to take up your responsibility in your absence. You: I am going to Bangalore to attend an important meeting for one week. Would you mind attending the calls on my behalf?

Mr. Amar: Sure. What else can I do for you? You: Nothing much. Thank you for accepting my request. If you want to be more formal and polite, you can say, "I would be grateful if you could take the calls." The language is complex and its function is in situational gradation. 6.3.4 Seeking Permission "May I speak to Harish?" "Can I speak to Harish?" In the above examples use of modal verbs shows the difference of formal and informal situations. You need to attend an important family function. You are the Team Leader to do the project work. Seek permission from your manager to attend the function. Ms. Maya: May I come in? Ms. Chaya: Yes. Please be seated. What can I do for you? Ms. Maya: I need leave for one week to attend an important family function, which is obligatory. Ms. Chaya: You are on an important project and you play a lead role. Am I right? Ms. Maya: Yes, madam. Ms. Chaya: How would you complete the assigned work? Ms. Maya: I will consign the work to Mr. Anup who is capable of. I Coordinate with him and ensure that the work is not hindered. Ms. Chaya: Okay. Do report the progress of work every day by 6.00 p.m. Your leave plea is considered. Ms. Maya: Thank you Madam. In the above example, usage of synonyms, question words, prepositional phrase and relative pronouns show advanced language function. 6.3.5 Expressing disagreement You joined an English Language Training Centre to learn English. One of your friends tells you that English is easy to learn. You disagree. You both are arguing.

Ms. Jane: Hello Jenny. Nice to see you after a long time. Where are you going? Jenny: Hai Jane. Nice to meet you. I joined in an English Language Training Centre to learn English. It's been a month now. Jane: Is it? But, why do you prefer a training centre to learn English? These Training centres have become business minded. You need not go to any language Training centres. Jenny: No, I disagree with you in this respect. English is a very difficult language. Rules of grammar, vocabulary are very difficult. Jane: No. Any book on 'How to learn English' can help you. You are unnecessarily wasting money. Jenny: I strongly disagree. I take leave. Simple language and use of negative words makes the situation graded low. You live in an Apartment and you have a four wheeler parking place. You are not using it. Your neighbour, Rani who does not possess a parking space, requests you to keep her two wheeler in your parking area. You disagree with her request. Rani: Good morning Sir. You: Good morning. Rani: Sir, I have not been assigned a parking slot in spite of paying the required amount. Shall I use your parking space till the builder provides me with parking area? You: Sorry. You can't use my parking. This is a simple dialogue. Yet, usage of no + pronoun, vocabulary and linkers makes the situation graded. 6.3.6 Sometimes disagreements may turn into arguments Your manager calls for a meeting and asks suggestions on working extra hours to complete the project on time. One of your colleagues denies the proposal and becomes argumentative. Manager: Dear colleagues, we have gathered here to look at the idea of working extra hours to complete the project.

Team Leader: I don't agree. Manager: Why do you disagree? Team Leader: Oh! Yes I do. Absolutely not possible. We travel from far off places and stuck in traffic jams every day while going home. If we have to stay extra hours in office, it will be too late to reach home. So, I vehemently oppose the proposal. Manager: You have to rise to the expectation of higher-ups. Don't you? Team Leader: There were several occasions when we have raised to the occasion. This is for your information. Manager: I'm not sure if you are right. But, give a second thought on your opinion. Team Leader: No. I can't. Usage of technical vocabulary, phrases apart from subject and verb forms make the situation graded high. 6.3.7 Complaining Student complains for the loss of his book. Student: Teacher, I gave my English note book to Srinivas. He didn't give the book back. Teacher: Did you ask him to check his bag? Student: Yes madam. Teacher: Have you asked him to check at his home, in his room? Student: I asked him to check. He said, he checked. He did not find the book. Teacher: Yes, I will call him and speak to him. Student: I will tell my parents and they will call Srinivas's parents. There is no use of proper vocabulary in the above example. But the contextual meaning is conveyed. Imagine that the computers in the Computers Lab aren't working properly. You are giving a complaint to the faculty-in-charge. Mr. Ravi(student): Excuse me sir, I need your help. Mr. Rajesh: Yes. Just a moment please. Tell me, how can I help you? Mr. Ravi: The computer that is assigned to me isn't working for few weeks from now.

I informed the lab assistant last week. No action has been taken yet. Now, I am unable to complete the tasks assigned to me. What shall I do? Mr. Rajesh: Use another computer, i.e., computer 30 for today. I will ask the Lab Assistant to solve the problem. Mr. Ravi: Thank you sir. I wish the problem is resolved at the earliest. Use of connectors makes the expression clear and the communication is meaningful. You have booked a room in a five-star hotel. When you reach the hotel, the clerk says that no room is booked against your name. Karan: Good morning sir. I am Karan from Hyderabad. I booked a room in your Hotel. May I Check in? Saurabh: I'm sorry sir, we have no record of your booking. Karan: Well, I booked the room last week. This is quite annoying at the service a star hotel like yours is providing. I would like to speak to the manager. Could you connect me to him? Saurabh: The manager hasn't reported yet Sir. He is in a meeting with our boss. Karan: Now, let me know, whether you are going to accommodate me in a room that I specify? Saurabh: Would you mind waiting Sir? Karan: Yes. Please see that the needful is done. The language in the above conversation is 'high' in using refined vocabulary, complexity of sentence construction and use of polite expressions in complaining. 6.4 Expressing gratitude There will be many situations in life to express gratitude more than saying 'Thanks'. Thanks can also be courtesy. You thank a gate keeper at a Hotel. But it is not gratitude. Few examples to express gratitude are given below which are internally graded in terms of language. A: I forgot to bring my laptop to office. I have to send an urgent mail. Could you spare your laptop for 15 minutes?

B: Sure. A: Thank you. B: That's fine. A teacher and student Student: Good morning Sir! Teacher: Good morning! How are You and your studies? Student: Good Sir. It's all because of you. You have been kind enough to guide me constantly to complete my project. Without your encouragement and guidance, I could have done this work. I am indebted to you Sir. Teacher: It's O.K. Student: Thank you very much Sir. I wish I had a teacher like you in my life. An elderly person who is on dialysis needs a kidney to get well. A doctor in the same hospital was moved at the pathetic condition of the aged man and donates kidney. The old man expresses gratitude after his recovery. Old man: Good morning doctor. Doctor: Good morning. How are you doing? Old man: I am here to show my gratitude for the trouble you've taken to save me. Your kindness has saved a life. I have no words to express my gratefulness. I would never forget your benevolence. Doctor: I am delighted to see you happy and healthy now. I don't need anything more than this. Old man: Thank you doctor and God bless you. You can see phatic communication in the above example. 6.5 Giving Directions You purchased a new apartment near Rajiv Gandhi International Airport. You have planned for a house warming ceremony. Give directions to your friend to reach the venue.

NSOU ? PGEL-9B 84 Shyam: Hello Rakesh. How are you? I invite you for my house warming ceremony this Sunday near Rajiv Gandhi International Airport. Rakesh: Hello Shyam. Congratulations. When is the occasion? Shyam: It is on this Sunday at 12.00 noon. Please do come without fail. Rakesh: Could you give directions to reach your Apartment? Shyam: Sure. Come to the back side of Rajeev Gandhi International Airport. Take the first right, go straight for one kilometer. You will find a restaurant, the Grand Vindhu. From there, take a'U' turn, then take first left. Move straight further 200metres. Then take a right turn. You find the apartment 'Omega classic' to your right. Shyam: See you on Sunday. Take care. Rakesh: Sure. Thank you for the invitation. Use of 'linkers and connectors', relative pronouns and modal verbs are seen here. 6.5.1 Asking Directions A stranger to the city, Hyderabad, wants to reach Prasad Multi Complex Theaters. Stranger: Could you spare your valuable time for me? You: Yes. What can I do? Stranger: Could you tell me the way to reach Prasad Multi Complex? You: Would you like to take public transport? Stranger: No. I would like to go on foot. Is the place very far off? You: Yes. It is. Please take a cab and tell him the name of the place. The driver would take you to your destination. Stranger: Do you know how much would be the cab fare? You: I have no idea. Don't worry. The cab drivers are honest and they won't cheat you. Stranger: Thank you for your help. In the above examples, the situation is the same, but you can observe the usage of graded language.

NSOU ? PGEL-9B 85 6.6 Describing a Person A boy of 10 years describing his father: My father is tall and handsome. He works in a Bank. He is very good person. I love him. He gives me whatever I ask. The language is very simple. But the contextual meaning is not expressed correctly. An adult describing a traveler Pico Iyer, in person and in print, is like a swallow in a windstorm. He looks fragile, he bounces adroitly from point to point in a graceful and thoroughly unexpected manner, and he gets exactly where he's going with a minimum of fuss. He calls himself "a global village on two legs." He says he lives "mostly in Japan and California." He's as comfortable getting on an airplane as most people are making a telephone call. He's about the best travel writer around — smoother than Jan Morris, less dyspeptic than Paul Theroux, more contemporary and in-touch than V.S. Naipaul or Salman Rushdie. And he's on top of a trend, the blending and merging of people and borders into what he calls post-nationalism, that is changing the world. So it comes as a jolt when he announces (at the beginning of a book tour, naturally) that he's a little sick of the whole thing. A travel writer who's tired of traveling? Here's something new. In the above description, we can see the use of lucid language. 6.7 Summary Thus, block/ situational Grading helps in conveying context and meaning of expressions in different situations. Depending on the complexity of context and meaning, language use changes. This is called grading. There are few review questions to test your comprehension. For further study on the topic, consult the Reading List. 6.8 Review Questions 1. "Situations need language to express opinions." Justify the statement. 2. Explain the block/situational grading giving examples of 4 situations.

NSOU ? PGEL-9B 86 3. What is the role of grammar in phatic communication? 4. Write useful phrases to communicate aptly in the following situations. a. complaining b. agreeing c. requesting d. describing a person 5. Construct a dialogue between you and your teacher for not completing the Project work in time. 6. Do you agree with the following statements? Justify your answer: a. Specific terms can distort or prevent communication within an organization. b. Phatic communication is also known as small talk to share feelings and establish a mood of sociability. c. Phatic communicate does not communicate information or ideas. d. Conversation that helps put people at ease is polite conversation. 7. Show the difference of language use comparing the following contexts: a) Mother's talk to a child. b) Two professionals talk to each other c) Two friends talk with each other. 8. State whether the following are formal sentences or informal sentences: a) Correct grammar and vocabulary. Lack of grammar and vocabulary. b) The application form is complete. I have completed the application form. c) Use of complex sentences and structures. Use of text-style words. 9. Construct a dialogue on using postal and banking services mentioning the following: A) change money and withdrawal at different counters. B) Use an ATM

NSOU ? PGEL-9B 87 10. Construct a dialogue on getting around while travelling on the following points: a) Answer simple and predictable questions. b) Understand simple instructions. c) Ask for transport information. 6.9 Reading List 1. Biber, Douglas, & Susan Conrad (2009). Register, Genre, and Style. Cambridge University Press. 2. Schimmer, Tom. (2016). Grading from the inside out. USA: Solution Tree Press. https://www.amazon.in/Grading-Inside-Out-Assessment-Standards- Based/dp/1936763850?asin=1936763850&revisionId=&format=4&depth=1

NSOU ? PGEL-9B 88 Unit 7 ? Pedagogic Principles of Grading-1 Structure 7.1 Objectives 7.2 Introduction 7.3 Concepts in Grading 7.4 Grading Principles 7.5 Grading Patterns 7.6 Principles to check the levels of understanding 7.7 Scores 7.8 Summary 7.9 Review Questions 7.10 References and Reading List 7.1 Objectives The students would develop ability to: • Discover the importance of Grading, • Explain the reasons for obtaining low Grades, • Improve performance, • Explain the reasons for good performance, • Enhance learning skills. 7.2 Introduction Grading is a sophisticated technique for assessing and evaluating the performance of a student. The main principle involved in it is to critically examine the skill sets rather than the intelligent quotient. The students' learning process is an ongoing action for the pursuit of attaining the needed standards. The Grading System includes not only students but also faculty, staff, family and people. As the learning experiences of students are an integral part

89 of educational process, mere scaling or giving percentages would not give the actual status of learning. The overall performance of a student cannot be judged only through evaluation principles. Grading principles and evaluating principles run in concurrence with each other. Grading is a proficiency-based assessment of learning and evaluation is judging the performance. Grading emphasizes accuracy, consistency and clarity of academic as well as individual growth and progress. The best Grading system checks where students end up and how they behaved to achieve the ends. It motivates the student to face failures boldly and overcome them to excel in life. 7.3 Concepts in Grading The present system of assessing the proficiency through exams, evaluating the learning of the student by giving marks, does not give a comprehensive assessment of the students' assimilation of the learnt subjects. For example, the exams, tests and assignments can only goad the student to monotonous practice of by hearting or memorizing some knowledge, forgetting the major principles of "learning new things." It tends to assess the learning process to a limited extent of giving scales restricted by set rubrics. There are many other facets of learning apart from knowledge. The present curricula in majority of the educational institutions have no scope for assessing the all round development of the students, which the Grading System does. Evaluation process has boundaries of time and space. But Grading can clearly judge the students' ability in each class and in each subject. The relevant standards depending on the set objectives are assessed in the form of outcomes. The outcomes are the result of many experiences and are named as achievement. All the experiences of the students over a period of time cannot be assessed through tests and exams as they involve not only knowledge but also other skills. The mastery over skills is also a part of achievement. But this is totally neglected while examining through tests. Moreover, students need some support to learn and master the skills. Grading facilitates to assess all the above criteria. Indian classrooms are heterogeneous in terms of socio-economic backgrounds. Every student does not possess the same standards or receptive capacities. But the teacher has to train all the students to attain set outcomes. This is the major problem in the learning process. Equal opportunities are not given to individual students. When individual opportunities

90 are not given, learning cannot take place uniformly. Grading provides equal opportunities to learn through arranging symposia, project work and field trips. Grading helps the students to learn from their mistakes rather than penalizing them to mark as 'fail'. The 'marks' or 'scores' reflect the current level of achievement of student rather than the 'level of learning.' The students' positive and active performance is tested through normal exam system. But, his/her uninvolved or inner learning cannot be tested through it. Whereas, grading aims at full attainment of the learner in all the spheres of behaviour. The challenges met by a student in the process of learning, are not taken into consideration by regular exams or tests. Whereas, grading gives scope for judging how much potential the student has in facing the problems. 7.4 Grading Principles Usually grading is done on scaling basis not on marks. The rubrics the teacher gives on 1-5 range gives full scope for assessing the all round performance. These assessments are incentives for further learning or development. The thought process of a student is pruned and directed towards proficiency through grading. An innate urge to enhance 'skills within' is the major aim of Grading. In order to enhance the understanding abilities of a student, lots of opportunities should be created in and out of the class rooms. Grading needs evidence. To show the evidence, student should practically work on a problem, applying his/her innate skills along with knowledge (which is indispensible). Grading should be based on how well you understand rather than how much you know. When home work is given to a student to assess performance the exact output is not tested as there is a chance to copy or duplicate the ideas. If grading is considered, though the student copies or duplicates, his performance would be graded at the lowest. In grading, even the abstract ideas like love, affection, hard work, intelligence etc. can also be assessed. The plus points of Grading are that it has no time and space constraints. For instance, The students are given Case Studies, as a part of regular assessment apart from Tests to be completed in a stipulated time at home, or through field work. The assessment of these Case Studies is done scientifically, following specific Measurement Tools such as clear indicators, specific rubrics etc. The overall achievement of a student in a particular subject cannot be tested through exams and marks alone. Ex: Behaviour, missing work, awards and rewards other than

NSOU ? PGEL-9B 91 credits etc. cannot be included in exams. Grading ensures fair practices of testing caliber. It encourages free learning thereby eliminating all restraints in the process of learning or access to learning. The students are encouraged by giving grades rather than pass/fail. It helps in instilling confidence among the learners. In this era of stiff competition, marks never stand the test of caliber and capacity. Everyone is scoring more than 90% of marks. As said earlier, marks are the proof for only the knowledge in or of the students. The other corners of behaviour and skills are not tested properly through exams. When a student who scored more than 90% in academics fails in interviews or competitive exams, he is devastated and his morale is shattered leading to unwanted and unexpected results or end. But, grading provides equal opportunities to prove one's talents, correctly assessing one's success. How important are grades? Grading not only helps student but also businessmen and employers. The employers chose teams and team leaders by entrusting work and assessing their work by giving grades with specific scales and rubrics. The competencies of candidates are truly judged through grades. The candidates who are selected by taking their grades into consideration, proved to be 'money makers' in their lives. The grading doesn't belittle a student as incompetent or useless as a bad scorer or marks do. That is the reason for foreign universities or renowned universities in India recognize grades to judge the overall performance of candidates. Grades give specific explanation of candidates' goals and objectives. Big companies like Amazon, Netflix, Snapdeal, Alibaba etc. prefer qualitative grades rather than quantitative ones. Grading is assessment to improve but not to brand a person as intelligent or dull. 7.5 Grading Patterns As Grading tests Understanding of the subjects, clear parameters and rubric should be given. We use Written Tests, Blog posts, Talks, Project works, Case Studies etc. with specific rubrics. Types of Grading: The Standardized Grading is of various types. We follow 4 tiered System of Grading. Usually, we mark it with letters and numbers.

NSOU ? PGEL-9B 92 Ex. Grade A ————— beginning or basic understanding of the subject. Grade B ————— continued understanding of the subject. Grade C ————— Mastery of understanding of the subject. Grade D ————— above the expected standards of understanding of the subject. The letters mentioned above can also be from bottom up, i.e., D, C, B and A. It depends on how one wants to represent the assessment. A Grade is again split into two. The higher level of understanding in it is A+. Likewise B+, B, C+,C, so on with some variation of marks scored. The proficiency of Fundamentals of any Subject, will be placed as the beginning Grade which is the lowest of the performance of a particular student in the class or group. The understanding up to certain level (already fixed) is at the intermediate level. Advanced level of understanding is the next level. Most advanced ideas are put at the Top Grade. The Grading can also be represented with colours. The different levels of understanding are shown with multiple indicators. For example: Beginners --red Continuous learners--yellow Master learners ---Green Above standards of learning ---------------------------blue 7.6 Principles to check the levels of Understanding The Level of Understanding in Grading depends on many criteria. These are: 1. Content skills: Cognitive Domain is tested and assessed. The rubrics are told to the students well in advance so that they perform to attain the outcomes. The content is assessed with 6 C's. They are: Clear, concise, complete, coherent, confident and closely defined. 2. Identifying Sills: These skills enable to think critically and try to locate the areas of crisis or predicament.

NSOU ? PGEL-9B 93 3. Explaining Skills: These Skills depend on analytical ability. The problems are seen with a deeper instinct and inferences are drawn. Based on the levels of inferences, which are already earmarked, Grades are given. 4. Practicing Skills: Assessing the students' limits to check whether you reached the set goals or not. These skills help an individual to know their weak points in the task taken up. 5. Demonstrative Skills: They include all senses of perception like hearing, seeing, smelling etc. These skills allow the taught to show his/her understanding abilities beyond the reach of the classroom and the Teacher. 6. Mastering Skills: Making a connection between different concepts learnt in a period of time. 7. Extended learning Skills: After locating one's own weak points, and the reasons for obtaining low Grades are known, learning the concepts more clearly extends and improves performance. As a Live Model of Grading, the following practice gives best results. The Communication Skills are taught with clear and specified Objectives and Outcomes. The skills tested are Speaking, Listening, Reading and Writing. In each of the mentioned skills, a Question Paper is set following Standardized Testing Tools. Different Skills are assessed by different pattern of Questions and Scores. The total marks allocated to each skill vary. Speaking: On the scale of 5. Listening: 30 Marks. Reading: 45 Marks Writing: 20 Marks The total Assessment is for 100 Marks. Whereas, the total marks are Standardised to 10 by following Scientific Methods. Grading of Student A and Student B in Communication Skills follows in the next section.

NSOU ? PGEL-9B 94 7.7 Scores Student A out of 10 Marks (standardized mark): Speaking Listening Reading Writing 6 5 5 4 Then, A's Overall Score would be Speaking Listening Reading Writing 60% 50% 50% 40% Average of all the Scores would be 50%. If the Target Average Scores are given in the following way: above 80% = B2 from 60% to 80% = B1 from 50% to 60% = A2 below 50% = A1 Then, Student A's Grade would be A2. This is a sample Grading Principle. It varies from person to person and Institution to Institution. Sometimes, extra points or Credit points can also be given, taking into consideration, the student's behaviour and promptness of doing the work. These points may be directly added to marks scored by the student or indirectly through weightage. The calculation of weightage is usually based on the number of points earned and the number of points Targeted. At the beginning of the Academic Year, the students are told that the Tests carry 50% 0f weightage, Home Work carries 40% of the Score and Project Work would make 10% of the Score. Then, the Weighted Scores of Tests, Home Work and Project would be: Tests...50% is equal to 0.5 Home Work ....98% is equal to 0.98 Project Work ....90% is equal to 0.9 If the Weightage Factors decided are 0.5, 0.4 and 0.1 respectively, then Tests = 0.5×0.5 = 0.25 Home Work = 0.98×0.4 = 0.392 Project Work = 0.9×0.1 = 0.09

NSOU ? PGEL-9B 95 The Overall Weighted Scores would be; 0.25+0.392+0.09 = 0.732 When the above score is converted into percentage, it will be; 0.732×100 = 73%. Calculating in the above method, the overall performance of the Student can be accurately measured. There are some other practices in different Institutions across the Globe. The latest practices for Grading are: 1. Attendance of a student to the Class. 2. Failure to fulfil minimum attendance.(left to the discretion of the school or college). 3. Withdrawal from the Institution due to failure in Courses or due to other reasons. 4. Unofficial withdrawal (negative marks are awarded influencing grading). 5. Students develop Social Consciousness or binding towards society. In this way Grading becomes a fair,clear and reliable source or tool of Evaluation. The judgment of quality of the work done can be scientifically tested and results are given. 7.8 Summary Based on the results, the Target Groups can be motivated to improve their performance thereby setting Higher standards. If required, after Grading, the set goals can be adjusted to the requirement. Consistency in producing good results can be possible through Grading. It strengthens the institutions and makes instruction more effective. The quality of employment would also improve. Grading has more positive effects on learning process than marks system and it is "focus on achievements not on pass or fail, win or lose or gain or loss. 7.9 Review Questions 1. How is grading useful to improve the standards in academic institutions? 2. Elucidate various grading patterns.

NSOU ? PGEL-9B 96 3. Write the principles to check the levels of understanding in grading. 4. How is grading calculated? Describe the process briefly. 5. State the criteria considered to give grades across the globe. 6. 'Grading can differentiate bright students from the average'. Substantiate your answer. 7. Write the advantages of grading. 8. Do you agree with the following statements? Why? a. Teachers need to vary their teaching models to ensure inclusive learning environment. b. Students need to construct their own understanding with teachers. c. What works in one school may be the wrong approach in another. 9. State which of the statements are false: A. Pedagogy is self motivated, self-directed B. Andragogy is teacher driven. C. In pedagogy, learners fell responsible for their own learning. D. In pedagogy, learners learn from one another. 10. Comment on the following guiding principles on grading. a. A grade determines how well the subject is understood by the learner. b. Homework is practice. It does not affect grades. c. Assessments need to provide incentives for the learner to improve on the required work. 7.11 References and Reading List 1. Nilson, Linda B. (2014). Specifications Grading: Restoring Rigor, Motivating Students, and Saving Faculty Time, USA: Stylus Publishing. ProQuest Ebook Central, https://search-proquest-com.library.britishcouncil.org.in:4443/ legacydocview/EBC/4438657?accountid=145163.

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NSOU ? PGEL-9B 98 Unit 8 ? Pedagogic Principles of Grading-2 Structure 8.1 Objectives 8.2 Introduction 8.3 Teaching and Learning Plans 8.4 Parameters of Grading 8.5 The main principles of Grading 8.6 Uses of Grading 8.7 Precautions in implementing Grading system 8.8 Method of Grading 8.8.1 Letter Grading 8.8.2 Number Grading 8.9 Grade Point Average 8.10 Summary 8.11 Review Questions 8.12 References and Reading List 8.1 Objectives After going through the unit, the students would develop ability to: • Review their performance, • Prepare for further career growth, • Focus on academic choices, • Become good evaluators. 8.2 Introduction We have already discussed the importance and utility of grading in the previous module. When we prioritize English Language to make the best use of its demographic

NSOU ? PGEL-9B 99 dividend, this language should be learnt properly and assessed in a scientific way. The Teaching Learning process involves the prime elements like Planning, implementation, monitoring and assessment. Assessment of Teaching Learning Process (TLP) is the key element in forming the values of judgment, educational standards and achievements. 8.3 TLP—Teaching and Learning Plans Before we discuss Grading Principles, we should have an over-all picture of the TLP and its assessment. The pedagogical practice starts with Curriculum design and the syllabi to different Courses. They are designed based on specific needs. The Objectives or aims are defined clearly so as to reach the expected results or outcomes. Many approaches are in practice to disseminate knowledge to the learners. The student teacher interaction, their active participation in the process would bring the required changes or results. These outcomes should be assessed correctly. Unless the assessment or evaluation of the TLP is done accurately, vague and inaccurate outcomes would be seen. Hence, a correct and proper method of testing and evaluating is necessary. The results are evaluated and the outcomes are assessed to know whether the desired objectives in specific areas of betterment are achieved or not. The assessment patterns are designed scientifically based on the goals set. The outcomes were measured through marks and percentages. But, the latest practice of measuring the outcomes is by using Grading, which is open to changes. 8.4 Parameters of Grading The basic parameters of assessment through Grading are: 1. Subject Refinement 2. Data Collection 3. Measuring data against the chosen criteria 4. Results 5. Applying the results for further improvement of both the teacher and the taught, institution and prospective Employers, thereby improving the Society at large. Grading is different from giving percentages as the former assesses the wholesome or all round performance of the Learner. Standardized measurement of a course is needed for

NSOU ? PGEL-9B 100 this purpose. The tests and exams can fulfill the evaluation of only knowledge, understanding, Analysis, Application and Synthesis of the Course Material. It can't assess the innate abilities and skills of a candidate. So, to assess the skills along with the other mentioned hard skills, grading is needed. Grading is either in numbers or letters. Sometimes few descriptive words such as Excellent, Good etc can also be used. While assessing the overall performance, sometimes both numbers and words fail to give a total picture of a candidate's performance. Then, Grade Point Average is taken into consideration. This point would be discussed later. 8.5 The main principles of Grading 1. It is Pragmatic, viable and feasible. 2. Reliable patterns are considered which communicate Learning Process and its achievement to students, parents and employers. 3. Valid considerations are made about student Education 4. It gives related information to required persons, enabling them to take important decisions about improving the quality of life. 5. It helps Institutions to make changes in-good-time. 6. It is related to identifiable Learning Goals. 7. It helps in Objective assessment of the performance in all specified areas. 8. Collaborates in identifying the grey pastures in Teaching Learning Process, thereby giving scope for refinement. Curriculum design is also verified while calculating Grades. If necessary, Curriculum is modified in accordance with the Assessment grades. If the curriculum design finds to be far away from the demands of the society, it should be modified. For example, the curricula do not contain aspects of Leadership, Time Management and other Soft Skills- which are needed for a student to be successful in life, all these aspects should be incorporated in the syllabi of the courses concerned. This is the main reason for re-modifying the Curricula by the colleges for every two or three years. When the design of the curricula with specific and time bound Academic Schedules is not prepared, it becomes arduous to calculate GPA.

NSOU ? PGEL-9B 101 Hence, special pattern of assessing is followed all over the world due to the following reasons. I. Different countries, in fact, different areas in a country concentrate on Primary Education which is compulsory Education. Mother tongues is given prominence along with Mathematics, Social Sciences, Games, Sports, Value Education, SUPW. (Socially Useful Productive Work) II. After Primary Education, Secondary Education is offered in many countries. Here, subjects are given importance, reducing the time and opportunities for games and sports. A little weightage is given to Value Education. Arts and crafts, which draw out the innate abilities, are forgotten. III. The +two system considers the outcomes in various subjects mostly in six subjects only. Arts, crafts, Value Education have no place here. IV. Higher Education has compulsory and Mandatory courses, Soft Skills, Value Added Courses, Computer Education and Sports. V. Except Primary Education, in all other stages Mother tongue is neglected, making many students incapable of performing well. Due to the above disparities and imbalances in Curricula, Overall Grading becomes very difficult and problematic. VI. Students from the various streams of Education are unable to take up various National Level Exams as these exams test the overall capabilities of students, not only their performance from the colleges, which do not give emphasis on the holistic development of personality. Keeping the above acumen in consideration, a sound, fool-proof Grading is indispensable that includes: The procedure of conducting the tests to protract whether the goals are reached or not, The positive effects of Teaching-Learning process are assessed or not. The time and effort in all the fields (hard + soft skills) is estimated throughout the Teaching-Learning process. To fix the grades, two categories of Assessment are mainly followed: Direct Assessment and Indirect Assessment.

NSOU ? PGEL-9B 102 Direct Assessment is carried out through Tests and Exams. Measurable Targets Indirect assessment tools are Tasks, projects, laboratories, feedback, CES. It is not measurable in terms of marks, but made measurable through some well framed Formal structures such as check lists, notes, homework, surveys and seminars. Direct Assessment is given major weightage and Indirect Assessment is given less weightage. The fixation of weightage depends on the socio-economic background of institutions and the intake of stu dents. 8.6 Uses of Grading 1. It helps teachers to evaluate the overall performance of the taught and also to modify, enrich and qualify the teaching material. 2. Helps the students to have better understanding of their follies reducing scoring pressures. 3. The students can comprehend the Teachers' perception about their performance, enabling the students to perform better. 4. The student can be exposed to the areas in which his/her improvement is needed. 5. Grading avoids biased marking as there would be set rubric and scales to test. 6. Professional judgment of students is possible as it is based on principles of testing. 7. Enables teachers to play the roles of trainers and evaluators. 8.7 Precautions in implementing this grading system 1. These Guiding Principles of Grading should be explicitly framed and recorded before the commencement of class work/ course. 2. The students should be well aware of the Teaching-Learning –Testing process before they take option to the required course. 3. Grading should not make the Teaching Learning Process effective but should contribute greatly to enhance only learning. 4. Parents should be enlightened about the Grading System

NSOU ? PGEL-9B 103 5. Attention should be paid after categorizing students by giving grades as there would be students who are slow learners in certain courses. The special measures taken to improve the learning of the Slow Learners would result in improving the Overall Grade. 8.8 Method of Grading The Grading Strategies are selected according to the Course Content, TLP and the Outcomes expected. 1. Institutions provide a description of each letter or number grade used in the class to help students understand the level of performance expected for each graded assignment, performance, test or examination. 2. In Grading, failure can be perceived differently. Failure doesn't mean that the student didn't learn anything or the student did not perform as others did in the group. The reasons for failure are studied and turned into a teachable moment to help the student to reach out to the set Outcomes. 3. Continuous Assessment (CA) in the class throughout the semester/year is another major element. Here, various periodical tests, assignments and Exams are given. But this element cannot give a wholesome result as it will not consider the performance of students who were absent. It will not specify the course of further action to give some Grade point to those who missed the CA. For such students, the common practice by majority of the colleges, is to conduct make-up Exams and give Grades. These make-up exams are earmarked in the rules and regulations of the colleges. This type of exams should be framed with more difficulty level questions to be comprehensive and to avoid flippant attitude of the students. Some institutions, in place of make-up exams, special opportunities are provided to score higher Grades in the same Course. 4. Indirect Assessments (IA) are useful to turn the failures into teachable, measurable performance. Specific rubrics are the useful tools to assess indirectly, yet contribute to the wholesome performances. 5. When testing or when evaluation tools fail to assess the overall performance of the student, Gap-fills such as Feedback and Course End Surveys are considered.

NSOU ? PGEL-9B 104 For example, if the behavioral aspects and individual projects are not included in Tests and Exams, you cannot award Final Grade. To assign final Grades, these Gap-fills are functional and useful elements. 6. To give final Grades, most of the institutions follow time to time test of Progress Assessment Techniques to measure the outcomes, where fairness in conducting the tests and evaluation is taken care of. 7. Teacher Observation is another method. Here, the Teacher considers the Notes written or taken by the student, Records maintained, Work-books with scoring guides, check lists are followed, Seminars/work-shops/conferences attended to give final Grade or grade points. 8. The student is expected to produce Work-sheets, videos, presentations and writing samples apart from Tests, Assignments and Exams. 9. The Tests, Assignments and Exams are based on the prescribed Text Books and the Teacher plays a pivotal role. Whereas the student's Activity Sheets (mentioned in point 8 above) are student centered. 10. Grading may be letter Grading or number grading. 8.8.1 Letter Grading O = Outstanding or A+ V = Very Good or A G = Good or B+ S = Satisfactory or B U = Unsatisfactory or C 8.8.2 Number Grading On the scale of 1-5 or 1-10 with specific rubric designed. Though the methodology of giving Grades is most useful in deciding the performance of students, yet it becomes invalid when different Courses with different Credits are chosen by students. For instance, different Grades are given for different Courses, say student A has opted 4 Courses. In one course A secured Grade O, in two courses got V and in the other S, to judge A's

NSOU ? PGEL-9B 105 performance, Grading alone cannot help. Another scientifically designed tool other than Grading is needed. So, all the grades in different courses are averaged to obtain a Final Grade which is called Grade Point Average(GPA). This would help in assessing whether the student met the standards and expectations set by the chosen programme. 8.9 Grade Point Average To calculate GPA certain Grading Principles are used. Principles are: 1. The Grade point average is considered when credit based evaluation is followed by many educational institutions. Each course in the year of study has different objectives and outcomes. So, grades from all courses of a Program in a particular year are averaged to get GPA. 2. The number of credits the students gets in a semester or year is decided by comparing to the total number of credits taken or opted, resulting in GPA. 3. Grades can help to assess a students' outcome in a course but will not give a chance to the employees to choose between candidates who got the same grades. Ex: If two candidates get Excellent or A+ Grades, to differentiate them and select, GPA would be helpful. 4. If the two candidates' GPA accidentally or incidentally happens to be the same, then another principle of Cumulative Grade Average is considered. Here, there is a technical glitch as various institutions follow different curricula. The evaluation pattern of all the institutions may not be similar. Hence, it becomes difficult to consider the grades given by those institutions while selecting the candidates across the country/Globe. Hence, a different, systemic and technically sound grading system/pattern is required. Then, Cumulative Average is considered; No:1, No; 2, No, 3 ----------- so on. All the students in a class or group are graded. Among all, No.3 has the chance of improvement not only by scoring in exams, but also showing extraordinary behavioral changes, behavioral aspects and other inborn skills are assessed instantaneously by giving specific rubrics and special scale. Usually the scale would be 1-5 or 1-10. The candidates' skills are rated according to the rubric given and grade points are established. These grade points are added to the GPA and overall Cumulative Grade is given. 1. While calculating Cumulative Average Grades, the performance of a candidate in practical classes, extra and co-curricular activities is taken into consideration.

NSOU ? PGEL-9B 106 2. The written and oral exams are only a part of a Cumulative Average Grading. 3. The overall Academic Grading is calculated on the basis of the following structure. Marks secured in subjects/courses + performance/activities participated + behaviour (general) + performance in the events out of the classroom = Cumulative Grade Average. Your grade point average (GPA) is calculated by dividing the total number of grade points earned by the total number of credit hours attempted. Your grade point average may range from 0.0 to a 4.0. If A+ = 4.00grade points A = 3.70 grade points B+ = 3.33 grade points B = 3.00 grade points C+ = 2.30 grade points C = 2.00 grade points D = 1.00 grade points P/NP (Pass/No Pass) courses are not factored in the student's GPA I (Incompletes) and W (Withdrawals) do not receive grade points and do not have an effect on the GPA. Example of calculating GPA and CGPA Semester I Course Grade secured Credits Grade Points Maths A+ 4 4×4 = 16 Physics A+ 4 4×4 = 16 English B 3 4×3 = 12 Drawing B 3 4×3 = 12 Computers B 3 4×3 = 12 17 68

NSOU ? PGEL-9B 107 Then, GPA = 68 ÷ 17= 4.0 Semester II Drawing C 4 4×2 = 08 Chemistry B 4 4×3 = 12 Maths A 4 4×4 = 16 C++ B 2 2×3 = 06 14 42 Then, GPA = 42 ÷ 14 = 3.0 Cumulative Average Sem I Grade Points 68 Sem II Grade Points 42 Total Points = 110 Sem I Credits 17 Sem II Credits 14 Total Credits = 31 Therefore: Cumulative Average = Total Grade Points ÷ Total Credits = 110 ÷ 31 = 3.548. Can be rounded off to 3.6. 8.10 Summary Grades will not be used to punish or reward students but to reflect Student Learning. The grades communicate the teacher's assessment of a student's knowledge and proficiency in a Course. They provide a record of student achievements over a period of time and serve as part of the criteria for student promotion to the next grade level. Other advantages of grades are: a) they provide information for advice and counseling regarding future improvement, facilitate New Course/Program selection, b) provide criteria for honor roll selection and work on behavior assessments, c) provide a record of attendance/punctuality, respect for authority, and compliance with school rules, d) supply a record of student preparedness and report of their task performance, align work-related skills to character education, and e) provide employers with a broader picture of student performance. Though there are certain disadvantages of Grading, they can be ignored as the impact of overall Grading is positive.

NSOU ? PGEL-9B 108 8.11 Review Questions 1. Can grading become the best evaluation tool to judge the capabilities or performance of students? Justify. 2. How does grading help to improve the performance of students in seeking good jobs? 3. What are the parameters of assessment through grading? 4. Explain the principles of 'grading'. 5. Write the reasons to choose grading over giving percentage of marks. 6. Describe one Assessment Method to fix grade. 7. Comment on the following statements: a) There should be consistent grading for all subjects. b) Not everything should be included into grades. c) Grading should not be based on average. 8. Discuss different ways of measuring understanding. 9. Classify the following into beginning, advanced, developing and proficient. a. I know you understand it. b. I don't know you don't understand it. c. I think you may understand it. d. I know you have mastered it. 10. Do you agree with the following assessment? What are your views on the overall grades? marks Letter Description 70 F I need lots of help fro my teacher 70 C I do not understand concept/ skills 75 C I have a general understandings of concepts/skills 80 B- I can have a conversation about the skills 80 B I can independently demonstrate my knowledge 85 A I need my notes once a while. 90 A I have confidence on how to do the skills.

NSOU ? PGEL-9B 109 8.12 References and Reading List 1. Brookhart, Susan M. (2013). How to Create and Use Rubrics for Formative Assessment and Grading, Association for Supervision & Curriculum Development. ProQuest Ebook Central, https://search-proquest-com.library.britishcouncil.org. in:4443/legacydocview/EBC/1123215?accountid=145163. 2. Dueck, Myron. (2014) Grading Smarter, Not Harder: Assessment Strategies That Motivate Kids and Help Them Learn, Association for Supervision & Curriculum Developmen. ProQuest Ebook Central, https://search-proquest-com.library.britishcouncil.org.in:4443/legacydocview/EBC/ 1756006?accountid=145163.

NSOU ? PGEL-9B 110 Unit 9 ?Language Variety and Awareness— Consciousness Raising Structure 9.1 Objectives 9.2 Introduction 9.3 Reasons for variation 9.4 Language contact and its consequences 9.5 Some labels used to identify the variation 9.6 Decision on standard variety and problems involved 9.7 Linguistic tolerance 9.8 Summing up 9.9 Review Questions 9.1 Objectives

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After going through this unit, the learners will be able to: a. Understand

that all languages exhibit variety b. Identify the variations across geographical, economic and cultural boundaries c. Understand how languages change due to contact d. Adopt a tolerant view of the varieties other than their own 9.2 Introduction This course deals with different aspects of grammar and language analysis. In the first two modules you have learnt how grammar lends itself to help one express correctly and how it is related to language functions. Further, you had a glimpse of how these items of grammar and language functions can be organised in the form of a syllabus using the principles of selection and gradation. In this module, we will go a little further and take a look at the structure of language from sociological point of view – do all of us, belonging

NSOU ? PGEL-9B 111 to a language community, use the language the same way? This is an important aspect of language where studies have revealed that all languages exhibit variety across different sections of society divided by geographic, economic and cultural consideration. That accounts for lending beauty to the language as well as causing some problems. This unit discusses how the variations in language need to be looked at with some tolerance. 9.3 Reasons for variation Language has many features and we have read about these in our first semester. The features that the language exhibits are called design features and these are common to all human languages. Besides, the features described by Hockett, we also know that language is both organic and dynamic. Language being organic has life, and is natural to all living things; it is dynamic or it is bound to change. The changes that come upon language are influenced by the environment, culture of the users as well as their social status. It is believed that language changes every few miles and we can notice these changes if we are perceptive. This analogy is extended beyond this. One linguist claims that if you walk from your place (say Kolkata) and reach another place (say Bhubaneswar) over a period of time, you will almost fail to see the difference between the two languages spoken in these two different places. This statement, while accepting the fact that language changes, also reinforces the fact that the changes are gradual and less perceptible in the immediate neighbourhood and time. Take for example the present times. With the invention of computers and mobile phones, the English vocabulary has changed enormously. We know words like 'Windows', 'Word', 'Mouse', 'Twitter', 'Message', 'Download', 'Copy', 'Attachment', etc., have acquired new meanings. We, as contemporaries of the time, have hardly noticed the changes that have come over. But a person living in a remote area, with little access to the facilities mentioned, may be flummoxed when he/she finds the newer meanings with which these words are used. These are just to illustrate a point, and now let us see the real reasons for language variation. a. Language began (origins of languages are still clouded in mystery) as a tool of social communicastion. Human beings, who lived in a group, wanted to communicate with each other to warn each other of dangers, the source of food,

or place to protect themselves from the ravages of weather, etc. This resulted in producing some odd sounds which later got refined and codified in the form of language. However, it was not one community that existed, but there were several communities and each community developed its own code, though their needs were largely identical. This can be perceived as the first cause of variation in language. As time progressed, the communities grew larger and split and moved to newer environments when modification in the code generated became inevitable. That was another reason for language variation. When we speak of ancient days, (as we are doing now), we need to speak in abstraction. These abstractions take concrete form when we analyse today's language communities with illustrations. Here is a simple task for you before we proceed. Take a look at your state which is a linguistic unit— the state that speaks one of the languages as its own, in your case, it is Bangla. If you look at different regions of your state, do you see variations in the way it is spoken and used? The variations can be in terms of lexis, grammar, pronunciation, and something more. Task 1: Your task is to draw a table, and mention the varieties you are familiar with, one item of lexis that changes in these varieties both in terms of meaning and pronunciation. Variety Lexical item Meaning Pronunciation I am sure this has been a revealing exercise. But this is just the tip of an iceberg, and there could be many more facts you can add to this. b. Language changes according to the place because of the following reasons. With change in place, the climate, vegetation, food habits, requirement of clothing etc. also stand to change. Such variations demand the invention of new words or bring about a change in the meaning of existing words. Let us look at a few examples. In English, (a) the word 'leech' was originally used to mean a 'doctor'. A doctor

would apply a few leeches on you to reduce your blood pressure. (Read the famous poem 'The Leech Gatherer' by Wordsworth). Today, 'leech' refers to a pest and also to someone who lives as a parasite on others. It just does not mean a 'doctor'. (b) Similarly, the word 'silly' was closely associated with religion. People who were blessed were addressed as silly. Today, the meaning is entirely different and refers to a person whose behaviour is not praiseworthy. Sometimes, we have euphemistic expressions that stick with ancient words when their meaning changes. One such expression comes from Sanskrit devanampriya. This was a title given to emperor Ashoka of the Maurya Dynasty. He was awarded this title because of the good work he had executed. Today, the same word is used euphemistically to denote a person who is foolish. c. It is not only change in place that brings about a variety, but culture has an equally important role in bringing about changes. The Indian society is divided into several castes and sub-castes depending on the cultural practices, food habits, the professions chosen. Depending on the cultural practices, the language used by the community requires the use of certain words. These words are either invented or adapted from the source language with a change in meaning. Take for example a language like Tamil (spoken in Tamil Nadu). The Brahmin community who speak this language refer to drinking water as theertham and not as thanni which is a common word used in the same language. The Brahmin community makes a distinction between water that is consumed (for drinking) and water used for other purposes. However, Tamil speakers of other communities do not make this distinction. Similarly, in English, the Queen's English (which is labelled as the Standard English) uses certain words which are not used by common people. (Read Bernard Shaw's play Pygmalion to see how distinct the language spoken by Professor Higgins is in comparison with Mr. Doo Little.) These differences are seen in all languages across different communities. This becomes evident when we attend marriage ceremonies of different communities – the rituals in community are diverse and demand different vocabulary though the ultimate meaning of the ceremony lies in bringing together two families. Task 2: You may list a few words and expressions typical of the community you belong to and find out expressions used by other communities to denote the same. Your response:

NSOU ? PGEL-9B 114 9.4 Language contact and its consequences In our initial discussion in this unit, we have mentioned that language is dynamic, or is bound to change. This is because all languages are organic; they have life. Reflect on the following: Task 3: You live in a community and you obviously have some neighbours who are very friendly. You meet them every day, and exchange pleasantries, gossip and sometimes food. Over a period of time, it is likely you are influenced by your neighbours and the vice- versa is also true. Just mention a few changes you have brought about in your life because of your neighbours or friends. Your response: If human beings are influenced by the neighbours, languages are also likely to be influenced by other languages that survive in their neighbourhood. For example, the Bangla spoken in Purulia differs widely from the Bangla spoken in Cooch Behar or Jalpaiguri. This is because, Purulia borders on states where Hindi and Odiya are spoken while in Cooch Behar and Jalpaiguri the neighbours speak Assamese. What happens when languages come in contact? This is an important aspect one needs to know and let us briefly look at the changes. Languages in state borders always come in contact with other languages. For examples in Kharagpur, Bangla comes in close contact with Odiya and the two interact with each other. There will be some words and structures that get mixed and this phenomenon is called 'bundling'. This is the beginning of a change. The bundle begins as a pidgin and gradually gains popularity and acquires the status of a parole before it develops into a creole. This is a slow process and may take several years before the changes are noticed and perceived. This proves that languages in contact can give rise to new languages. Konkani is one such language which was born of the union of languages like Marathi and Kannada. Today, it is a distinct language. 9.5 Some labels used to identify the variation When languages vary, they do not become distinct languages. The community attempts to hold together all the speakers for this gives the community strength. The

NSOU ? PGEL-9B 115 variations are called 'dialects'. The dialects can be regional – northern dialect of Bangla, Rangpuri, which is spoken in Jalpaiguri and Western dialect of Bangla, Manbhumi, which is spoken in Purulia, etc. The dialects, although they are distinct, owe allegiance to the parent language in terms of the large stock of vocabulary, major aspects of syntax, similarity in pronunciation and above all an identity. A person in Purulia will be proud to identify himself as belonging to Bengal than to Jharkhand. Similarly, a person in Darjeeling will be happier to identify himself with Bengal than with Nepal. Dialects are labels given to regional varieties that are removed from each other in terms of space. When a language varies depending on the social structure (across professions, castes, etc.) such language varieties are called sociolects. Some of the sociolects are profession-specific – for example, the language used by the doctors is not the same as the language used by engineers. The two differ in terms of their lexis and also grammar. Cultural variations can be described only by those who are familiar with the language and not by an outsider. Task 4 Make a survey of the people around you who belong to different communities and observe their speech and identify the unique features. 9.6 Decision on standard variety and problems involved When a language exhibits a lot of variety in itself, the community is pressed with the problem of accepting or recognizing a standard variety. This is a difficult task and a lot of power and politics are involved in deciding this factor. However, linguists use a set of norms to decide on the standard variety. That variety of language which is used for writing is often considered the standard variety. This is because a written document provides adequate data that can be analysed consistently and objectively. (The spoken variety, although it can be analysed with modern devices, is transient in comparison with the written form.) The language of media (broadcast and print), the language of the textbooks used in schools, the language of administration lend support to the identification of a standard variety. The standard variety, since it is also the language of administration, wields power and people aspire to learn this variety in preference to other varieties. Therefore, this variety is also known as the 'prestige variety'. This was one reason why Indians learnt English during the colonial times. However, the standard variety is a matter of opinion, and

NSOU ? PGEL-9B 116 what we need to understand is that all varieties are equally important and respectable. With this argument, we can say that the standard variety is more of a myth or belief and this status is thrust on one of the varieties by its people. There are no scientific procedures to determine one variety as better than the other. 9.7 Linguistic tolerance When we live in a society that exhibits variety, it is essential for us to understand that each variety is a different version of the same language. We should understand the reasons for variation (which have been explained earlier) and that each variety is respectable. This is called linguistic tolerance, and such tolerance should extend beyond dialects to other languages as well. 9.8 Summing up In this unit we have looked at how languages form a binding force among its users. The main purpose of language is to facilitate communication among its members and help them live a peaceful and harmonious life. In establishing this fact, we have looked at some of the reasons that bring about changes or variations in language across space, time and culture. We have discussed each of these variations with illustrations. We have also cited examples of languages in contact and the result of such contacts. Finally, we have concluded the chapter with a discussion on establishing one variety as the standard variety and the problems involved in doing so. 9.9 Review Questions a. How did language probably originate? b. What are some of the major reasons for change of language within a community? c. Do all languages change on similar lines? d. What happens when languages come in contact? e. Explain the words 'bundling', 'pidgin', 'parole' and 'creole'.

NSOU ? PGEL-9B 117 f. How many regional varieties of Bangla are available? Name them and give a unique example of each variety. g. How do languages change across culture? h. What are the reasons for such change? Give some examples. i. Is it possible to say one variety is superior to the other? j. How is a standard variety of a language chosen? k. Where is the standard variety of Bangla used? l. Why is the standard variety also known as the prestige variety?

NSOU ? PGEL-9B 118 Unit 10 ? Tolerance and Use of Taboo words Structure 10.1 Objectives 10.2 Introduction 10.3 Language Variations revised 10.4 Language Variations extended 10.5 Jargon, argot and other varieties 10.6 Social respectability to language varieties 10.7 Taboo words and their place in language use 10.8 Pedagogic implications of knowing taboo words 10.9 Summing Up 10.10 Review Questions 10.11 References 10.1 Objectives

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After going through this unit, the learners will be able to: a. Understand the

further variations in language use b. Get familiar with some expressions used in the darker world c. Get familiar with some of the labels used to identify these variants d. Understand the benefits of knowing these variants 10.2 Introduction In the last unit, we discussed the various uses to which language can be put and how our language use is influenced by the environment around the people who use it. The environment is both natural and social or physical and moral that lends special vocabulary to the language which further gets manifested in the form of grammar for forming sentences. Despite all these variations, the language still performs one function and that is communication,

NSOU ? PGEL-9B 119 and the principles guarding communication remain unaltered with the variations brought about in the language. In this unit, we shall continue our discussion on language variation and look at its use which is generally not acceptable in a decent society. Why is such a use of language important? Why should we know this? These are some questions that get answered in the course of this unit. 10.3 Language Variations revised Let us take a quick look at the points discussed in the previous unit. We began with a statement that language variation is natural as all languages are organic and dynamic. The languages keep changing over a period of time, and they are also subject to change from place to place and community to community. Languages also vary according to the professions its users follow. We have seen examples of such variations and also provided you with adequate reasons for such changes which are observed as a natural phenomenon. We have also suggested some tasks to you and while working on these tasks, your understanding of language variation must have become clearer to you. We would like you to work on two tasks to reconfirm your understanding of the previous unit before proceeding with the present one. Task 1 a. Go round your neighbourhood and meet people who belong to different communities and professions. Observe the language they use carefully. Make a note of some special features of each community and profession. How do these differ from how you use language? Write a descriptive paragraph of about 250 words. b. Write a paragraph in which you highlight the variations you have seen in language use among people which are not discussed in the previous unit. You may use 250 words for writing your response. (Please post your responses to the tutor for a feedback.) 10.4 Language Variations extended In this unit, we shall look at some more variations. Let us begin with some of the games children are fond of playing. Here are a couple of descriptions and after going through these descriptions, we will have a task.

NSOU ? PGEL-9B 120 a. Some children evolve a code to communicate with each other. They use this especially to share a secret which they would not want the elders or other friends to understand. How do they do this? Between every two syllables, they add an additional word which could be nonsensical, e.g., I ka am ka gokaingka to ka markaketka. This is construed, and the children's language is more sophisticated. And this is a code used in speech and done at a rapid rate. Here between every word an additional meaningless 'ka' is added. When the sentence is spoken fast, it may cause difficulties in understanding for an outsider. This is one example. b. Some children have the ability to speak in reverse and at normal speed. They make this a habit to pass on messages between one another and this is also done deftly in the presence of others. The illustrative sentence in the first example can be spoken as 'market to going am I' This can be made more complex by adding meaningless words in between or introducing some unwanted consonant sounds. Task 2 In your childhood, have you played games like this? Can you describe one game in detail which in your assessment was very successful? Your response: If children can invent languages like this, the need to invent a secret code for communication could be much more among adults. Take for example the people involved in the profession of espionage (spying). They may need to pass on messages to their superiors without being caught. To be successful in such communication, they may need to develop a code. Take a look at this letter of recommendation: I warmly recommend Mr. Harindranath for promotion, who has been working with me in this office for the last one year. There is nothing I can really say about him, To discredit his ability to work and Least to say he messes up with files. He is diligent and punctual in attending the office Being late and absenting oneself is a usual habit In others, he trusts with work and helps them Never ever minding to complete his own work.

At the bottom was a note: As I was writing this, the fellow was peering over my shoulder. Please read only the alternate lines 1, 3, 5 and 7 only. This is one way in which you can code your message intelligently. Having read this letter, do you think Harindranath's boss is really recommending him for promotion? This is just one example that I could spin to help you understand how language can be coded to send the right message to the intended receiver. You must have seen these things happening in movies and stories – thieves, ruffians, and magicians writing messages in coded words. Do you remember any of these? Can you cite some examples? Task 3 Write them in the space provided below: Your response 10.5 Jargon, Argot and other varieties Jargon and Argot are, in many ways, synonyms. However, the two terms differ from each other and here are the definitions of both the words given to help you compare them: Jargon refers to special words or expressions used by a profession or a group that are difficult for others to understand, e.g., medical jargon, legal jargon, etc. A word like 'infraction' is common when two doctors are talking to each other, but a layman like you and me will find it difficult to understand the same. Similarly, a word like 'intestate' may be easily understood by a lawyer, banker or a judge whereas the ordinary people may find it difficult to grasp the meaning easily. Argot, on the other hand, is a special language spoken by a particular group of people which other people find difficult to understand. (from Collins Cobuild Dictionary). For example, we have the argot of teenagers, argot of the sportsman, argot of pirates, etc. Occasionally, argot is also recognised as slang for it lacks social respectability. Taboo is slightly different, and here is how we define a taboo and later discuss how taboo words are essential and when used in decent society is couched as euphemisms. We will discuss this in detail in a later section. 10.6 Social respectability of language varieties The language used in society by its members demands certain amount of restraint in terms of the choice of vocabulary. Certain topics are not discussed in the open or when

youngsters are around. The varieties that are being discussed here are departures from the standard variety and are used with caution. Such expressions are called taboo expressions and we shall discuss them in the next section. 10.7 Taboo words and their place in language use Let us begin with a proper understanding of the term 'taboo'. Normally, there are things that we avoid speaking for we believe these are inappropriate in good company. Certain words and expressions are considered either shockingly vulgar or obscene to be uttered in public. A person uttering such words may be considered silly. Generally, adults choose their words with care, and when it becomes inevitable to refer to a topic related to sex with four letter words, throwing out bodily waste matter, and even death and disease. Often they couch them with substitutes or use euphemistic expressions in place of the taboo words. How does this process happen, let us look at it with a few examples. However, the examples cited here may not be universally applicable for the concept of taboo words changes from culture to culture. In this unit, we shall introduce you to some of the taboo words (by class) used in English and their implications. Use of taboo words can suggest intrusion on your privacy, belittling you, and indicate the upbringing of the person using such words. Taboo words fall into the following categories: (i) expressions related to body, body parts, sex and sexual activity; (ii) expressions related to cultural practices related with death and other rituals (iii) Using swear words (iv) Words to suggest gender discrimination i. Body and body parts: The human body is a complex composite of various organs. Some of these are considered private and not for public display. These are covered securely when going out in public. An obvious mention of these body parts can be offensive in most of the societies and many a time these are substituted by other words and such substitutions are unique to languages and culture of the people. For example, in English willie and pussy are used as substitutes for male and female reproductive organs respectively. Most of these body parts are related to the activities associated with excretion or sexual acts.

NSOU ? PGEL-9B 123 Similarly, a toilet is often referred to as loo, or washroom or restroom (depending on which side of the Atlantic you are). Sexual activity is hardly referred to in decent society. ii. Death and associated rituals: This is especially true in the Indian culture, where death and rituals associated with cremation are hardly uttered in the house. Death is often referred to as 'long sleep' or 'attaining the lotus feet of god' or 'moved to the heavenly abode', etc. These expressions do not hide the fact that the person is no more, but the severity of the blow is softened by using a few pleasant expressions. Similarly, a word like 'shraddha' could even be a swear word or a curse though this is a ritual that is observed with all sincerity in memory of the dead people. Other words that are generally not uttered are words associated with crematorium, and a few symbolic things carried during this ceremony – a new earthen pot, fire in front of the house, shaving your head, etc. iii. Using swear words: Swear words are generally associated with people and their profession in the Indian context – especially women who earn a living by providing company to men are not mentioned in decent societies. The equivalents of concubine or a prostitute are indeed abusive. Such terms are also associated with certain professions considered to be lowly. These are best avoided in social conversations in decent circles. Women referred to above are often referred to as 'women who never attain widowhood' suggesting they have a companion in life at any time. iv. Words to suggest gender discrimination: There are often words that are sexist in nature – and these are to be avoided. In fact, some abusive words used in Indian languages deride women. Look at these expressions: 'son of a widow'; 'son of a woman with lose character', etc. There are also stronger words of abuse to suggest one who sleeps with his sister or mother. These are expressions used while one is engaged in a quarrel or a fight. Besides these, there are words that obviously suggest some work as exclusive of women – maid servant, housewife, char maid, seamstress, etc. Many of these jobs have now been taken over by men, and we are yet to find words to represent men engaged in such jobs. To date, terms like 'police woman' or 'post woman' sound odd though we have women employed in these jobs. Attempts have been made to use neutral terms for positions of esteem – chairperson (instead of chairman). There is also an

NSOU ? PGEL-9B 124 attempt to delink the job for the label given to certain professions – sanitary inspector (instead of scavenger), marginalised class (slum dwellers), economically weaker section (poor), specially-abled or differently-abled (handicapped), etc. The invented terms are said to be neutral and less offensive. 10.8 Pedagogic implications of knowing taboo words This unit helps you to become aware of the words that can be used in social conversations and what best to avoid. The unit also helps finding alternate expressions. The pedagogic value of the unit is seen in helping the learners proper use of language, following norms of etiquette. 10.9 Summing Up In this unit, we have discussed how language use varies from situation to situation, across communities, cultures, and nations. All language learners need to be aware of these variations to communicate with efficiency. Variation becomes a necessity to pass on secret messages, and such a need is felt from the early days of childhood and teenage. Some ways of coding is suggested which in a sophisticated manner are used in espionage. The unit further discusses the terms jargon, argot and slang. These are associated with special professions or groups of people and their use of language makes it difficult for others to understand. The unit concludes with a discussion of taboo words and their social implications. 10.10 Review Questions a. What does language variation mean? b. Why does language show variation? c. What are some of the applications of variation? d. How do children device secret ways of communication? e. Where is secret communication most essential? f. Do criminals have secret codes to communicate?

NSOU ? PGEL-9B 125 g. What are special words used by professionals known as? h. Are slang and argot popular in decent society? i. Why do people hesitate to talk about certain aspects? j. What are some of the taboo words in your language? (give a translation of the word in English) k. How are these taboo words concealed? l. What are the norms of social etiquette in conversations? m. Why should we know taboo words and how do we use this knowledge in the classroom? n. What are some strategies used to soften the blow of using offensive words in our languages? 10.11 References Gao, C. (2013). 'A Sociolinguistic Study of English Taboo Language' in Theory and Practice in Language Studies,Vol. 3, No. 12, pp. 2310-2314, December 2013 Gumperz. J. J. (1983) Language and Social Identity. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press

NSOU ? PGEL-9B 126 Unit 11 ? Discourse Analysis Structure 11.1 Objectives 11.2 Introduction 11.3 Conversation Analysis 11.4 Conversational Maxims 11.5 Conversational Turns and Exchanges 11.6 Discourse Analysis and Pedagogic Applications 11.7 Summary 11.7 Review Questions 11.8 References and Reading List 11.1 Objectives

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After going through the unit you will be able to • learn

conversation analysis • understand how to interpret language forms • learn on the speech acts 11.2 Introduction This unit considers the ways in which we interpret the functions of utterances in terms of the speaker's intentions. The structure of spoken language is the domain for our discourse analysis. The spoken language as found in conversations, interviews, commentaries, speeches are naturally occurring spoken discourses. Do you know how ethnographers, sociologists, anthropologists, and psychologists focus on discourse analysis? Your answer: The structure of social interaction is studied by ethnographers and sociologists. This includes the way people enter into dialogue, how people interpret the function of what they

NSOU ? PGEL-9B 127 say. Anthropologists are concerned with the analysis of oral narratives, of myths and folk- tales. Psychologists experiment on the mental processes in comprehension. Other disciplines contributing to discourse analysis are artificial intelligence, philosophy, as well as rhetoric and style. Discourse analysis assumes that meaning is conveyed by complex exchanges in the participant's beliefs and expectations, the context in which they interact and on their world knowledge. So, when did Discourse Analysis appear? Discourse Analysis as a research method in language analysis first emerged in the 1970s. Hymes's 1964 work on sociological study of language was a model for spoken discourse. Sinclair and Coulthard, in 1975, studied recorded spoken discourses from classrooms and found the structural patterns in teacher-pupil interactions. These are discussed in section 3.4. Spoken discourses are uncertain and haphazard exercises, which are unpredictable with interruptions and diversions. How are these forms analysed? 11.3 Conversation Analysis The British philosopher, J. L. Austin, was the first to discuss the many functions of utterances in interpersonal communication. In his book How to Do Things with Words (1962), he had put forth a set of ideas on the way language was put to communicative use. These ideas were further developed by the American philosopher John R. Searle in 1969. The Austin-Searle idea is that using language can be a form of action which is as real as physical action. These "uses" of language were the 'speech acts'. In the 1960s and early 1970s speech act theory joined a broader stream of research. The speech acts or communicative functions which Austin and Searle had talked about in isolation were inter- related to form larger units in analysis of spoken and written discourse. What are speech acts? Your answer: The speech form expressed by an individual that presents information as well as performs action is a speech act. For example, the phrases "I would like a saddle, could you please pass it to me?" is a speech act as it expresses the speaker's desire to acquire a saddle, as well as present a request that someone pass the saddle to the speaker. Speech acts cover actions such as 'requesting', 'commanding', 'questioning' and 'informing'. Speech acts can be described in terms of forms or in the syntactic analysis of language and the functions, or in the use of the language. This is illustrated in the following:

NSOU ? PGEL-9B 128 Forms Functions Did you read the book? Interrogative Question Read the book (please). Imperative Command (request) You read the book Declarative Statement When the forms: 'Did he ...?';'Are you .....?'; or 'Can they... ?' are used to ask a question, it is a direct speech act. For example, when the speaker needs some information, and asks the hearer to provide the same, a direct speech act of the following type would be produced: Can you walk the distance? Now, let us come to indirect speech act. For example, in the sentence; 'Can you pass the ticket?' the function is not a question at all. It is a request to the hearer to perform the action. The request which is presented in a question form is an indirect speech act. Whenever a form other than the one listed beside the utterance is used, we get indirect speech acts. Let us take another example. 'You left the exit open'. If it is pretty hot outside and the speaker says this to someone who has just entered the room, then this is understood as a request instead of a statement. The speaker is indirectly requesting the hearer to close the exit. Indirect speech acts are more polite than direct speech acts. Can you state the reasons for this? Your answer: Indirect speech act functions as a request for an action. Thus, it is a safer strategy to find out the listeners desire to perform an action or to put forth the speaker's intentions in getting the job done. Indirect speech acts are some complex social assumptions. It is always open to the listener to misunderstand an indirect request, either accidentally or deliberately. For example, let us consider the following two examples: a) Teacher: Mihir, there's no chalk in the classroom. Mihir: No Sir, there isn't any. Teacher: Well, go and get some then! b) Visitor: Excuse me, do you know where the Market is? Passer-by: Oh sure, I know where it is. (And walks away) Austin had distinguished utterances into performatives and constatives. In a performative speech act, the utterance and the action occur at the same time. For example, when someone says, 'I apologize ...', 'I regret .....', the utterance immediately brings a

NSOU ? PGEL-9B 129 new psychological or social reality to the context. A regret or an apology takes place when someone regrets or apologizes and not before. Constatives are statements that convey information. They are sentences that assert something about a fact or state of affairs and are judged to be true or false. Task 1: Find the performatives and the constatives in the following: "Who knows what it means to 'get the gist of things?" Ms. Hughes asks. "It means that you get the general idea," Leon answers. "That's exactly right and today you are going to participate in an activity called GIST. You and the rest of your group will work together to figure out what the reading means. Because this introductory chapter is what I call 'tough text,' difficult to read and understand, I want you to stop after each paragraph. Your group will write one sentence to summarize each paragraph. When you are finished reading the introductory chapter and writing the summary sentences, you should have a good understanding of Mark Twain and his place in American history. We will talk about the chapter after you have completed the reading." (Mantle-Bromley 1997, 253) Your answer: Participating in a 'Gist' is a performative act, because the utterance brings a new reality. The most of the conversation in task 1 is performative, except the last sentence. This is constative since it will judge the comprehension of the learners. The last but one sentence is on reading, understanding, and summarizing. These are all performatives. The five types of speech acts discussed by J R Searle are representatives, directives, Commissives, expressives and declaratives. These again are of various forms. I Representatives: In representative speech act, the speaker's intention is to assert the speaker's belief. For example, assertion, statement, claim, hypotheses, description and suggestion sentences. a) Assertion – a confident and forceful statement of fact or belief, e.g., His assertion that his father had deserted the family. b) Statement – a definite or clear expression of something in speech or writing, e.g., Do you agree with this statement? c) Claim – an assertion that something is true, e.g., He was dogged by the claim that he had CIA links.

NSOU ? PGEL-9B 130 d) Hypotheses – a proposed explanation made on the basis of limited evidence as a starting point for further investigation, e.g., His steady state hypothesis of the origin of the universe. e) Description – a spoken or written account of a person, object, or event, e.g., People who had seen him were able to give a description. f) Suggestion – an idea or plan put forward for consideration, e.g., Here are some suggestions for tackling the problem. There are two tasks on Representatives. The first one is worked out for you. Task 2: Find out the representative speech acts for the following: The story of 'Old English' On the surface, the expression 'Old English' seems to possess a sort of natural and obvious face value. The modifier 'old' couldn't be clearer. More importantly, the noun 'English' is even more unequivocal, in that it uses the most basic and effective way – the same word – to suggest the fact that 'there is indeed a fair amount of continuity between Old English and Modern English'. However, even a cursory glance at an actual language sample will at the very least induce readers to wonder just to what extent this can indeed be considered 'English'. (Saraceni, 2016, p. 25) Your answer: Statement—On the surface, the expression 'Old English' seems to possess a sort of natural and obvious face value. Description—The modifier 'old' couldn't be clearer. Claim—More, importantly, the noun 'English' is even more unequivocal, in that it uses the most basic and effective way – the same word – to suggest the fact that 'there is indeed a fair amount of continuity between Old English and Modern English'. Assertion—However, even a cursory glance at an actual language sample will at the very least induce readers to wonder just to what extent this can indeed be considered 'English'. Task 3: Find out the representative speech acts from the following: Many teachers believe that most students' perceptions of language learning need to be altered. Students assume that the new words they are learning can be "plugged in" to existing syntactic structures. …Teachers, for their part, have a less widely recognized but

NSOU ? PGEL-9B 131 analogous problem. They often assume, in teaching "culture", that new cultural patterns can be fitted into their students' existing cultural framework. (Mantle-Bromley, 1997, 437) Your answer: II Directives: In a directive speech act, the speaker tries to get someone else to do something. Different kinds of directives are: commands, requests, challenges, invitations, orders, summons, entries, and dares. 1. Commands – the ability to use or control something, e.g., He had a brilliant command of English. 2. Requests – an act of asking politely or formally for something, e.g, A request for information. 3. Challenges – a call to someone to participate in a competitive situation or fight to decide who is superior in terms of ability or strength, e. g., He accepted the challenge. 4. Invitations – a situation or action that tempts someone to do something or makes a particular outcome likely, e. g., Tactics like those of the colonel would have been an invitation to disaster. 5. Orders – an authoritative command or instruction, e. g., He was not going to take orders from a mere administrator. 6. Summons – order someone to be present, e. g., A waiter was summoned. 7. Entreaties – an earnest or humble request, e. g., The king turned a deaf ear to his entreaties. 8. Dares – have the courage to do something, e. g., A story he dare not write down. Task 4: Mention the speech act of the following: a) Come in, won't you? b) Could you lend me a pen, please? c) Don't touch that. d) 'I can't find my coat'. 'What is this then?' e) You haven't seen my watch anywhere, have you? f) We would ask passengers to have their tickets ready for inspection. Your answer:

III Commissives: Commissives are used to expresses intentions, to commit to some future action. They are promises, oaths, pledges, threats and vows, and can be performed by a speaker individually or by the speaker as a group member. Different kinds of Commissives are: i) Promise is a declaration or assurance that one will do something or that a particular thing will happen, e.g., What happened to all those firm promises of support? ii) Oath is a solemn promise, often invoking a divine witness, regarding one's future action or behaviour, e.g., They took an oath of allegiance to the king. iii) Pledge is a solemn promise or undertaking, e.g., The conference ended with a joint pledge to limit pollution. iv) Threat is a statement of an intention to inflict pain, injury, damage, or other hostile action on someone in retribution for something done or not done, e. g., Members of his family have received death threats. v) Vows – solemnly promise to do a specified thing, e.g., The rebels vowed to continue fighting. Task 5: Mention the Commissive speech acts in the following sentences a) I'll be back. b) I'm going to get it right next time. c) We will not do that. Your answer: IV Expressive – is a speech act where the speaker expresses positive feelings to the addressee, who has done a service to the speaker. Examples of expressive speech acts are apologizing, deploring, congratulating, thanking, welcoming. Task 6: Mention all the above in a spontaneous discourse: Your answer: V Declaration: A speech act that change the reality in accord with the proposition of the declaration. The utterance alters the external status of the situation, for example, blessings, firings, baptisms, arrests, marrying, juridical speech acts such as sentencing, etc. Task 7: State whether the following are expressive or declaration. Add five other examples from the two categories.

a) I would like to congratulate you on your exam results. b) I don't understand. 'Don't you? I'm sorry.' c) Joe didn't phone, and neither did Kate. d) 'I'm getting married.' 'You're getting married? Who to?' Your answer: Thus we find that in identifying speech acts, we are analysing meanings of individual sentences. This was one of the main ideas behind Austin's speech act theory. John Austin's theory directs speech acts into two classifications: 1. They are for analyzing isolated sentences from the discourse, and 2. To assume a logical obsession that a standard sentence is a statement that describes a situation, or asserts a fact, and is justified as true or false. John Searle opposed these views and claimed that we use multiple speech acts (three or four) simultaneously in speaking and writing. That is (a) we utter a sentence (Austin refers to this as an act of locution), (b) we refer to an object, (c) perform an illocutionary act and (d) perform a perlocutionary act. What are these (four) dtinguishable speech acts? Let us discuss them. In a speech act analysis, the effect of utterances on the behaviour of the speaker and hearer is studied from three different speech acts. The First is locutionary speech act, where the fact that a communication has already taken place is recognized. The constatives and performatives, discussed in section 3.2 are two kinds of locutions. The illocutionary acts are speech performances which are internal to locutionary act. For instance, if someone promises another person by saying, "I promise to buy you an ice-cream", the speaker actually performs an act of promising by simply saying those words. They are the real actions which are performed by the utterance, where saying equals to doing, as in betting, plighting one's troth, welcoming and warning. For the utterance "I will buy you an ice-cream", the act of promising is implicit in the action. There are two types of illocutionary forces: a) implicit and b) explicit. Explicit illocutionary acts are of two types – i) lexical and ii) grammatical. The following examples illustrate the lexical type: 1. I promise to buy you an ice-cream. 2. I warn you I shall leave in five minutes. 3. I beg you not to leave so early. 4. I really thank you for staying back.

The verbs promise, warn, beg, thank are performative verbs. They act especially to encode illocutionary force. The grammatical type encodes illocutionary force through grammatical structures of the utterance. For example: a. You wrote the article. b. Did you write the article? c. Write the article! Perlocutionary acts are performed with language as a tool. They are the effects of the utterance on the listener, who accepts the bet or pledge of marriage, is welcomed or warned or just convince or persuade someone to do something. The elements that define the act are external to the locutionary act. Task 8: Complete the following chart by selecting the speech acts with justifications and discuss in your group. Locutionary Illocutionary Perlocutionary Representatives Directives Commissives Declarative Expressive Your answer: 11.3 Conversational Maxims The success of a conversation depends on the intention of the speaker as well as the co-operative principles that are adopted during interactions. A conversational maxim is any of the four rules which were proposed by H. P. Grice in 1975. These four maxims are: 1. The maxim of quality states that speakers' contributions to a conversation ought to be true. They should not say what they believe to be false, or lack adequate evidence. 2. The maxim of quantity states that the contribution should be as informative as is required for the purpose of the conversation. Thus too little or too much should not be said.

3. The maxim of relevance specifies that contributions should clearly relate to the purpose of exchange. 4. The maxim of manner states that the contribution should be perspicuous, it should be orderly and brief, avoiding obscurity and ambiguity. Task 9: Are the following common expressions indicators of Maxim of Quality or Maxim of Quantity? a) I' won't bore you with all the details. b) Now, correct me if I am wrong ..... c) As far as I know ..... d) Well to make a long story short ..... e) I'm not absolutely sure ..... Your answer: 11.4 Conversational turns and Exchanges Conversational turn is a convention that people follow to speak. It is a rule in conversation that keeps it from continually breaking into jumbled and disorganized talk. People usually signal some way in advance when they are about to conclude. The clues may be semantic ('So anyway.....', 'Last but not the least...',speech itself can be modified – by lowering its pitch, loudness and speed to show a turn is about to end. When we speak, we look away from our listener at equal proportions, but as we conclude we look at the listener more steadily. Conversational analysis initiates with the smallest possible units in interactions. These units are 'exchanges' or 'interchanges' and in the sequences of their occurrence in minimal forms, they are composed in initiate utterances (I) and response utterances (R). As in: I: What is the method? R: Total Physical Response. The interaction above is a two part exchange common in the contexts of question – answering, inform-acknowledging, and complain-excusing. In a three part exchange,

the response is followed by a feedback (F). Three part exchange is found in teaching situations. Teacher: Where were the books kept? (I) Pupil: On the shelves. (R) Teacher: Yes, that's right, on the shelf. (F) When the participants of a conversation operate with different rules and expectations, misunderstandings and mutual recrimination lead to unsuccessful conversations. An important aim of discourse analysis is the context, where people from different cultural backgrounds interact. For example, a common misunderstanding of men and women participants is the use of head nods and mhm noises. Discourse analysts say that there are two participants mean two different things. When a woman does it she simply indicates that she is listening, and encourages the speaker to continue. The male interprets it to mean that the woman is agreeing to everything he is saying. In contrast when a male does it, he means that he does not agree, which it interpreted by a woman as he is not listening. The male reaction to it is 'it is impossible to say what a woman thinks' and the female reaction is 'you never listen to a word I say.' Can you discuss two other examples? Discuss them from your specific listening situations. Your answer: a) b) 11.5 Discourse Analysis and pedagogic applications Discourse analysis can have threefold applications or three 'D's in teaching listening. These three 'D's are description, discrimination and design. The first two are for description of speech stream into segments and discrimination of adjacent utterances. To engage learners with classroom listening practice, we can design/select materials at the discourse level for teaching selective and general listening. Lets us analyse how to use conversation maxims, conversation turns and exchanges and speech acts in listening situations.

Monologue Dialogue 1. Conversational Maxims A story, a recipe, Authentic voice mail a mini-lecture messages 2. Conversational turns Talks, lectures, speeches Telephonic conversation and Exchanges 3. Speech Acts Public announcements Spontaneous commentary 4. Conversation Analysis News, written talks Spontaneous conversations Contracted forms, repetitions, rephrasing and a formal and deliberate style are usually found in the listening discourses. Other features are colloquialisms, fast space, variations in accent and natural rhythm. Spontaneous talks such as commentaries and conversations can be of varying speeds, incomplete sentences and colloquialisms. Tasks on completing information highlighting these features can be difficult for the learners. Telephonic conversations are unscripted spontaneous talks between non-native speakers. These discourses are structured, turn-taking, careful enunciation and slow spaced. Slow spaced discourses such as scripted news, written talks and lectures based on shared contextual knowledge can be selected for developing listening skills. To get an overall gist of the discourse Task flexibility is important in L2 listening. Task 10: State the applications of discourse analysis from the following: 1. Analysis of adjacent utterances, which constrain each other (for example, I'm lookin' ferJay'nBiren. Have yaseen'm?) 2. Use of discourse markers by speakers (such as well and you know) to signal interactive features. 3. Summing up gist of conversations at regular intervals using formulations. Your answer: 11.6 Summary Discourse analysis works with utterances, or sequences of words in specific spoken texts. In the section on the applications of discourse analysis in pedagogy, teaching listening through discourse analysis is discussed to examine the transient nature of listening

NSOU ? PGEL-9B 138 discourses, i.e., spontaneous creation and real time perception. Working on the tasks will guide you to analyse spoken utterances and exchanges. The spoken structure is simpler and has a different structure and writing. This is discussed in the next unit. 11.7 Review Questions 1. Distinguish between Direct and Indirect speech acts. 2. Cite 10 examples of directives 3. Cite 5 examples of the Maxim of Quantity. 4. Discuss the Speech Acts as stated by Searle. 5. Discuss Austin's Speech Act theory. 6. Discuss Constantives and Performatives from a discourse. 7. Cite 10 examples of representatives 8. What are conversational maxims? 9. Discuss the pedagogical implications of Discourse Analysis 10. Analyse the following paragraph in terms of conversational maxims: Mr. Tong's kindergartners are learning the names of body parts. Because he has a number of English language learners in the class, Mr. Tong decides to use total physical response to support their understanding of the English for the parts of the body. He begins the lesson by saying, "Point to your head," as he demonstrates. He motions for the students to join him in touching their heads, and nods and smiles as they follow his lead. He then introduces, "Touch your chin," as he demonstrates. He alternates the two commands for a few minutes and then adds, "Touch your nose." Mr. Tong repeats these three commands several times before he drops the demonstrations and gives just the verbal commands. (Herrell and Jordan 2012, 85). 11.8 References and Reading List Austin, J. L. 1962. How to Do Things with Words.Cambridge: Harvard University Press. Celce-Murcia, M. 2001." Discourse Analysis and the Teaching of Listening." In Principles and Practice in Applied Linguistics. Studies in Honour of H.G. Widdowson.Eds.

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NSOU ? PGEL-9B 140 Unit 12 ? Textual Analysis Structure 12.1 Objectives 12.2 Introduction 12.3 Cohesive Factors in Textual Structures 12.4 Interpreting written text 12.5 Principles of textual analysis 12.6 Strategies in teaching Textual Analysis 12.7 Summary 12.8 Review Questions 12.9 References 12.10 Reading List 12.1 Objectives

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After going through the unit, you will be able to • learn

different aspects of textual analysis • understand the strategies of teaching textual analysis • know how to interpret written texts 12.2 Introduction Textual analysis is analysing the way sentences work in a written sequence to produce logical and consistent stretches of language. This written language is found in all forms of 'texts'. Texts can be defined broadly as books, book chapters, essays, interviews, discussions, newspaper headlines and articles, as well as any form of communicative language which is documented. The task of textual analysis is to identify the linguistic features that cause the sentences to be connected to form the unified whole. Halliday and Hassan, 1976, recognize different cohesive factors that bind a text together. These are discussed in the following section.

NSOU ? PGEL-9B 141 12.3 Cohesive Factors in Textual Structures Conjunctive relations refers to the logical relationship that is created by what is about to be said is explicitly related to what has been said before through contrast, result and time. For example, I left early. However, Mike stayed till the end. Lastly, there's the question of cost. Task 1: Underline the conjunctive adverbs from the following sentences: 1. John kept talking in the class; therefore, he got in trouble. 2. She went to the store; however, she didn't find anything she wanted to buy. 3. I like you a lot; in fact, I think we should be best friends. 4. Your dog got into my yard; in addition, he dug up my petunias. Your Answer: Coreference is a feature of the written text that cannot be interpreted without referring to some other feature in the text. There are two types of coreference, anaphoric relations that look backwards for their interpretations and cataphoric relations that refer forwards. For example; Several houses were in the view. They appeared picturesque. ?? Listen to this. Jenny is getting married. ?? Task 2: Identify the coreference features in the following sentences and the type. a. Jasmine said she would come. b. What can I help you? c. I would like to know the number of Mr. Mark. d. Wait a second please. His number is 872590. Your answer: Substitution is the replacement of a previous expression or word. For example, I have got a pen. Do you have one? Will we get there on time? I think so. Substitution occurs to avoid repetition. Substitutions which refer to meanings, can be of three kinds. These are nominal, verbal and causal.

Task 3: Underline substitutions from the following sentences: i. She tried to get a ticket but she couldn't get one. ii. The water from the factory was that from the local reservoir. iii. The books he read were those which he found in the library. iv. A. Do you think I should phone Prakash and ask him to come and look at my machine. B. Yes do. v. Pamela always brings us back chocolates when she travels. She bought some Swiss ones from her last trip. Ellipsis the omission of a piece of structure (one or more words) that are obviously understood but that must be supplied to make a construction grammatically complete. For example, 'Where did you see the car?' 'In the street', (implies 'I saw the car in the street'). Ellipsis can express hesitation, changes of mood, suspense, or thoughts trailing off. Cite three examples of ellipsis. Your answer: Repeated forms In repeated forms there is repetition of an expression, word, meaning and idea in whole or part more than once. For example, Mary Brown arrived. Mary brown was cross. In writing, repetition can occur at many levels: with individual letters and sounds, or phrases. Alliteration or repetition of consonant sounds at the beginning of a word; Peter Piper picked a peck of pickled peppers. Assonance or the repetition of vowel sounds, which can occur at any point in the word. For example, in the following sentence, His lips will slip the truth eventually. The front high vowel /i/ occurs word initially in the words: his, lips, will, and slip.

Consonance or more general repetition of consonant sounds, where the sounds can occur at any point in the word. For example, in the sentence, Susie suddenly whistled to call the cats to supper. The voiceless fricative /s/ occurs word initially, medially and word finally for the words: supper, suddenly, Susie, whistled, cats Task 4: State the type of repetition from the following: 1. " 'Are you hurt?' he repeated" 2. Do you do voodoo? 3. The duck struck some luck. 4. Time after time 5. It is what it is. 6. Get ready; get set; go. Your answer: Lexical relationships are the connections that are established between words. One lexical item enters into a structural relationship with another. For example, The flowers were of many colours. He liked the pink ones best. Synonymy, antonymy, hyponymy, homonymy, Polysemy, metonymy, collocations are lexical relations which recognize patterns of association between one lexical item and another. Lexical relationship is recognizing several kinds of sense relations between lexemes. Task 5: Mention the lexical relations of the following: a. Manual-novel b. Manual-hand book c. Book-manual d. Book-book e. The book –a manual Your answer: Comparison is a consideration of the similarities or dissimilarities between two things or people. A compared expression is presupposed in the previous discourse. For example; 'That offer was bad. This one's far worse'.

Task 6: Underline the comparative expressions from the following. 1. You have a big house. My house is bigger than yours. 2. Jeff has good grades. Her grades are better than Jeff's. 3. The Arctic Ocean is deep. The Pacific Ocean is deeper than the Arctic Ocean. 4. Joey is polite. You are more polite than Joey. 5. My brother is taller than I am, and he is elder too. Your answer: 12.3 Interpreting Written Text Written texts are structures which are well thought-out and thus well formed. There are norms in creating a written text which are specific to the system of language. Textual analysis can have implications in language teaching in monitoring comprehension. While teaching text structure we need to tell our learners to recognize the structure of the text. This contributes in organizing information and the details while reading. Textual structure usually displays links from sentence to sentence. The different kinds of textual structures are; Description/ definition, sequence/time, problem-solution, comparison and contrast, cause and effect. The meaning of a text is affected by its structure. Let us look in detail. Description/definition these text structures display a detailed description which gives a picture of the text to its reader. There are various kinds of descriptive patterns depending on person, object and place. The five types of descriptive texts are describing process, describing an event, describing personality, describing object and describing place. Task 7: Read the following texts and identify the type of descriptive text: a) The sunset filled the entire sky with the deep color of rubies, setting the clouds ablaze. b) The waves crashed and danced along the shore, moving up and down in a graceful and gentle rhythm like they were dancing. c) The painting was a field of flowers, with deep and rich blues and yellows atop vibrant green stems that seemed to beckon you to reach right in and pick them. d) The soft fur of the dog felt like silk against my skin and her black coloring glistened as it absorbed the sunlight, reflecting it back as a perfect, deep, dark mirror.

e) The old man was stooped and bent, his back making the shape of a C and his head bent so far forward that his beard would nearly have touched his knobby knees had he been just a bit taller. f) "It was a cold grey day in late November. The weather had changed overnight, when a backing wind brought a granite sky and a mizzling rain with it, and although it was now only a little after two o'clock in the afternoon the pallor of a winter evening seemed to have closed upon the hills, cloaking them in mist." [Daphne du Maurier, Jamaica Inn] Your answer: Sequence/ time: the structure that puts items in chronological order. The markers for these text types are 'first', 'then', 'next', finally, at the end. These items are adverbs and prepositions. The structure of the text gives the reader a list of chronological events in a sequence. Other sequence markers are conjuncts, connectives, linking devices. Task 8: Which of the following paragraphs is a text in chronological order? a) Delhi is believed to be part of Indraprastha, the capital of the Pandavas, in the epic Mahabharata. It was founded around 5000 B.C. it was earlier known as Hastinapur meaning 'elephant city'. The name Delhi derived from the word Dhilika'. b) Delhi was ruled by several dynasties. The Tomaras-Chauhans from 736-1192, and the Mamluks from 1206-90. They were followed by the Khiljis from 1290- 1320 and the Tughlaqs from 1320-1413. The Sayyids were there from 1414-51, after whom the Lodhis (1451-1526), and the Mughlas (1526-1857) ruled. It was under the British rule from 1857-1947. Your answer: Problem-solution is type of text structure which sets up a problem or problems, discusses the solution, and the effects of the solution. The text pattern is an organization of information expressed as dilemma and its remedy. These texts introduce problem-solving skills and abilities connected with innovative and creative thinking, a lateral mindset, adaptability and flexibility, level-headedness among others. Task 9: Read the following excerpts and identify the problem, cause and solution. One of the serious problems faced by large urban areas is traffic jams. The main reason for this is that there are too many private cars on the roads. A viable solution is to

introduce more park-and-ride schemes. This is where you park your car in the outskirts of the city, and take a bus for the final part of your journey. This public transport system is very regular running every ten minutes. Your answer: Comparison and contrast text structure focuses on the ways certain things or ideas are similar or dissimilar with each other. They have to be related to each other. For example, playing an instrument cannot be compared with reading a book. But reading a book can be compared with e-reading. Interpreting comparison and contrast texts, the learner can make connections between text ideas and engage in critical thinking. Task 10: Find the discourse markers and the comparison contrast points from the following: It would cause some people to laugh, if the characters of the Disney movies were compared to be the same. The notion is absurd for people who watch Disney movies. Each of the stories is different, where the hero may or may not win a war and the princess her prince. The classic Disney stories, 'Cinderella' and 'The Little Mermaid' are similar. Teenagers under the parental cover try to escape the main characters of both the stories, because of their uncanny similarities. The main characters are fatigued and distressed at home and choose to deal with in different ways. Your answer: Cinderella and The Little Mermaid Similarities Differences Cause and effect text structure represents the causal relationships between a specific event, idea or concept and the events, ideas or concepts that follow. Common text markers are 'because', 'consequently', so. Weather patterns describing why a particular storm occurred, is an example on cause and effect text type. Cause is why something is happening. Effect is why something has happened. Task 11: Identify the cause the effect sentences from the following. Gum makes mess in the classroom. Gum is a distraction. Students are not allowed to chew gum in the classroom.

People are exposed to germs. They don't dress properly. They fall sick. Your answer: Cause Effect 12.4 Principles of Textual Analysis a)Activity principle – We are, regularly, not the passive recipients of the interpretations generated by the teacher, but actively participate in assimilating meaning for the text. We are prompted by the desire to give meanings to the text individually guided by our infusion of ideas from background knowledge. Task 12: Mention two of your background ideas (what you have previously read) on the following text. "One of the firm points in the history of English and other European languages is the idea that they share a common ancestry. The striking similarities observable among virtually all European languages and several Asian ones have led linguists to hypothesize a common Indo-European origin for these languages, dating back to migrations that took place during a long period, possibly from as early as 10,000 years ago. Since there is no written record from that time, much of the scholarly work that has been conducted has been based on hypotheses." (World Englishes, 21) Your answer: b) Process principle In the process principle, the form and meaning of a text is central. We as learners respond to the text not as a whole but part by part as it unfolds before us. The idea is to discover the unfolding and evolving nature of the text. Both activity principle and process principles are learner-centred and focused on the skills of interpretation. Task 13: Interpret the following text with process principle. "Culture is not the same as literature. Both the creation and appreciation of literature rest upon aesthetic values which have at their very core patterns of preferment and rejection that are at marked variance with the totality of experience in which culture

NSOU ? PGEL-9B 148 as its roots. A literary work presents a personal perspective on the predicaments of human life, upon which is superimposed- if it really is literature- a floodlight of intent, effect, and affect that is the very essence of fine art. Some of our most incisive penetrations into the ethos of a given culture come to us through the efforts of the literary artist. Yet in the nature of things, literature can supply us with but a part- through clearly a most valuable part – of what needs to be taught under the heading of culture." (Pathways, 20-21) Your answer: 12.5 Strategies in Teaching Textual Analysis There is no straight-forward method of teaching textual analysis. There can be more than one reason why it is done, how it has to be approached. The learners may come with the kinds of knowledge it produces and processes of how it works. In terms of epistemological possibilities, a strategy in textual analysis is about how we go about the analysis and why it is done in the interest of the teachers and students. Let us look into one strategy of textual analysis. First, the learner has to be exposed to examples of texts that correspond to each text structure. There are markers and lexical representations in the text specific to the individual text-type. The leaner has to look for these clues next. Then, the learner can collect information for a visual representation of these text-types. And finally, the learner can diagram these structures using graphic organizer. On the next stage, the learner can be introduced to models of writing with the different text structures. The learner can use the information collected during reading different text types, for writing paragraphs with text structures. These strategies can be used with the whole class, in groups or individually. Learners can further work on a fiction or non-fictional writings of their choice for identifying and analysing text structures. The writing task is a follow-up activity after the reading assignment. Task 14: Draw the following graphic organizer on the strategy of text structure analysis: Your answer:

NSOU ? PGEL-9B 149 ? ? ? ? ? ? 12.6 Summary Textual Analysis is an area which has multiple applications in Language Teaching. In Textual Analysis, the learners have the opportunity to learn from reading and writing texts with activities. The unit was a discussion on the theoretical aspects and pedagogic applications of Textual Analysis. The analysis of the different text structures assists in developing cognitive and critical thinking skills in language learning. The classroom applications on Textual Analysis can be modified according to the learning needs. 12.7 Review Questions 1. What is textual analysis? 2. What are the principles in textual analysis in language teaching? 3. Discuss the strategies in textual analysis. 4. How would you teach textual analysis to the high school students? 5. What is a text structure? 6. Discuss text structures with examples from language teaching. 7. What is a cohesive factor? How were they discussed by Halliday and Hassan in Cohesion in English, 1976?

NSOU ? PGEL-9B 150 8. Can textual analysis be taught at primary school? Discuss with illustrations. 9. What are the processes in learning textual analysis? 10. What is the basic difference in learning textual analysis from reading skills and writing skills? 12.8 References Halliday, M. A. K., and R. Hassan. 1976. Cohesion in English. London: Longman. Heusinkveld, Paula R. 1997. Pathways to Culture-Readings on Teaching Culture in the Foreign Language Class. USA: Intercultural Press. Saraceni, Mario. 2016. World Englishes: A Critical Analysis. New York: Bloomsbury Academic. 12.9 Reading List Halliday, M. A. K., and R. Hassan. 1976. Cohesion in English. London: Longman.

NSOU ? PGEL-9B 151 Unit 13 ? Practical Task-1 Structure 13.1 Objectives 13.2 Introduction 13.3 Summary of the Units discussed in Module 1 13.4 Tasks 1 to 11 13.5 Summary 13.6 References 13.1 Objectives

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At the end of this unit, the learners will be able to: a. Revise the contents of

the first module of this course. b. Recall the concepts of grammar as used in language. c. Revise their knowledge of Language functions, d. Provide answers to the exercises related to these topics. 13.2 Introduction In this unit, we will revise the contents of all the four units in module 1. These four units cover the following aspects: The first two units of this module (Module 1) deal with Grammar in Communication; while the last two units deal with Grammatical Analysis of Language Function. To help you recapitulate the contents of these units, we will begin with a summary of the four units, and then begin with the tasks. 13.3 Summary of the units discussed in Module 1 Unit 1 of this course (in Module 1) has four sub-topics. They are divided into two parts and each part is discussed in two units. The first two units (Units 1 and 2) discuss Grammar in Communication; while the last two units (Units 3 and 4) discuss Grammatical

NSOU ? PGEL-9B 152 Analysis of Language Function. A brief summary of each of the units is provided before exposing you to tasks and exercises on these topics. Unit 1 largely discusses the importance of grammar in language use. Language use and grammar are inseparable and the rules of grammar include a variety of topics not excluding punctuations. This unit deals briefly with the role of punctuations, and how a wrong punctuation can lead to changing the meaning of the sentence is demonstrated. It further shows how ambiguity in sentences can be resolved with a proper knowledge of grammar and finally closes with a discussion on the use of prepositions. Unit 2 of this module discusses further uses of grammar and takes a detailed discussion of Nouns and Verbs, and their prominence in language use. It is possible to identify these classes of words either by their inflexion or by their position in the sentence. Verbs and nouns also form phrases and the unit takes into consideration the use of some phrases briefly. Unit 3 and 4 begin with a discussion of the language functions and how these functions become manifest with the proper use of grammar. Various functions are listed and the explicit grammar items used to express these functions are delineated. We shall now focus on different exercises based on these four units. 13.4 Tasks 1 to 11 Grammar and Communication Task 1: Here are six statements. Go through each one of them, and say whether they are true or false. If true, mark (T) and if false, mark (F) in the brackets next to the statement. a. Grammar gave birth to language. ( ) b. Grammar is integrated with language. ( ) c. Grammar can be learnt independently of language. ( ) d. Without grammar, meaning cannot be expressed. ( ) e. Grammar gives a definite shape to the language. ( ) f. Grammar and communication are independent of each other. ( ) Answers: a (F); b (T); c (T); d (F); e (T); f (T).

NSOU ? PGEL-9B 153 Task 2: Punctuate the following sentences: Use capital letters where essential. a. the ganga flowing through kolkata is one of the biggest rivers in india that empties more than a million gallons of water into the sea every day. b. many people believe that english grammar is expedient and important only to educators forgetting the point that grammar is the foundation of communication. c. men women and children baskets in hand brave the chilly mornings to pick the saffron flowers that grow in kashmir and considered the best in the world. d. knowledge of grammar rules help in developing learners ability to think logically and clearlywhereas a person with poor knowledge of grammar leaves a negative impression. Task 3: Read the following paragraph carefully, and replace the nouns with pronouns where necessary. All the proper nouns have been highlighted. Mother asked Totto Chan all sorts of questions. Mother finally discovered what it was all about and what was going to happen. Mother thought Totto Chan ought to see it, as Totto Chan wouldn't have many opportunities. Mother even thought mother would like to see the car arrive herself. Task 4: In the paragraph given below, the prepositions are missing. In the brackets, a list of prepositions that can be used are given. Complete the paragraph by inserting the right preposition. Some prepositions can be used more than once. (to, on, in, of, from, between, through, toward, inside) At a signal the children had _____ run _____ a wooden ladder propped up _____ its side, crawl _____ it, _____ the rungs, take an envelope _____ a basket, open it, and if the paper _____ said, for instance, Sakko's mother, they would have _____ find her _____ the crowd ___ spectators. This brings us to the close of Unit 1 of Module 1. We have looked at some of the uses of theory, punctuations, prepositions, pronouns discussed in the unit. From here we will move on to Unit 2 of the same module where we will look at the use of Nouns, their types, Verbs, Adverbs and Adjectives. We will have a few exercises, in solving which you may have to go back to the unit for clarification or answering.

NSOU ? PGEL-9B 154 Task 5: Say whether the following statements are true or false by writing (T) for true and (F) for false statements in the brackets given. a. Word order in a sentence is fixed ( ) b. When the word order changes it is only the meaning that changes ( ) c. When the word order changes the sentence always becomes ungrammatical ( ) d. Every word in a sentence has a meaning to convey ( ) e. There are two types of words in a sentence – functional and structural ( ) f. Structural words hold the functional words together ( ) g. We can have sentences without any functional words ( ) h. Both functional words and structure words are important in a sentence ( ) Answers: a (T); b (F); c (F); d (F); e (T); f (T); g (F); h (T). Task 6: Take a look at the paragraph given below and identify all the Nouns in the paragraph. Classify the nouns into different categories as shown in the grid given. Totto Chan kept her promise and put everything back into the tank. It was a terrible job getting it out, but putting it back was much quicker. She put some of the wet earth in, too. Then she smoothen the ground, put the cover back properly, and took the ladle back to the janitor's shed. That night before she went to bed Totto Chan thought about the beautiful purse she had dropped into the darkness. She was sad about losing it, but the day's exertion had made her so tired it was not long before she was fast asleep. Nouns Proper Common Material Pronoun

NSOU ? PGEL-9B 155 Task 7: You have studied different types of nouns – proper nouns, common nouns, collective nouns, and abstract nouns. Give ten example of each of these types in the table given below. One example has been given at the top for each category. Proper Nouns Common Nouns Collective Nouns Abstract Nouns Netaji Leader Army Victory Task 8: Along with types of nouns, you have also studied three different cases that the personal pronouns take - nominative case, possessive case, and objective case. In each of these cases, the pronouns can be either singular or plural. In the following table list all the pronouns according to their case and number. Case Singular Plural Nominative Possessive Objective Task 9: In this task we will focus on verbs (unit 2 of Module 1) State whether the following sentences are true or false. Write (T) if the sentence is true or (F) if it is false. a. In English we can have a sentence without a verb (like in Telugu). ( ) b. Verbs do not have gender. ( ) c. There is a close relationship between nouns and verbs in sentences. ( )

NSOU ? PGEL-9B 156 d. Tense and aspect are the same in verbs. ( ) e. English operates only on two tenses. ( ) f. Progressive and perfective are called aspects of a verb. ( ) g. Voice denotes the state of the subject in a sentence. ( ) h. With an intransitive verb we cannot have an active sentence. ( ) i. Stative verbs do not take an object in a sentence. ( ) j. Verbs change in form while converting direct speech to indirect speech. ( ) k. Meaning of Active and Passive sentences are the same. ( ) l. Action verbs need not have an object. ( ) Answers: a (F); b (T); c. (T); d. (F); e. (T); f. (T); g. (T); h. (T); i. (T); j. (T); k (F); l. (F). Task 10: a. What is the difference between a regular and an irregular verb? Write briefly in about three sentences. b. We have come across the terms strong and weak verbs. These are terms used for regular and irregular verbs. Regular verbs are called 'weak verbs' while the irregular verbs are called 'strong verbs'. Do you know the reason? Here is an explanation. Read this and list ten irregular verbs in their present, past and participle forms in a tabular form. Regular verbs are called weak verbs because they follow a pattern in the forming of their past forms and participle forms. Normally, this happens with the addition of '-ed' and '-en' to the main verb. E.g. Talk, talked, talked. (These forms are also called the first, second and the third forms.) In many regular verbs, the third form remains the same as the second form. Since they follow a pattern without change, they are considered docile and hence labelled weak forms. Irregular verbs are called strong forms. They do not follow a pattern and break the pattern while forming past and participle forms. Since they break the pattern, they are called strong forms. E.g. go went gone.

NSOU ? PGEL-9B 157 Irregular verbs are smaller in number, about 200 verbs and you can find an exhaustive list in some of the books of grammar and also in some dictionaries. Provide ten examples of the irregular verbs in all their three forms. Verb Present Past Participle Find Find Found Found 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 Task 11: When verbs combine with prepositions, and/or particles, they are called phrases. Often the meaning changes. Here is an example: To call: To draw someone's attention, but Call on: To visit someone. We called on our grandparents when they were sick. There are many more prepositions that this verb 'call' can take. Make a list of phrases with the following verbs. Use each phrase in a sentence to bring out its meaning. (Some phrases are given, and you may add to the list.) Look at Look out

NSOU ? PGEL-9B 158 Look up Look after Look down Look through Call on Call out Call at Call after Call in This brings us to the end of Unit 13. In the next unit we will look at some more tasks based on Adjectives and Adverbs and also revise briefly nouns, pronouns, prepositions and verbs. 13.5 Summary In this unit we have discussed some of the concepts introduced in Module 1 of this course. Further we have discussed the importance of grammar and provided a summary of all the units in Module 1. Based on the contents of Module 1 a variety of tasks and exercises is presented to help the learners recall and reinforce their understanding of the contents studied earlier. The tasks are in the form of responding to true false questions (to help recall the concepts) and exercises in punctuation, use of pronouns, and prepositions. All these exercises are completely contextualized thus helping the learners (to) frame similar exercises with their students. Besides filling in blanks, there are classification tasks and usage tasks for nouns and verbs including phrases. The unit concludes with these tasks and the next unit continues with more tasks on items not discussed here. 13.6 References 1. Dean, Geoff. Grammar for Improving Writing and Reading in Secondary School, Routledge, 2003. ProQueste-bookCentral, http://ebookcentral.proquest.

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NSOU ? PGEL-9B 160 Unit 14 ? Practical Task-2 Structure 14.1 Objectives 14.2 Introduction 14.3 Summary of Unit 13 14.4 Tasks 14.5 Summary of the Unit 14.6 References 14.1 Objectives

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After going through this unit, the learners will be able to: a. Recall the

conceptual discussion on some aspects of grammar, b. Identify different types of tenses used and their meanings in context, c. Use appropriate connectors to join words into phrases and clauses into sentences, d. Understand the use of affixes in English, e. Understand the use of adjectives and adverbs in different types of sentences. 14.2 Introduction In this unit we shall look at a few more exercises and tasks to practise the grammar items we have learnt in module 1. Some of the topics based on which exercises will be presented here are as follows: Tenses, Conjunctions (connectors), Suffixes and Prefixes, Adjectives, Adverbs, Sentences types and Clauses. That seems to be quite a lot. But since most of these are inter-related, the task of going through the unit will be enjoyable and help you remember and reinforce your learning of grammar. 14.3 Summary of Unit 13 In the previous unit we looked at some of the basic elements of grammar. We began with a discussion of the importance of grammar in language use and how it helps us

NSOU ? PGEL-9B 161 improve our expression. Further, we looked at some items of grammar like articles, prepositions, pronouns, nouns and a few types of verbs. Rather than looking at these items in isolation, we made an effort to build a context in which these items are used by providing a variety of exercises. Care was taken to keep the format of the exercise familiar, bringing about modification in the rubrics and the item structure. This had a dual purpose of providing practice as well as helping the learners with a model to build exercises for use in the classrooms that they teach. This unit continues on a similar note and looks at further items in grammar and builds tasks and exercises to provide practice. Since we had eleven tasks in the previous unit, we will begin with task 12 in this unit. 14.4 Tasks In the course of this unit, we will begin with prepositions (further use of them) and move on to looking at some more items in Active and Passive voices. Once this is done, we shall take up exercises on the use of tenses and their meanings before moving to suffixes. We will conclude this unit with a few exercises on the uses of Adjectives, Adverbs, Sentence types and Clauses. Task 12: Prepositions: Prepositions are unique items of grammar in English. If you look at the word, it has two parts 'pre' meaning 'before'; and 'position' meaning 'place'. Prepositions are words that are placed before some other words, and these other words are nouns. Prepositions always occur before nouns or pronouns in the objective case. What function do they perform? They show the relationship the noun/pronoun has to some other noun or pronoun. E.g. Mother is inside the house. In this sentence 'inside' is the preposition and it occurs before 'the house' which is a noun. It shows the relationship between the 'house' and 'mother' which is another noun. Prepositions that show relationship with space (place) are called spatial prepositions, while those that show relationship with time are called temporal prepositions. The same preposition can be used in both senses. Take a look at this sentence: I will meet you at six o'clock at the dining hall. NSOU ? PGEL-9B 162 Here 'at' is used as temporal in the first instance and as spatial in the second instance. We will have some exercises to understand this. Read the paragraph below and mark all the prepositions. Classify the prepositions as spatial or temporal as the case may be, and also mention the two nouns that are related because of the use of prepositions. One example has been done to help you. On 13 th February 2006, I experienced a journey underwater in the naval submarine INS Sindhurakshak. The submarine dove to a depth of about 30 meters and started cruising. I visited the control room, where the crew explained the functioning of the submarine, showing me the manoeuvring operations and buoyance-control mechanism with great enthusiasm. It was a thrilling experience for me to cruise with the chief of naval staff, Admiral Arun Prakash, and shown the underwater communication, target identification and launch systems. This was followed by the firing of a torpedo to simulate an attack to show the combat capability of our underwater force. The torpedo showed remarkable homing ability.I realized the complexities involved in underwater warfare. (from Turning Points, Abdul Kalam) The Submarine cruised for nearly two hours and covered a distance of twenty nautical miles. After spending this time, we surfaced smoothly to the top and reached the ship to get back to the shore. The journey to the shore took another thirty minutes. But it was the best 150 minutes of my life on the sea. (This part is not from the book) Clue: There are 22 prepositions. Most of them are spatial, and a few are temporal. Preposition Spatial Temporal Other nouns To Spatial Torpedo and attach Task 13. In this task let us take a look at theconnectors.Connectors are conjunctions and these words join two words of equal status. A noun is joined to another noun or a verb to another verb. e.g. boys and girls (noun + noun)

NSOU ? PGEL-9B 163 Work and play (verb + verb) Conjunctions can also join adjectives and adverbs like they join nouns and verbs. e.g. bold and beautiful (adjectives) hastily and clumsily (adverbs) Further, these connectors can also combine (join) two sentences. Such sentences can be in equivalence (similar meaning) or bring about a contrast, or make one sentence less important than the other. If there is equivalence between the sentences, such connectors are called 'coordinating' conjunctions. If the relationship is one of main sentence and the other a dependent sentence, such connectors are called 'subordinating' conjunctions. Here are two examples to illustrate this concept. My mother loves me and I love her too. (Coordinating) My mother loves me, when I obey her. (Subordinating) Let us take up a few exercises and tasks to understand this item of grammar. Here is the first task: Combine these words in the two columns using and, or, but, as appropriate. Make some changes (such as adding not, also, etc.) in the second column. Each word can be used more than once. Try and get at least 25 pairs of words. In fact, more pairs are possible, and the more you get, the better it is for you. Column A Column B Boys Vegetables Toys Tea Fruit Work Coffee Games Play Eat Drink Girls Good Trousers Bright Blouse Light Dark Pen Frolic Shirt Pencil Skirt Shining Fun Bad

Task 14: Read the following paragraph carefully and identify all the conjunctions. If the conjunctions are used to join sentences, mention whether they are subordinating or coordinating conjunctions. India possesses one of the finest armed forces in the world, loyal, courageous and disciplined. The president is the supreme commander of the armed forces. In that capacity, I was always keen to know the environment in which our servicemen operated, their state of readiness, their problems and challenges. As a part of this mission, I visited a number of units of the army, navy and air force. My interactions with the officers and jawans also led me to visit units stationed in difficult terrains. Hence, I specially chose to go to Kumar post on the Siachen glacier, the world's highest battleground, where our troops operate in extreme cold. I also visited the submarine operations off the coast of Vishakhapatnam, and flew in a Sukhoi-30 MKI at nearly twice the speed of sound. I found these exciting experiences, and would like to share them with you.(from Turning Points, Abdul Kalam). Conjunction Coordinatin Subordinatin Conjunction Coordinatin Subordinatin g g g g g g Before we move to the next task, here is just a recap of what is said in Unit 2. Connectors are also called 'linkers' when they bind together two sentences that have a cause and effect relationship, summing up, or elaboration including suggesting an order. Such linkers or because, in other words, besides, secondly, etc. When you read books, be on the lookout for such linkers. Now let us move on to another aspect of English grammar, which affects the words and their grammatical, rather morphological structuring. These are called affixes. How affixes are done is called 'Affixation'. Affix is a common word for both prefix and suffix. There is also what wecall 'infix' but infix is not very common to the English language. Generally when compound words are

made into plurals, we have an infix. e.g. 'mother-in-law' becomes 'mothers-in-law' or 'spoonful' becomes 'spoonsful' etc. We will have exercises only on prefixes and suffixes. Affixes are additions to words and with the affix-addition, the word can retain its meaning and grammar, or change both. So be careful when you work on the task. Task 14. Look at the table below. It has two columns. The first column has affixes (these could be either prefixes or suffixes) and the second column has words. Some words can take more than one suffix. e.g. 'electric' can take −al to become electrical; or −ally to become electrically or −ian to become electrician. Your aim should be get as many words as possible from the table. Affix Word Affix Word able teach ment electric anti manage semi thought de legal sub condition in/im/il/ nation ly establish est/ industry ful standard ious/ise corporate mis study ness/less legible pre read Task 15: Look at the following words and divide them into head words (main words) and show their prefixes and suffixes' a. Incomprehensible b. Circumstantially c. Disestablishment d. Penultimate e. Nonremunerative Now we should move on to clauses. Clauses are also sentences. A simple sentence has just one clause, this makes it a sentence. A clause in a simple sentence is meaningful, therefore it is called an independent clause. There are some clauses, to understand which, we need to take help of some other clauses. Such clauses are called dependent clauses. Let us look at some examples.

e.g. Sumana is a teacher. This is a simple sentence with one clause. This is an example of an independent clause. Sumana is a teacher, who lives in Hoogly. This sentence has two clauses. The first clause is independent, but the second clause, to give proper meaning depends on the first clause, so this is called a dependent clause. The word 'who' is a connector. Task 16: Here are a few simple sentences. All of them are independent clauses. However, you can combine them using some connectors and convert these sentences into longer sentences (complex sentences). You may write these sentences in the form of a paragraph with four or five sentences. 1. Raju is a farmer 2. Raju gets up early in the morning. 3. He goes to his fields in a tractor. 4. He ploughs the fields for about an hour. 5. He goes to the bore well and switches on the pump. 6. The water flows through the small canals. 7. He makes sure the entire field gets water. 8. The soil becomes wet and soft. 9. He calls his workers. 10. The workers sow the seeds in the soft soil. When you combine sentences, you can get two types of longer sentences − compound and complex. What is the difference between these two types of sentences? In compound sentences, two independent clauses come together and they are joined using a coordinating conjunction. In a complex sentence, there is only one independent clause followed by one or more dependent clauses.These are joined together with theuse of subordinating conjunctions. Here are examples of both types of sentences. eS.g. Dhritman is an actor, and he acts in Bengali movies. In this sentence we have two independent clauses. 'Dhritman is an actor.' 'He acts in Bengali movies'. These two sentences are combined with the connector 'and'. This is a compound sentence, because both the clauses are independent. e.g. Dhritman is an actor who has won several awards for his roles in Bengali and English movies.

NSOU ? PGEL-9B 167 In this sentence, the independent clause remains the same 'Dhritman is an actor'. The second sentence 'has won several awards'.'Who has won the awards?' To know this we need to go back to the first sentence. In other words, the meaning of this sentence is an extension of the meaning of the first sentence. Similarly 'for his roles in Bengali and English movies'. This clause does not have a complete meaning. We need to understand 'whose roles' and also what the result of such roles is. To know this, we need to go back to the first sentence and partly the second clause as well. Task 17: Read the two paragraphs given below and sort the sentences into three categories – simple, compound and complex. Mark all the connectors and label them. When Kalam was the President of India, he visited several countries. During his visits, he was given a grand reception and also gifted several precious articles. He accepted these gifts, for refusing to accept them would be causing an insult to the host country and this could jeopardise our relationships. As soon as he got back home, he would have each of the gifts photographed and prepare a catalogue of these articles and preserve them in the archives. When he left the Rashtrapati Bhavan after his tenure was over, he did not even carry a small pencil with him. In the year 2002, Ramadhan was during July-August months. It is customary for the President to host an Iftar party. He called me and asked me how much money it would cost to host an Iftar. I made a quick calculation and said it would be around twenty-two lakh rupees. He immediately asked me to use this money to buy blankets and other goods and distribute it among children in the orphanages. He asked me not to divulge this information to anyone. He stopped me from making this public. He was ready to spend from his personal earnings rather than use public money. 14.5 Summary of the Unit In this unit we have looked at a few more tasks along with minimal inputs in terms of theory related to four different aspects of grammar – prepositions, conjunctions, affixes, and sentence patterns. The other aspects will be dealt with later. The tasks are provided with a dual purpose. The first purpose is to help the learners become familiar with types of tasks. It also provides them with some familiarity on writing rubrics for the exercises and

NSOU ? PGEL-9B 168 constructing the items in a consistent manner. The second purpose is to help them administer similar tasks in their classes for purposes of formative evaluation. The tasks suggested are symbolic and do not claim to be exhaustive. The learners would do well inring to books available in the market and in being more familiar with more tasks. 14.6 References 1. Kalam, Abdul, APJ (2012). Turning Points A Journey through Challenges. New Delhi: Harper Collins Publishers India. ISBN 978-93-5029-347-8 2. Coventry, Kenny R., and Simon C. Garrod. Saying, Seeing and Acting: The Psychological Semantics of Spatial Prepositions, Taylor & Francis Group, 2004. ProQuest e-book Central, https://ebookcentral-proquest-com.library. britishcouncil.org.in:4443/lib/britishcouncilonline-ebooks/detail.action?docID=201057. 3. Nunan, David. Learner-Centered English Language Education : The Selected Works of David Nunan, Routledge, 2012. ProQueste-book Central, https:// ebookcentral-proquest-com.library.britishcouncil.org.in:4443/lib/britishcouncilonline- ebooks/detail.action?docID=1074914. 4. "Stay home." The Merriam-Webster.com Dictionary, Merriam-Webster Inc., https://www.merriam-webster.com/dictionary/stay%20home.Accessed 1 December 2019.

NSOU ? PGEL-9B 169 Unit 15 ? Practical Tasks-3 Structure 15.1 Objectives 15.2 Introduction 15.3 Summary of the Units in Module 2 15.4 Tasks 1 to 11 15.5 Summary of the Unit 15.6 Reading List 15.1 Objectives

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At the end of this unit, the learners will be able to: a. Revise the contents of

the units of Module 2 in this course. b. Recall the concepts of Language Variety and Awareness. c. Revise the knowledge of Pedagogical Principles of Grading. d. Understand the concepts on grading through tasks. 15.2 Introduction In this unit we will revise the contents of four units. These units are: Block/Situations and Grading, Pedagogic Principles of Grading 1 & 2 and Language Variety and Awareness. The first three units are from Module 2 and the fourth unit is from Module 3. First, we will begin with the summary of the units and then we will work on the tasks. 15.3 Summary of the units Block/ situations and grading discuss the situational use of language. The unit illustrates various situations of socializing, for example, introducing self, introducing others, making a request, seeking permission, expressing disagreements and arguments, turning disagreements into arguments, complaining, describing a person. Other situational functions in the discussion are expressing gratitude, asking directions and giving directions.

Pedagogic Principles of Grading -1 introduced the terms 'grading principles' and 'evaluating principles'. This unit discusses the factors of improving grading, reasons for obtaining high and low grades. With grading, all-round development of the learners can be assessed. Furthermore, grading provides opportunities for learning, to learn from mistakes, and incentives or impetus for further learning. It creates, indeed, encouragement among learners, assessing basic understanding, continued understanding, mastery and above expected standards of understanding within its patterns. In Pedagogic Principles of Grading -2, we have learnt theparameters of grading. These parameters are: valid considerations of education for learners, identifying learning goals, giving scope for refinement, objective assessment of performance etc. It is difficult to assess the overall performance of a learner eitherby marks or byletter grades. Grades are converted into marks and then thegrade point average is taken into consideration. GPA (total number of grade points divided by the total number of credit hours attempted) is calculated when the curricula with specific time bound academic schedules is not prepared. Then a special pattern of assessment is followed. Assessment is of two kinds. Direct assessment is assessment through tests and exams. It has measurable targets and more weightage. Indirect assessment is assessment from tasks, projects, feedback, measured through checklists, notes, surveys, and seminars and has less weightage. Indirect assessment turns failures into teachable, measurable assessment. Continuous Assessment (CA) is measured throughout the year with assignments, periodical tests and exams. In Language variety and awareness, we have learnt a measure of knowledge about the structure of language from the sociological point of view. The unit talks of the causes of language variations across geographical, economic and cultural boundaries. From the unit we have also learnt languages in contact, and the results of language contact. Standardizing a variety and the problems in the standardizing are discussed with illustrations. The unit concludes with a note on linguistic tolerance. 15.4 Tasks: 1-12 Task 1. State whether the following are true or false with justification. a. A Grade is determined by how well the content is grasped. b. A grade is determined by how well a subject/topic is understood.

c. It does not matter when you learn a topic, so long as you learn it. d. Assessments need to prove incentives for the learner to do the work to improve. e. Homework is practice. It does not effect a leaner's grade. Your answer: Proposition Justification a b c d e Task 2. Categorize the following conceptson grading principles in three ways. i. These skills are fundamental to the ELT class and future study on language teaching. In order to pass the learner must achieve proficiency in all of them. ii. These concepts more advanced skills that indicate a deeper understanding of ELT. In order to achieve a grade A, the learner must achieve proficiency in all of them. iii. These concepts represent the most advanced skills and ideas in ELT course. Proficiency of these ideas is a significant achievement. Your answer: A: B: C:

Task 3. Match the following A. A single number combined out of grades 1. Grading parameters B. Subject refinement, data collection, results 2. GPA C. Improved teaching-learning process 3. Make up exam D. Administered orally 4. Use of grading Your answer: A: B: C: D: Task 4. Calculate GPA from the following data: Module Grade Credits Points Credit Value Phonetics A 4 4 12 Morphology B 4 3 9 Syntax A 4 4 12 Discourse A 4 4 12 Sociolinguistics B 4 3 9 Hint: GPA = Total grades/ Total credits Your answer Task 5. Calculate GPA from the following: Grade Grade point Credits Grade point (weight x credits) Maths B+ 3.30 3.00 9.30 English C 2.00 3.00 6.00 Hindi A 4.00 2.00 8.00 Science A- 3.70 3.00 11.10 Total 11.00 35.00 Your answer:

Task 6. Which of the following are not principles of grading? Justify. a) Clarifying purpose for grading to all involved. b) Clear learning goals, instruction and assessment are the basis of sound grading. c) Reflecting an average of performance over a period of time. d) Reflecting current status of achievement. e) Set conditions of opportunities to learn and receive feedback before grading. Your answer: Answer for Task 3: A 2, B1, C 4, D 3 Answer for Task 4: GPA = 3.6 Answer for Task 5: GPA = 35.00/11.00 = 3.18 Task 7. Which of the following statements on types of grading do you agree with? Why? a) Grading ifis not essential for instruction. b) Grading is a thoughtful and professional judgement. c) The components of a student's grade are periodic test, quiz, unit test, participation/ performance, assignment, behaviour. d) The pass or fail system uses a dichotomous grade system. Your answer: Reasons for agreement/ disagreement a b c d Task 8. Which of the following statements are false? a) Language is a form of social behaviour. b) Language is the variety of the communities. c) Communities are separated into groups according to their skills of using language.

d) Languages exhibit internal variation at phonological, morphological, semantic and syntactic levels. e) Differences in accent and vocabulary are tolerated within linguistic community. f) Language varies in geographical and social space. Your answer: a: b: c: d: e: f: Task 9. State the definitions for idiolect, dialect, sociolect, code switching from the following: a) A variety of language with systematic phonological, lexical and grammatical characteristics. b) A variety of a language unique to an individual. c) A variety of language use related to education, occupation, etc. d) The practice of moving back and forth between two languages or between two dialects of the same language. Your answer: Task 10. Mention the dimension of language change: regional/ social/ functional a) Use of double negatives in English in early 21 st century : "I ain't got no money" b) Portuguese and Spanish are different languages, which are mutually intelligible. c) Mandarin and Cantonese are dialects of Chinese but are not mutually intelligible. d) Scottish vocabulary, grammar and pronunciation is different from that of England Your Answer: Answers: a) functional, b) social, c) social, d) regional Task 11. Which of the following is not a social language skill? a. Posture and body expressions b. Body language c. Maintaining eye contact and attention

d. Staying on topic e. Humour f. Asking and answering questions appropriately g. Sharing news. Your answer: Task 12. Which of the following statements do you agree with? Why? Why not? A. Social function of language is the way we relate our language to our relationship with other people. B. Journalists indulge in discussions with people on social situations. C. It is how we use and communicate in a social setting. D. For communicating we use word meaning and word forms. Your answer: Task 13. Arrange the following expression of the social functions as stated in the table. a) It's not a very smart idea b) Let me do it for you c) Would you mind helping me? d) No problem e) Is there a post office nearby? f) It was nice meeting you. Asking for help Introducing yourself to others Asking for direction Expressing approval/disapproval Offers of help Giving permission

Task 14. Write the language function for the following expressions. Expression Language Function 1 Is this the right way to the school? 2 Would you mind playing? 3 I am not very happy about it. 4 You know what I think? 5 That's fine 6 I wonder if he can help me. 7 Is it all right if I come soon? 15.5 Summary The unit has revised the concepts introduced in Module 2 of this course. The revision on the units on pedagogical principles of grading is introduced in the form of tasks (1-7). Tasks 8-12 are from language variety and use, while 13 and 14 is on block/situations. While working on the tasks you might require consulting the units mentioned above. A few tasks are based on subjective answers. These can be discussed in your contact programmes. To learn more on the topics, there is a reading list following the summary. 15.6 Reading List Chambers, J.K., Peter Trudgill and Natalie Schilling-Estes. 2008. The Handbook of language Variation and Change. Oxford: Blackwell Publishing. https://books.google.co.in/books/about/The_Handbook_of_Language_Variation_ and_C.html? id=ihHTBQAAQBAJ&redir_esc=y Anderson. M. and D. Larsen-Freeman. 2012. Techniques and Principles in Language Teaching . 3 rd edn. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Unit 16 ? Practical Tasks-4 Structure 16.1 Objectives 16.2 Introduction 16.3 Summary of Module 3 16.4 Tasks 1-12 16.5 Summary of the unit 16.6 References 16.1 Objectives At the end of the units, learners will be able to: a. Revise on tolerance and use of taboo words. b. Recapitulate the concepts from Discourse Analysis. c. Recall the lesson on textual analysis. d. Work on practical tasks from Module 3. 16.2 Introduction In this unit, we will revise the contents of three units. The units are Tolerance and use of Taboo words, Discourse analysis and Textual analysis. The three topics are from sociolinguistics, emphasizing and contextualising the use of language in society. They are all in Module 3 of the course. We will begin with a summary of the units and then we will work on the tasks. You might need to refer to Module 3 for working on the tasks. 16.3 Summary of Module 3 In Tolerance and use of Taboo words, we have learnt how language use is influenced by the environment around the people who use it. The use of language discussed in the unit is of a specific kind, restricted due to social constraints. Such uses of language are defined by culture and are generally avoided in polite conversations. Coded words are examples

NSOU ? PGEL-9B 178 of the specific use of language. Jargons are discipline-specific words. They are also related to specific professions. Argot is the language of a group of people which other find difficult to understand. The unit on Discourse analysis introduced you to the use of language in conversational analysis. In this un it, we have looked, in further detail, into the concepts we have learnt in the unit "Language as Discourse" (Paper 5 Module 2 Unit 8). The speech acts are the use of language which is as real as the physical actions. The fundamental assumption of Discourse Analysis is that, meaning is exchanged with three factors: a) the participant's belief and assumptions, b) the participant's world of knowledge, and c) the context of interaction. Textual analysis is the analysis of logical and consistent stretches of language found in all forms of language. The unit introduces you to the cohesive factors of textual analysis, the principles of textual analysis, and strategy of teaching textual analysis. Actively assimilating meaning from the text as a whole is the activity principle and assimilating meaning part by part is the process principle. Interpreting text structuresincludes recognition of structures, organization of the information details while reading and finding the sentence to sentence links. This unit mainly deals with the uses of textual analysis, studying language and linguistics. While analysing a text, you should pay attention to the form of the written text: the linguistic choices used within the text to communicate ideas, beliefs, attitudes and experiences. Let us work on the following tasks. 16.4 Tasks 1-12 Task 1.Infer from the following text on "the aspects of language". "Approaching written data as discourse means not only questions of meaning and context, but also paying some attention to the linguistic form- the way language is used in the texts you are examining. That does not necessarily mean that your analysis must be highly technical, using linguists' specialist terminology or paying attention to every detail of spelling or syntax. Outside the study of language itself, those details are only of interest if they affect the interpretation of the data in ways which are consequential for your conclusions. But there are aspects of language which it may be important or interesting to

NSOU ? PGEL-9B 179 look at, even though language itself is not the focus of your investigation." (Cameron and Panoviæ2014, p. 155) What can be the other aspects of language? Your answer: Task 2.Find the language markers that are used for the logical flow of arguments. A good way of ridding yourself of certain kinds of dogmatism is to become aware of opinions held in social circles different from your own. When I was young, I lived much outside my own country- in France, Germany, Italy and the United States. I found this very profitable in diminishing the intensity of insular prejudice. If you cannot travel, seek out people with whom you disagree, and read a newspaper belonging to a party that is not yours. If the people and the newspaper seem mad, perverse, and wicked, remind yourself that you seem so to them. In this opinion both parties may be right, but they cannot both be wrong. This reflection should generate a certain caution." (Russell, 1950) Your answer: Task 3.Find coreference from the following text. I had called upon my friend, Mr. Sherlock Holmes, one day in the autumn of last year, and found him in deep conversation with a very stout, florid-faced elderly gentleman, with fiery red hair. With an apology for my intrusion, I was about to withdraw, when Holmes pulled me abruptly into the room and closed the door behind me. "You could not possibly have come at a better time, my dear not Watson," he said, cordially. "I was afraid that you were engaged." "So I am. Very much so." "Then I can wait in the next room." "Not at all. This gentleman, Mr. Wilson, has been my partner and helper in many of my most successful cases, and I have no doubt that he will be of the utmost use to me in yours also." (Conan Doyle, The Red-Headed League) Your answer: Task 4.Analyse the descriptions from the following text. About half-past five one afternoon at the end of June when the sun was shining warm and bright into the large courtyard, a very elegant Victoria with two beautiful black horses drew up in front of the mansion.

NSOU ? PGEL-9B 180 The Comtesse de Mascaret came down the steps just as her husband, who was coming home, appeared in the carriage entrance. He stopped for a few moments to look at his wife and turned rather pale. The countess was very beautiful, graceful and distinguished looking, with her long oval face, her complexion like yellow ivory, her large grey eyes and her black hair, and she got into her carriage without looking at him, without even seeming to have noticed him, with such a particularly high-bred air, that the furious jealously by which he had been devoured for so long again gnawed at his heart. He went up to her and said: "You are going for a drive?" She merely replied disdainfully: "You see I am!" (Guy de Maupassant, Useless Beauty) Your answer: Task 5. Find the sequence markers from the following text. Eight years before he had seen his friend off at the North Wall and wished him God- speed. Gallaher had got on. You could tell that at once by his travelled air, his well-cut tweed suit, and fearless accent. Few fellows had talents like his, and fewer still could remain unspoiled by such success. Gallaher's heart was in the right place and he had deserved to win. It was something to have a friend like that. (Joyce, A Little Cloud) Your answer: Task 6. Identify the problem, cause and solution. Every

afternoon, as they were coming from school, the children used to go and play in the Giant's garden. It was a large lovely garden, with soft green grass. Here and there over the grass stood beautiful flowers like stars, and there were twelve peach-trees that in the spring-time broke out into delicate blossoms of pink and pearl, and in the autumn bore rich fruit. The birds sat on the trees and sang so sweetly that the children used to stop their games in order to listen to them. "How happy we are here!" they cried to each other. One day the Giant came back. He had been to visit his friend the Cornish ogre, and had stayed with him for seven years.

After the seven years were over he had said all that he had to say, for his conversation was limited, and he determined to return to his own castle. When hearrived

he saw the children playing in the garden. "What are you doing here?" he cried in a very gruff voice, and the children ran away. (

Wilde, The Selfish Giant)
NSOU ? PGEL-9B 181 Task 7. Indentify the taboo words from the following pairs. We often use these words. a) Students always argue against that detail. Alternative: students frequently/ commonly/ typically argue against that detail. b) The perfect answer to the problem. Alternative: An ideal answer / one of the best answers to the problem. c) The model is very important. Alternative: this model is important/ critical/ crucial. Your answer: Task 8. Add taboo words to the following pairs of sentences. a) Today was difficult/ somewhat difficult for me. b) Many / several/ a great number of sources. c) The results were somewhat significant/ significant to some degree. d) From 1800 until 1918. Your answer: Task 9.When unfavourable or prejudiced statements are used, the reason can be: Gender, political opinion, social class, age, religion, sexuality, race/ ethnicity, social class, or other personality characteristics. What the reason of the use of taboo words in Task 7 and Task 8? Your answer: Answer Task 8: a) A bit, b) a lot of / a couple of, c) kind of/ sort of, d) till Task 10. Which of the following statements do you agree with? Give your reasons for agreeing: a) Taboo is a prohibited action. b) Taboo is a social or cultural prohibition. c) Disregard for taboo is a deviant act by society. d) Taboo is putting a person or thing under permanent or temporary prohibition. Your answer:
NSOU ? PGEL-9B 182 Task 11. Write the full forms of the following mail jargons. 1. BTW – 2. IMHO – 3. FAQ – 4. MOTD – 5. CYA – 6. HTH – 7. FYI – 8. PFA – Your answer: By the way, in my humble opinion, frequently asked questions, message of the day, see you around, hope this helps, for your information, please find attachment. Task 12. Match the English slang words: a. Nuts 1. Great, awesome b. Swag 2. Guy c. Rocking 3. Self-confidence d. Dough 4. Crazy, mad e. Cushy 5. Money or cash f. Airhead 6. Die g. Gig 7. Comfortable and easy h. Croak 8. Dumb person i. Dude 9. Very annoyed j. Pissed off 10. Job or work Your answer: a.4; b.3; c. 1; d. 5; e. 7; f. 8; g. 10; h. 6; i. 2; j. 9 16.5 Summary of the Unit This last unit of the course is designed for practical tasks on the concepts introduced to you in three units (10-12) of Module 3. There is a summary of these units in the beginning. The tasks are on textual analysis, language variation and change and discourse NSOU ? PGEL-9B 183 analysis. Working on the tasks would require recapitulation of the units of Module 3 and group discussions in the contact programmes. 16.6 References 1. Cameron, Deborah and Ivan Panoviæ. (2014). Working with Written Discourse. New Delhi: Sage Publications Ltd. p. 155 2. Doyle, A. C. The Red-Headed League. https://sherlock-holm.es/stories/pdf/a4/ 1-sided/redh.pdf 3. Guy de Maupassant. 1903. Useless Beauty. https://en.wikisource.org/wiki/The_Complete_Short_Stories_of_Guy_de_ Maupassant/Useless_Beauty 4. Joyce, James.1914. A Little Cloud. https://theshortstory.co.uk/devsitegkl/wp-content/uploads/2015/06/Short-stories- James-Joyce-A-Little-Cloud.pdf 5. Russell, Bertrand. 1950. How to Avoid Foolish Opinions.In W.W. Bhaskar and N.S. Prabhu (Ed.). English Through Reading. Vol 2. 2016. New Delhi: Trinity Press. 6. Wilde, Oscar. The Selfish Giant. https://ncert.nic.in/textbook/pdf/heih103.pdf
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| 5/22 | **SUBMITTED TEXT** | 14 WORDS | **65%** | **MATCHING TEXT** | 14 WORDS |

Person Singular Plural First my, mine our, ours Second your, yours your, yours Third his, her,

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Andrew S. Rothstein. (2008). English Grammar Instruction That Works! : Developing Language Skills for All

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W https://books.google.co.in/books/about/English_Grammar_Instruction_That_Works.html?id=0M10AwAAQBA ...

| 7/22 | SUBMITTED TEXT | 23 WORDS | 89% | MATCHING TEXT | 23 WORDS |

A Functional Analysis of Present Day English on a General Linguistic Basis, edited by

A Functional Analysis of Present Day English on a General Linguistic Basis By

W https://books.google.co.in/books?id=ZdbLSkaPMJwC&pg=PA3&sourceNair,

| 8/22 | SUBMITTED TEXT | 14 WORDS | 83% | MATCHING TEXT | 14 WORDS |

Present, Present Continuous or progressive, Present Perfect, and Present Perfect Continuous. Simple Present Tense is

present (simple), present continuous (or progressive), present perfect, and present perfect continuous (progressive). • The present tense is

W https://www.studysmarter.co.uk/explanations/english/english-grammar-summary/

| 9/22 | SUBMITTED TEXT | 15 WORDS | 78% | MATCHING TEXT | 15 WORDS |

tense is used to talk about an action that began in the past and

SA English Book No 2.pdf (D37136562)

| 10/22 | SUBMITTED TEXT | 25 WORDS | 71% | MATCHING TEXT | 25 WORDS |

Past Perfect Progressive (Continuous) Tense: It is used to indicate an action that began before a certain time in the past and continued up to that

SA English Book No 2.pdf (D37136562)

| 11/22 | SUBMITTED TEXT | 17 WORDS | 68% | MATCHING TEXT | 17 WORDS |

an action which will have happened by a certain time in the future. Will/shall + have +

SA English Book No 2.pdf (D37136562)

| 12/22 | SUBMITTED TEXT | 13 WORDS | 100% | MATCHING TEXT | 13 WORDS |

After going through this unit, the learners will be able to: a. Understand

After going through this unit, the learners will be able to: a. Understand

SA   PGELT 5 _ 6 (1-400).pdf (D165254851)

| 13/22 | SUBMITTED TEXT | 31 WORDS | 51% | MATCHING TEXT | 31 WORDS |

Future Perfect Progressive (continuous) Tense: It indicates an action which will be in progress over a period of time that will end in the future. NSOU ? PGEL-9B 61 Will/shall/have + been +

SA   English Book No 2.pdf (D37136562)

| 14/22 | SUBMITTED TEXT | 14 WORDS | 100% | MATCHING TEXT | 14 WORDS |

After going through this unit, the learners will be able to: a. Understand the

After going through this unit, the learners will be able to: a. Understand the

SA   PGELT 5 _ 6 (1-400).pdf (D165254851)

| 15/22 | SUBMITTED TEXT | 11 WORDS | 100% | MATCHING TEXT | 11 WORDS |

After going through the unit you will be able to • learn

After going through the unit, you will be able to: • Learn

SA   PGELT 5 _ 6 (1-400).pdf (D165254851)

| 16/22 | SUBMITTED TEXT | 11 WORDS | 100% | MATCHING TEXT | 11 WORDS |

After going through the unit, you will be able to • learn

After going through the unit, you will be able to: • Learn

SA   PGELT 5 _ 6 (1-400).pdf (D165254851)

| 17/22 | SUBMITTED TEXT | 11 WORDS | 100% | MATCHING TEXT | 11 WORDS |

Hewings, Martin. (2013). Advanced Grammar in Use. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

SA   B. A. III Eng. P. 11 _ 16 Lang and Ling all.PDF (D142214959)

| 18/22 | SUBMITTED TEXT | 17 WORDS | 82% | MATCHING TEXT | 17 WORDS |

At the end of this unit, the learners will be able to: a. Revise the contents of

At the end of this unit, the learners will be able to: a. Understand the concept of

SA   PGELT 5 _ 6 (1-400).pdf (D165254851)

| 19/22 | SUBMITTED TEXT | 14 WORDS | 89% | MATCHING TEXT | 14 WORDS |

After going through this unit, the learners will be able to: a. Recall the

After going through this unit, the learners will be able to: a. Understand the

SA PGELT 5 _ 6 (1-400).pdf (D165254851)

| 20/22 | SUBMITTED TEXT | 17 WORDS | 82% | MATCHING TEXT | 17 WORDS |

At the end of this unit, the learners will be able to: a. Revise the contents of

At the end of this unit, the learners will be able to: a. Understand the concept of

SA PGELT 5 _ 6 (1-400).pdf (D165254851)

| 21/22 | SUBMITTED TEXT | 116 WORDS | 97% | MATCHING TEXT | 116 WORDS |

afternoon, as they were coming from school, the children used to go and play in the Giant's garden. It was a large lovely garden, with soft green grass. Here and there over the grass stood beautiful flowers like stars, and there were twelve peach-trees that in the spring-time broke out into delicate blossoms of pink and pearl, and in the autumn bore rich fruit. The birds sat on the trees and sang so sweetly that the children used to stop their games in order to listen to them. "How happy we are here!" they cried to each other. One day the Giant came back. He had been to visit his friend the Cornish ogre, and had stayed with him for seven years.

afternoon, as they were coming from school, the children used to go and play in the Giant's garden. It was a large lovely garden, with soft green grass. Here and there over the grass stood beautiful flowers like stars, and there were twelve peach-trees that in the springtime broke out into delicate blossoms of pink and pearl, and in the autumn bore rich fruit. The birds sat on the trees and sang so sweetly that the children used to stop their games in order to listen to them. "How happy we are here!" they cried to each other. One day the Giant came back. He had been to visit his friend, the Cornish ogre, and had stayed with him for seven years.

W https://ncert.nic.in/textbook/pdf/heih103.pdf

| 22/22 | SUBMITTED TEXT | 24 WORDS | 100% | MATCHING TEXT | 24 WORDS |

he saw the children playing in the garden. "What are you doing here?" he cried in a very gruff voice, and the children ran away. (

he saw the children playing in the garden. "What are you doing here?" he cried in a very gruff voice, and the children ran away.

W https://ncert.nic.in/textbook/pdf/heih103.pdf

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W URL: https://inside.6q.io/how-to-give-constructive-feedback/6
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Entire Document

PREFACE In the curricular structure introduced by the University for the students of Post Graduate degree programme, the opportunity to pursue post Graduate course in a subject is equally available to all learners. Instead of being guided by any presumption about ability level, it would perhaps stand to reason if receptivity of a learner is judged in the course of the learning process. That would be entirely in keeping with the objectives of open education which does not believe in artificial differentiation. I am happy to note that this University has been recently accredited by National Assessment and Accreditation Council of India (NAAC) with grade 'A'. Keeping this in view, the study materials of the Post Graduate level in different subjects are prepared on the basis of a well laid-out syllabus. The course structure combines the best elements in the approved syllabi of Central and State Universities in respective subjects. It has been so designed as to be upgradable with the addition of new information as well as results of fresh thinking and analysis. The accepted methodology of distance education has been followed in the preparation of these study materials. Co-operation in every form of experienced scholarship is indispensible for a work on this kind. We, therefore, owe an enormous debt of gratitude to everyone whose tireless efforts went into the writing, editing and devising of a proper layout of the materials. Practically speaking, their role amounts to an all-out involvement in layout of the materials and an involvement in 'invisible teaching', as well. For, whoever makes use of these study materials would virtually derive the benefit of learning under their collective care without each being seen by the other. The more a learner would seriously pursue these study materials, the easier will it be for him or her to reach out to larger horizons of a subject. Care has also been taken to make the language lucid and presentation attractive so that they may be rated as quality self-learning materials. If anything remains still obscure or difficult to follow, arrangements are there to come to terms throughout the counseling sessions regularly available at the network of study centers set up by the University. Needless to add, a great deal of these efforts is still experimental-in fact, pioneering in certain areas. Naturally, there is every possibility of some lapse or deficiency here and there. However, these do admit of rectification and further improvement in due course. On the whole, therefore, these study materials are expected to evoke wider appreciation the more they receive serious attention of all concerned. Professor (Dr.) Subha Sankar Sarkar Vice-Chancellor Printed in accordance with the regulations of the Distance Education Bureau of the University Grants Commission First Print : March, 2022 Netaji Subhas Open University Post Graduate English Language Teaching Programme (PGELT) PGEL-10 (Value Added Course) Course Title: Critical Pedagogy- Peer teaching - self observation Report Netaji Subhas Open University Post Graduate Degree Programme M A in English Language Teaching Course Code: PGEL-10 (Value Added Course) Course Title: Critical Pedagogy - Peer Teaching and Self Observation Report Module No 1 2 3 4 Unit No 1-4 5-8 9-12 13-16 Course Content Writers Dr Sumana Bandyopadhyay Assistant Professor of ELT, NSOU Prof S Mohanraj Professor of ELT, NSOU Dr Sumana Bandyopadhyay

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PGEL-10 Open University

Core Course Course Code: PGEL-10 (Value Added Course) Course Title: Critical Pedagogy- Peer teaching - Self observation Report Module 1 : Pedagogical Strategies Unit 1 Evolution of Pedagogical Strategies 7-16 Unit 2 Indigenous innovations- Tagore's Sahaj Path 17-27 Unit 3 Indigenous innovations-Mahendra Gupta's Ramakrishna - Kathamrita 28-37 Unit 4 Indigenous innovations- Gandhi's Jiban Sikhsan 38-54 Module 2 : Pedagogical Innovations Unit 5 Pedagogic Innovations in English 55-66 Unit 6 West Bengal Experiment (Learning English) 67-77 Unit 7 Loyola College and SNDT Experiment 78-86 Unit 8 Gujrat Experiment (TELE) and Bangalore Project 87-98 Module 3 : Peer Teaching-1 Unit 9 Principles of Micro Teaching and Peer- teaching 99-117 Unit 10 Teacher Training Strategies 118-127 Unit 11 Observation as a learning strategy 128-137 Unit 12 Observation protocol 138-147

Module 4 : Peer Teaching -2 Unit 13 Planning for peer teaching lessons 148-157 Unit 14 Developing observation protocol for peer teaching 158-170 Unit 15 Discussing peer teaching lessons 171-178 Unit 16 Values of constructive feedback 179-188

NSOU PGEL-10 7 Module 1 : Pedagogical Strategies Unit 1 Evolution of Pedagogical Strategies Structure 1.1 Introduction 1.2 Objectives 1.3 Historical Context 1.4 Early Phase of Education Reform 1.5 Post Independence: the 1960 1.6 Reform phase from 1980 onwards 1.7 Educational innovations in the 21st century 1.8 Summary 1.9 Review Questions 1.10 References 1.11 Reading List 1.1 Introduction Pedagogy is 'the method and practice of teaching especially as an academic subject or theoretical concept', (Oxford Advance Learners' Dictionary). The word originated in the late 16th century from the French pedagogue, meaning a strict, stiff and old fashioned teacher. Teaching is referred as the 'noblest' of professions. Teachers' rewards are from the satisfactions on the effect they have, in transforming their student's lives. A teacher is an individual who brings different qualities, talents, experiences and attitudes. All of these need to be developed and learned so that the pursuer can be successful in the profession. 1.2

| 82% | **MATCHING BLOCK 8/23** | **SA** | PGEL 1 and 2 final.pdf (D165254845) |

Objectives At the end of reading this unit, you will be able to: a.

Become aware of ancient education systems.

NSOU PGEL-10 8 b. Know the differences between ancient and modern education system. c. Become familiar with concepts in pedagogy d. Know different parts of the education reform 1.3 Historical Context In this unit you will get introduced to the historical, social and pedagogic aspects of English Language Teaching. Before we begin, let us try to reflect on the following: How was education in ancient India? What were the features of education system in ancient India and ancient Europe? What were the aims of education in ancient times and how they can be useful for present education system? Now let us come up with the answers. In ancient India, people used to learn an art form to earn a livelihood. As part of the ancient education system, there were 64 art forms, which included dance, music, agriculture, medicinal sciences etc. The focus of this education system was also on religious aspects. These were religious duties, warfare, moral, social, psychological, political knowledge and development. In ancient times, education aided fulfillment. Thus, body, mind, intellect and spirit were the components for simultaneous and harmonious development. Strict moral codes of conduct dominated education. Self- reverence, self-knowledge and self-control were the features of the education system. Discipline was free. The education could go on as long as 48 years. The first teachings on language were in form of dialogues, for example, as found in Plato's Cratylus, a debate on the origin of language and its relation between words and meanings. The dialogue is between Socrates and Hermogenes and between Socrates and Cratylus. According to Hermogenes, language is 'conventional' and the relation between words and their referents is just arbitrary. Cratylus is of the opinion that there is a natural 'relation' between words and their meanings. This debate between the conventionalist and the naturalist position initiated and led to a detailed study of the Greek language.

NSOU PGEL-10 9 Plato introduced the traditional classification of words into 'parts of speech'. He made a distinction between 'onoma', a nominal, and 'rhema' a verbal. In a proposition, 'onoma' is the term and 'rhema' is the predicate. For example, the sentence Madan teased Mohini is a proposition which has two terms, Madan and Mohini and a predicate, teased. Thus Plato used logical categories for describing language. Aristotle had made additions to Plato's traditional classification. He had added a new class - syndesmoi which further classified lexicons as pronouns, articles, conjunctions and prepositions. He defined the word as a minimum meaningful unit or component of a structure. Aristotle's definition of the word reminds us of a later Bloomfieldian definition of morpheme. The initial focus on oral speech soon shifted to the writing. The study of the ancient Greek language, started off as part of philosophy and logic and was concerned with the metaphysical features of language. The first grammar book of the language, Hé Téchné Grammatike, by Dionysius Thrax was on the art of writing. Speech was considered to be deviation from the standard of the written form and therefore a 'corrupt' form of language. The importance of literature reinforced this supremacy of the written form over speech - a phenomenon which continued down the centuries. An achievement of the language philosophers was devising a formal terminology for description of the Greek language that served as a basis for language study for more than two thousand years. Along with language, they had worked in other fields; logic, ethics, politics, rhetoric and mathematics. The Romans were influenced by the Greeks. They followed the Greek framework for the description of Latin. However, the first comprehensive grammar of Latin was De Lingua Latina (on the Latin Language), written by Marcus Terentus Varo (116- 27 B.C.). The book is a threefold division of language study into etymology, morphology and syntax. Varro's linguistic description broke away from the Greek tradition and on several issues his observations appear to be strikingly modern. For instance, he recognized the social and communicative function of language as more important and primary than its function as a tool for logical analysis and enquiry. In the middle ages, language study in Latin included pronunciation and syllable structure and morphology. Priscian (512- 60 A.D.) in his book Institutiones Grammaticae (Grammatical Categories) discusses all of the above as well as word and syntax of Latin. His work is the result of Greco-Roman unity and a bridge between antiquity and Middle ages on Language study. The motivation for early Indian language studies was to preserve the sacred religious texts, the Vedas, which were orally transmitted and change in the texts (due
NSOU PGEL-10 10 to change of language) was considered to be profanation, if not corruption. Therefore there was a need for an authoritative text, comprehensive yet minute including phonetics, etymology, syntax and metrics. The first extant description of Sanskrit is found in Panini's (4th century B.C.) Astadhyayi. The book presents 3959 sutras (aphorisms) and is considered to be the earliest description of any Indo-European Language. Astadhyayi deals with word formation but is also significant for its phonetic description and notions of sandhi or the morphophonemic processes in which sounds influence each other in connected speech. The scholarship is remarkable for its precision, exhaustiveness, clarity and systematicity and the sutras have required extensive and elaborate explanation and commentary down the centuries. The educational framework in the medieval period was rooted in the seven liberal arts. These were grammar, dialectic (logic) and rhetoric, music, arithmetic, geometry and astronomy. From the twelfth century onwards, the history of language study was significant as the period of scholastic philosophers. They believed that language reflected reality and therefore, one effective way of analysing reality was analysing language. Other important developments that took place in the medieval period were in the fields of lexicography and translation. This happened with the increase in Christian missionary activities and the Byzantine writers' enthusiasm for introducing and expounding the Greek authors in the East. Sir William Jones' discovery of the historical kinship of Sanskrit with Latin, Greek and the Germanic Languages is considered to be one of the greatest achievements in language study up to the present day. During his nine year stay in India as a judge in the British court, Jones studied Sanskrit, the classical language of India and Latin, Greek and the Germanic languages of Europe. The year 1786 is regarded as a landmark in the history of language studies as he read his famous paper (on 2nd February) to the Royal Asiatic Society, Calcutta. Jones observed: "The Sanskrit language, whatever may be its antiquity, is of a wonderful structure; more perfect than Greek, more copious than Latin, and more exquisitely refined than either; yet bearing to both of them a stronger affinity, both in the roots of verbs and in the forms of grammar, than could possibly have been produced by accident; so strong indeed, that no philosopher could examine the Sanskrit, Greek and Latin, without believing them to have sprung from some common source, which perhaps no longer exists. ...". Thus a methodology for studying the similarities and differences between languages

NSOU PGEL-10 11 at different levels of linguistic representations was set up and language families across borders were established. Jacob Grimm, following his contemporary Rasmus Rask, discovered certain systematic correspondences between the sound system of Indo- European languages. His principled study on correspondence of sound changes is known as Grimm's Law. The school system that we have today, originated between the 1830s and 1870s, in the colonial period. This education system included the text book, examinations and stiff administration. In this period we had witnessed the development of national systems of education and compulsory schooling. This period also witnessed the shift from indigenous schooling of the country which has existed mostly since the Vedic ages to the nationalized knowledge systems. The shift was from repetition and memorization to the text book culture. 1.4 Early Phase of Education Reform The early phase of education reform emerged between 1890s to 1940s. In the first phase, there was rejection of the indigenous schooling system. The modern education system, then, came with benefits of science and the need for social reform. Contradicting the earlier system, this system allowed education of all, removing the barriers from a few sections of the population accessing for knowledge and identity. The four distinctive responses from the late 1890s and early 1900s are the following: Swami Vivekananda, an early influence articulated a distinct vision of education focusing on character building. This system was based on Vedanta philosophy and practice. A second response was formulated by Rabindranath Tagore where we had witnessed an alternative education system from that of the colonial system, relating nature as its central part. The third educationist in the discussion is Jyotirao Phule who focused on education of Dalits and women in rural contexts, The fourth educationist is Gandhi, who has formulated an education with a vision that had learning crafts at its core, in place of bookish curriculum. During the late 19th century, English language teaching has a remarkable history. Professional associations and societies were formed, such as the International Phonetic Association (IPA), and phoneticians such as Wilhelm Victor (1850-1918) in Germany, Paul Passy (1858-1940) in France, Otto Jespersen (1860-1943) in Denmark and Henry Sweet (184-1912) in Britain had begun their work. A reform movement was founded on three basic principles. First is the primacy of speech; second, the centrality NSOU PGEL-10 12 of connected texts and third, the priority of an oral classroom methodology. The reform movement had introduced the scientific approach to language study. Task 1 Do you know what were the contributions of the four phoneticians ? Find out your answer from the sites in the reading list. Your answer: 1.5 Post Independence: the 1960s A few years after independence, the growth of science education had developed. In the field of language, a number of English Language Teaching Institutes emanated. Different teaching methods were suggested by the scholars and notable amongst them was of Michael West's the Direct Method. As the study of language shifted from the ancient to the modern languages, new methods developed for teaching -speaking skills. This was necessary because the number of speakers for the modern languages were more than classical Greek and Latin. In the late 1800s and early 1900s, another language teaching method known as Natural Methods developed. These methods considered that second language can be learnt the way we learn our mother tongue. The Direct Method was one of these natural methods. The idea was to teach L2 without the use of L1. In the medieval times a focus of language study was the "word". Bhatrihari's Vakyapadiyam, the notion of the word explains numerous theories of the word and sentence. In the early 1920, language educators were in search of a core vocabulary, which could be graded for the teaching of the language. How was this word list prepared? And on what principles of selection was it based? Michael West's the General Service List (GSL), first published in 1926 is a list of 2000 word and 4000 word families for teaching English as a second language. The words were selected to represent the most frequent words of English, taken from a corpus of written English. The relative frequencies of various senses of the words were also included. The list was prepared for English Language Learners and English as Second Language teachers. It covers 85 % of the words in any corpus. The learner who knows all the words on the list and their related families would understand approximately 90-95 percent of colloquial speech and 80-85 percent of common

NSOU PGEL-10 13 written texts. The list was revised in 1953. West's list was for the speaking in the language focused on productive and receptive skills. In the early part of the 1900s, extensive reading, widely and in quantity in terms of purpose or outcome was considered traditional. Pioneers such as Harold Palmer in Britain and Michael West in India worked out the theory and practice of extensive reading to the teaching of foreign language reading. Palmer's work had been with word frequency, and West was exploring the idea of a 'defining vocabulary', i.e. common words to explain the meaning of other unusual items. A S Hornby's (1898- 1978) publications along with Gatenby and Wakefield, the Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English (1952) and Guide to Patterns and Usage in English were influential reference books for learners of English. The main concerns of ELT in 1950s and 1970s were careful selection and grading of grammar patterns and vocabulary, pronunciation and the text. 1960s was a period of change for the scope and structure of ELT. Applied Linguistics had emerged with new ideas and priorities. The 1960s also witnessed the concerns in teaching English as a mother tongue (Breakthrough to Literacy, 1970) and the publication of language study materials for older pupils (Language in Use, 1971). New pedagogical ideas to language data appeared in Cohesion in English, 1976, by Halliday and Ruqaiya Hassan. The definition of the topic as defined by the author's mentions that for interpretation of any item in the discourse require making reference to some other item in the discourse, there is a cohesion. In the wake of post-structural concern for communication, major interests in new domains of linguistics i.e., text linguistics and pragmatics grew up. The 1970s had brought testing and teaching together and an alliance between linguistics and learning theory. 1.6 Reform phase from 1980 onwards Two areas of concern from the earlier phase which further developed from 1980s onwards were to help the adult learners who wanted to acquire a basic ability to communicate effectively in the foreign country. The second was to focus on learning the language with specific purposes, for learners with particular professional and educational reasons. The other developments were the emergence of notions and functions in language teaching. The T level courses had appeared from the late 1970s (Strategies 1977-82 by Brian Abbs and Ingrid Freebairn). The T level initiated the development of a functional approach to language testing and assessment. N S Prabhu's

NSOU PGEL-10 14 1987 Project on meaning focused activity combined tasks with cognitive processes in language acquisition. From 1991, the phase of liberal education was adopted with the purpose of empowering learners with broad knowledge and transferable skills. It is based on the concept of liberalism. Liberalism is a way of studying a curriculum that provides a broad exposure to multiple disciplines and learning strategies in addition to in-depth study in English Language Teaching. From 2015, came the age of new liberalism. In order to understand the place of Teaching practices, curricula, materials and evaluation in the wider context of the global spread of English, it is essential to understand English in the light of neo-liberalism. English, as a neoliberal language is regarded as a natural and neutral medium of academic excellence. As a language of global competitiveness, Language Teaching has changed from professionalism to market- oriented reform policies. 1.7 Educational innovations in the 21st century The beginning of the 21st century had conceived different theories suggesting different directions to the nature of language learning. The principals of them are described by reference to theory of language (with a purpose) and a theory of leaning (with a process). Following the English of ESP, there have been two developments in language description for use of language in different domain. These are genre analysis and corpus linguistics. Genre is a social construct in different discourses and genre analysis is an ability that students need to meet their purposes. Teaching of English over the recent years has moved towards restricted language use as a consequence of electronic technology. Technology had an impact on the modes of language use and communication and on the ways in which language used is recorded and analysed. The use of the computer to collect and analyse vast corpora of language data is a striking development over the past twenty years. Corpus Linguistics has brought in the shift of the focus of pedagogic attention from grammatical to lexical features. The primacy of lexis is a determining factor in the patterning the usage. Now, let us discuss two recent developments in ELT methodology. Task 2 Suppose you are in an unfamiliar context. Will you be able to communicate in a shared knowledge and cultural assumption? Your Answer:

NSOU PGEL-10 15 Language is only real to users and in pedagogy; it is a matter of presenting language which can be made real for the learners. The first term in the development for ELT methodology is the use of 'real' language and second term is 'examples'. The language of the classroom has to engage the learner as well as promote learning. The assumption is that learners will have to go beyond the actual language presented in the class and generalize from it. A direct approach, dealing with 'real' language is less realistic than the indirect approach. Samples of 'real' language in the indirect approach engages the learner with a range of language use without confining to any particular norm or behaviour, this integrates purpose and process. Task 3 Make an observation into the linguistic and cultural reality of your classroom learners. Identify few (2-5) local values and attitudes you have/ need to incorporate to make pedagogy appropriate to local conditions. Your Answer: 1.8 Summary A brief look at the innovative pedagogy introduced you to the history of language studies. It presents the practical information and the hands on tasks in a nutshell. The teaching of language across the times should delve you into a search for how to teach language skills, the needs for specific classes, out-of-class activities and to develop teaching personality. Looking back at the history, you must have a logical and clear idea of what were the approaches in teaching L1 at the primary level that we can adopt as role models for our second language teaching. Percepts and principles in the past were derived from local circumstances, claims and findings from disciplines outside pedagogy. 1.9 Review Questions 1. Discuss the features of education system of the ancient Greeks. 2. What were the contributions of the Romans in language study? 3. Discuss the features of Language study in the medieval period.

NSOU PGEL-10 16 4. What was scope of ELT in the 1960s? 5. Discuss the features of language education in ancient India. 6. Reflect on the early phase of educational reforms. 7. What are the aims of education system of the earlier times that can be useful for the present time? 8. What were the changes in language teaching in the 1980s? 9. Discuss the education innovations of the 21st century. 10. Compare the school system during your school days and the system that we have today. 1.10 References Taylor, James, S. and Blair Bateman. (2011). Fundamentals of Language Teaching. What Every Spanish Teacher Needs to Know. USA: Brigham Young University. Widdowson, H.G. and A.P.R. Howatt. (2009).

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NSOU PGEL-10 17 Unit 2 Indigenous Evolution : Tagore's Sahaj Path and Sukumar Ray's Abol Tabol Structure 2.1 Introduction 2.2 Analysis of L1 text 2.3 Pedagogic principles of Sahaj Path 2.4 Textual Analysis of Dwitiya Bhag 2.5 Language in Ray's Abol Tabol 2.6 Summary 2.7 Review Exercises 2.8 References 2.1 Introduction This unit discusses the impact of first language on second language learning. The idea is to become aware about the values of language teaching which are inbuilt in the learners and how to utilize those values in teaching another language. The language learner spends considerable amount of time (0-5years) with the Mother Tongue (L1) before joining the formal schooling system. This knowledge base of L1 can be utilized in Second Language (L2) learning. Let us find out how. Do you remember how you started to learn language at school? Your answer: We all know that child language development begins with a lexical base. Thus lexicons were the first learning milestones in formal schooling. For L1 classes at the primary level, the focus was on spelling and vocabulary with an emphasis on the reading and pronunciation. These lexical bases although learnt from home and familiar, were unknown to the learner for their spelling. The spellings had to be learnt with practice by heart and from successful performances in spelling tests. To learn the

NSOU PGEL-10 18 pronunciation of the new words, not learnt from home and introduced at the primary level, the focus was on syllables. The unknown new pronunciation was to be learnt by drawing references from the known utterances. Based on your observation, make a list of the things that you did while in learning L1. Your answer: 2.2 Analysis of L1 Text Language learning in primary L1was mainly focused on reading texts and adding new words to the repertoire. The learning methodology has changed over the years. At the primary level of school system, today the above language skills are learnt through texts with following tasks and activities. The language elements from Shahj Path-Pratham bhag for standard 1 are analyzed as: a) Rhymes focused on the application of the consonant and vowel phonemes in simple nouns and verbs forms b) following exercises on minimal pairs, and c) vocabulary and sentence structure. This application familiarizes the learner with the phonemes of the language and their all possible occurrences. Now let us get back to our L1 learning. We had also learnt the phonemes of the language in a similar fashion. Though we did not have rigorous tasks on minimal pairs in our text books then, but the rhymes that the learners read today are centuries old. So what is new in the learning? Read through a L1 text of a primary class, what are your observations on the applications? Your answer: Now let us discuss the next level after the phoneme. This is vocabulary. New vocabulary is presented in a short reading text. The subject content of the texts is mainly focused on learning new vocabulary and their spelling, simple sentence structures. The narratives are of three kinds; poems on animals in their natural habitats, nature, and short stories reflecting the society. From first lesson to the third the texts are graded with more noun-verb combination structures. The following tasks are designed for the purpose of evaluation first and then learning. Vocabulary tasks are accompanied by: 1. Opposite words, 2. Meaning explanation, 3. Fill up the blanks/ provide appropriate

NSOU PGEL-10 19 word for a phrase, 4. Pictorial identification, 5. Form words from jumbled alphabets. Can we draw some insights from these tasks for our second language teaching? Your answer: Do you think L1 in the L2 class will be boring? For the language areas which are difficult for children to learn, and to strengthen their willingness and enthusiastic nature in the learning without negative impacts, L1 can be used contextually. These areas are: auditory discrimination, morphology, picture explanation, vocabulary tests and sentence repetition. L1 can be used for giving instructions and for overall comprehension at the beginning. To strengthen student's capacity to learn content vocabulary and concepts, simulation in to the language for a few years is necessary. Let us see how we can deal with morphology. Research indicates that second language learners learn the irregular past tense forms of a few verbs before they learn to apply the -ed; regular form. And learning other tense markers is not simultaneous but gradual. To activate the background knowledge of L1 and to overcome lapses in the learning of L2, learners sometimes avoid using the structures which they find difficult to learn. And if not put to attention at the beginning, this may never become a part of the learner's systematic knowledge. For relative clauses, according to research, second language learners learn to use the subject and the direct object (nouns) before they learn to use indirect object and object of preposition. This is referred as accessibility hierarchy by Lightbrown and Spada, 2003. Starting from object of comparison, a child who can use relative clauses for possessives will also learn to use it for object of preposition, indirect object, direct object and subject. So how do L1 practitioners introduce morpheme? Did we learn to break up words? Of course, breaking up a new word for mastering its pronunciation was important, which we had adopted on our own. We had also learnt about affixes in grammar. For the syntax, the frequent activities in L1 are c) Comprehension questions, and sentence formation with prompts. So, did our L1 texts tell us about the morphemes of L1? Is the concept necessary in Teaching L2? Your answer:

NSOU PGEL-10 20 When learners reach a certain stage of language learning, they may learn a second language rule but restrict its application. For example, in our second language context, dropping of articles before nouns or varied use of articles. When they find a similarity with L1, they may learn faster, for example the verb inflections for person and number. For example: phaki thake gache The bird lives on a tree ami thaki barite I live in a house The learner is aware that similar to L1, there may be a change in verb inflection with change of subject in L2. 2.3 Pedagogic principles of Sahaj Path For L1, in standards 1, the text for learning Bengali is Sahaj Path - pratham bhag by Rabindranath Tagore. We as first language speakers, learnt Bangla from this text at our primary level. Let us explore the text from 4 principles. Principle 1 is the gradation of the language forms from simple to complex. How had Tagore composed the texts on gradation? The second principle is the choice of themes. The themes those are interesting and familiar to the young learners. The third principle is the selection of vocabulary items and the fourth principle is the incidental grammar which is introduced with short sentences of stories and as rhythmic words in short poems. These compositions guide the learner to the inbuilt coherence and their applications. Principle of gradation - the grading for the beginner level is based on reading skills and cultural awareness skill. The graded language is adapted to the level of the learners. The emphasis is on reading skill for developing language awareness. The 45 alphabets of Bangla in pratham bag are introduced with short rhymes on basic verbs. These are introduced in 98 words. The verbs, as they occur in the rhyming sequence are: say/speak (words), sit and eat (sweet), bark, shout (and ask for curd), bring (rice), sing and row (a boat), cook (on the river bank), feel (smoke), walk (with a crowd), sleep, cry, get hungry, make noise (on the drum), be quite, listen, go and pick (mango), get angry, not go, harvest (paddy), drive (bullock cart), sit and study, buy (an umbrella), return (home), cover (self), sit (at the corner) and cough. The subjects in these rhymes are a kid, the alphabets, thick cloud and a little girl. The objects are alphabets mostly. Since, the alphabets themselves are both subjects and objects,

NSOU PGEL-10 21 performing different activities, they appear as real characters. The young learner is introduced to the alphabets and to the roles they can play in building on language. After the introduction of the alphabets, which is half of the text book, there are ten texts. Let us look into these ten texts in the next three principles. Principle of themes: The first text is a poem of 16 lines. Each line has three-four words. The six subjects of this poem are tiger, bird, fish, crow, swan, and honey-bee. The poem describes the habitats and activities of these animals. This poem is followed by another poem of 32 lines on human beings. Each line has one or two words. The subjects are day light, wind, bamboo trees, water of the lake, crows, tamarisk branch, as well as 9 human characters; Khudiram, Madhu Ray, Jaylal, Abinaash, old maid, Harihar, Patu Pal, Dinanath and Gurudas. The poem begins with nature and its activities and ends with human beings and their activities (picking fruit, rowing, ploughing, mowing, sleeping, building a house, bringing rice, cooking rice and making soil). The poem is easy to read and memorize. From second to tenth text, each story of the text is followed by a poem. The second text is on a festival, arrangement for worship and the poem is on dawn and description of early morning. Purchase of fruits and grocery is the theme for text 3, and the following poem is about a lake, named as motibeel. The poem also paints a picture of the paddy land adjacent to the lake and the harvesting activities therein. The poems following the texts are more attractive than the texts. The poem following the text 5 is on a small river beside the village. The river, its landscape and its surrounding activities in the summer and rainy reasons are narrated in simple poetic language. The poem following text 6 is on the season of festivals in Bengal, October and pre-winter. It is on the appearance of nature during that time of a year and holidays in the season. Principle of vocabulary : Text 2 comprises of 126 words with two to seven words in each sentence. There are 32 sentences. Each sentence has subjects, but ten of them are without verbs. The story is spread over 4 paragraphs with 3-5 sentences per paragraph. Text 3 is of 88 words. This text also has 5 sentences without verbs. The emphasis is on introducing names of objects and subject-object-verb concordance. The poem vocabularies introduce the learner to minimal, to simple poetic language and one or two poetic images. The verses are usually of six to ten words. The vocabulary range of the texts is 74-126 and the total number of vocabulary in Pratham Bhag is around 1000. The emphasis is more on vowel utterance. Different words with same diphthongs and vowels are in plenty.

NSOU PGEL-10 22 A vocabulary strategy of the texts is presentation of compound words as single words especially in kinship terms (binipisi, ranididi, asadada, mainimasi, sourididi), location (telipara 'name of a locality', bansgache 'on a bamboo tree', pousmase 'during winter', tisikhele 'in the flaxseed field'), in names of plants (kachu pata 'taro leaf', kala pata 'banana leaf', talban 'palmyra palm forest', belphule 'in Arabian jasmine', juiphule 'in jasmin'). There are also occurrence of hyphenation of two words representing demonstrative (oi-je 'there'), location (unun-dhare 'beside the oven' thakur-ghore 'in the prayer room'), state (sara bhara 'pate full of', gal-phola 'healthy'). Reduplicated words have added to the rhythm and melody to the poems and texts. Reduplication is of three kinds. The reduplicated words from the texts are: exact, rhyming, and lexical doublets. Exact or repletion of the word are found in nouns, verbs and adjectives; ghare ghare (in every room), ghara ghara (many pitcher- full), chupi chupi (quietly), eka eka (alone), jhake jhake (group of), piche piche (follow behind). bhabite bhabite (while thinking), deke deke (repeatedly calling). Sometimes, rhyming or two halves of a single word a not exactly the same but they rhyme each other, for example, Jhalmal (sparkling), jhilimili, jhilmil (dazzling), kichimichi (noise of myna) mitimiti (twinkling). In mitimiti there is exact repetition. Lexical doublets are two words with different phonological forms, but same etymological root; hetha hotha (here and there), anka banka (crisscross). Reduplicated words bring in the sense of continuation, emphasis and sonority. The total number of reduplicated words in Pratham Bhag is 54. Form the poems, some of the reduplicated words are: bhaye bhaye (in fear), chaka chaka (spotted), bane bane (in the forests), mehge meghe (in the clouds), jale jale (in water), dale dale (on the branches) etc. Beside these, there are also Onomatopoetic words as in; tup tup (sound of water), gun gun (huming a tunes), dhu dhu (empty field), hu hu (sound of wind), ghu ghu (sound of a dove), duru duru (in fear), dhal dhal (water in the lake), kar kar (sound of lightning), gheu gheu (dog bark), kiyo kiyo (cry of an infant), chik chik (shiny appearance of sand), kal kal (noise of river water). Principle of grammatical items- Pratham Bhag at the beginning is composed on two-sentence rhymes on the Bengali alphabets, which have a subject, and a verb with supporting vocabulary. In the texts there are short and simple sentences. There is varied representation of the plural forms. For example, the other forms of the word megh 'cloud' is meghe 'in the coulds', meghera 'the coulds', megh guli 'the coulds'. The

NSOU PGEL-10 23 plural forms-'ra' and 'guli' occur as a plural suffix as well as a separate word for plurality. Other grammatical features in the text are: a) Present, past and future tense and conditionals for verbs for example, 'to fly', ure occurs as; Pakha mele ore 'spreads its wings to fly', ure gelam 'I flew', ure gelo 'it flew away (past)', ure jaye 'it flew away (present continuous)', uribo gagone 'I will fly in the sky', urite petam jadi 'if I could fly'. b) Compound verbs with noun + verb and verb + verb components are common, for example, jaoya asa 'coming to and fro'(V+V) jege othe 'to wake up' (V+ N). c) Negatives : There are thirteen negative verbs in the text. These verbs are kaje tara nei 'no hurry to work', kada nei 'no mud', kakhono habe na 'will (it) never happen', ore na 'doesn't fly', pare na digiye jete 'cannot skip', sekhe ni 'haven't learnt', jabo na 'will not go', rakha jaye na 'cannot be kept', boli ne '(I didn't) say anything', deri sahe na 'cannot tolerate delay (the flowers)', dae ni 'did not bring', tari hoye ni 'did not prepare (curd)'. Two verbs for example, jani 'know' and jani na 'don't know', khela hobe 'will play', khela jaye na 'cannot play' occur with the negative uses. There is also a phrasal use o- t . a noye 'not that one (bird) ', and an adverb kothao nei 'nowhere (in sight) in the text. d) Collocations: the word kaemon 'what kind of' occurs in the word combinations- kaemon bese 'in what kind of dress', kaemon kore 'in what ways', kaemon manus 'what kind of man'. Since the poems are major part of the text and are mostly on nature and natural habitats of birds and animals the verbs collocates with the subjects in poetic language. This has made the usages attractive to the learner. e) Demonstratives: Frequent demonstratives from the text are: oi 'there', oi-je 'over there', oi-khane, o- khane 'over that place', sei-khane, sekhane-te 'at that place' as well as ei 'this', ei-bar 'this time', ei-dike 'this way', and ei-je 'overhere'. 2.4 Textual Analysis of Sahaj Path - Dwitya Bhag There are 13 lessons in the text. The first lesson introduces the last consonant (visarga) of the consonant phoneme series in a short reading text of 16 sentences. 15

NSOU PGEL-10 24 words with the consonant with difficult pronunciation and spelling are included. The text is on a play. In the second text, the conjunct consonant (ya-phala) occurs. Twenty two words with the conjunct consonant appear in the 20 sentences of the reading text. Among these words, one is monosyllabic, 8 are disyllabic, 12 are trisyllabic and two are with four syllables. There is one to one grapheme phoneme matching in the varied spellings for those words. The text is on a meeting for an occasion. For the third lesson, there is a short poem (ha t) depicting the activities at the market, the people and the selling and buying of commodities, and pictures from the river and the road. The sentences are mostly of four words, the last word rhymed with the next line. The meaning is complete in each two lines. There are 11 such pairs. The fourth lesson is a short text with another two conjunct consonant /nga/ (uaye- ga) and /kh-khiya/ (khiya). There are known utteranals with their spellings. Ten words are with the first conjunct and three with the second (khiya). The text is of 13 lines and is on locusts and environment. The fifth lesson introduces two new conjuncts and revises on a previous lesson's conjunct. Theses conjuncts are /nda/, / ndha/, and /nga/. The text is on arrangements prior to two individuals visit and during the visit. The sixth lesson is on introduction to /r/ (reph), which occurs as a conjunct consonant in form of a suprasegmental and its pronunciation in contexts. It occurs only in word medial and word final positions. The text is on the neighbourhood in the monsoons. After a short text of 16 sentences, the lesson presents a poem on a forest hut, animals in a forest and their activities with the narrator. It is of 36 lines, with two - four words per line. Two conjunct consonants (hasanta, chandra bindu or suprasegmental nasal) are introduced. The seventh lesson is on /ra-phala/, a conjunct occurring in combination with 6 different consonants. These are /s, f, j, t, gha, g/. The text also includes a consonant cluster /nta/, in word medial and word final contexts. The eighth lesson is on the conjunct /sta, stha/. The text is of 13 lines. Other consonant clusters in the text are /kla/, /nta/, /tra/. The text is on marketing food items and their amounts to be purchased and arrangements for cooking on the way. The emphasis is on orthography and pronunciation. The ninth lesson is on the morning schedules of an employee. The 14 sentences text introduces consonant clusters /spa, fca, nka /. The tenth lesson is on consonant clusters / s . t . a, nja, spa, s . t . ha/ the text is on a visit of a folk singer at a dwelling on a rainy day. /s . t . a/ occurs in word finally and for inflected words in word medial position. The text is followed by a nature poem of 24 lines. The next lesson is on geminates /kk, thth, ll, nn, jj, tt/, which occur as conjunct

NSOU PGEL-10 25 consonants. The 34 sentences are ornamented by reduplicated syllables in onomatopoeic words and echo words. Other clusters in the text are/ cch, sb, jjb, nc, sk, nt . h, nt . , nd, nd . /. The text is on home incidents at night. The text is followed by a 18-line poem on early morning. The eleventh lesson is a story on tiger hunting. The text introduces the clusters /kt, st, kl, ndr, mb, sk, sb/ and conjuncts /kr, sr, pr, ru, ghr, dr/. This is followed by a poem on a dream. The next lesson is on a travel story of a doctor to a far away visit on a palanquin. It is on the travel experience through a forest. The last lesson is on a story of a poor father arranging for his daughter's wedding and the incidents. The story has a happy ending. The entire text focuses on the consonant phonemes and orthographic recognition of new and old words learnt during the lesson. The short stories and poems are activities on reading and vocabulary. This also includes listening activities, learning by heart/ memorizing, and acquiring accurate pronunciation. By the time the learners are beginning their L2 acquisition, they have in-depth knowledge on the above L1 features. Thus in a similar fashion, this background knowledge can be used to some extent for acquiring L2 features. For the detailed orthographic peculiarities of L2, wherein there is no one-to-one matching between grapheme and phoneme, learners can be motivated to learn referring to the ways they had adopted for learning L1. 2.5 Language and Abol Tabol Sukumar Ray in Abol Tabol had experimented with L1 words. In 'khichuri' (Stew Munch), there is blending of 6 animal names into 3 lexicons. These are duck and hedgehog 'hasjaru', swan and tortoise ' bakkochrop', and elephant and sea whale 'hatimi'. Besides these, combination of 10 other animals into 5 blending is mentioned in the poem. In the poem 'a bal ta bal' (Nonsense), Ray had coined a. new words such as; soft shadow of the rainbow - 'ra mdhanuker a bcha ya ' , voice city- 'kant . ho pur' b. new concepts; ringing of bells from the smell of light covered in darkness (a laye a haka andhaka r ghant . a ba je gandhe ta r), the dew of the moon from the ancient times (a dim ka ler ca ndim him). The poem is about a dream, its magical context, its music, its words, with a thought provoking line on word-cutter, cutting the twist created by words (katha ye ka t . e katha r pa nch). From these two poems, the L1 learner can have inputs in creativity and on cognitive activities in playing with language in rendering word meaning and expressing

NSOU PGEL-10 26 ideas. This background knowledge can be utilized in teaching writing. 2.6 Summary Focusing on modified instruction in L2, the unit has discussed on indigenous pedagogy from two L1 texts, Sahaj-Path and Abol Tabol. These texts had taught us to learn while reading through the creative use of language. We as ELT learners can use this background knowledge of L1 of playing with words and varied use of language for L2 learning. The review exercise is more on exploring this varied use of language. This will enrich us to understand the learning context. 2.7 Review Exercises 1. What was gradation in reading comprehension from Sahaj Path pratham bag to Dwitiya bag. 2. Compare two poems from the two texts and discuss their pedagogical aspects. 3. 'The focus in reading skills more than other language skills in Sahaj Path'. Do you think so? Justify your answer 4. What are the language inputs for a L1 learner in Ray's Abol Tabol? 5. Take a L1 text from the high school and analyze how the pedagogic inputs have gradually modified from that of the primary level. Make a similar study for L2 Compare your findings in L1 and L2. 6. Take a text from Abol Tabol and discuss its pragmatic and semantic features. 7. Take a poem from Abol Tabol and analyse its linguistic features. Can we use this background knowledge in L2 learning. Justify. 8. What were the principles behind selection of Vocabulary in Sahaj path pratham bhag? 9. Discuss the principles of choice of themes in a text of Sahaj Path. 10. What ideas can you draw from Sahaj Path for developing language awareness in L2 learning? Discuss.

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NSOU PGEL-10 28 Unit 3 Indigenous innovations in Gandhiji's Basic Education Structure 3.1 Introduction 3.2 Objectives 3.3 Principles of Basic Education 3.4 Activity oriented purposeful learning 3.5 Teacher training and development 3.6 NaiTaleem and main stream education 3.7

Summary 3.8 Review Questions 3.9 References 3.1 Introduction In the previous unit we

have discussed the pedagogical principles of the earlier times, and the educational reforms of the 21st century. In this unit we will discuss on the perspectives of Gandhiji's NaiTaleem - Basic education and explore the ideas from his autobiography, The Story of My Experiments with Truth, relevant for our language classrooms. Basic Education (1951) highlights a philosophy of life, some of which we have incorporated in our classrooms. Among these are non-use of physical force (corporal punishment) and violence. We had also adopted authority based moral force in bringing social order. In Gandhiji's philosophy, basic education is an important factor in shaping an individual, which can be achieved psychologically by an education which puts first things first, talks about the limitation in terms of good life, and does no place undue emphasis on material life. 3.2 Objectives After reading the unit you will be able to

NSOU PGEL-10 29 a) Understand Gandhiji's concept on education b) Draw insights on language teaching from the concepts on Basic Education c) Reflect on purposeful learning 3.3 Principles of Basic Education Basic education focuses on physical labor along with intellectual activities. These individual contributions to perfections should be based on principles of love, non- violence, truth and justice. Every conscious and honest worker is worthy of respect. Education is not literacy alone. Education is training of the mind and body and awakening of one's soul. There are three functions mentioned in the approaches to education and learning. These functions are: Sociological Pedagogical Spiritual Sociological function: points out that there should be minimum education to all children. This system of education is indigenous, and therefore national. The society values the need for applications of knowledge. For example, in the school days, we were summoned for not keeping our bicycles properly. The defaulter was hunted out and asked to arrange all other bicycles neatly in the cycle stand. We also had SSSP (Social Service School Performance) classes every week. During the class we cleaned the overhead light shade and made the classroom tidy. Do you have any experiences of the kind in your school? Your answer: Pedagogical function: basic education must be imparted through mother tongue. In the method of teaching learning practice, some form of art or handicraft must be included. For our second language class, can we impart the lessons only through mother tongue? How much of the native language can be used in a language class? Your answer: The knowledge of the first language is an asset for a second language learner,

NSOU PGEL-10 30 which can be utilized in the language classroom. But since the language we want our learners to learn is English, and the context of learning is limited for them, first language use may be minimized for the second language class. However, Gandhiji in The Story of My Experiments with Truth mentions, "It has always been my conviction that parents who train their children to think and talk in English from their infancy betray their children and their country. They deprive them of the spiritual and social heritage of the nation, and render them to that extent unfit for the service of the country." (p. 281). Spiritual function: the spiritual function focuses on achieving the welfare of all. This function is based on the underlying notion of observing the human values and understanding the pressing problems of mankind in the present scenario. For example, "The spiritual training of the boys was a much more difficult matter than their physical and mental training. I relied little on religious books for the training of the spirit. Of course I believed that every student should be acquainted with the elements of his own religion and have a general knowledge of his own scriptures, and therefore I provided for such knowledge as best I could. But that, to my mind, was part of the intellectual training. Long before I undertook the education of the youngster of the Tolstoy Farm I had realized that the training of the spirit was a thing by itself. To develop the spirit is to build character and to enable one to work towards a knowledge of God and self-realization. And I held that this was an essential part of the training of the young, and that all training without culture of the spirit was of no use, and might be even harmful." (p. 303). What is your opinion? Your answer: In Gandhiji's opinion, the teacher should live a straight (simple) life for the sake of his students. The teacher should try to be an eternal object-lesson to the learners and learn from them. The child naturally imbibes education in a well-ordered household. In the first five years of life, the education of a child begins with conception. The learning during this time is not repeated later on. So the spiritual training of the child begins from home. Gandhiji summarizes in three points from his reading of Unto This Last. The teachings are as follows:

NSOU PGEL-10 31 1. That the good of the individual is contained in the good of all. 2. That a lawyer's work has the same value as the barber's, in as much as all have the same right of earning their livelihood from their work. 3. That a life of a labour, i.e. the life of the tiller of the soil and the handicraftsman, is the life worth living." (p. 270). On spiritual competence, he mentions, "Perfection or freedom from error comes only from grace, and so seekers after God have left us mantras, such as Ramanama, hallowed by their own austerities and charged with their purity. Without an unreserved surrender to His grace, complete mastery over thought is impossible. This is the teaching of every great book of religion, ..." (p. 286). 3.4 Activity oriented purposeful learning Experiential learning is linking work with knowledge. Gandhiji had stressed on vocational efficiency, linking learning through economic and craft based education. His aim was to embed learning through activities and not limit education as a learning skill only. For example learning shoe making, candle making etc. exposes the learner to the field. But continuous exposure to the making of the same craft for a number of years may turn the learner to be efficient in earning money, and at the same time inefficient in his intellectual competence. How can this be overcome? Do you have any suggestions for activity based learning for the second language classroom? Your answer: There is a need for time management when a learner is exposed to the skill of making a craft. The learner may be told that the objective of linking vocational education in the learning was to enroot the inherent principles behind the making of the craft. Thus the total time spent for the activity can reduced by the actual class time to draw the learners' attention in the science behind the making of the craft/ item. For the language classroom, experiential learning has been implementing for some years now. For instance, Learners can be asked to plant sapling in flower pots and at the same time describe the activity. In experiential learning good and bad learner come together to carry out a task.

NSOU PGEL-10 32 "...if good children are taught together with bad ones and thrown into their company, they will lose nothing... . Children wrapped up in cotton wool are not always proof against all temptation or contamination. It is true, however that when boys and girls of all kinds of upbringing are kept and taught together, the parents and the teachers are put to the severest test. They have constantly to be on the alert."(p.306). How far is this applicable for the language classroom? What are your reflections for the learning process? Your answer: This is true for the second language class. The activities in classroom often include group work. The individuals in a group include bright, weak and average students. The weak students try to pick up in group activities, where as the average students improve a lot. The bright students do not lose anything from the activity. They complete their task perfectly in time and in the process motives other individuals of the group to come up with answers. 3.5 Teacher training and development The common elements in Basic education are inclusive learning of productive skills under a supervisor and inculcating the attitude of truth so that the learner can take the right decision and face the world fearlessly. "A devotee of Truth may not do anything in deference to convention. He must always hold himself open to correction, and whenever he discovers himself to be wrong he must confess it at all cost and atone for it." (p. 314).Gandhiji in a teacher trainee's discussion, 1939, had stated the following: "Our education has got to be revolutionized. The brain needs to be educated through the hand. If I were a poet, I could write poetry on the possibilities of the five fingers. What make you think that the mind is everything and the hands and feet nothing? Those who do not train their hands, who go through the ordinary rut of education, lack 'music' in their life. All their faculties are not trained. Mere book knowledge does not interest the child so as to hold his attention fully. The brain gets weary of mere words, and the child's mind begins to wander. The hand does the things it ought not to do, the eye sees the things it ought not to see, the ear hears the things

NSOU PGEL-10 33 it ought not to hear, and they do not do, see or hear, respectively what they ought to. They are not taught to make the right choice and so their education often proves their ruin. An education which does not teach us to discriminate between good and bad, to assimilate the one and eschew the other is a misnomer." In Gandhiji's view, learning and knowledge acquisition through participation in productive work is an effective and critical developmental tool at different stages of childhood and adolescence. Integration of 'head, hand and heart' is essential for all children irrespective of their social and economic background for the development of values and skills. The idea of education and work had been experimented through various initiatives all over the world. In spite of the benefits of the pedagogic roll of work in education, it had not been widely adopted in the main stream education. In India, this is present in policy and documents and being implemented for some schools but not at the center of all curricular activity. Why do you think this is so? Your answer: Basic education considers the teacher as a textbook in building the knowledge base of a learner. The teacher provides opportunities to the child to grow with wisdom, and cope with situations in daily life. The student observes the conduct and practices of teacher daily and tries to extract values even long after he had left school. Here is an illustration from the story of my experiments with truth: "It is possible for a teacher situated miles away to affect the spirit of the pupils by his way of living. It would be idle for me, if I were a liar, to teach boys to tell the truth. A cowardly teacher would never succeed in making his boys valiant, and a stranger to self-restraint could never teach his pupils the value of self-restraint. I saw, therefore, that I must be an eternal object-lesson to the boys and girls living with me. ... One of them was wild, given to lying, and quarrelsome. On one occasion he broke out most violently. I was exasperated. I never punished my boys, but this time I was very angry. I tried to reason with him. But he was adamant and even tried to overreach me. At last I picked up a ruler lying at hand and delivered a blow on his arm. I trembled as I struck him. I dare say he noticed it. This was an entirely novel experience for them all. The boy cried out and begged to be forgiven. He cried not because the beating was painful to him; he could, if he had been so minded, have paid

NSOU PGEL-10 34 me back in the same coin, being a stoutly built youth of seventeen; but he realized my pain in being driven to this violent resource. Never again after this incident did he disobey me. But I still repent that violence. I am afraid I exhibited before him that day not the spirit, but the brute in me." (p.304). Can you identify the elements of conscience and wisdom from the above illustration? Your answer: Gandhiji had his unique technique of enhancing physical and mental talents of the child. He believed that each one of us have our own hidden genius of goodness which needs to be explored. The child unconscious of his arguments with Gandhiji had gained consciousness after he had witnessed the pain of his mentor while hitting him. Gandhiji's confession in the last two lines, projects the truth of the situation. Every teacher has faced such contexts while trying to teach. The way we deal with the context can only make the difference. 3.6 NaiTaleem and main stream education Experiential learning has helped to integrate the gap between knowledge and skill. Learners from standard 3 to 10 can develop a number of competences with the inclusion of work as part of the curriculum. These are cognitive, social and affective competences. Cognitive Competence: In the language classroom, students can develop cognitive competences by suggesting a plan for a work. This task may be learning to prepare tea or juice. First, they can be orderly in the activity deciding on the process and prioritizing the steps. Next, they can learn the function of appropriate tools and describe how to use them. After that they can go for the preparation of the item and finally plan for making new and innovative items. Social competence: for social competence one can be trained in the exchange of language forms involving interaction with others. Students may be trained to keep the neighbourhood clean, harmonize their actions with the nature and learn to value nature. They can work in a group, share and help others. They can learn to listen to instructions and take turns in following the directions. In the process, they will learn to clearly communicate in the language and will be open to other's point of view.

NSOU PGEL-10 35 Affective competence: these are competences which result from emotions and determine the strength of the character. Students can learn to manage their emotions, self discipline and ability to carry on in difficult situations. They can be exposed to new experiences and develop on patience, empathy and positive attitudes. Let us take a look at an illustration from The Story of My Experiments with Truth. "It was no easy thing to issue the first number of Indian Opinion from Phoenix. … In the initial stages, we all had to keep late hours before the day of publication. Every one, young and old, had to help in folding the sheets. We usually finished our work between ten o'clock and midnight. But the first night was unforgettable. The pages were locked, but the engine refused to work. We had got out an engineer from Durban to put up the engine and set it going. He and West tried their hardest, but in vain. Everyone was anxious. West, in despair, at last came to me, with tears in his eyes, and said, 'The engine will not work, I am afraid we cannot issue the paper in time.' …. 'What about the hand-wheel?' I said, comforting him." "Where have we the men to work? He replied. 'We are not enough to cope with the job. It requires relays of four men each, and our own men are all tired.' …. I woke up the carpenters and requested their co-operation. They needed no pressure. … Our own men were of course ready. …. thus we went on until 7.00 am. There was still a good deal to do. I therefore suggested to West that the engineer might now be asked to get up and try again to start the engine, so that if we succeeded we might finish in time. West woke him up, and he immediately went into the engine room. And lo and behold! The engine worked almost as soon as he touched it. The whole press rang with peals of joy. …. For me the failure of the engine had come as a test for us all, and its working in the nick of time as the fruit of our honest and earnest labours. The copies were dispatched in time, and everyone was happy." (p.273-274) Can you discuss the competences from the above illustration? Your answer: The above illustration clearly demonstrates all the three competences discussed above. This is an example of cognitive competence because the men had to learn how to operate a hand printing machine. It is social competence since they were working as a team, and in turns to get the job done. At that hour, when one group was

NSOU PGEL-10 36 working, the other group was sleeping/ taking rest. They had shown confidence in using the equipment and enthusiasm in engaging in the work. Affective competence is although the illustration, as they were working in difficult circumstances, trying to get the printing done in time, all through the night on a hand wheel when the engine was not working. 3.7 Summary The unit on indigenous innovations in pedagogy from Basic Education is on the conceptual knowledge, to be taught contextually and learnt with constructive participation in work. This is an opportunity for you to delve into the teachings of Gandhiji, and try to implement them in your classroom. The discussion on experiential learning is interpreted in terms of experience of performance evolving reality. The indigenous innovations suggested by you for your classroom can be your reflection of Gandhiji's basic education. 3.8 Review Questions 1. Discuss the principles of Basic Education. 2. What is Experiential Learning? 3. Discuss the competencies that can be acquired in Experiential Learning. 4. In what ways can the ideas from affective competence utilized in the language classroom? 5. How can social competence contribute in language development? 6. Design an activity on developing cognitive competence. 7. Design an activity on developing affective competence. 8. Taking the right decision is a feature of Teacher Training. Discuss with an illustration from your experience. 9. Design an activity on pedagogic function. 10. "The knowledge of the first language can be utilized in the language classroom" Do you agree? Why? Why not?

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NSOU PGEL-10 38 Unit 4 Critical Pedagogy Mahendra Gupta's Ramakrishna - Kathamrita Structure 4.1 Introduction 4.2 Objectives 4.3 Sequences in language learning 4.4 Methodological Principles 4.5 Summary 4.6 Review Questions 4.7 References and Reading List 4.8 Notes 4.1 Introduction This unit is on Kathamrita's concept of 'teaching'. The selections may seem old but they have much to offer in the field of Language Teaching which is relevant today. This is an opportunity to see the pioneering works of the earlier times from which we can draw professional ideas. The unit discusses the major landmarks in language learning and elaborates them with illustrations from Sri Ramakrishna's teachings on philosophy of life (as recorded in The Gospel of Sri Ramakrishna 1) . These illustrations can be looked upon as good models in pedagogy. As recorded by Mahendranath Gupta in 1882-1886 , Sri Ramakrishna's conversations, originally in Bengali language are with his disciples, devotees and visitors. He conveyed his thoughts on his realization of truth in formal language. Homely parables and illustrations from the observations of the daily life were common in his explanations. Considering the systematic research on second language acquisition as a recent development the long tradition of language teaching had been linked to theories of mind and thought, philosophy and education. From the historical times till the recent times, rote teaching of forms and rules has co-existed with the attention to meaning in the acquisition process. Memorization is an important process in the privileged

NSOU PGEL-10 39 status to 'learn' in the language. A concept that emerged in the 1950s and 1960s with the study of learner language was interlanguage (Selinker, 1972). This is the systematic language developed by the second language learner to develop their internal grammar. The various processes of this language development are simplification, overgeneralization, restructuring, U - shaped behaviour and fossilization. Now let us find out how these processes can be explained with illustrations from Kathamrita. 4.2 Objectives After reading this unit you will be able to a) Understand language development process b) Reflect on teaching ideas c) Explore story telling as a teaching method d) Analyse the basic concepts of teaching 4.3 Sequences in language learning Overgeneralization is the application of the form/ rules of the target language where it can apply and where it cannot apply. The attempt to fit regular patterns for irregular forms is a common over regularization in morphology. The over use of -ed with irregular verbs (as in comed, goed, falled) is over-regularization. Once the process of overgeneralization has occurred, the learner's task is to learn to retreat from the process and adjust the application in relevant context. Let us look at the following illustration to understand the process and see how it explains the retreat from process. "Once a tigress attacked a flock of goats. As she sprang on her prey, she gave birth to a cub and died. The cub grew up in the company of the goats. The goats ate grass and the cub followed their example. They bleated; the cub bleated too. Gradually it grew to be a big tiger. One day another tiger attacked the same flock. It was amazed to see the grass-eating tiger. Running after it, the wild tiger at last seized it, whereupon the grass-eating tiger began to bleat. The wild tiger dragged it to the water and said; 'Look at your face in the water. It is just like mine. Here is a little meat. Eat it.' Saying this, it thrust some meat into its mouth. But the grass-eating tiger would not swallow it and began to bleat again. Gradually, however, it got the taste for blood and came to relish the meat. Then the wild tiger said: 'Now you see there is no difference between you and me. Come along and follow me into the forest.' (TGSR 232-33) 2 .

NSOU PGEL-10 40 Task 1 The above illustration of Ramakrishna, originally describes the Guru's grace on the disciple. The story is also an example of overgeneralization, by the cub, where it assumes itself to be a goat. Can you map this illustration to overgeneralization in language learning context? Your answer: The cub in the flock of goats had assumed itself to be a goat in absence of a proper context. This is overgeneralization towards false identity. It was later on dragged out of the flock and shown its identity by the wild tiger. Thus the cub had to retreat from the behaviors of the flock and adjust to the relevant context appropriate for a tiger. For example, the L2 learner in our contexts, there is the common overgeneralization of using -ing with the different verbs in the same grammatical form. The other overgeneralization processes exist in the learning of utterances and grammatically correct utterances. This is due to mismatching of grapheme phoneme sequences. After the process of overgeneralization has occurred, the learning process takes a U-turn to retreat from overgeneralization and adjust to relevant application of the language forms in contexts. Task 2 The above illustration talks of U-shaped behaviour. Explain Why. Your answer: The illustration also presents U-shaped behaviour. In the illustration, the wild tiger in the form of a teacher taught the cub how to reestablish itself in the streak of tigers. U-shaped behaviour is a pattern in the process of interlanguage where learners produce errors which they did not produce earlier. These errors then are worn away from repeated admonitions and reestablished later. In our contexts, U-shaped behaviour occurs in the application of the definite article. With the objective of learning missing articles in contexts, learners apply article in contexts where it is not required at all. (For example: The gold is yellow, Iron is the useful metal etc.) Restructuring is defined as "the appearance of correct, or native like, forms at an early stage of development which then undergo a process of attrition, only to be reestablished at a

NSOU PGEL-10 41 later stage.'(Smith and Kellerman, 1989). In the restructuring process of interlanguage, learners experience U-shaped behaviour. Let us take another illustration. "At one time there was a drought in a certain part of the country. The farmers began to cut long canals to bring water to their fields. One farmer was stubbornly determined. He took a vow that he would not stop digging until the canal connected his field with the river. He set to work. The time came for his bath, and his wife sent their daughter to him with oil. 'Father', said the girl, 'it is already late. Rub your body with oil and take your bath.' 'Go away!' thundered the farmer. 'I have too much to do now.' It was past mid-day, and the farmer was still at work in his field. He didn't even think of his bath. Then his wife came and said: 'Why haven't you taken your bath? The food is getting cold. You overdo everything. You can finish the rest tomorrow or even today after dinner.' The farmer scolded her furiously and ran at her, spade in hand, crying: 'What? Have you no sense? There's no rain. The crops are dying. What will the children eat? You'll all starve to death. I have taken a vow not to think of bath and food today before I bring water to my field.' The wife saw his state of mind and ran away in fear. Through a whole day's back-breaking labour the farmer managed by evening to connect his field with the river. Then he sat down and watched the water flowing into his field with a murmuring sound. His mind was filled with peace and joy. He went home, called his wife, and said to her, 'Now give me some oil and prepare me a smoke.' With serene mind he finished his bath and meal, and retired to bed, where he snored to his heart's content. The determination he showed is an example of strong renunciation." "Now, there was another farmer who was also digging a canal to bring water to his field. His wife, too, came to the field and said to him: 'It's very late. Come home. It isn't necessary to overdo things.'The farmer didn't protest much, but put aside his spade and said to his wife, 'Well, I'll go home since you ask me to.' The man never succeeded in irrigating his field. This is a case of mild renunciation." (TGSR, 166) 3 . Task 3 The above illustration is an example of restructuring or self-reorganization. Can you discuss why? Your answer: The first farmer had self-reorganized his schedule in order to bring water to his

NSOU PGEL-10 42 field. He had 'taken a vow not to think of bath and food' before he could bring water to his field. The second farmer on the other hand had not self-reorganized. He was on schedule for the daily task. To move away from overgeneralization, restructuring emerges. This restructuring process is accompanied by self-reorganization. If the reorganization phase does not emerge, then overgeneralization will exist. For the second language learner, the process of restructuring refines their L2 representations. The fifth process in the discussion is fossilization. This is a phenomenon, where the first language influences become permanent errors in the way second language is spoken and written. Fossilization results from lack of practice and exposure, as well as lack of positive attitudes towards the second language. Fossilization helps to identify individual differences in the learning phenomena. Let's look at an illustration. "In a forest there lived a holy man who had many disciples. One day he taught them to see God in all beings and, knowing this, to bow low before them all. A disciple went to the forest to gather wood for the sacrificial fire. Suddenly he heard an outcry: 'Get out of the way! A mad elephant is coming!' All but the disciple of the holy man took to their heels. He reasoned that the elephant was also God in another form. Then why should he run away from it? He stood still, bowed before the animal, and began to sing its praises. The mahout of the elephant was shouting: 'Run away! Run away!' But the disciple didn't move. The animal seized him with its trunk, cast him to one side, and went on its way. Hurt and bruised, the disciple lay unconscious on the ground. Hearing what had happened, his teacher and his brother disciples came to him and carried him to the hermitage. With the help of some medicine he soon regained consciousness. Someone asked him, 'You knew the elephant was coming- why didn't you leave the place? 'But', he said, 'our teacher has told us that God Himself has taken all these forms, of animals as well as men. Therefore, thinking it was only the elephant God that was coming, I didn't run away.' At this the teacher said: 'Yes, my child, it is true that the elephant God was coming; but the mahout God forbade you to stay there. Since all are manifestations of God, why didn't you trust the mahout's words? You should have heeded the words of the mahout God.'" (TGSR, 84-85) 4 . Task 4 The above illustration is an example of permanent cessation to learning. Can you explain the reason why this is so? Your answer:

NSOU PGEL-10 43 The disciple of the holy man had leant to see God in all forms of beings. Thus he did not see the danger in standing on the way of a mad elephant. His previous knowledge and his turning of blind eye to warnings of the others in the forest had forbidden him to escape from the danger, before him. In the language learning context, there are two reasons for permanent cessation to learning. For some learners it is for short periods of time, i.e. learners can develop positive attitudes towards the target language with sufficient exposure and practice. But if it is not for short periods, then learners may not be enjoying optimal learning conditions and missing out the success of ultimate attainment. Here the teacher has to seek out the learning areas, bring in changes (for example, one which is adapted for this unit - story telling) and variability to stop the cessation towards learning. Simplification is a learner strategy where simple and complex messages are conveyed with little language. This is because the language forms that are needed in the context have not been learnt. Thus only isolated instances are integrated into the system. Simplification can develop from ineffective instruction. Let us consider the following illustration. "Some cowherd boys used to tend their cows in a meadow where a terrible poisonous snake lived. Everyone was on the alert for fear of it. One day a brahmachari was going along the meadow. The boys ran to him and said: 'Reverend sir, please don't go that way. A venomous snake lives over there.' 'What of it, my good children?' said the brahmachari. 'I am not afraid of the snake. I know some mantras.' So saying, he continued on his way along the meadow. But the cowherd boys, being afraid, did not accompany him. In the mean time the snake moved swiftly toward him with upraised hood. As soon as it came near, he recited a mantra, and the snake lay at his feet like an earthworm. The brahmachari said: 'Look here. Why do you go about doing harm? Come, I will give you a holy word. By repeating it you will learn to love God. Ultimately you will realize Him and so get rid of your violent nature.' Saying this, he taught the snake a holy word and initiated him into spiritual life. The snake bowed before the teacher and said, 'Revered sir, how shall I practice spiritual discipline? 'Repeat that sacred word', said the teacher, 'and do no harm to anybody.' As he was about to depart, the brahmachari said, 'I shall see you again.' Some days passed and the cowherd boys noticed that the snake would not bite. They threw stones at it. Still it showed no anger; it behaved as if it were an earthworm. One day, one of the boys came close to it, caught it by the tail, and, whirling it round and round, dashed it again and again on the ground and threw it away. The snake vomited blood and became unconscious. It was stunned. It could not move. So, thinking it dead, the boys went their way. Late at night the snake regained consciousness. Slowly and with great difficulty it dragged itself into its hole; its bones were broken and it could scarcely move. Many days passed. The

NSOU PGEL-10 44 snake became a mere skeleton covered with a skin. Now and then, at night, it would come out in search of food. For fear of the boys it would not leave its hole during the day-time. Since receiving the sacred word from the teacher, it had given up doing harm to others. It maintained its life on dirt, leaves, or the fruit that dropped from the trees. About a year later the brahmachari came that way again and asked about the snake. The cowherd boys told him that it was dead. But he couldn't believe them. He knew that the snake would not die before attaining the fruit of the holy word with which it had been initiated. He found his way to the place and, searching here and there, called it by the name he had given it. Hearing the teacher's voice, it came out of its hole and bowed before him with great reverence. 'How are you? asked the brahmachari. 'I am well, sir', replied the snake. 'But', the teacher asked. 'why are you so thin? The snake replied: 'Revered sir, you ordered me not to harm anybody. So I have been living only on leaves and fruit. Perhaps that has made me thinner.' The snake had developed the quality of sattva; it could not be angry with anyone. It had totally forgotten that the cowherd boys had almost killed it. The brahmachari said: 'It can't be mere want of food that has reduced you to this state. There must be some other reason. Think a little.' Then the snake remembered that the boys had dashed it against the ground. It said: 'Yes, revered sir, now I remember. The boys one day dashed me violently against the ground. They are ignorant, after all. They didn't realize what a great change had come over my mind. How could they know I wouldn't bite or harm anyone? The brahmachari exclaimed: 'What a shame! You are such a fool! You don't know how to protect yourself. I asked you not to bite, but I didn't forbid you to hiss. Why didn't you scare them by hissing?" (TGSR, 85-86) 5 . Learners are not always ready to learn and are not motivated at times. This results in simplification. Simplification inhibits the learning process. Overgeneralization, however, fosters the learning process. Higher levels of overgeneralization along with lower levels of simplification lead to language development. Instruction in the above illustration was effective as well as counterproductive. Task 5 The above illustration is an example of the notion "Teachers cannot teach everything they want to". What was not learnt and simplified in the illustration? Can you explain? You answer:

NSOU PGEL-10 45 In the above illustration, the snake had simplified the brahmachari's message of not harming anyone. As a consequence, it had failed to protect itself and had suffered torture from the cowherd boys. The snake had to learn to protect itself without harming anyone. Language learners who are developmentally not ready abide by simplification despite favorable conditions for learning. This problem came be overcome with the aid of high quality instruction. This is discussed in the following section. In discussions on how to teach a second language, we would next focus on 'what' and 'how' of instructional design or the methodological principles and pedagogic procedures. 4.4 Methodological principles In the wide range of settings and situations of language teaching, there is often more than one reasonable way for the formal learning to take place. With the shift of focus from the teacher to the learner it is realized that, each learner is an individual with distinct mental schema and attitudes. "... different learners have different overall learning styles, ... an individual learner utilizes different approaches to learning at different stages in the learning process." (Gagné 1965: 58-59). The responsibility of the professional is to know the best practice, from a given context. Take a look at the following illustration as an example. "The mother cooks the same fish differently for her children, that each one may have what suits his stomach. For some she cooks the rich dish of pilau. But not all children can digest it. For those with weak stomachs she prepares soup. Some, again, like fried fish or pickled fish. It depends on one's taste." (TGSR, 189) 6 . Task 6 What inferences can you draw on multiple individual choices from the illustration? How can a teacher be aware of the multiple cognitive and personality factors and utilize them for different learning objectives. Your answer: Learners of second language, for the learning of first language prior to the new language have already acquired certain learning skills and abilities. These are the individual choices which the illustration presents as cooking of the same fish differently. The teacher is the 'mother' who is aware of the individual choices and cares about his/

NSOU PGEL-10 46 her teaching. Within the classroom, the principles of the teaching learning processes are initiated at an early stage. For this, the teacher needs to adopt certain pedagogic procedures. Pedagogic procedures are mostly based on teacher judgements on a number of choices for a group of same learners or different learners. Let us look at the following illustration. "The mind will take the colour you dye it with. It is like white clothes just returned from the laundry. If you dip them in red dye, they will be red. If you dip them in blue or green, they will be blue or green. They will take only the colour you dip them in, whatever it may be." (TGSR, 138) 7 . In the context of language learning for young learners, the language produced can be taught better if the learning principles are connected with articulations learnt earlier. This learning is focused mainly on problem solving activities. Task 7 The above illustration can be linked to the context of developing skills in using language for normal language use situations. Can you explain how? Your answer: Here the different colours are the different language usage situations, where the learner has to deal with the language. The 'mind' is the learner who learns by engaging in activities and working on tasks. These tasks can be language forms (grammar forms, vocabulary) in an arbitrary order, i.e. the order in which the different colours of the dye would be applied to. The tasks can be on discrete bits of information about language in different contexts with the outcome of developing the ability to utilize the language for communication. Feedbacks, according to Michael Long, for example can be in terms of a) use of a rule or explanation, b) corrective recasts and c) cannot be judged well or ill-founded without knowing the context. For instance, the supra- segmentals, and their actual applications in contexts. Learners often fail to master the topic in detail and ill-judge the applications. But the problem with the learning of these features cannot be generalized for all age groups. Let us look at the following illustration. "All men look alike, to be sure, but they have different natures. Some have an excess of sattva, others an excess of rajas, and still others an excess of tamas. You must have noticed that the cakes known as puli all look alike. But their contents are

NSOU PGEL-10 47 very different. Some contain condensed milk, some coconut kernel, and others mere boiled kalai pulse." (TGSR, 141) 8 . Task 8 This illustration relates to different language learning strategies. Can you come up with your explanation? Your answer: The 'puli' is the general approach to language learning, and the different 'contents' are different learning styles and strategies. Students use different strategies to learn a language. Let us consider the two different learning styles, analytical and global. Students who prefer logical reasoning or analytic learning style tend to choose strategies such as contrastive analysis, rule learning, learning from fragmenting language units. Global learning style students use the main idea or the bigger picture for working on the details of the task. Now, let us look at this from another angle. Kathambrita discusses the terms sattva, rajas and tamas. The distinction of the three Sanskrit terms sattva, rajas and tamas is explained in the following illustration: "Once a man was going through a forest, when three robbers fell upon him and robbed him of all his possessions. One of the robbers said, 'What's the use of keeping this man alive?' So saying, he was about to kill him with his sword, when the second robber interrupted him, saying: 'Oh, no! What is the use of killing him? Tie him hand and foot and leave him here.' The robbers bound his hands and feet and went away. After a while third robber returned and said to the man: 'Ah, I am sorry. Are you hurt? I will release you from your bonds.' After setting the man free, the thief said: 'Come with me. I will take you to the public highway.' After a long time they reached the road. Then the robber said: 'Follow this road. Over there is your house.' At this the man said: Sir, you have been very good to me. Come with me to my house. 'Oh, no! the robber replied. 'I can't go there. The police will know it.' This world itself is the forest. The three robbers prowling here are sattva, rajas and tamas. It is they that rob a man of the Knowledge of Truth. Tamas wants to destroy him. Rajas binds him to the world. But sattva rescues him from the clutches of rajas and tamas. Under the protection of sattva, man is rescued from anger, passion, and the other evil effects of tamas. Further, sattva loosens the bonds of the world. But sattva is also a robber. It cannot give him the ultimate knowledge of truth, though it shows him the road

NSOU PGEL-10 48 leading to the Supreme Abode of God."(TGSR, 267) 9 . Thus after being robbed, the man, who was going through the forest, went through three kinds of judgements. First, on getting killed; second, on getting bonded; and third, on getting released. The above illustration is a wide example of negative assessment in a natural context. Negative assessment is the aggression for assessor and humiliation for the one who is assessed. This is not assessment at all and can be eliminated. Negative assessment, is constructive if given supportively and warmly. The third robber was supportive towards positive assessment and had returned to the man after a while. Less successful learners are unaware of the translation and memorization strategies they use. Though, in the learning context, these are unavoidable strategies even today. The individual learners today are taught in regular class activities how to use a strategy and transfer it to new contexts. The tamas robber wanted to kill the man. The rajas robber had used a strategy to keep the man alive, while sattva robber had thought of a strategy to ensure his safe return. Learners who are under the spell of blind training without realizing the strategy being used are under the spell of tamas. Here the learning hinders the application of the strategies to new tasks. High performing learners use cognitive and metacognitive strategies. They use the strategies of rajas and sattva. The sattva robber had used a strategy whereby he could guess the outcomes of the rajas robber's strategy. He had scanned that the man will be free and can safely return home. Sattva and rajas together form the global style. Both of them had argued their reasons. Rajas had considered sparing the man's life, contrasting his views with tamas. Rajas has also used analytical strategy. Sattva did not speak this context. He had judged his actions in absence of tamas and rajas. Task 9 The above illustration be taken as an explanation in human learning and performance. Discuss in terms of implicit and explicit language learning. Your answer: Implicit learning is the learning of complex information in an accidental manner. This refers to acquiring skills and knowledge without conscious efforts and awareness. Explicit learning on the other hand is the learner's conscious efforts to master some material and solve a problem. The man in the illustration was unaware of the

NSOU PGEL-10 49 consequences of travelling through the forest and therefore had to bear with the incidents. He had accidentally learnt about the incidents around him and was unaware of the robbers and had experienced their judgements implicitly. In the learning context, learners unaware of the learning strategies they use are less effective and experience negative feedback from the context. Negative feedback on errors can constrain what is learnable and therefore what is teachable. So the teacher needs to consider the 'relevant' and 'needful' instruction. Instruction with positive effects witness permeable developmental sequences. Let us look at the following illustration. "Once a bird sat on the mast of a ship. When the ship sailed through the mouth of the Ganges into the 'black waters' of the ocean, the bird failed to notice the fact. When it finally became aware of the ocean, it left the mast and flew north in search of land. But it found no limit to the water and so returned. After resting awhile it flew south. There too it found no limit to the water. Panting for breath the bird returned to the mast. Again, after resting awhile, it flew east and then west. Finding no limit to the water in any direction, at last it settled down on the mast of the ship." (TGSR, 425) 10 . The bird on the mast of the ship in ocean had blindly flown several times in the different directions in search of land. Without realizing where to find the trace of land, and finally being unsuccessful in the search, it had to settle down on the mast of the ship. Task 10 Can you relate the illustration with explicit knowledge? Your answer: The bird in the illustration, knew how to solve its problem, it had procedural knowledge. It had made conscious efforts to find the land. However it did not have declarative knowledge and knowledge of facts. Explicit knowledge is the knowledge that the bird was aware of. It knew it had to fly in search of land. It knew the reasons behind its flight. This is metacognitive knowledge. Metacognitive knowledge is explicit knowledge. This knowledge was not sufficient for the bird to achieve its goal. Similarly, explicit knowledge is not a sufficient condition for metacognition. Thus its procedural knowledge had again made it perch on the mast.

NSOU PGEL-10 50 4.5 Summary Today the reality of a number of teaching situations is that teachers are users of carefully manipulated ideas of good teaching. The illustrations in the unit are included for sustaining the ideas within and interpret the language learning landmarks in discussion. Those persistent concerns of the teaching activity which cannot be properly judged were the main concerns for the selections and those were put in the discussion with the objective of finding ideas for the language practitioner. However, with the purpose of confronting our question on teaching, we need to continuously look around for the answers and pondering on the illustrations from Kathambrita is searching within a fountain of knowledge. In other terms from the words from Kathambrita, it is the sun light which "is better reflected by water than by earth, and still better by a mirror" (265). The reference to the originals is for detailed study of the excerpts. 4.6 Review Questions 1. What is implicit and explicit language learning? 2. Distinguish between procedural knowledge and explicit knowledge. 3. Discuss language learning strategies. 4. What is cessation to learning? 5. What is self-reorganization? 6. Discuss the differences in U-turn and over-generalization. 7. Everything cannot be taught? Do you agree? Justify. 8. What is simplification in language learning? 9. Discuss different kinds of learners. 10. Discuss an activity on developing language naturally. 4.7 References and Reading List Gagné, R. M. (1965). The conditions of learning and theory of instruction (1st ed.). New York, NY: Holt, Rinehart & Winston. Gupta. Mahendra. (1983). Kathamrita. Kolkata: Ananda Publishers.

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jal a nbo tabe na oya -kha oya r katha kabo.' stri gatik dekhe dour ̣ e pa liye gela. ca s ̣ a samasta din ha r ̣ bha nga parisram kare sandhya r samaye kha na r sange nadir jog kore dile. takhan ekba re base dekhte la glo je, nadi r jal ma t . he kulkul kore a sche. tar man takhan sa nta a r a nande pu rn ´ a halo. ba r ̣ i giye stri ke d'eke balle, 'ne ekhan tel de a r ektu ta ma k sa j.' ta rpar nischinta haye neye kheye sukhe bhnos bhnos kore nidra jete la glo! ei rok ti bra baira gyer upama . a rek jan ca s ̣ a —seo ma t ̣ he jal a nchila. ta r stri jakhan gela a r balle, 'anek bela hayeche ekhan eso, eta ba ra ba r ̣ ite kaj na i'; takan se besi uccaba cya na kore koda l rekhe stri ke balle- 'tui jakhan balchis to cal!' se ca s ̣ a r a r ma t ̣ he jal a na halo na !. eti manda baira gyer upama " (Kathamrita, 57) 4 "kona ek bane ekt ̣ i sa dhu tha ken. ta rn anekguli sis . ya. tini ek din sis . yader upadesh dilen je, sarbabhu te na ra yan ´ a chen, eit ̣ i jene sakalke namaska r karbe. ek din ekt ̣ i sis ̣ ya homer janya ka t a nte bane gichlo. eman samaye ekt . a rab ut ̣ hlye. 'ke kotha ye a cha pa la o—ekt ̣ a pa gla ha ti ja cche.' saba i pa liye gelo, kintu sis ̣ ya pa la la na ! se ja ne je, ha ti o je na ra yan ´ , tabe kena pa la ba? ei bale dar ̣ niye railo. namaska r kore stab-stuti karte la gla. edike ma thut cenciye balche 'pa la o, pa la yo'; sis ̣ yat ̣ i tabu nar ̣ lona . ses ̣ e ha ti t ̣ a sunr ̣ e kore tule niye ta ke ekdha re chunr ̣ e phele diye calegela. Sis ̣ ya khatabikhata hoye o achaitnya haye par ̣ e raila. ei samba d peye guru o anya nya sis ̣ yera ta ke a srame dhara dhari kore niye gelo. a r ous ̣ adh dite la glo. kha nikkhan ´ pare cetana hole oke keu jigna sa karle 'tumikeno ha ti a sche sune cale gelena ?' se balle, 'gurudeb je a ma ye bale diyechilen je, na ra yan ´ i ma nus ̣ , jib-jantu sab hayechen. Ta i a mi ha ti na ra yan ´ asche dekhe sekha n theke sare ja i na i.' Guru takhan ballen, ba ba , ha ti na ra yan ´ a schilen bat . e, ta satya; kintu ba ba , ma hutna ra yan ´ to toma ye ba ran ´ karechilen. Jadi sabai na ra yan ´ tabe ta r katha bisva s karlena kena? Ma hut na ra yan ´ er ka-tha o sunte haye." (Kathamrita, 21) 5 "ek ma t . he ek ra kha l garu cara to. Sei ma t ̣ he ekt ̣ a bhaya nak bis ̣ a kta sa p chila. sakalei sei sa per bhaye atanta sa bdha ne tha kta. ek din ekt ̣ i brahmacha ri sei ma t ̣ her path diye a schilo. ra kha lera dour ̣ e ese balle, tha kur maha saye! odik diye ja ben na. odike ekt ̣ a bhaya nak bis ̣ a kta sa p a che. brahmaca ri balle, 'ba ba ta hok; a ma r ta te bhaye na i, a mi mantra ja ni.' ei katha bale brahmaca ri sei dike cale gela. ra kha lera bhaye keu sange gelana . edike sa pt ̣ a phan ´ a ? tule dour ̣ e a sche, kintu ka che na a ste a ste brahmaca ri jei ekt ̣ i mantra par ̣ le amni sa pt . a kencor matan pa yer ka che par ̣ e raila. brahmaca ri balle, 'ore, tui kena parer hinsa kare ber . a s; a ye toke mantra deba. ei mantra japle tor bhagaba ne bhakti habe, bhagaba n la bh habe, a r hinsa prabitti tha kbe na .' ei bale se sa pke mantra dila.

NSOU PGEL-10 53 Sa pt¸a mantra peye guruke pran´a m karle are jigna sa karle, 't¸ha kur! ki kare sa dhana karba balun.' Guru ballen, 'ei mantra jap kar, a r karo hinsa korona .' brahmaca ri ja ba r samay balle, 'a mi a ba r a sbo.' ei rakame kichudin ja ye. ra kha lera dekhe je sa pt¸a a r ka mr¸a te a se na ! d'hyela ma re tabu ra g hayena , jena kêcor matan hoye geche. ekdin ekjan ra kha l ka che giye lya j dhare khub ghurpa k diye ta ke a chr . e a chr . e pheledile. sa pt¸a r mukhdiye rakta ut¸hte la glo a r se acetan hoye par¸lo. nar¸e na , cor¸e na . ra kha lera mane karle je sa pt¸a mare geche. ei mane kore ta ra sab cale gela. Anek ra tre sa per cetna halo. se a ste a ste atikas¸t¸e ta r garter bhetar cale gela. sari r curn´a-nar¸ba r sakti nei. anekdin pare jakhan asthicarmasa r takhan ba hire a ha rer ces¸t¸a ye ra tre ekba r carte a sto; bhaye diner bela a stona , mantra laoya abdhi a r hinsa karena . ma t¸i, pa ta , ga ch theke par . e geche eman phal kheye pra n´dha ran´ karto. pra y ekbatsar pare brahmaca ri sei pathe a ba r elo. esei sa per sandha n karle. ra kha lera balle, 'se sa pt¸a mare geche.' brahmaca ri kintu okatha bisva s halona ! se ja ne, je mantra o niyeche ta sa dhan na hole dehatya g habena . khu ~ nje khu ~ nje sei dike ta r deoya na mdhore d'akte la glo. se gurudeber a oya j sune garto theke beriye elo o khub bhakti bha be pran´a m karle. brahmaca ri jigna sa karle, 'tui kemon a chis?' se balle, 'a gne bha la a chi.' brahmaca ri balle, 'tabe tui eta roga haye gichis kena?' sa p balle, 't¸ha kur a pni a des karechen—ka ro hinsa korona . ta i pa ta t¸a phalt¸a kha i bale bodh haye roga haye gichi!' or sattvagun´ hayache kina , ta i ka ru upar krodh na i. se bhulei gichlo je ra kha lera mere phelba r jogar¸ kor¸echila! brahmaca ri balle, sudhu na kha oya r darun eru p abasta hayena . abasya a ro ka ran´ a che, bhebe dekha. sa pt¸a r mane par¸lo je ra kha lera a cha r¸ mere chilo. takhan se balle, 't¸ha kur mane par¸eche bat¸e, ra kha lera ekdin a cha r . mere chila. ta ra agna n ja ne na je a ma r maner ki abastha ; a mi je ka ha ke o ka mr¸a ba na ba konaru p anis¸t¸a karbo na , kemon kore ja nbe?' brahmaca ri balle, 'chi! tui eto boka a pna ke rakha karte ja nis na ; a mi ka mr¸a tei ba ran´ karechi, phõs karte naye! Phõs kore ta der bhaye dekha s na i kena?' dus¸t¸a loker ka che phõs kare ta der bhaye dekha te haye, pa che anis¸t¸a kare; ta der ga ye bhis d'ha lte na i, anis¸t¸a karte na i." (Kathamrita, 22-23). 6 "ek ma r pa c chele. ba r¸ite ma ch eseche. ma ma cher na na rakam byanjan korechen—ja r ja pet¸e saye! ka ro janya ma cherpoloya , ka ro janya ma cher ambal, ma cher car¸car¸i, ma ch bha ja , ei sab korechen. Jeti ja r bha lo la ge. Jeti ja r pet¸e saye" (Kathamrita, 18). 7 "man je range chopa be sei range chupbe. jeman dhopa gharer ka par. la le chopa o la l, ni le chopa o ni l, sabuj range chopa o sabuj. je range chopa o sei rangei chupbe." (Kathamrita, 37).

NSOU PGEL-10 54 8 "manus¸guli dekhte sab ek rakam, kintu bhinna prakriti. Ka ru bhitar sattva gun´ besi , karu rajo gun´ besi , karu tamogun´. Puliguli dekhte sab ekrakam. Kintu ka ru bhitar khs¸i rer por, ka ru bhitar na rikel cha i, ka ru bhitar kala yer por." (Kathamrita, 40). 9 "ekt . i lok baner path diye ja cchila. eman samaye ta ke tinjan d'a ka t ese dharle. ta ra ta r sarbasya ker¸enile. ekjan chor balle, a re lokt . a ke rekhe ki habe? ei katha bale khanr¸a diyekat¸te elo. takhan a r ekjon chor balle, na he ket . e ki habe? eke ha t-pa bhendhe ekha ne phele ja o. takhan ta ke ha t-pa bendhe oikha ne rekhe corera colegela. kichukhsan´ pare ta der madhye ekjan phire ese balle, 'a ha , toma rki legeche? eso ami toma r bandhan khule dii.' ta r bandhan khule diye chort¸i balle, 'a ma r sange sange eso, toma ye sadar ra sta ye tule dicchi.' anekhsan´ pare sadar ra sta ye ese balle, 'ei ra sta dhore ja o, oi toma r ba r¸i dekha ja cche.' takhan lokt¸i chorke balle, masa i a ma r anek upaka r karlen, ekhan a pnio a sun, a ma r ba ri parjanta ja ben.' chorballe, 'na , a ma r okha ne ja ba r jo na i, pulis t¸er pa be.' samsa ri aran´ya. ei bane sattva rajastama tin gun´ da ka t, ji ber tattva jna n ker¸e laye. tamogun´ ji ber bina s karte ja ye. rajogun´ samsa re baddha kare. kintusattvagun´, rajastama theke ba ca ye. sattva gun´ er a sray pele ka m-krodhei sab tamo gun´ theke rakhsa haye. sattva gun´ a ba r ji ber samsa r bandhan mocan kare. kintu sattva gun´ o chor, tattva jna n dite pa rena . kintu sei param dha me ja ba r pathe tule dey." (Kathamrita, 71). 10 "ekt¸a pa khi ja ha jer ma stuler upar base chilo. ja ha j ganga theke ka la pa nite par¸eche ta r hu s na i. Jakhan hu s hola takhan d'a nga kondike ja nba r janya uttar dike ur¸e gela. kotha o kul-kina ra na i, takhan phire elo. a ba r ekt . u bisra m kare dakshin´ dike gela. sedike o kul-kina ra na i. takhan ha pa te ha pa te phire elo. a ba r ekt . u jiriye eiru pe pu rba dike o paschim dike gela. jakhan dekhle kona dikei kul kina ra na i, takhan ma stuler upar cup kore base raila." (Kathamrita, 295).

NSOU PGEL-10 55 Module-2 : Pedagogical Innovations Unit 5 Pedagogic Innovations in English Structure 5.1 Introduction 5.2 Objectives 5.3 The Teaching Profession 5.4 Developments in the teaching profession 5.5 Teaching of English in India 5.5.1 The Early years 5.5.2 The First Innovation 5.6 Stages of Development of English Language Education 5.6.1 The Second Innovation 5.6.2 The Third Innovation - New Method 5.6.3 The Fourth Innovation - The Reading Method 5.6.4 The Fifth Innovation 5.6.5 The Sixth Innovation 5.7 Summary 5.8 Review Questions 5.9 References 5.1 Introduction We are on our way to becoming teachers. Therefore we need to know something about Pedagogy. What does this word mean? Would you like tell us? Write your answer in the space below: Your answer:

NSOU PGEL-10 56 The dictionary defines pedagogy as follows: 'the study of teaching methods'. If you go into the origin of the word, 'paed' means something connected with children - paediatrics is the science of treating children. Similarly, pedagogy, means knowing how to teach children or youngsters. When we teach adults, we don't use pedagogy, we use something else called 'andragogy'. This is just for your conceptual understanding of the term. 5.2 Objectives What are we going to discuss in this unit. We will discuss pedagogic innovations in English. Let us be very brief for the next three units are specific and deal with five different experiments carried out in different parts of the country.

language teaching across the globe Appreciate the evolutionary processes of this development Become familiar with different types of teaching Understand the characteristic features of different approaches to teaching. 5.3 The Teaching Profession We know the meaning of the word 'pedagogy'. There is a second word 'innovation' as part of the title of this unit. Is this an unfamiliar word? Perhaps, not! Innovation refers to a new way of doing things. We as human beings are always innovative. Have we not made several changes in our life? We need the most fashionable type of clothes, and these fashions keep changing faster than the clothes get old. We are interested in eating or tasting new types of food, try new vehicles, or redesign our houses etc. All these constitute innovations. If we get easily bored with old things and old ways of doing things, we should also get bored with old ways of teaching and innovate new ways of teaching. Aren't we justified in doing that? This unit largely looks at what innovations have come up in the field of English Language teaching over the years. Let us try and understand what we already know about teaching before we proceed further. Answer the following questions.

NSOU PGEL-10 57 You have been to a primary school, a high school and a college before taking up this course. In all these places you have been taught by your teachers. Did all the teachers teach you the same way? The answer obviously is 'no'. How was the teaching different at different levels? Do you remember something? Please note down your points here in the space below: Your answer: There cannot be definite answers for this question. Each one of you may have had a different experience. Teaching has been a very old profession. We often say 'mother is the first teacher'. If we believe in this statement, then, we should also accept that teaching is the oldest profession. The day the first women became a mother, a teacher was born in her (she became a teacher). So there cannot be any profession older than that of teaching. 5.4 Developments in the teaching profession Has teaching remained the same over centuries? Once again the answer is 'no'. The teaching methods are closely linked to a variety of factors such as the environment where learning happens, the social structure, the learner background being the most important of these factors. These three factors are closely interrelated and keep changing from time to time. Therefore the teaching methods also have changed. Let us take some examples. There was a time when no texts or books were available for writing had not been discovered. All teaching was merely oral transmission - or the students listened to the teacher, repeated what s/he said and memorised. With the discovery of writing systems, texts or books for independent reading were available and it was possible for one to understand the same text in different ways. This led to discussion, and provided a platform where the teacher and the student could be on the same platform. This was an innovation. This is an example from very ancient days. Let us consider modern period. Teaching has a history of more than three thousand years in the world history. There have been great teachers both in the Indian and the Western world. We have in India names like Vasishta, Vishwamitra, Shankaracharya, the Buddha, Guru Gobind

NSOU PGEL-10 58 Singh, Chaitanya Prabhu, Ramakrishna and others. In the Western world we have people like Socrates, Aristotle, Plato, Pythagoras, Archimedes Jesus Christ and Confucius from China and Shinto from Japan and Mohammed the Prophet from Macca. There could be many more. And you may add those names to this list. We do not know how these great teachers taught their students. But we know the developments in the modern times. We shall focus on that and in particular we shall focus on the teaching of English in India. So let us begin. 5.5 Teaching of English in India During your school days, you have read Indian history and about the British invasion of India. Do you remember some details from that course? When did the British come to India for the first time? Any guess? Your answer: 5.5.1 The Early years It was in the year 1600 CE that the British came to India under the leadership of Robert Clive. Their purpose of coming to India was trade, but soon this changed to invasion. They gradually captured the small princely states with their gun power and spread themselves to establish monarchy. India became part of the British Empire by the beginning of the 18th Century. This is an important aspect to note. Normally, people tend to pick up the language of the rulers with the intention of getting close to them and curry favours. Many Indians learnt English for this purpose. However, as the Empire extended, the British wanted a large number of people to man their offices. Importing people from Britain for the jobs of clerks and peons was expensive. So the officials thought of introducing English education in the Indian sub- continent. It was the year 1835. William Bentinck, largely known as a benevolent Governor General was the Head of the State of India. Lord Macaulay, an officer in his court, was his confidant. He presented his views which have subsequently become famous as 'Macaulay's Minutes.' The contents of this document were in the form of a set of reasons for introducing Western Education largely to prepare personnel 'who could

NSOU PGEL-10 59 think and work like the British' for the East India Company. Complementing this was a letter written by Raja Rammohan Roy who also requested the Governor General to introduce Western Education which would inculcate 'scientific temper' among the students. Such education would broaden the horizons of learning and knowledge at large. Both the requests were conceded and the result was the introduction of English Schooling system in India. What do you think happened next? Would you like to make a guess? Write your response. Your answer: 5.5.2 The First Innovation Do you know the most recent development (in 2019) in the Indian Education scene? New National Education Policy has been adopted. This is called an Education Commission? There have been several education commissions earlier which have brought about several changes in our education system. Can you name some education commissions that you are aware of? Your answer: University Education Commission, (Radhakrishnan Commission), School Education Commission (Mudaliar Commission), Kothari Commission, NPE 1986 etc. We may not discuss these commissions here, but you will benefit to know about their recommendations and perhaps your course in Methods and Concepts will discuss this in detail. The result of Macaulay's Minutes and Raja Rammohan Roy's letter was the setting up of an education commission under the chairmanship of Charles Wood. (By the time the recommendations of the committee were submitted in 1854, Bentinck was no more.) The report of this commission is called Wood's Despatch and the recommendations are fairly significant. This was the commission that recommended the establishment of grants-in-aid (salary and service protection to teachers),

NSOU PGEL-10 60 encouraging girls education, separate curriculum for rural and urban schools, introduction of English medium only in urban schools (to ensure availability of facilities for proper instruction) etc. Most of these had far reaching impact. The subsequent benefits were establishment of schools run by the government and taking over the administration of the existing universities in Calcutta, Madras and Bombay. English education became a reality in a formal way for the first time in India. This was perhaps the first innovation. 5.6 Stages of Development of English Language Education Let us take a closer look at the development of English language education in India in different stages. Each stage was conceived as an innovation, and rightly it was so. How was English taught during the early years? 5.6.1 The Second Innovation You must have come across the term The Grammar Translation Method which was very popular. This method was initially used in German Schools and with England becoming a highly industrialised nation, several migrant workers moved to England from Germany, France and other countries of Europe. These migrant workers had to learn English for their survival. So a method of teaching was developed which became popular as the Grammar Translation Method. The name should suggest how the teaching could have happened? Would you like to share your views on this? Please write down. Your answer: Let us briefly go into some of the features of this method. We know every language is governed by its own grammar. This grammar is distinct. Grammar can be conceived as a set of rules or concepts. Rules and concepts need to be understood to learn a language. A teacher has to explain the rules or concepts using the target language. If this is done, the learner will be at a loss. To overcome this hurdle, the teachers explained the rules and concepts using the learners' mother tongue. The teacher gave all the examples in the target language or the language to be learnt. This helped the learners understand the concepts better.

NSOU PGEL-10 61 To help learners practice the language, passages from classical texts were given and these had to be translated into the mother tongue and vice versa. (For example, a student from Germany translated an English text into German and from German to English). Such translation helped the learners to become familiar with vocabulary in the target language, its grammatical structures and also the skills of reading and writing. This seemed to be very sound and was used for a very long period of time. This method which was popular in Britain was also used in the Indian schools to begin with. This method is in use to teach classical languages like Sanskrit and Persian even to this day. Suddenly, some educationists thought that languages are not learnt through translation. Learners can learn a language best when they are given adequate exposure to it. This sounded very true and so a change in the methodology was brought about. The new method was called the Direct Method. 5.6.2 The Third Innovation - New Method The Direct Method (also called the New Method or the Natural Method) had a very different approach to language teaching. The learners were completely insulated from using the mother tongue. They were exposed to a lot of reading and listening. A teacher would come into the class and lecture on a classical text the learner had to read in an uninterrupted manner for an hour or so. This lecture was a source of exposure to language. The learner had to go back and read the original text and understand it and write a summary of the book as an assignment. This developed good listening, reading and writing skills. Speaking skills were partially developed. A later date linguist compared this to a 'linguistic swimming pool'. A swimming pool has a deep end and a shallow end. A beginner swimmer is obviously allowed to wade in the shallow end, get confidence before going to the deep end. The Direct Method believed in pushing the learner into the deep end and allow him/her to struggle and survive. In the bargain, several learners could die of asphyxiation or suffocation. In the language class, such exposure led to frustration resulting in non-learning of the language. That a few learners were able to cope with it is no proof of its success. The Direct Method was short lived. But one of the classic techniques of this approach has survived to the present day -Lecturing. Around this period (end of nineteenth century) the science of linguistics began to make its impact. The understanding of language and language learning was undergoing certain changes. Linguists believed that grammar was an essential part of the language, speaking is as

NSOU PGEL-10 62 important as writing, and someone who learns language needs to be proficient in all the four skills Listening, Speaking, Reading and Writing (LSRW). So once again there was an attempt to change the methodology. But this did not happen overnight and it took a long time. 5.6.3 The Fourth Innovation - The Reading Method After several deliberations, linguists believed that language can be both complex and simple depending on the contexts and the user. Often, it is the simpler form of language that is used in daily life and it is more useful to teach that variety rather than stick to the more complex variety. This was a sound principle which is followed to date. What makes a language either simple or complex? The vocabulary and the grammar components are responsible for this. Every language has several thousand words as part of its vocabulary. But we operate with just a few words in our daily life. We are familiar with those words that are most frequently used. Is there a measure to see how frequently a word is used? This happens through a process called frequency count. Lorge and Thorndike used this process as early as 1905 and made a list of 5000 most common/frequent words. Subsequently in 1935 two other linguists Ogden and Richards thought 5000 was too large a number and reduced it to a mere 800 words. This list was called BASIC (British, American, Scientific, International, Commerce) English. To these 800 words, Ogden and Richards thought an additional 50 words from the specialised field of study could be added. '850 words' was all one had to learn. This was an experimental study and the results were not very encouraging. A few years later in 1953, Michael West who was working as a School inspector in Dacca came out with a list of 2000 words based on a corpus of ten million words. These words were organised systematically in the form of a book called The General Service List of English Words. This book is a relevant document to this day. This was a highly pragmatic proposal with methodology of teaching words suggested within. The words were divided into six plateaus (levels) to correspond with six years of learning English in the school (classes V to X). For each level books were written using the vocabulary specified at the level (500; 750; 1000; 1250; 1500; 2000). These books were called graded readers and these are in use in certain parts of the globe to this day. At the end of each lesson, a learner was given feedback on the number of new words learnt and the total vocabulary acquired at that particular stage. This was a piece of dedicated work and a good contribution to the Indian ELT scene.

NSOU PGEL-10 63 The method recommended by West was called the Reading Method. He had his strong conviction. He said, written language is less likely to be faulty in comparison with the spoken language. Reading is an independent activity which can happen even in the absence of a teacher. Reading provides adequate exposure. A graded reader reduces the pressure on the learner by allowing him to interact with familiar words and encountering a new word occasionally. The list can go on. Reading Method did not become popular among the teachers as new texts could not be produced with graded vocabulary. In the meantime, linguistics sciences had conceived a new type of grammar called the Structural Grammar. This was supported by the theories put forth by Behavioural Psychologists (Skinner et al) who firmly believed that all learning is 'conditioning'. It is best to learn one thing at a time. (One thing at a time, and that done well, is a very good rule as many can tell.) 5.6.4 The Fifth Innovation Structural Grammar claimed that English has a finite number of structures. These could also be subject to frequency counts and it was discovered that just about 60 to 80 structures (of the total of about 250 structures) are adequate to operate in a language. These structures were also sequenced in order of their frequency and it was thought each structure could be learnt independently using drills. This method was called 'Pattern Practice' and the entire approach was called 'The Structural Approach'. This approach became very popular among the teachers and the learners. Learning was seen as something tangible. Learners could produce automated answers and the teachers had to just accept or reject the answers. The method is said to be popular in some of the rural areas even at the present time. Teaching meaning was completely ignored in this approach. Some innovative teachers who saw the futility of this approach, attempted to teach the structures with meaning or as they occur in contexts. The interesting discovery was that the structures do not occur in isolation in language use. They always occur in clusters and each cluster accounts for a situation. This discovery resulted in bringing about another change and the new approach was called 'The Situational Approach' to language teaching. The basic tenets of the approach are, life is a series of situations or contexts. We negotiate through these situations using language and such language is essential and needs to be taught. Several course books were produced following this approach and are in use to present day.

NSOU PGEL-10 64 5.6.5 The Sixth Innovation The next major innovation was the Communicative Language Teaching. Communicative Language Teaching is an approach that was ushered in as a result of research in sociolinguistics. In 1963, Dell Hymes coined the term 'Communicative Competence'. He defined it as a combination of linguistic competence and social competence. In simple words, it is not enough to know the correct grammatical sentence, it is also important to know how to use it in social contexts. We should be aware whether the use of such a sentence is polite, impolite, embarrassing, harsh and hurtful, relevant etc. We do not speak to elderly the same way we speak to our peers. This is part of our social competence. We know a grammatically correct sentence from a wrong one. If the sentence (utterance) we use is correct both grammatically and socially, we have the right communicative competence. E.g. you don't address your father or mother by their first name. Communicative language teaching also believes that language is best learnt when it is used. (This is a further development to exposure). To use language we need a partner. Therefore, it is desirable to organise pair and group work to facilitate use of language by learners. This approach also believes that though grammar is essential, it is not always important in communication. Meaning is more important. Sometimes, when children talk ungrammatical sentences, we understand them and don't punish them for using wrong language. Similarly, in a classroom, a teacher needs patience to allow the learner to come up with correct sentences. Incomplete sentences, one word answers are as acceptable, as well constructed grammatically correct responses. This approach believes that language is both organic and dynamic. This means that all languages are living entities. They have life. Because they have life, they keep changing and cannot be consistent. If we understand this, we develop a sense of tolerance. Further implication of this statement means that if language has life, language should also possess qualities of auto-repair. What does this mean? As a child, while playing have you fallen down and have had a wound? Did you care for this wound? The wound healed on its own because your body has the capacity for auto-repair. It can repair itself. Similarly, while learning a language, we make errors. These errors are like wounds. If we do not pay too much attention to them (like ignoring the wound while playing) and continue to use the language, the errors take care of themselves.

NSOU PGEL-10 65 The Communicative approach to language teaching started around 1975. In India, there have been various experiments since 1980s and it has come to be accepted as a system since 1991. We shall look at these modifications in our next unit. 5.7 Summary Before we close,

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let us quickly summarise what we have discussed in this unit. 1. We began with

an attempt to understand the term pedagogy and that it necessarily addresses the learning in children. 2. We also learnt that the term that refers to learning by adults is called 'andragogy'. 3. We said human being by nature is innovative and hence there have been several innovations and teaching is no exception. 4. Teaching is an old profession, but in this unit we are concerned with teaching English in India. 5. We found that the western education was ushered in by Sir William Bentinck the Governor General of India. 6. Wood's Despatch of 1854 is an important document in the history of English education in India. 7. English language teaching in India has seen the following methods to date: The Grammar Translation Method; The Direct Method, The Reading Method, The Structural Approach, The Situational Approach and the Communicative Approach. In the next three units we shall see some of the recent innovations with reference to the teaching of English in India. 5.8 Review Questions 1. How old is language teaching? What is the proof of this? 2. Has teaching been the same all through the ages? Why not? 3. How did the teachers teach before writing was discovered? 4. Explain the terms pedagogy and innovation in your own words. 5. What prompted the British rulers to introduce English education in India? 6. What was the first strategy used to teach English in India?

NSOU PGEL-10 66 7. What are some of the principles of Reading Method? 8. Why is the Structural Approach very popular among the teachers? 9. What are some of the weaknesses of the Structural Approach? 10. How is Communicative Language Teaching different from the Structural Approach? 5.9 References Hymes, Dell. 1963. "Toward a history of linguistic anthropology". Anthropological Linguistics, 5(1), 59-103. Roy, Raja Rammohan. Letter to Lord Amherst,1823. In The English Works of Raja Rammohan Roy. Allahabad: Panini Office, 1906. 471-74.
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NSOU PGEL-10 67 Unit 6 The West Bengal Experiment Structure 6.1 Introduction 6.2 Objectives 6.3 English Language Teaching Projects 6.4 The West Bengal Experiment 6.5 The Cascade Model 6.6 Communication Oriented Structural Teaching- COST 6.7 Summary 6.8 Review Questions 6.1 Introduction This unit is called the West Bengal Experiment. This must really excite you for it tells you something that happened in your state and it is part of an innovation in English Language Teaching. In order to understand this, you need to have some background. We will provide you with it, but before that let us know how well you know your state. Activity 1 Answer some of these questions. a. Name a few people who have been very influential in promoting English language education in your state? b. Here are a few names. Do you know their contribution to the promotion of English in your state? Rajaram Mohan Roy Rabindranath Tagore Michael MadhusudanDutt Sukanta Choudhari Ishwar Chandra Vidyasagar William Carey Shashi Bhushan Chatterjee S N Mukherjee

NSOU PGEL-10 68 You can find out about the contribution of each one of these people from your friends, parents, neighbours or through a good source like the encyclopaedia or the internet. Each one of them has contributed in a mighty way towards the improvement of education in the state and in particular encouraged the study of English. 6.2

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Objectives At the end of this unit, you will be able to: a. Understand the development of

English Language
Education in Bengal b. Various projects that were undertaken in the state c. Assistance received from sources outside India d. Bodies responsible for promoting school education in the state e. Salient features of West Bengal experiment f. Perspectives on the project today. 6.3 English Language Teaching Projects Now let us talk about the required background knowledge. Have you at any time visited the British Council in Kolkata? What does this office have? Why is there a British Office in India? You may ask yourself some of these questions when you see this office. British Council has several offices in the country. It is part of the diplomatic establishment and primarily has focus on promoting British culture and studies in India. The personnel in this office offer help in training our teachers, provide them with scholarships to study in Britain, invite eminent scholars from Britain to give talks, conduct workshops and also offer consultancy services in matters related to academics. These offices have been established on a mutual agreement. For a long time, the British Council was the main source of all ELT references in India. We used to have streams of experts coming from Britain to interact with teachers and students in different universities and also provide assistance in research projects. Their visit and upkeep was taken care of by the British government through an office called the ODFD (Overseas Development Funding Division). During the early and mid-eighties of the last century, the British Council was

NSOU PGEL-10 69 more active than it is at present. They funded long-term projects called KELT Projects (Key-English Language Teaching Projects). These projects were normally spread over two or three years depending on the magnitude of the project. West Bengal Secondary Education Board was one of the beneficiaries of this scheme during 1982-85. What happened during this project? A survey conducted in the secondary schools of West Bengal revealed that the proficiency of English attained by the learners was far below the expected standards. We will not quantify this by giving figures in terms of the number of words each learner knew on an average and the ability to speak, read, understand and write in English. This weakness was related to the use of course books in use. The West Bengal Government (The Board of School Education) in collaboration with the Institute of English, Kolkata, launched a project to develop new course books. The British Council offered to help the state in this project and provided the necessary funds through ODFD and the entire project was conceived as a KELT Project. The British Council also made the services of a senior educationist David Carver to monitor the project. This is the essential background information to the West Bengal Experiment. Activity 2 With the information provided, we would like you to take up a task and write a small report. a. Visit the offices of the West Bengal Secondary Education Board and meet special officer for English. Try and get as much information as possible from the person about the British Council. b. Visit the Institute of English (Shyama Prasad Mukherjee Marg, next to Kalighat Metro Station). Meet the officer in charge and collect as much information as possible on the history of English Language Teaching in West Bengal. c. Visit the British Council and meet the Manager, English Studies. Try and find out his/her duties and responsibilities and check if there is any help being offered to the school students and teachers at present. d. Go to a good library and try and get all the course books that have been used in the state during the last fifty years.

NSOU PGEL-10 70 Collate all this information and produce a report which can be submitted to the NSOU. Next we will see how significant the West Bengal Experiment was in the larger context of Indian ELT scene. 6.4 The West Bengal Experiment In the previous unit we have discussed what the term innovation means, and how English Language Teaching developed slowly but steadily in India over a period of nearly 200 years. The last of the innovations we talked about was the ushering in Communicative Language Teaching. We will briefly look at this approach here and then relate it to our topic. Communicative Language Teaching simply believes that language is meant for communication. This is based on the premise that all human beings are social animals. What does this mean? A social being is one who cannot live without friends and companions. A human being needs someone's company to talk, to share happiness, sorrow, a living space, pleasures, and pain almost everything. This sharing demands language. The language used in such social communication is not necessarily accurate in terms of grammar and pronunciation. This is the language of the world. In classroom, we teach a language that is highly structured and artificial. There is a great divide between the language we learn and the language we need to use in the world outside. Is this the right thing to do as teachers? The answer is obvious and it is such thinking that made some thinkers look for a new way teaching language and this was Communicative Language Teaching (CLT for short). CLT believes that a classroom should provide opportunities to the learners to interact in the class. They should be made to talk. If we want someone to talk just like that, nobody will do that. We need to create a purpose and unless a purpose is created we cannot talk. On this do a thinking exercise. Activity 3 Make a list of all the occasions when you talk to someone. Are these situations prompted by a reason, or do you talk to someone without a reason? Share your thoughts here: Your response:

NSOU PGEL-10 71 We cannot use any aspect of language without a purpose. If this is the case, we need to create a purpose in the class to help our students communicate or interact with each other. This can be done using three simple strategies. They are information gap, opinion gap and cognitive gap. For each of these we can have activities and these activities normally happen in pairs and groups that facilitate interaction. (Please refer Paper 2 Module 1 for such activities) West Bengal Experiment began with the premise that 'the learners at the school level do not see a purpose for learning language (English). They memorise the lessons and mechanically reproduce the answers without understanding the lesson. This is not helpful in making them use the language'. This is indeed true not only of West Bengal but of most other parts in India. To overcome this, an attempt was made to produce different types of textbooks which made the learners think and not read the lessons mechanically. Let us look at some examples. Suppose somebody asks a child to repeat all the letters of the alphabet, the child does it easily. The child begins with A and before you have realised it, the child would have come to Z. As the child is reciting the letters in a sequence, just stop the child and ask a question: 'What letter comes after 'p'?' The child will not be able to give an immediate answer. The child will either start reciting all the letters beginning from A either aloud or softly before uttering the correct answer which is 'q'. This is the result of mechanical learning or rote learning. West Bengal Experiment broke this tradition and taught the letters of the alphabet in a different way. Look at this picture.

It is a cart wheel. There are 26 boxes in this wheel, and each box can be filled with a letter of the alphabet randomly as shown here. The learners can be given one more cart wheel which is either fully blank or partially filled and the children can be asked to fill in the blanks. They could be asked utter the sound of the letter they fill each time they copy. This work can also be converted into a pair work, one child filling in the letter in the new wheel and the other child reading out the correct letter and helping the friend to get everything right. This is a simple task. But think of how thinking is given a lot of importance and the mechanical way in which we teach the letters of the alphabet is given a go bye. The West Bengal Experiment produced a series of course books called Living English starting from Class V to Class X (Six in all). These books were supplemented with audio cassettes which had well sung rhymes, stories, puzzles and a few other tasks to engage the children listen to English, understand the instructions and act accordingly. This was a great success. 6.5 The Cascade Model The Project did not end with the production of new textbooks. To help teachers use these books, a special teacher training programme was also organised across the state. This was planned meticulously and the model used is called the 'Cascade Model' A word about cascade model may not be out of place. When a change is brought about in the education system, and there is a need to train teachers, the onus of training teachers rests with a few experts. The few available experts cannot reach out to the large number of teachers spread across the state. So new techniques will have to be devised and cascade model is one of them. In this model, we identify three tiers (levels) of teachers. The expert trainers are at the top of the model who will train a small group of highly competent teachers. They are called the master trainers. Master trainers form the second level of trainers. They learn how to train others from experts and pass on this knowledge to the next level. The master trainers train the actual teacher trainers who are also competent teachers or senior teachers with a large experience in teaching the subject. These are the third level of trainers.The trainers train their own colleagues or other teachers. Let us look at it from a different angle. The Experts are available in the state

capital and the master trainers who are drawn from district headquarters are invited to undergo training in the state capital. The master trainers could be just about a hundred in number. The master trainers will conduct their training programmes at the district level and in each centre nearly a 100 trainers will get trained (This works out 100 x 100 = 10,000 trainers at one go.) Each of the 10,000 trainers will in turn train about 50 teachers at the taluk or block level and in one course nearly 50,000 teachers will get trained. Cascade model facilitates reaching out to a large number of teachers in a short period of time. However, the training will be effective and have the necessary impact when there is follow up work to monitor the impact of training received. When the training was offered, the teachers attending the training programme were seasoned practitioners and it was very difficult to bring about an immediate change in their teaching behaviour. They were used to teaching English using the Structural Approach - making children repeat a sentence in chorus and work on substitution tables. At best the children would memorise the lessons in the textbook and reproduce the answers that were given by the teacher in the class. The teachers did not want to change. They did not want to develop materials. They were not ready to accept multiple answers for the same question. The objections were numerous. Prof David Carver, who was the chief resource person, took this up as a challenge. He was specially brought in to monitor the project from the Murray House College of Education, Edinburgh - one of the oldest colleges of teacher education in the United Kingdom. David Carver was a good teacher educator and more than anything, he had a humanitarian approach. What does this mean? A trainer, who adopts a humanitarian approach, sympathises with the teacher- student. He/she understands the problems of the teacher-student and attempts to negotiate the methodology to suit the learner. This has a great advantage and builds confidence in the learner who readily accepts the new ideas. Carver realised that the teachers love using substitution tables. He said, we will work with these tables, but not one, but three tables and a few pictures all put together. So he developed a series of new materials (similar materials were earlier produced by Keith Johnson) as shown below:

standing by the door? sitting near the window? Who is running next to a river? walking along a wide road? Arif walking by the river? Paul standing near the door? Is Kamala running along the road? Shreya sitting by the window? Look at the pictures and answer: 'Yes, he/she is' or 'No, he/she isn't' walking by the river? standing near the door? Who is running along the road? sitting by the window? Look at the pictures and answer the questions in the box. You may work inpairs. What is given here is just a sample of the large number of activities and exercises that were designed as part of the Experiment for inclusion in the books Living English. David Carver declared at the end of the project 'What is needed in India is not a radical change, but a gradual shift. We will call this Communication Oriented Structural Teaching -COST for short.' This was a great success. Picture of a girl (Kamala) Sitting next to a window Picture of a boy (Arif) running on the road Picture of an old man (Paul) walk- ing by a river Picture of a woman (Shreya) standing by door

NSOU PGEL-10 75 6.6 Communication Oriented Structural Teaching (COST) The entire project spread over three years was helpful in producing good textbooks and audio cassettes for use in the schools. They were introduced with great enthusiasm and the teachers accepted the new materials and the ways of teaching. But the textbooks were withdrawn and once again the old textbooks were reintroduced as the government fell, and the new government was not in favour of the new books that were introduced. Activity 4 Take a look at the sample materials provided above. How well can you use these materials in the classroom? Can we have pair work using these materials? How can we do this? Your answer: The above materials are seemingly structural. But they very smoothly move into the realm of communicative language teaching by promoting interaction. The tables and pictures can be separated. Students can be divided into pairs. One pair partner can have the picture and the other have the table and they can discover the sentences and pictures. Alternatively, one student can have the sentences and the pictures, while the other has one set of question which can be either answered with 'yes' or 'no'or can be answered with a proper noun. Activity 5 A variety of manipulations are possible with an imaginative way of using these materials. Do you think these materials should be brought back to the schools in the state? Give a few reasons. Your answer: Finally, it needs to be said, West Bengal was perhaps the first state in the country to introduce Communicative Language Teaching at the school level. During mid-80s

NSOU PGEL-10 76 no other state had even thought of this when West Bengal took the initiative. This was due to a bold initiative taken by some dedicated teachers. 6.7 Summary Let us now conclude this unit with a brief summary of what is discussed. We began discussing some of the features of Communicative language teaching. We said: CLT believes in learners producing their own answers. CLT does not believe in memorisation. CLT believes that language is best learnt when it is used. CLT believes that language is best used while interacting with others. A classroom should provide scope for interaction. Pair work and group work can enhance interaction. A purpose needs to be created to promote interaction. Information gap, opinion gap and cognitive gap are three strategies to create a purpose. West Bengal Experiment was funded by the British Council. The Experiment developed coursebooks and trained teachers. It is commonly known as COST. The new books were withdrawn with the change of government. So we will move on to Unit 7 where will discuss two other innovations that took place a little before the West Bengal Experiment took place, but not at the school level. 6.8 Review Questions a. What is an innovation in language teaching? b. Why do we need innovations? c. Give some of the principles of Communicative language teaching. d. What are some of the duties of the British Council?

NSOU PGEL-10 77 e. What is the purpose of a textbook in the classroom? f. How does teacher training help the teachers? g. What is a cascade model of teacher training? h. Why are teachers reluctant to accept change? i. What does COST stand for? j. How successful is the concept of COST?

NSOU PGEL-10 78 Unit 7 Loyola College and SNDT Experiment Structure 7.1 Introduction 7.2 Objectives 7.3 The Loyola College Experiment 7.3.1 The Background Information 7.3.2 Approaches of Autonomous Colleges 7.4 The SNDT Experiment 7.4.1 The Text Book 7.4.2 Learning with a text book 7.4.3 Assessing a Text Book 7.4.4 Learning Without a Text Book 7.5 Summary 7.6 Review Questions 7.1 Introduction What have we been discussing in this module? Innovations are some new experiments which have been unending endeavours of the human beings. In the previous unit we learnt about an initiative taken by a few teachers in the state of West Bengal to bring about a change in English Language Teaching at the School level. That it was not sustained is a different point. What needs to be appreciated is the initiative taken and the claim to the status of being pioneers in the field. In this unit we look at two more pioneering efforts but at the first year degree level. 7.2

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Objectives At the end of this unit, the learners will be able to: a. Understand the importance of

innovations in education. b. Understand the concept of autonomy granted to institutions

NSOU PGEL-10 79 c. Analyse a textbook and assess it for its qualities d. Perceive the role of textbooks in academic institutions e. Realise the possibility of having source books in place of course books. 7.3 Loyola College Experiment We will discuss two experiments that took place in two different cities of the country. Both were independent and also very different in nature. One of the experiments focussed on promoting the principles of communicative language teaching while the other had as its focus, developing learner autonomy by making learners proficient in reading skills. We will discuss these concepts while describing the experiments. Experiment 1- Loyola College Experiment: To understand this experiment, we need a little bit of background information. We shall discuss this before going to talk about the experiment. 7.3.1 The Background Information University Grants Commission is a regulatory body that governs all the Universities in the country. It is also a financing body and therefore has the right to monitor the functioning of Universities. In the early days, we had just a few Universities and there were quite a few colleges which were affiliated to them. The colleges were bound by the syllabus drafted by the University granting them affiliation and also all the students had to pass the examination which was administered by the university. This ensured more or less similar teaching practices and standards of education across the university. There were certain colleges which were academically capable of putting in better work. Teachers and the administrators in such colleges felt a little frustrated. The only reward they had was in securing the maximum number of ranks in the annual examinations conducted by the University. This was no compensation. Some of these colleges wanted to become autonomous. What is an autonomous college? Autonomy means independence. A college that is autonomous can frame its own syllabus and conduct its own examination. The syllabus and the examination will confer with the norms specified by the University that awards the degree. It thus enjoys a better reputation.

NSOU PGEL-10 80 7.3.2 Approaches of Autonomous Colleges In early 70s of the last century, the UGC recognised the fact that there were several colleges which were functioning markedly better and announced that these colleges could be granted autonomy after due process of inspection to ascertain the qualities. Loyola College, a Jesuit institution of great repute in Madras city (present day Chennai) was one of the first colleges to be granted autonomy. The principal of the college then was a reputed educationist by name Father Louis Xavier. He was a teacher of English and had a passion to bring about changes in the teaching of English. This was around 1975. During these days, English at the undergraduate classes was compulsory and consisted of studying literature as part of language course. Every student in the undergraduate course had to study English for two years and the texts included a play of Shakespeare, a Victorian Novel, an anthology of prose, an anthology of poetry and a set of essays or non-fictional prose. The five texts were shared between the two years and the questions were largely content based. The learners were expected to answer questions such as appreciating a poem, character sketch of the personae in the plays and the novels, summaries of stories or essays in the anthologies or the prose pieces. Though this developed good reading skills, the competence to use English fluently remained a distant dream. Writing skills were neglected, this is because, the teachers in their anxiety to have better results for their own college, would often dictate summaries of all the lessons and provide notes which could be memorised and reproduced appropriately in the examination. The examination thus became a test of memory more than understanding and application. Father Louis Xavier who was disturbed with this situation decided to bring about a change in the system. His college having attained autonomy, he had the opportunity of framing a new syllabus that had a special focus on writing. He sought help from his colleagues and also brought in a visiting scholar, Sarah Freeman from outside. Sarah Freeman analysed the situation and developed a coursebook called Written English Communication. This was perhaps the first interactive coursebook produced in India to develop good writing skills. The author of the book conducted a workshop to provide training to the teachers and acquaint them with skills of using the book. The devoted team of teachers under the able leadership of Father Xavier brought about a change. Another skill that had not been taught, but somehow the students had acquired

NSOU PGEL-10 81 was reference skills. Almost all students knew how to use a dictionary, make or take notes and prepare themselves for examinations. These skills were systematised and a new course called Study Skills was introduced with wide ranging topics such as dictionary skills, reference skills (using encyclopaedia, indices, catalogues etc.), information transfer (verbal to non-verbal and vice-versa), classification tasks, note making and taking skills etc. Coursebooks were also produced to teach this with titles such as How to Study, Study Skills in English etc. Loyola experiment brought in two of these changes which have now become part of the curriculum in most undergraduate courses. Let us check your understanding of what is discussed. The first question is simply a factual one. The next three are in the form of tasks and you should attempt these with greater seriousness. Task 1 What special advantages does autonomous status give to a college? More importantly, do students really benefit by studying in an autonomous college? How? (You may visit St Xavier's College in Kolkata which is an autonomous college and find out for yourself. St. Xavier's College is now upgraded as a University.) Task 2 Do you know of any college in your area that is autonomous? (These days there are many Engineering colleges that are being granted autonomy.) Visit one of these colleges and find out how their functioning is different from other colleges you have seen. (You may meet some students, teachers and if possible senior members of the faculty including the principal.) Task 3 If you were given a chance would you like to study in an autonomous college, why? Answer these questions and when you come to the University for your classes discuss your answers with your friends and see how many points you have in common with your friends. Report your discussion to the teacher concerned.

NSOU PGEL-10 82 7.4 The SNDT Experiment Now let us look at the other experiment. This is called the SNDT experiment. SNDT stands for Shreemati Nathibai Damodar Thackersey Women's University. This University located in Mumbai was established in 1916 to promote Women's Education. Today it has several campuses and colleges across the country. The present experiment we discuss was a carried out in Mumbai by a professor of English - Prof Shirin Kudchedkar. The focus of the experiment was to motivate the learners to read on their own or develop good reading habits. Reading habits have been on the wane for quite sometime now. Though several reasons can be assigned to this, the prescribed text seemed to be the most problematic according to a survey conducted by the University. To overcome this problem, an experiment was conducted by the SNDT University under the supervision of Prof Kudchedkar. 7.4.1 The Text Book What are our textbooks like? While discussing Loyal Experiment, we have already discussed this and given you some idea of the type of textbooks prescribed at the undergraduate level. Here is a way to understand what makes a textbook click. While evaluating a textbook, we have certain criterion set up by scholars like Cunningsworth, Mac Grath and others. Without getting into their format, let us analyse a typical book and see what makes it either acceptable or unacceptable to our learners. In order to understand this, we need to have some knowledge of what a textbook is. There are various definitions given, and the one that is very appealing in the Indian situation is 'textbook is the only tool in the hands of a teacher'. This statement was made by Pit Corder in a conference when he visited some of the North-eastern states in India sometime in mid-80s of the previous century. The present situation is not so grim, and we may change this definition. In order to produce a textbook, we need to have a syllabus. A classical definition of a syllabus is 'a specific list of teaching items'. The list is specific from two points of view - the level and the content. We may have an English textbook for class V and this cannot be the same as a textbook in Bengali. The two textbooks are produced based on two different syllabuses for the same level but with different content. Exactly similarly, we have a textbook in English for class V and also class VI. Here the levels are different but the focus of the content is not different. With NSOU PGEL-10 83 difference in level, there will also be a difference in the syllabus. 7.4.2 Learning with a Text Book A textbook is a translation of a syllabus in the form of teaching materials. This is a good working definition for a textbook. We reinforce the idea that the textbook and the syllabus are very closely related and integrated. The items on a syllabus are said to be abstract. For e.g. if one needs to teach simple present tense with SVO pattern in class V the teacher with a syllabus will not be able to produce sentences in the class in proper contexts. The textbook provides a context in which the simple present tense is used either in the form of a story or a narrative to help learners grapple the item being taught. Look at the following examples and answer the questions: a. Govind is a farmer. He lives in Nandigram. He gets up early in the morning. He washes his face and prays to god. He has a pair of bullocks. He loves them and takes care of them. He goes to his farm with the bullocks. He works till the afternoon. His wife Shreya brings him his food. Both of them sit under a tree and eat their lunch. Shreya goes back home. Govind works in the farm till sunset. He goes back home with the bullocks. He feeds the bullocks. He washes himself and sings bhajans. His wife gives him his dinner. Later he goes to bed. He and Shreya are a happy couple. b. Govind is an agriculturalist. He is married and his wife is Shreya. Govind is an early riser and gets up with the sun. He has a pair of bullocks to help him plough the fields. Early morning, after freshening up, he goes to his farm with the bullocks. He toils till mid-day and his wife joins him with victuals for both of them to eat. They settle themselves under a tree and consume the food. Shreya returns and Govind continues with his chores. Late evening he gets back home with the bullocks. After making sure the bullocks have their feed, he freshens himself and prays to god. Shreya serves dinner and the two retire for the day after a while. Task 4 If you are asked to choose one of these passages for teaching simple present tense in class V, which one would you choose and why?

NSOU PGEL-10 84 Your answer: Both the passages use simple present tense and there are a few repetitions of the structure in the passage. This helps in practising the structure and also understand its use in context. The first passage is simple and uses words with which the learners in class V are familiar with. The second passage though it uses simple present tense and repeats it, there are a few sentences that are complex and some of the words are beyond the reach of the learners in class V. What does this teach us? A lesson is considered either easy or difficult based on three factors: a. Use of vocabulary. b. Use of grammar with adequate repetitions c. Use of proper context/situation to use words and the structures. 7.4.3 Assessing a Text Book You may ask a few questions to yourself when you read a lesson to assess it: a. Has the textbook producer used words which are graded and are within the vocabulary range of the learners? b. Have the words been used in proper contexts? c. Has the grammatical structure been repeated a few times? d. Has the grammatical structure to be taught used in a proper situation? e. Has there been any concept or idea that is difficult for the learner? The process of evaluating a textbook goes far beyond this. But for the present this is sufficient for you to get an idea of what prompted SNDT experiment. The textbooks in use at the undergraduate level were often dull and boring. The students were not happy with them, they found these books to be too difficult to follow, largely because the lessons were based on unknown themes, and written in difficult language using unfamiliar vocabulary. Given this situation, the Department of English at the SNDT University thought of making the choice of textbook open. The students were free to choose their own textbooks.

NSOU PGEL-10 85 Task 5 You are a student. If you are asked to choose a textbook which you can study, do you think it would be easy for you to do so? What difficulties are you likely to face? Your answer: Let us make the situation a little easier for you. Have you visited a good restaurant? In a restaurant, you are presented with a menu card that lists a large number of food items that are available. You can order the food you like. However, this depends on certain conditions - how much money you have; how hungry you are; what food you like; if you don't have what you like, what is the best alternative etc. Depending on this you choose what you want to eat. Now let us move into our experiment. I want you to learn English and at the end of the year, I want you to read and understand a passage on your own, I want you to summarise what you read for the benefit of others, I want you to compare what you have read with something else you have read earlier, I want you to modify the writing if possible, I want you to express an opinion on what you have read and discuss with your friends to establish your views. 7.4.4 Learning without a Text Book Think of the tasks that follow. In order to complete any of these tasks, what you need is not a specific textbook but any textbook. With this premise, the SNDT University developed a language syllabus and created a classroom library with quite a few books stored in for use. The teacher would not use any textbook. She would use the syllabus and focus on language development with illustrations drawn from various sources. The learners were asked to choose a book of their liking from the library and apply similar processes to understand and work with the text. Like the menu card in the restaurant that lists many items of food, the classroom library has a large number of books. The learner is free to choose the book according to her needs and liking. The learner reads and shares her understanding with the rest of her friends in the class. This was a very successful experiment that lasted for a long time.

NSOU PGEL-10 86 A simple strategy of making learning language without textbooks brought about changes in the syllabus, teaching methods, evaluation strategies, learning output and the quality of learning. This was unfortunately not continued beyond a certain period. 7.5

69%	**MATCHING BLOCK 11/23**	**SA**	PGEL 1 and 2 final.pdf (D165254845)

Summary Let us now summarise what we have discussed in this unit. We began with a revision of

the concept of innovation. We said that every change in language teaching can be considered as an innovation. Later we looked at the type of dissatisfaction some people had with language teaching and their concern to bring about a change. There were two pioneers - Father Louis Xavier and Prof Shirin Kudchedkar. Both looked at developing language in a wholesome way but adopted two different approaches. In the course of describing these experiments we also looked at some aspects of communicative language teaching, importance of writing skills, the need for study skills, structure of a textbook and the importance of motivating learners to read. In the next unit (Unit 8) we shall look at two more innovation that happened in two other parts of the country. This should make you aware that though innovations may happen in one part of the country, its implications can be far reaching or spread across the country. 7.6 Review Questions a. How are innovations important in the field of education? b. Are you aware of any innovations other than what is mentioned here? Mention them, and describe them briefly. c. What is meant by autonomy? d. Why did some colleges want to become autonomous? e. What are the advantages of being autonomous? f. What are some of the features of Loyola Experiment? g. What does 'study skills' involve? Have you learnt these in your college? h. What is the purpose of a textbook? i. How do we assess a textbook? j. Why did SNDT University decide to do away with the textbooks? k. Do you think this was a wise decision? l. Given a choice, would you like to teach your class without a textbook?

NSOU PGEL-10 87 Unit 8 Gujarat Experiment (TELE) and the Bangalore Project Structure 8.1 Introduction 8.2 Objectives 8.3 The Gujarat Experiment (TELE) 8.3.1 The Background Context 8.4 English Training Programs 8.5 The Reinforcement Program on the AIR 8.6 Role of SCERT in Teacher Education 8.7 The Bangalore Project 8.7.1 Pre-task, Task and Feedback 8.8

100%	**MATCHING BLOCK 12/23**	SA	PGEL 1 and 2 final.pdf (D165254845)

Summary 8.9 Review Questions 8.10 References 8.1 Introduction In the previous unit we looked at

two innovations which were initiated to by individuals. The experiments were successful because of the cooperation of other colleagues and the students who worked with them. For any experiment to succeed, these are important features. In this unit, we will look at two more innovations which were conducted on a larger scale. In one of the experiment, the entire state was involved (like the West Bengal experiment you read in Unit 6) while in the other the British Council was involved (once again as in the case of West Bengal experiment.) We shall be as brief as possible in discussing the two innovations. 8.2

84%	**MATCHING BLOCK 13/23**	SA	PGEL- 8B (Elective Course).pdf (D165254848)

Objectives At the end of this unit, you will be able to: a.

Look at the concept of innovation further. b. Understand why cooperation among the members is essential in an innovative project c. Understand how mass media can be an instrument of innovation d. Appreciate the commitment required to work on an innovative project.

NSOU PGEL-10 88 8.3 The Gujarat Experiment (TELE) The Gujarat Experiment (TELE). The abbreviation TELE stands for Teach English, Learn English. This experiment was conducted in the state of Gujarat during the mid- 80s of the previous century. To understand this, we need a little background information. Gujarat state was earlier part of the Bombay Presidency and subsequently the state of Maharashtra. After sustained demand and public pressure, the state was divided into two based on linguistic factors. Areas with people speaking Marathi were given the Maharashtra state and areas with people speaking Gujarati was called Gujarat. Nehru, the then Prime Minister made this announcement and the two states formally came into existence on 1st May 1960. Bombay, the contentious area, remained with Maharashtra and Ahmedabad was made the temporary capital of Gujarat till a new capital city could be built. The new state of Gujarat adopted the education policies that existed in the former Maharashtra State and the first Chief Minister of Gujarat J N Mehta wanted to introduce a popular measure and made English an optional subject at all levels of education. This dealt a death blow to the learning of English across the state for it was neither taught nor learnt in a formal way. This led to a situation when one could choose to graduate from a university without having to study English at any level. This was a major setback to a state that was vibrant economically. There were attempts to rectify the position several times with little success. In 1985, under the then Chief Minister Madhav Singh Solanki, the state took a decision to reintroduce English from class V and soon changed it to class VI. This decision was made public without making adequate preparations to introduce English. However, the administration rose to the occasion and put things in place. TELE was one of the strategies to cope with the situation, which we shall describe here. Task 1 Check your understanding: Have you listened to any programme in English on a radio? Do you have difficulties in understanding what is said? Give some reasons and examples.

Your answers: 8.3.1 The Background Context When English was introduced in class VI in Gujarat, the existing situation in school education (in the government run, Gujarati medium schools) was as follows. A child entering school was introduced to English in class VI. This learning continued for three years up to class VIII. In class IX and X, English was studied only by a few students who opted for it, and in class X the marks scored in English did not add to the total percentage and a failure did not necessarily disqualify the learner from going further. The same situation continued in the higher secondary schools, thus giving a free hand to the learners to ignore the study of English completely. In such a situation which continued for more than two decades, the teachers had almost stopped teaching English and had lost their own proficiency in English. But they had retained their jobs as a special cadre of teachers of English did not exist at the school level, and these teachers were asked to teach other subjects. When a decision to introduce English as a compulsory subject was taken (making it part of the curriculum) there was a need to train a large number of teachers. The figure given out by the state at that time stood at 22,000. All these teachers had to be trained within a period of six months, new textbooks had to be produced and provision made in the time table to accommodate six extra classes a week had to be thought of. This seemed an almost impossible task. Some of the people involved did think of cascade model, but given the Gujarat topography and the ethos, this seemed difficult to work. 8.4 English Training Programs A major English language teaching institute, H M Patel Institute of English Training and Research, that existed in the state was asked to undertake the responsibility of training the teachers. The then director, Prof S S Jain took up the challenge taking his colleagues into confidence. In a discussion with the state education department, cooperation from the SCERT and the All India Radio was solicited. This was granted almost immediately. The three bodies (HMPIETR, SCERT and AIR) together planned and executed the TELE.

The entire experiment happened in short phases. Initially, the teachers teaching in colleges of teacher education (with English as their special methodology) were invited to the H M Patel Institute for a week-long training. These were master trainers and they in turn trained very senior and competent teachers of English at the college and higher secondary level to become trainers who in turn trained the actual teachers at the school level. (This is in many ways similar to the West Bengal experiment). 8.5 The reinforcement program on the AIR The training offered over a short period of time was thought to be either insufficient or incomplete. There was a need to reinforce the training received periodically and update the knowledge of the teachers. SCERT and the AIR were harnessed to help offer the follow-up and reinforcement programmes. The AIR agreed to provide two 30 minute slots a week for broadcasting programmes with a focus on teaching English. The SCERT agreed to disseminate information on the title of the broadcast, the focus of the lesson to be taught and the type of preparation required in the class to receive the broadcast. This was well coordinated by conducting regular meetings twice a year to plan the entire schedule for the following fifteen to twenty weeks. (These were the number of working weeks available in a period of six months.) The training programmes which were planned and executed by the H M Patel Institute were sustained over a period of time. The training materials were centrally produced and distributed to all the centres in the state and the training itself was monitored initially. The reinforcement programme on the radio had the following structure. The broadcast had a primary focus on the teacher. The objective was to help the teacher to teach a specific lesson and the radio provided a demonstration lesson. The thirty minute broadcast was divided into five parts as shown below: TE 1 LE 1 TE 2 LE 2 TE 3 3-4 8 - 10 2 8 - 10 3 - 4 minutes Figure 1: Structure of TELE programme

NSOU PGEL-10 91 Let us try and understand this structure. The entire broadcast spread over 30 minutes was divided into five sections as shown in the figure 1 above. The terms TE refer to Teach English, and LE refers to Learn English. The TE portions were addressed directly to the teachers while LE portion was addressed to both the teachers and the learners. The first TE was in the form of an introduction to the whole lesson (or the broadcast). This part had two teachers in conversation (a senior teacher and a novice). The novice before going to his/her class shares the plan of the lesson with the senior teacher and checks whether he/she is on the right track. The objective of the lesson, the skill to be developed, the title of the lesson from the textbook and the method used to teach are explicitly mentioned. It was thought of introducing this part in the form of a conversation rather than in the form of a lecture or a talk to show the involvement of teachers and the type of help one can receive within the school from the senior teachers. This was brief and lasted for about three or four minutes of the broadcast time. The LE 1 part was a simulated class. The presenter in the studio would have a small number of students (not exceeding six due to space constraints in the recording studio) and would conduct the class with the lesson in focus. The methods mentioned in TE 1 would be demonstrated and as far as possible, efforts were made to keep the class interactive. TE 2 was a brief talk by the radio teacher to reinforce the listeners by recapitulating the techniques used and reiterating the focus of the lesson. LE 2 continued the lesson with learners practising the language taught in a variety of situations and the teacher offering corrections or suggestion where needed. The teacher would also signal the end of the class by wishing the children and giving them homework based on the lesson taught. TE 3 was once again in the form of a conversation between the two teachers (who we met inTE1). The novice teacher shares with the senior teacher the success story and also asks about the possible alternatives to teaching the same lesson. During this conversation, the topic of next broadcast would also be mentioned for the benefit of the listening teachers. The broadcast time was fixed between 2.00 and 2.30 pm on Tuesdays and Thursdays. During this time, care was taken to organise the time table in such a manner that the class in question had an English session with facilities to receive the broadcast. (Though this was desired, it was later found that many schools did not

NSOU PGEL-10 92 comply with this requirement.) But the feedback received from the teachers was very positive and one impact study was also conducted the results of which were found to be significant at 0.01 level. 8.6 Role of SCERT in Teacher Education The SCERT had another role in creating the support system. The SCERT had a publication called Jeevan Shikshan which was published every quarter and distributed to all the schools across the state. Certain issues of this periodical carried a detailed outline of each broadcast with the entire transcript printed in the journal. The teachers could read these issues and prepare themselves to receive the broadcast. The write up in the periodical also gave suggestions to the teachers on classroom arrangement, use of blackboard, sentences to be written on the board for practice, possible diagrams that could be drawn to teach vocabulary etc. The success of this programme largely depended on the collaboration of the three organisations involved. This programme was sustained over a period of ten years and later withdrawn in preference to the new medium television. Let us check your understanding before we move to the other innovation. Task 2 Do you think using radio was a good decision to reach out to all the teachers? What alternatives can you suggest? If you were a teacher in Gujarat during 1985, how would you have reacted to compelling you to listen to radio and learn how to teach? Your answers: We shall now look at what is popularly known as the Bangalore Project. This experiment is also known by several other names such as - Communicational Project, Procedural syllabus etc. We shall refer to it as the Bangalore project throughout this unit. 8.7 The Bangalore Project As the name suggests, this project was based in the city of Bangalore. There is an institute called the Regional Institute of English (South India) which is well known

NSOU PGEL-10 93 for offering quality in-service training to the teachers of English at the school level. The main person behind this project was Dr N S Prabhu, who at the time of the project was working for the British Council in Madras. (Today's Chennai) Dr Prabhu, as an English Studies Officer at the British Council had visited several schools in South India and discovered that the learners were not taught English the proper way. They were allowed to memorise the textbook lesson and reproduce it in the examination without understanding the content. This saddened him and wanted to improve this situation by developing a new strategy for teaching English. He specifically wanted to try his new methods in corporation schools of Bangalore, Madras and a few rural schools in Andhra Pradesh. In all four schools were chosen for the purpose. Having made a survey, he postulated a hypothesis as follows: 'Form is best learnt when the learner's attention is on meaning.' This was his belief and has a lot of commonality with the principles of communicative language teaching. In his hypothesis, the word 'form' represents 'knowledge and use of grammar' which is an essential factor in learning language. But while teaching language, if we concentrate on teaching form, not much is learnt. The form is not internalised. In order to help a learner acquire the grammar, best it is to allow the learner to use language in meaningful contexts, allow him/her to express, provide a context for such expression or create a purpose. Once this is done, the learner puts in effort to use language thus acquiring grammar. This is a good theoretical proposition. But how do we practice this in a classroom situation? Prabhu built a large number of tasks (a little more than 200 tasks) which could be used in the classroom. These tasks were taken from different fields of life and were graded according to the learner level and interest. (The students chosen for the project were in class VIII). Each task was set in three phases - the pre-task, task and feedback. Each of the phases had a specific focus. 8.7.1 Pre-Task, Task and Feedback The pre-task was an important phase. It introduced to the learners the relevant language required to complete the task. Such familiarization automatically reduced the difficulties in coping with the task and allowed the learners to interact with the peers. The task was the actual learning phase and during the feedback the learners were told about the level of success they had achieved without emphasizing much on the errors they had made.

NSOU PGEL-10 94 Here is a sample task chosen from the experiment which was later published in the form of a book Second Language Pedagogy. The task provided here is categorised under 'Information Transfer'. What does this mean? Let us understand this term a little clearly. We use language for communication. Communication can be divided into two parts - expression and comprehension. Both these parts can either be verbal or non-verbal and it is easy for us to transfer one form to the other. Let us represent this diagrammatically for easier understanding. COMMUNICATION Comprehension Expression Verbal Non-verbal Verbal Non-verbal Figure 1: Divisions of Communication An example will help us understand this concept better. In our life we see a picture or a painting and appreciate it. We understand the artist's intent and share it with our friends. The picture is a non-verbal expression of the artist and our understanding is also a non-verbal comprehension. But when we discuss its meaning or beauty with friends we express ourselves verbally. In this case a non-verbal expression receives a non-verbal comprehension and a verbal expression in the form of appreciation. Let us take another example. Today is the first of the month and I have got my salary. I have the following expenses to meet every month in the same ratio. Let us look at the expenses. a. House rent: 20% b. Grocery 12% c. Milk 05% d. Fruit and vegetables 08%

NSOU PGEL-10 95 e. School fees etc 10% f. Transport 10% g. Miscellaneous 05% h. Electricity, newspaper etc. 15% i. Savings 15% These expenses can be projected in the form of a graph or a pie chart depending on our facility. The information given above is verbal while the graph or pie chart will be non-verbal. This shows that the same information can be presented either verbally or non-verbally. Prabhu believed that such manipulations are an essential part of our communication and his tasks were based on such manipulations. Here is a sample task from the book mentioned earlier. a. Pre-task: The teacher calls the attention of the class and gives instructions. I will give you a set of directions. You have to follow the directions and do likewise. Class show me your right hand. Place your right hand on the desk. Place your left hand on the top. Now relax. Open your notebooks. Draw a straight line. It should be horizontal Draw another straight line which is vertical Call the horizontal line AB Call the vertical line CD. Now work in pairs and compare the lines you have drawn with your friends. See if your answers are the same or different. Talk about it. b. The task: In your note books draw a small horizontal line of 6 cms in length. About half a centimetre below it, draw another line parallel to it and is of the same length. Call the first line AB. Call the second line CD. Write C below B and D below A. Join AD. Mark a point between B and C. Call it E

NSOU PGEL-10 96 Draw a short horizontal line of 1 cm from E. It should move away from B and C. Call this short line EF. Join BF and CF. What do you have on your paper. c. Feedback: Did you get the picture of a pencil on your paper. If you have got it, you are good. Your picture should look like this: A B E F D C Figure 2 Some of you may have got EF wrong. You could have got F inside and not outside. You should be able to get it right the next time. This is one of the early tasks and as the course progresses the tasks become complex allowing the learners to think, participate in discussion and also complete the task. In the course of this, they also learn language. Why did Prabhu call it communicational project and not communicative project? The explanation given by him is as follows. Communicative language teaching has fulfilling learner needs as one of its tenets. However, these needs are identified by the teacher who is an outside agency without allowing the learners to express their needs. Therefore, Prabhu says, we need to allow learners to give us adequate information on what they need. The pre-task helps us diagnose the weaknesses of their language use and helps the teacher build or choose a task according to the learner needs. The learner communicates the need and the teacher provides a lesson to fulfil these needs and hence the approach is called communicational. Because of this the entire project was also called CTP - Communicational Teaching Project.With this we come to the end of this module. Let us now summarise the points discussed in this unit as well as the entire module. 8.8 Summary In this unit we have discussed the details of two innovative projects. In the first project we saw how radio was harnessed to reach out to a large number of teachers. This was used as an instrument of reinforcement to the initial training offered to them in person. The second innovation was directly addressed to the needs of the students. <

NSOU PGEL-10 97 Special materials in the form of tasks were developed with appropriate strategies to help them develop proficiency in English. Summary of the module: This module has a focus on Pedagogical innovations. We began the unit by arriving at a clear understanding of the term innovation. We also said, 'man is by nature innovative, and teaching has been no exception.' In the light of this statement, we looked at the number of changes that have taken place in the teaching of English since its introduction in mid-nineteenth century. Subsequently, we moved to the specific innovations in more recent years. All these innovations have student development as their focus. The West Bengal experiment had a focus on school learners from class V to IX. The major attempt was to wean the learners become slaves to memorisation and start using the language cognitively. Loyola experiment helped students gain proficiency in writing and get a hold on study skills. The SNDT experiment helped learners take to reading more easily and independently. Finally we had a quick look at the Gujarat experiment where radio was used as an excellent outreach instrument to train teachers, and the Bangalore project helping students to become fluent users of English. This should motivate you to take up innovations with your students and perhaps this may have a national relevance tomorrow. 8.9 Review Questions a. How often do we use radio and television in our class for teaching? b. Suggest some ways of using radio broadcast for teaching English? c. What does TELE stand for? d. Why was this essential in Gujarat? e. Did the teachers of English in Gujarat get benefitted by this project? f. What mode of training was used to train a large group of teachers in a short period of time? g. Was radio an instrument of training or reinforcement? h. Why is the Bangalore project called the Communicational Teaching Project? i. What is the underlying principle that guided the Bangalore project? j. What does information stand for? k. Do you think the type of tasks suggested are useful today?

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NSOU PGEL-10 99 Module 3 : Peer Teaching-1 Unit 9 Principles of Microteaching and Peer- teaching. Structure 9.1 Introduction 9.2 Objectives 9.3 Sub-skills of Teaching 9.4 Practice Teaching 9.5 Microteaching 9.6 Stages in Microteaching 9.7 Peer Teaching 9.8 Components of Sub-skills of Teaching 9.8.1 Questioning 9.8.2 Explaining 9.8.3 Narrating 9.8.4 Describing 9.8.5 Illustrating 9.8.6 Stimulus Variation 9.8.7 Reinforcement 9.8.8 Blackboard Work 9.8.9 Classroom Management 9.9 Lesson Plan 9.10 Summary 9.11 Review Questions

NSOU PGEL-10 100 9.1 Introduction This unit is a very important unit in any course on teacher education. This discusses a strategy adopted to train teachers. Though this strategy is dated, it has its values and it is worth discussing it as well as learning from it. To begin with let us discuss what 'microteaching' means. If you analyse the word for its components, you should be able to arrive at its meaning. Will try and define what your understanding of the term is by looking at the words 'micro' (small) and 'teaching'? Your answer: Micro means small. It can also mean condensed or something that has been compressed without losing the quality of the original object. You have micro models of cars - these look like big cars and function like them, but they are very small in size. In a similar manner, if teaching behaviour can be condensed such that the class size, teaching time, teaching content are all present in the process but in smaller doses, we have microteaching. The question that should arise in your mind is 'Is this possible?' To clarify and suggest a possible way of doing this is the aim

of this unit. 9.2

a training strategy b. Analyse the various components of teaching skills c. Look at each skill discretely and analyse it further for its constituents d. Observe a class and offer constructive feedback e. Plan a micro-lesson which will ultimately help you plan your regular lessons. 9.3 Sub-Skills of Teaching You have looked at various language skills. Each skill has a set of sub-skills. The sum total of the sub-skills, helps you master the main skill. Like listening, speaking, reading and writing, teaching is also a major skill. It has a large number of sub-skills. We need to understand what these sub-skills of teaching are. You have been a teacher or at least you have observed your teachers teach in the class. If you are asked to identify the sub-skills of teaching, can you do it?

NSOU PGEL-10 101 Activity 1 Based on your observation, make a list of things that the teacher does while teaching? Your answer: Look at this. In your class has there been a day when the teacher has not done some of the things mentioned below: Questioning Narrating Explaining Describing Illustrating Stimulus variation Reinforcement Black board work Classroom management Integrating/consolidating The list which mentions the sub-skills of teaching is in fact, not full. You can add many more things to this list. A teacher, while teaching in the class does all these things and switches from one to the other easily and he/she looks like an excellent performer. You admire such a teacher, don't you? How has your teacher acquired all these sub-skills? Let us see how we can do this. Here is an analogy from a film based on Microteaching produced by NCERT. This film begins with the visuals of a trained dancer who gives a performance. Later, the film shows how the dancer was trained. Dancing involves the movement of hands, facial gestures, movement of the legs, and coordinating all this with expression of emotions and posturing body in different angles. This is a difficult task. A dance teacher focuses on helping the learner practice the movements of the hands first, and then the steps (legs), later showing various expressions on the face, movement of body parts etc. in isolation. Later the learner is allowed to combine these movements to get the dance right.

NSOU PGEL-10 102 Now let us get back to teaching. A teacher is expected to use a variety of sub- skills to teach. If the teacher is made to practice each sub-skill separately and later coordinate them, perhaps we can train a good teacher. This entire process is based on the beliefs of a group of psychologists called Behavioural Psychologists. B F Skinner was a leading exponent of this science and he believed all learning is a matter of practice and conditioning. By conditioning, we can help a learner get rid of 'bad habits' (wrong learning) and cultivate 'good habits' (correct learning). Why should we do this? You are a student teacher or a person who is undergoing training to become a teacher. As part of your course, you are expected to get practice in teaching. You have no experience in teaching. Activity 2 If you are taken to a school, and allowed to teach in a real class what is likely to happen? Do you have something to say here, please do: Your answer: As a trainee, you are likely to face the following situation. You can be taken aback by the size of the class; you may not able to manage the entire time (40 minutes); you may be nervous because the content of the lesson is much more than you can handle etc. This is true of most students under training. Are there ways by which these problems can be overcome? Imagine a situation as follows: a. You are asked to teach a class with just 10 or 12 students; b. All the students are familiar to you (perhaps your own classmates); c. You are expected to teach for a short period of 8 to 10 minutes only; d. You are allowed to teach a lesson of your choice; e. You are allowed to revise the lesson if you go wrong while teaching; etc. Does this seem to be a more welcome situation? This is exactly what microteaching does. It provides you with ample practice in each sub-skill. Why do we need so much practice? Is it not boring? Just take a look at this situation. You have several skills of which you can feel proud of. What are these

NSOU PGEL-10 103 skills? You may be able to sing, dance, paint, stitch, knit, cook, swim, play a variety of sports and games etc. How did you learn all this? With practice! Any skill becomes better with practice. Look at the following diagram: PRACTICE Further Practice keeps the art alive Fig 1: Place of Practice in refining the skill. The diagram clearly shows that with practice a skill can become better - you know practising to sing makes one a better singer or for that matter any skill. A good singer or a dancer is called an artist. A good teacher is also an artist - do you agree with this? If we consider teaching as a set of skills, and we refine these skills, a teacher is also an artist. Teaching which has many sub-skills, when mastered thoroughly, will render a good or a refined teacher. A teacher who can consolidate the sub-skills appropriately into teaching is indeed an artist. We love to watch such teachers teaching.Let us see how we can practice this, and in the course of our discussion, we will also look at another term called peer-teaching. 9.4 Practice Teaching In your class where you are being trained as a teacher, you have 60 students. We will divide your class into five groups with 12 members in each group. Let us call these students A, B, C, D, E, F, G, H, I, J, K and L. Each group has 12 student teachers. We will further divide this group into 3 groups of 4 each. So we will have three groups ABCD, EFGH, and IJKL. We will assign them roles and later see what the responsibility of each group is. Look at the following diagram. Skill is ability Skill gets refined A person with refined skills is an artist A refined skill is called an art

NSOU PGEL-10 104 Class (60 students) Groups I II III IV V Sub-groups ABCD EFGH IJKL Fig 2. Diagrammatic representation of dividing the class. We have to assign a function to each group and all groups should perform all the tasks. What are these tasks? We shall first look at some of these details, look at the meaning of peer-teaching before concluding our discussion on the topic. When you are being trained to become a teacher, you need to have practice in teaching, you should have a proper understanding of student behaviour - their problems etc. and also observe somebody's lesson to give a feedback. All these three tasks - teaching, observing and giving feedback are crucial. Microteaching aims to provide ample practice in all these three aspects. Every student teacher behaves as a teacher, a student and also an observer. This demands a lot of planning. 9.5 Microteaching In our class we have five groups. Each group will have a supervisor who is also your teacher. The supervisor will help you become familiar with the skills you need to practice, and also provide sufficient guidance to prepare your lesson plans. Your supervisor will divide you into three groups (as mentioned earlier) and assign each group a specific task for the day. He/she will also ensure that all the groups get equal opportunities to each task. Look at the following table. Students Responsibilities Responsibilities Responsibilities Or Roles Or Roles Or Roles ABCD Student Teacher Observer EFGH Teacher Observer Student IJKL Observer Student Teacher Table 1: Possible way of dividing students in groups and sub-groups.

NSOU PGEL-10 105 Microteaching happens in cycles. What does this mean? I am a student teacher. I am not familiar with the intricacies of teaching. I need a lot of practice. I need help and guidance at each step. To facilitate all these, microteaching is designed in the form of cycles. 9.6 Stages in Microteaching Every episode of teaching begins with planning. Microteaching is no exception. Your supervisor assigns you a skill and helps you identify materials to practice the skill. For example, let us say you have chosen narration as the skill. The best material for this will be a story. How to narrate a story? Planning is the first stage of the cycle. You plan the lesson, share it with your supervisor, who corrects it and you refine your plan. The next stage is for you to teach. When you teach you have a set of just four to ten students with you (four from the student group, three from your own group, and three from the observer group). You teach the lesson you have planned for a maximum of eight to ten minutes. In the third stage, your observers will provide you with feedback. They will point out all the errors you have made and also mention the positive points. Your classmates who acted as students will also provide you with their feedback. The supervisor will add his/her comments at the end. In the fourth stage, based on the feedback received you will re-plan your lesson (revise your plan) and re-teach the same lesson. This way you stand to gain. You get to know your weaknesses and also you are given a chance to overcome your weaknesses. Let us put these stages in the form of a diagram. Plan Re-teach Re-plan Teach Revise Feedback Fig 3. Microteaching Cycle

NSOU PGEL-10 106 This cycle will repeat itself for each sub-skill and you may repeat it if you feel dissatisfied with your own performance. Feedback given by your observers may be biased. Though observers are your classmates, they may not be objective. Or, when some points are made about your teaching behaviour, you may not believe what others say. To provide an objective overview, it is also possible to video-record your performance and play it back to you. This will reinforce the comments given by the observers and you will be able to see for yourself your own performance and improve it the next time. 9.7 Peer Teaching Now let us come to discuss the term peer-teaching. The new word here is 'peer'. What is the meaning of this word? Just look up a dictionary and note down the different meanings of the word. Your answer: The dictionary offers two meanings. The first meaning refers to the word as a noun and denotes a person of similar background as you, enjoying the same social status. The second meaning is that of a verb and denotes an action of looking at something closely. Which of the two meaning will be appropriate here? Perhaps, both. You will teach someone who is in your class (same social status) and he/she will look closely at your lesson closely. A practice of teaching someone who is like you, and also the practice of looking at an event (your teaching) closely constitute peer teaching. The word 'peer' also means, a friend, an equal, someone in who we can confide, someone who will offer you help etc. Since you teach your friends to get help from them this entire process is called peer teaching. Peer teaching or micro-teaching demands a lesson plan. In the next section we will discuss the details of planning a micro-lesson. Lesson plan for a micro lesson: In order to plan your lessons for microteaching, you need to know each sub-skill of teaching thoroughly. Knowing a sub-skill means knowing its components and how they are related to each other. Such knowledge helps us in developing a lesson plan and also practising the same.

NSOU PGEL-10 107 9.8 Components of Sub-skills of Teaching Here is a table that gives you the components for each of the sub-skills. Take a good look at these components, and keep track of them. We will explain these terms with reference to each sub-skill as they are described. You will find the description immediately after the table that follows. Sl. No. Sub-skill Components 1 Questioning Grammaticality, Appropriateness, Distribution, Rephrasing, Handling, Appreciating 2 Explaining Grammaticality, Appropriateness, Length, Relevance, Feedback/verifying 3 Narrating Choice of story, Tone, Loudness, Gestures, Grammaticality, Involvement, Appropriate beginning and Conclusion 4 Describing Choice of topic, Language, Grammaticality, Use of proper words Involving learners, Questions and responses 5 Illustrating Understanding of the topic Appropriateness, Level of the learner Mode of illustration Verbal/pictorial 6 Stimulus variation Types of stimulus, Choice of teaching aids, Appropriateness, Time of exposure to the aids, Handling, movements, Gestures, Change in the voice, Feedback

NSOU PGEL-10 108 7 Reinforcement Summarizing, Involving learners, Types of summaries, Probing questions, Clarification, Illustration, Using positive verbal reinforcement, Non-Verbal reinforcement, feedback 8 Black board work Neatness - lettering, line, errors in writing, Organization, Number of erasures, Method of erasing, Use while summarizing 9 Classroom Seating, Instructing, Discipline, Giving feedback, management Using teaching aids, Summarizing/repeating 10 Integrating/ Appropriate use of sub-skills, sequencing of sub- Consolidating skills. Table 2. Components of different sub-skills. 9.8.1 Questioning Questioning is an important sub-skill of teaching. You must have noticed in your classes that every teacher who comes into the class keeps asking questions. The questions that are framed need to have a set of qualities. They should in the first place be grammatically correct. In English, the grammar of a question is different from the grammar of a statement. We should be aware of this. They should be appropriate. This means that the questions should be based on the passage/text that is taught. They should be framed in such a manner that the learners should be able to answer them. They should be distributed well. This means that no section of the class should be ignored. There should be plenty of questions and all learners should have an opportunity to answer them. Sometimes the questions that we ask may not be understood. In such a case, we should not simply repeat the question loudly. Instead we should rephrase the question or simplify it in such a way that the learners are able to understand and respond.

NSOU PGEL-10 109 Handling questions is another quality a teacher should develop. It is not appropriate to identify a learner and then ask the question. Instead, the question should be thrown open to the class, and based on how many learners are ready to respond, the teacher should choose a learner to respond. Besides this, when a learner responds with an inappropriate answer, the teacher should be able to take such an answer and manipulate the learner to arrive at the correct answer. Appreciating is also an essential part of questioning. When learners respond to the questions, they expect a word of praise or appreciation in return. A teacher should be sensitive to this and learn to say 'good' 'well done' or 'keep it up'. 9.8.2 Explaining Explaining is another common sub-skill of teaching. Most teachers resort to this when they have a difficult concept to put across to the whole class particularly so, when the class is large. While explaining the teacher needs to take care of the following components: Grammaticality: This has already been explained, and it is important for us as teachers of English to use our language correctly. Appropriateness refers the correctness of explanation: A good teacher organizes the matter systematically in such a manner that it becomes easy for the learners to remember the contents. Length is also a part of appropriateness. Some teachers have the habit of explaining things far too long. This tends to make the class boring and the learners lose interest in the class. A teacher should take care to avoid lengthy explanations. Relevance refers to the choice of the concept and the technique. Certain concepts cannot be explained, they need to be illustrated. Has the teacher chosen the right topic/concept for explaining or not is seen here. Feedback/verification: Having explained a concept it is the responsibility of the teacher to verify whether the concept has been understood properly. This can be done using some techniques like questioning or summarizing or re-explaining by the students followed by appreciation.

NSOU PGEL-10 110 9.8.3 Narrating This skill is employed by teachers at different times. Language teachers need to possess this skill to tell a story, or an anecdote as an illustration for a point. Narrating makes the class interesting and it is a very effective technique to motivate the learners. The following components are part of this skill: Choice of story: This is an important aspect. Before narrating a story or an incident make sure that what we narrate will interest the learners. This should be theme and age appropriate. Tone: Narrating is a technique that will gain in value if the right tone is adopted. We should be able to modulate our voice and bring life into our narration. We may need to shout or whisper as per the needs of the story. Loudness: This quality is not necessarily restricted to narration. It is a general quality, and a good, clear and loud voice is an asset to any teacher. This does not mean that a teacher should shout in the class, but he/she has to use a voice that reaches out to all the learners without much difficulty. While narrating, loudness is important for the learners may lose interest in listening if the voice is soft and monotonous. Gestures: Spoken language used for communication without proper gestures (body language) is dull. However, the gestures we use are specific to culture and the meaning the words convey. While narrating a story or an incident, taking care of gestures is very important. Involvement: While narrating a story, we should get involved in the plot of the story. This can be done by expressing right emotions that are appropriate to the theme of the story we are narrating. Such involvement motivates the learner to listen to the narrator (teacher in this case). Conclusion: This is an important part of narration. Very often, when we narrate a story or an event the conclusion is missing and this leaves the listener uncertain of what happens next. If the narration is a problem solving task or an open-ended story, an exception can be made and no conclusion given. Otherwise, conclusion is an essential part of all narration. 9.8.4 Describing This skill is also a very important and commonly used skill by almost all the

NSOU PGEL-10 111 teachers. Describing becomes essential when we are talking about a person, place, object or an event or a procedure. Describing is not exclusive to English classes, but also employed in content classes. Components of this skill are discussed below: Choice of topic: We have talked about this component while discussing narrating. The principles applied are the same, and it is more relevant to factual descriptions. Descriptions should be properly organized and should reflect the logic of the visual object, person, place or event we are describing. Similarly the order of events forms part of the organization while describing events and procedures. Language: While describing, the language used has to be simple and provide factual details. Simple present and past are best suited to describe events or objects, persons and places. While describing places present is better suited than the past. Use of proper words: We should be careful with the choice of our words while describing. This is particularly true when we are describing objects that learners are not familiar with. We should also exercise great care while describing people, in particular if the people we describe are living. Questions and responses: This component is useful not only with this skill, but also with the skill of narration. Questions help us receive a feedback on whether we have described something or narrated a story properly. Question could be either from the listener (learner) or the speaker (teacher). 9.8.5 Illustrating Illustrating is also an important skill in teaching. Illustrations can be of many types. It could be either verbal or pictorial or using a model, real objects or visual medium. Illustrating is helpful while teaching vocabulary or difficult concepts. Illustrating of emotions can also happen through demonstration. Components of this skill are: Understanding of the topic is very essential to illustrate the concept or word we are teaching. A wrong illustration is going to damage the learners for life and therefore we need to be careful while selecting the type of illustration and see that it coheres with the topic we are teaching. Appropriateness is also important while illustrating. There are certain objects that are too obvious which need not be brought to the class for illustration.

NSOU PGEL-10 112 There may be ethical reasons as well that restrict us from bringing in some objects, or showing pictures in the class for illustration. We have to use our discretion before deciding how we illustrate a particular concept or word. Level of the learner should be borne in mind while illustrating a concept. This is what we have said while discussing 'appropriateness'. Ethics matter greatly while illustrating and particularly so when we consider the age of the learner. Mode of illustration: While introducing this sub-skill we have said that illustration can be of many types: Verbal - or provide meaning of a word using it in a sentence; or describe a simple object or mention its use. Pictorial - we may illustrate the object using pictures, and the pictures can be drawn on the board, or shown on a chart, or a medium like computer, slide projector, OHP or a video clipping on a television. Real objects or models can substitute pictures and charts. Visual/pictorial this has been discussed and subsumed in while describing other components of this sub-skill. 9.8.6 Stimulus Variation Stimulus Variation is a skill every teacher needs to become familiar with. This skill is employed to ward off the boredom from the learners. If we subject our learners to a spell of continuous listening, or continuous reading, or writing they feel bored and exhausted. Their attention needs to be diverted from one source of information to another. They may listen for a while, then see something, (perhaps what is written on the board) such that what they listen gets reinforced by what they see and vice-versa. This skill has the following components: Types of stimulus: In a normal class we have two types of stimulus - either listening or seeing. Listening pertains to listening to the teacher or fellow learners, while seeing pertains to reading what is written on the board, observing a demonstration, watching a visual clip on a video, looking at a chart or a picture etc. These two stimuli reinforce each other and enhance the learning quality. Choice of teaching aids refers to the types of visual aids that the teacher can use in the class. The teacher himself/herself can be the first teaching aid, with good blackboard work, or other teaching aids. The choice of teaching aids depends on their size, versatility, usefulness and more than anything the

NSOU PGEL-10 113 pragmatics. We need to exercise great caution in choosing our teaching aids. It is best to use teaching aids that are made by the teacher and are low in cost. Time of exposure to the teaching aids is an important caution that we need to exercise. There are occasions when the teacher either over exposes or under exposes the teaching aid to learners. We should also practise to show the teaching aid and match our explanation or description that is appropriate. Handling a teaching aid is not very easy. One of the reasons we should choose the right teaching aid is to be comfortable in handling it. We should be able to hold the teaching aid in such a manner that the whole class can view it. It is best to hold the teaching aid parallel to our face or next to our face without covering it. (If we cover our face with the teaching aid, we will not be able to see our learners, and it may cause for problems of discipline.) Feedback on the teaching aid used needs to be obtained and this also accounts for stimulus variation as a new voice is heard (other than the teacher's voice). 9.8.7 Reinforcement Reinforcement is a skill that every teacher needs to employ periodically. However, we need to know that repeating is not the only reinforcement strategy. Here are the components of this skill: Summarizing is a good skill that every teacher needs to possess. This is one good way of reinforcing learning. Summaries can be in the form of a narrative or can be points put up on the blackboard. Involving learners is another good reinforcement strategy. When teacher teaches a lesson, several concepts are introduced. A teacher can take a pause after explaining a point, and make one or two learners repeat what they have listened/learnt for others to listen to. This repetition is better than the teacher repeating the points often. There can be different types of summaries, and this is particularly true when we take notes. Summaries can be provided by the teacher orally, or in the form of hand-outs which have salient features or the synopsis of the lesson. A synopsis can be provided either at the beginning or the end of the lesson depending on how the teacher wants to teach the lesson. Probing-questions or some rhetorical questions that the teacher can use in the

NSOU PGEL-10 114 course of teaching. Some of these questions can be content based and require elaborate answers while some of the questions can be in the form of 'Have you understood?' 'Are you with me?' 'Do you have any questions?' demanding implicit responses from the learners in the form of a nod of the head, or yes/no appropriately. Clarification is an extension of the probing questions. However, the difference is that the questions in this case can emerge from the learners seeking clarifications on the subjects taught, and the response may come from either the teacher or other learners. Illustration is another reinforcement strategy that has been discussed in detail. 9.8.8 Blackboard Work Blackboard is a ubiquitous aid available in almost any classroom and perhaps the most easily available teaching aid for a teacher. However, not every teacher can use it effectively, and it is necessary to learn some techniques of using it properly. Components provided for this skill help you in doing so. Let us take a look at each one of them closely: Neatness of writing on the board is an important component of using the blackboard. What is written on the board, every learner in the class should be able to see and read without any difficulty. To do this, one needs to be aware of the size and shape of letters, the strokes that form the letters and the right space that we need to leave between words and sentences. We should also pay attention to the space between lines. Organization of writing on the blackboard is equally important. This refers to how we use the space available on the board. It is best to start writing from the top left hand corner of the board and end at the bottom right hand corner, just as we do on a normal paper. The writing should be in the form of points for recapitulating the points at the end of our teaching. Number of erasures should be kept to the minimum as this is likely to disturb the learners. Besides this, matter once erased cannot be retrieved, and since blackboard is a good summarizing device, erasures should be kept to the minimum. This comes with practice. Method of erasing is also a technique to be learnt by every teacher. This has two reasons. The first reason is to erase the board in such a manner that the board becomes really clean. Secondly, the dust should not fly across the NSOU PGEL-10 115 classroom making it an untidy place. If one erases the board from top to bottom in single strokes, the dust gathers at the bottom of the board, and leaves it clean for other teachers to use it properly. Practice makes it perfect. Useful in summarizing: This point has been made clear while discussing the number of erasures. 9.8.9 Classroom Management Classroom Management is more than a single skill and involves aspects such as psychology, teachers' attitude, levels of tolerance etc. The components that we need to discuss are: Seating arrangement in the class is an important aspect of classroom management. Learners can be made to sit in a variety of ways and you will learn more about this in your classes on education. However, if the monotony of seating can be altered as frequently as possible that brings newness to the class. Instructing or giving instructions is another aspect of classroom management. The language of instructions given to learners should be simple, direct and effective. Learners need to be instructed about the type of work they need to do either for learning processes or behaviour in general. Discipline is a principle that should be maintained in the class, and a teacher is largely responsible for this. Discipline does not restrict itself to maintaining silence. It relates to promoting participation in the learning process, making a constructive contribution to the classroom processes. A teacher can imbibe this either by practice, encouragement, show of affection, and also using proper instructions and a bit of punishment. The other components of classroom management are giving feedback, using teaching aids and summarizing appropriately. These have been discussed earlier as part of other skills. It is one thing to learn about all these skills in isolation and use them in the course of Microteaching, and another thing to learn to integrate them for real teaching. Integration of skills happens with time and at the end of microteaching sessions you will have a macro lesson which you will teach with your peers. Another way of learning to integrate is by observing your teachers who use all the micro skills every day in their classes.

NSOU PGEL-10 116 9.9 Lesson Plan While developing a lesson plan, the first thing you should learn is to state your objectives properly. In the lesson plan, you should mention exactly what you do and what you expect your learners to do. Besides these, you should also indicate the materials you want to use for teaching. These are provided in columns and a format of the lesson plan below. Suggested format for a Micro Lesson Plan Name: Roll No: Date: Skill: Components: Objectives: Teacher Talk Learner Talk Materials Used Supervisor's comments: The plan format is self-explanatory, and your teacher will provide you with model lesson plans before the microteaching sessions begin. We hope this has been helpful to you, and we wish you happy teaching. We will close the unit here and in the next unit (Unit 10) we shall discuss a few more strategies used for training teachers. 9.10 Summary Let us check our understanding so far by summarising what is discussed. We have looked at teaching as a set of sub-skills. It is possible to provide practice in each sub-skill separately to help one gain a mastery over the larger skill. (Learning how to dance is a good example). This process of identifying sub-skills and offering practice in each of them is the first principle of microteaching. If student-teachers are allowed to teach their classmates (peers), for a short duration a lesson of their choice, it provides them with greater confidence. This is the second principle of microteaching.

NSOU PGEL-10 117 9.11 Review Questions a. Do you consider teaching a skill the same way the language is? b. What are the sub-skills of teaching? c. Does a teacher under training need to be trained in developing each sub-skill? d. What are some of the sub-skills of teaching? e. While training in each sub-skill, what is the first step we need to take? f. Mention some of the components of the sub-skill narration? g. What are the advantages of micro-teaching? h. Why is micro-teaching called peer teaching? i. How do we organise students for peer-teaching? j. What strategies can we adopt to make our observation objective? k. How do we integrate the skills learned during the peer teaching?

NSOU PGEL-10 118 Unit 10 Teacher Training Strategies Structure 10.1 Introduction 10.2 Objectives 10.3 History of Teacher Training 10.4 The Craft Model 10.5 The Applied Science Model 10.6 The Reflective Model 10.6.1 Reflective Teaching 10.7 Summary 10.8 Review Questions 10.1 Introduction Teacher training is an interesting word that has undergone a few changes in the last four decades. Are you aware of other terms used in place of teacher training? Please note down your answers here: Your answer: Look at the following terms: Teacher training, Teacher Education and Teacher Development. Do these three phrases mean the same thing? They are often used as synonyms or one in the place of another. In understanding these terms, we also get to know a little about the history of teacher training. 10.2

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Objectives After going through this unit the learners will be able to a. Understand the concept of

teacher education from a historical perspective b. Distinguish the terms training, education and development c. Associate the terms with respective schools of thought

NSOU PGEL-10 119 d. Realise the importance of teacher autonomy. 10.3 History of Teacher Training When did teacher training begin? It is fairly a recent phenomenon. Teaching was thought to be the job of a scholar. It was a job where one who knew shared the knowledge with someone who didn't have the knowledge or needed it. It was thought to be a simple job. Teaching itself was largely didactic - the learner listened to the teacher and followed faithfully the teachings either by memorising the steps or simply following them (craft model). However, not all teachers did their job the same way. Some were exceptionally good, and some were difficult to understand. To standardise these practices attempts were made in different parts of the world, and schools that were popularly known as 'normal schools' were established to train teachers. The earliest record of such a school in India was in the year 1793 in Serampore in West Bengal. But most of the details of how this school functioned is lost to us. We have talked about Wood's Despatch in Unit 5 of the previous module. This seminal document recommends the need for training teachers to improve the education standards in India. Based on this recommendation the first college of education was established in the city of Madras (Saidapet Teachers' College) in 1856. The college is in operation to date as the oldest college of teacher education in India. Once the teacher education was formalised, the training strategies were also refined and with experience. In hind sight, we can now look at the entire process of teacher training and build theories pertaining to it. Scholars have identified three different strategies of teacher training and we shall look at them in some detail. The three models of teacher training are as follows: a. The Craft Model b. The Applied Science Model c. The Reflective Model. Activity 1 Before we discuss these models, would you like to share your views on these terms? What does each term mean to you? You may note down your answers here: Your answer: Let us look at these three models one after the other.

NSOU PGEL-10 120 10.4 The Craft Model The first one is the Craft Model. All of you are familiar with the word 'Craft'. What does this word mean? It is the same as skill. We have looked at the word skill several times and we know a skill gets refined with practice. (see unit 9). What are the skills that can get refined with practice? Almost, any skill! Look at your handwriting. It was never like this when you began to learn writing. You practised writing over a long period of time. You looked at your parents, other elders around you, and your teachers and tried to imitate them while writing. You learnt how to hold a pen, you gained control over the movement of your hand, you could make the strokes properly depending on the language you were writing (you don't write English and Bengali the same way, do you?) and today, you have achieved a style of your own. People, who know you, can identify your writing easily. You learnt to write as a craft. There are several professions which are skill based. A potter can make pots easily. His son/daughter who sees him making pots, tries to imitate him and in the bargain learns how to make a pot. Several professions have been handed down like this from ages. Potters, smiths, carpenters, farmers, cobblers and even lawyers and musicians have inherited the profession of their parents by sheer imitation. If this is the case, can teachers' children also become teachers by imitating them? With enough exposure, practice and the right aptitude this should not be impossible. Can we have teachers children becoming teachers? This model can be accepted, if we consider teaching only as a skill without any knowledge going into it. Does teaching demand knowledge? We do not need to answer this question. The answer is obvious. If we believe that teaching is merely a set of skills to be practised and refined, then Craft model is a good strategy. This provides for Teacher Training. Training refers to providing practice based on a model. There is an inherent weakness in this model. I may be very good for acquiring a skill. But if I do not understand why I am doing it, perhaps, I cannot improve on what I am doing. Let us take an example to illustrate this. The mechanic, who can repair your scooter, does it because of sheer practice. He may be able to locate a fault and set it right. But he cannot tell you what measures need to be taken to prevent it. Exactly, similarly, a person selling medicines in a medical store is aware of the usefulness of medicines, but he cannot diagnose your problem and prescribe a drug to cure it.

NSOU PGEL-10 121 Activity 2 If I learn to teach using craft model, I keep teaching the same way all through my life without ever showing signs of improvement. Is this desirable? Let us have your opinion on this. Your opinion: Of course, the model is not totally bereft of truth. Teaching is certainly a skill and a lot of practice is required to learn how to teach. One grows with experience, but it is not confined to being a skill alone. It goes further and depends on knowledge. If this is the case, we need to think of an alternative model of teacher training. 10.5 The Applied Science Model This is a very interesting label. Do you know the term 'applied science'? All knowledge is divided into two parts - the first is called the 'fundamental science' and the second one 'applied science'. Activity 3 What is the difference between 'fundamental science' and 'Applied Science"? Are they totally different from each other? Would you like to share your thoughts on this? Your views: Fundamental science and applied science are complementary to each other. This means, they cannot live without each other. Applied science depends on fundamental science to invent something. Fundamental science depends on the experiments conducted by the applied scientists. Fundamental science is also called 'theoretical science'. This branch, constructs a hypothesis, or comes out with a concept and provides new knowledge to the world. For example, the production of electrical energy is a case in point. When this was discovered by Benjamin Franklin while flying a kite, little did the world know about its multiple uses? Today, because of the efforts put in by applied scientists like Thomas Alva Edison, we are rendered into a state when we cannot live without electricity. A fundamental scientist discovers something and an applied scientist shows us how to use this knowledge or apply it to make our lives more comfortable. What has all this to do with teacher training? Discovery of knowledge is not confined to science alone. There can be discoveries in psychology, sociology and any branch of knowledge. Teaching is also a branch of knowledge that largely belongs

NSOU PGEL-10 122 to the fields of psychology and sociology. If we want a teacher to do something - e.g. write on the blackboard, there is a reason. This reason can be found in the knowledge shared by allied subjects. Why should my handwriting be neat, why should my writing be organized, why should I not erase the board often etc., etc. such questions can be asked endlessly by a student-teacher. A trainer simply cannot say, 'This is what all teachers have done, so you better do it.' That would be an inappropriate answer. Teaching goes beyond skills. It has a set of sound principles which need to be understood. For example, 'a child feels happy if the child is praised'. This is a piece of knowledge. Do I use it in my class? If in my class, I appreciate children for good work, I have applied the knowledge I have in my class. Such practice is labelled as 'applied science' model. Let us go a little further. How does science work? Scientific research is described as 'discovery processes'. There are a few steps we need to understand here. What does discovery process mean? Look at the following illustration. I am a new comer to a town. I do not know anyone. I go for a walk in the evening and meet about 15 people. Since I am a stranger, nobody wishes me nor recognize me. I conclude that the town is an unfriendly place. Let us analyse this situation. The context is a stranger in a town. He/she wants to find out how good or bad the town is. He/she comes across a few people. The person does not greet anyone. He/she observes nobody greets him. So jumps to the conclusion that the town is unfriendly. What are the flaws here? a. The person is an outsider. He does not put in any effort to establish contact with the people of the town. b. In a town, fifteen people is a very small part of the population. c. The time evening, is perhaps the time when everyone is returning from work and not in the best of moods to interact with a stranger. d. There could have been some incident in the town warning people from interacting with strangers. The new person arriving in town has hurriedly arrived at a conclusion. In scientific terms we say, that the person who wanted to know the town, formed a hypothesis 'This town has friendly people'. He collected data to prove his hypothesis. The data showed that his hypothesis was wrong, so he arrived at a conclusion.

NSOU PGEL-10 123 In science, if this happens, we revise our hypothesis, gather more data, verify the hypothesis and reconfirm if our earlier conclusion was right. So this person needs to go out once again into the town, meet more number of people, perhaps take the initiative to greet and see if others respond. Once he does this, he may gather very different data and come out with a different set of results. Formulating a hypothesis, gathering data, analysing it and verifying it with the hypothesis is called 'discovery processes'. In teaching, we often do this. A child does not understand what I teach. I begin to analyse why the child is not able to understand. I formulate a hypothesis which could be - the child is dull; the lesson is difficult; my teaching pace is rather fast; my questions are difficult to understand; I need to use proper teaching aids; I need to change the lesson; I need to make the child sit in a different place; I should talk to the parents; I should report to the Headmaster etc. I can have several hypotheses. I will observe the child for a few more days and reduce the number of hypotheses to either two or three. I read books about this problem and bring about modifications in my lesson and teaching strategy. If I do this, I use what is called the discovery process to teach and the model of teaching is applied science model. Can we train teachers in this way? The answer is 'yes'. All teacher training programmes have two components - the professional component and the proficiency component. Both are very vital to teacher training and are normally shared in the ratio of 50:50. Some institutes may vary it according to the intake. Let us see what these components mean to us. Professional competence refers to the imparting of teaching skills. This includes theories of learning, (also called dynamics of learning), knowledge fields such as psychology of learning, needs analysis, curriculum design and a variety of other factors along with teaching practice. Proficiency component on the other hand helps the teacher become familiar with the content of what he/she is expected to teach. A teacher of English cannot teach English, if his/her own proficiency in the use of language is weak. Similarly, a teacher of history should be proficient in history, a mathematics teacher in mathematics etc. On a teacher training course, a trainer should provide enough opportunities to the trainee to gain proficiency in the content. This could be in form of gaining clarity of concepts and be sure of being able to help learners overcome their difficulties with the content of the subject.

NSOU PGEL-10 124 The applied science model develops the professional competence by providing adequate inputs in theory of learning and also helping the learners assimilate this knowledge in their own practice. Does such knowledge make us good teachers? Is there something more we need to become good teachers? This is what we need to look at? Activity 4 In your opinion, what may be the weaknesses of applied science model of teacher training? Note down your points here: Your views: I may have good knowledge, and I may use the skills to teach very well. But, I always feel I have learnt everything, I am perfect and there is nothing more for me to learn. Will this be right thing for me to do as a teacher? What do you think? Why don't you write your views on this? Your views: A good teacher is one who is forever a learner. In other words, a sense of complacency should never come to a teacher. Today, we have a concept called Continuing Professional Development (CPD), which means that we learn to teach till the last day of our life. This is indeed true. How can we do this? Let us take some examples from our life. Long ago, there was a particular mode of communication called writing letters. One would write a letter, put it in an envelope (or an inland letter) and seal it before dropping it off in a post box. The letter would then be collected, transmitted to the place of the receiver and be delivered to the right person. This system is slowly fading out. But this was one of the popular and favourite modes of communication. Sometimes, one would write a letter, seal the letter in an envelope, post it and then suddenly remember that an important point that had to be included was not written. There was no possibility of going back to the box, retrieving the letter, opening the seal and rewriting the whole letter again. One would have to write a fresh letter and this was laborious process on the part of the writer and could cause confusion on the part of the receiver who would receive two letters with different contents. How could a situation like this be saved? Today, we have changed from writing letters to sending e-mails. We often press the send button without making sure that the necessary files are attached. Most of you might have done these yourselves.

NSOU PGEL-10 125 10.6 The Reflective Model The person who writes the letter could have read it a few times before posting to ascertain all the points were included. He could think about it for a while before sealing the envelope. Such revising and thinking could save a lot of trouble. Similarly we could revise our email once before clicking the send button and ensure the attachment is in place. One more word for thinking, especially about the job we have just completed is called 'reflection'. We shall look at one more strategy of teaching called 'reflective teaching'. 10.6.1 Reflective teaching The illustration provided above should have given you some idea of what reflective teaching means. None of us can be perfect. There can often be drawbacks or weaknesses in our work. It is always nice to share our work with others or reflect on what we have done. This will help us improve ourselves and perform better each day. This should be the goal of our teaching and teacher training. What are the ways in which we can reflect? We have an exercise called 'remembering exercise'. Have you heard of this? It is a simple task. Every evening, before you retire for the day, just spend a few minutes thinking about all the things that you have done. Try and recall if you have forgotten something that had to be done. Take it up or put it on your 'to do list' for the next day. This will save you from a lot of embarrassment and disappointment. This remembering exercise is essential aspect of our teaching job. Each time we finish a class, we should look for the reaction of our learners. Were they happy? Did they appear cheerful? Did they ask questions/respond to questions? Was there unnecessary noise in the class? Try and ask yourself these questions at the end of each class. The answers you get will help you assess your class either as successful or not so. There is another way in which we can measure the success of our class. As I get out of the class do I feel happy or disappointed? If I feel happy or satisfied, the class I had was a successful one. Otherwise, it was wanting in quality. Once you have an idea of how many successful classes you have had and how many were not so, you can analyse these classes for what you did. In successful classes, you were perhaps well prepared, you were in a good mood, you liked the topic you were teaching, you could respond to most of the student questions (because

NSOU PGEL-10 126 of your preparation) etc. A not very successful class could be because you were not well, perhaps you were in a bad mood because of a quarrel you had with a colleague or at home etc. It could also be because you did not find time to prepare for the class, you made spelling errors while writing on the board, or forgot a few points you had to mention while teaching, or you could not think of the right examples. This can happen to almost all of us at some time or the other. These are our failures, and all of us have faced failures. How we tackle with the failure and make sure it does not recur accounts for reflection. Try and restrict your reflection to aspects such as the materials used in the class for teaching, strategies used to teach, larger classroom management, time organization and other related aspects. These are crucial to teaching and if you are able to identify the weaknesses in these aspects, you should also be able to overcome those weaknesses and become a better teacher. Reflective teaching is an attempt to improve oneself constantly. There are various strategies for doing this. Keeping or maintaining a copious diary is one of them. Your diary entries could have your lesson notes and the end results. If you examine these entries over a period of time, you will have adequate material to improve yourself. Reading and updating ones knowledge is another strategy of reflection. When we read, we become aware of our shortcomings. Let us look at a new term in this connection. This is called 'Loop Input Strategy'. (This term was given to us by Tessa Woodward.) Let us try and understand this in simple terms. Look at the following situation. I want to be a teacher of English. But my own proficiency in English is not very good. I need to learn English and also become familiar with methods of teaching English. I have little time to do both. Can I achieve both these at the same time? The answer is 'yes'. I need to learn English as well as become familiar with methods of teaching. If I choose to read a book on methods of teaching English written in a fairly accessible manner, I will learn the language as well as become familiar with methods of teaching. This is a two pronged strategy, and such strategy is called 'loop input strategy'. In fact, this is what we are trying to do for you. We are helping you cope with training materials in as simple a language as possible so that your English proficiency gets better with your professional knowledge. 10.7 Summary Let us now conclude the unit with a quick revision or consolidation. We began

NSOU PGEL-10 127 the unit with a mention of three phrases - Teacher Training, Teacher Education and Teacher Development. Can you relate these to the strategies that we have discussed? Teacher Training which is at the bottom of hierarchy was interested in developing teaching skills. So this was a product of Craft Model. Teacher Education aimed at providing the student teachers with associated knowledge along with skills. The student teachers were expected to apply this knowledge to their work. This subscribes to Applied Science Model. Teacher Development induces in the teacher a desire to improve. It cultivates in the teacher a better attitude of tolerance (I am a learner, I make errors, my learner can also make errors), and an openness to learn from others. This comes through in the Reflective Model. Today, we call good teachers 'reflective practitioners'. What would you like to be? Just write a line here in conclusion. Your response: 10.8 Review Questions 1. Teaching is an old discipline. How old is teacher training? 2. What were the reasons for training teachers? 3. When did the teacher training as a discipline began in India? 4. How many models of teacher training are you familiar with? 5. To which of these models does the training you have received belong to? 6. Which of the three models is best according to you? Give reasons 7. What are the principles of Applied Science model? 8. Do you think this really works? 9. What does reflection mean? 10. Have you reflected on your teaching? 11. Has such reflection helped you become better?

NSOU PGEL-10 128 Unit 11 Observation as a Learning Strategy- Lesson Planning Structure 11.1 Introduction 11.2 Objectives 11.3 Integrated Strategy in Teacher Training 11.4 Practice Teaching 11.5 Lesson Plan 11.5.1 Objectives 11.5.2 Materials 11.5.3 Strategies 11.5.4 Steps of Progression 11.6 Format of a Lesson Plan 11.7 Summary 11.8 Review Questions 11.9 References 11.1 Introduction In the previous two units you have looked at some aspects of teacher training. In Unit 9, we had a detailed discussion on Microteaching/Peer teaching. In Unit 10, we looked at terms called Teacher Training, Teacher Education and Teacher Development. We also related these terms to three models of training - viz. The Craft Model, The Applied Science Model and The Reflective Model. We provided some examples to illustrate each of these models and finally left you with question to answer. Hope you have answered

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it. 11.2 Objectives After going through this unit, the learners will be able to:

NSOU PGEL-10 129 a. Understand the integrating strategies for teacher training, b. Appreciate the need for planning a lesson, c. Understand the different parts of a lesson plan, d. Draft a detailed lesson plan for teaching in the class. 11.3 Integrated Strategy in Teacher Training We will continue with training strategies and look at one more strategy which is an integrated strategy. This is applicable to all the models and depends on one's ability to grasp concepts and critique them. This is called the Observation Strategy. When we think of observation, I am reminded of a verse in one of the Indian languages which reads as follows when translated into English: We learn a few things from others, who are knowledgeable, A few things are learnt by doing or experiencing, And a few more, by observing others doing it. Sarvajna: A medieval Kannada poet. To me the last line is quite important. We learn something by observing others. This ties up with the idea of the Craft Model we discussed in the previous unit. But this goes far beyond that. Teacher Training is a complex process. It has three major components - Theories of teaching/learning; proficiency in the content subject and practicum or practice teaching. We shall confine ourselves to the last aspect in this unit. 11.4 Practice Teaching Practicum or practice teaching is an integral and important aspect of any teacher training programme. In the old dispensation, we had each student teach 40 classes in the course of one year training. Since 2015, when the duration of the programme was increased to two years, the practicum component also got a boost and the students are required to teach nearly a hundred lessons over a period of four months. What does practicum constitute? Let us take a look. Practicum has three different parts to it: a. Theories of teaching/learning (Theories related to classroom strategies),

NSOU PGEL-10 130 b. Lesson plans - their structure and rationale, c. Observation - how and what of it, d. We shall discuss the last two components in this unit without ignoring the first component. Note: It may not be out of place to mention here that, the first of the components deals with classroom strategies. This includes classroom management, using the blackboard, explaining, describing, narrating, questioning, stimulus variation etc. These are sub-skills of teaching and we have discussed these in detail in Unit 9. You may take a quick look at it and revise your knowledge of classroom strategies. 11.5 Lesson Plan The second component of Practicum deals with Lesson Plan and we shall look at it in some detail. We will begin by answering the question, 'Why do we need a lesson plan?' In response we can mention that a lesson plan is like a route map for teaching a lesson in the class. It helps us get a clear idea of the work we need to do within the stipulated time allotted to us (about forty minutes). This is a complex task and demands good planning and preparation in a systematic manner which is also acceptable to others. A lesson plan has various parts to it. The major parts are: Objectives Materials Strategies Steps of progression Each of these terms is very meaningful and need to be understood properly. Let us look at them individually with some illustrations. This is important to understand and appreciate the role of observation. 11.5.1 Objectives Objectives: This is a technical term and it has a few synonyms. It is also referred to by two other terms aims and goals. We have often heard people talk about 'aim in life' or 'goals in life'. Some of us are clear about this, but many are not. A lesson plan should have a goal or an aim and should be expressed as its objective. Let us introduce two new terms 'entering behaviour' and 'terminal behaviour'. These are terms used by Behaviour psychologists while talking about a mode of

NSOU PGEL-10 131 learning called Programmed Learning. These terms are useful in lesson planning as well. Let us imagine the teaching of a lesson as a journey. Every journey needs to begin somewhere and end elsewhere. Similarly, a lesson should take you from one point of learning to another point of learning which is perhaps higher or better. It is in this context the two terms mentioned gain significance. Entering behaviour suggests the knowledge a learner possesses at the beginning of the lesson, while the terminal behaviour indicates the improvement that is desired in the learner at the end of the lesson. An objective is a claim made by a teacher about the achievement at the end of his/her class. Such claims should be modest and not ambitious. You will understand this point when you look at the illustrations given later. Let us illustrate this. At the beginning of my class, my learners do not know how to distinguish between disyllabic words that can be both nouns/adjectives or verbs by placing stress on the correct syllable. This is their entering behaviour. At the end of my class, the learners will be able to pronounce words like CON-tent and con-TENT without confusion and also use them properly in sentences. This will be their terminal behaviour. The illustration given above is very narrow. This is something that can be achieved in a class session of 50 minutes duration. But how do we state this in our lesson plan? Look at the statement of objective to capture the above lesson.

Look at disyllabic words with contrastive stress, b. Understand the significance of stress in relation to grammar and meaning. c. Identify and pronounce correctly disyllabic words stressed on the first syllable, d. Identify and pronounce correctly disyllabic words stressed on the second syllable, e. Use disyllabic words in utterances and pronounce them properly according to their grammar and meaning. I have written five different statements to suggest one objective. Take a look at each of these statements. Do you see some relationship between each of them? They are arranged hierarchically. Each objective leads to the next one, in other words they are like steps on a staircase. We should learn to write our objectives in this manner. There is one more point we would like to suggest to you while writing objectives. These objectives should have three qualities. They should be in the first place practical

NSOU PGEL-10 132 (achievable), the improvement or learning should be observable and finally the change should be measurable. These terms are easy to understand and let us spend a little time understanding them. A classroom session we said was a journey which has a starting point and a destination. There needs to be some distance between these two points which can be perceived as near or far (observable) and also measurable in certain units such as meters, kilometres etc. The distance between the two places must be conducive to reach in a certain period of time (practical). This refers to the three aspects mentioned above. Similarly, when we teach a lesson, the learning that we propose to do should be achievable or practical. I cannot go to a primary class and hope to teach a poem full of symbolism. In this class we may teach some simple words, a few simple poems or a story which interests children. This is practical or a possible objective. It should be possible for us to observe what the children have learnt. At the beginning of the class they were not able to read the poem properly. At the end of the class they have become familiar with it and can read it. This can be observed by an outsider. Finally, how well they are able to read the poem can be measured. At the beginning of the class they had errors of pronunciation, now they have overcome it to a large extent. Their spellings were bad, now they are able to spell eight out of ten words correctly. These are some measures that can be seen by the teacher as well as an observer. There is another way of looking at the objectives. They can either be behavioural or cognitive. Look at the five statements we have made. They begin with words like 'understand'. These are cognitive for they involve a certain amount of thinking. But if I say they can 'identify', this can be more of a mechanical work and this refers to behavioural objective. Every lesson should have some behavioural and a few cognitive objectives. 11.5.2 Materials The next aspect of lesson plan is materials. The objectives give us the reason to teach and answer the question - 'Why am I teaching this lesson?' In order to teach a lesson, I need some material. The word 'materials' is very comprehensive and we need to understand it in a narrower sense. It includes all of curriculum, syllabus, textbooks, exercises, teaching aids etc. Here we are concerned

NSOU PGEL-10 133 only about the specific lesson or part of it that can be taught during one classroom session. What lesson am I going to teach? How much of it am I going to teach? What questions shall I ask? What illustrations can I give to help learners understand the lesson? How much blackboard work will I do? Do I need some teaching aids? etc. Answers to these questions help us decide on what the term 'materials' constitute in a lesson plan. To teach (or achieve the objectives stated in the lesson plan), a teacher needs some materials. Perhaps much of it will emerge from the textbook lesson. A teacher has to make a realistic estimate of how much of the lesson can be taught. Let us take an example. 'Shubha' is a popular story by Tagore which is anthologised in most of the school textbooks. The story runs to about seven printed pages. If one is teaching this story to students of class IX, one cannot read the whole story in one class session of 45 minutes. Perhaps we may need three to four sessions. How much of the story can I teach, is a major decision that the teacher has to take? Based on this, he has to think of revision (which could be introducing the words, and familiarising the learners with some grammar used in the passage). The teacher will also have to think of questions to be asked at various stages, at the beginning to revise the previously learnt part, checking comprehension to progress with the lesson, drawing learner attention, providing parallel illustration from the neighbourhood, inculcating social values etc. How can all these be done? When we think of questions in the lesson plan, as teachers, we also need to think of the answers to each question we ask. Often, in our enthusiasm, we frame a question that cannot be answered and it can happen that the teacher himself/herself is not able to answer the question. This can lead to embarrassing situations. To avoid this, a good teacher always answers all the questions before entering them in his/her lesson plan. Teaching Shubha may not need any special teaching aid, but certain lessons that introduce new concepts, or strange objects may need the teacher prepare teaching aids. If the objectives answer the question 'why to teach', the materials go one step further and suggest 'what to teach?' 11.5.3 Strategies Having looked at the objectives and materials, we shall now move to the strategies. Strategies represent the methods we employ to teach. This largely answers the question 'how to teach?' We shall take a quick look at some strategies. What are the

NSOU PGEL-10 134 various sub-skills of teaching you are familiar with? Remember the unit on Microteaching. We discussed ten sub-skills. You may employ all of them or some of them depending on your need. The lesson we have taken as an example now is 'Shubha' a short story by Tagore. To teach a story we need the techniques of narration, explanation, illustration, questioning, description, stimulus variation etc. You may need these at various points of time in the lesson. Lesson planning helps you decide which strategy to use when and for how long. Since we have discussed this earlier, we will not spend much time here but move on to the next point Steps of progression. 11.5.4 Steps of Progression Steps of progression, is concerned with organising the plan for others to understand how you teach. A lesson plan has to be written and presented in a manner that someone who looks at it gets a fairly clear idea of how the lesson progresses in the class. Let us look at some of the crucial events that take place in the class and the order in which they occur. A class begins with the teacher entering the classroom and wishing the children. The teacher prepares the class for the lesson by narrating some event or asking a few questions. This is the first step called Preparation. This helps build a rapport with the class and it also motivates the children to receive the lesson that is going to be taught. The next stage of the lesson is called Presentation. This happens to be the major part of the class where the actual teaching happens. The teacher may explain new things, introduce new words, show how a grammatical structure is formed etc. The teacher has a major role to play and the learners may interact in the process. The third stage is called the Practice stage. Here the teacher provides some tasks or exercises to assess whether the teaching has been successful. This gives the teacher an opportunity to assess whether there is a need to teach the lesson once again either wholly or in parts. In the practice stage, learners are more active with the teacher offering guidance from time to time. The fourth stage is the Production stage where the teacher helps the learners use the language learnt to express their own experience or relate it to their life. For example, after reading the story 'Shubha' can the learners talk about some people in the neighbourhood who are challenged. Do they express their sympathy for them and treat them with respect? Can they find some names which do not suit the person and his/her behaviour? e.g. what does the name 'Sunayana' suggest? What do you expect

NSOU PGEL-10 135 in such a person? If one mentions the name of Bhima, what image is formed in your mind? etc. The final stage is the evaluation or consolidation stage. Here the teacher concludes the lesson, assesses the learners for their learning, provides them tasks or assignment and helps them prepare for the next class. This also helps the teacher receive the feedback on his/her teaching and help him/her in preparing for the next class. 11.6 Format of a Lesson Plan A lesson plan is a comprehensive document that includes all these aspects and produced in a proper form. Here is one format suggested for your reference. There could be many other formats as well. Page 1 Name of the Institution Class: Date: Period: Topic: a. Title of the Lesson b. Major skills taught Learners' Previous knowledge Overall Objectives of the lesson Summary of all stages List of teaching aids used Page 1 of the lesson plan sheet

NSOU PGEL-10 136 Stages Objectives Sample materials Methods Remarks Preparation Presentation Practice Production Evaluation Pages 2 and 3 of the lesson plan Summary of Blackboard work Supervisor's comments: Supervisor's signature Student's signature Page 4 of the lesson plan 11.7 Summary While the overall spirit of planning is the same for all types of lessons, the objectives may differ depending on the nature of the lesson. You will be given hands on experience in preparing the lesson plans when you come to the University for your contact classes. This lesson plan is important for someone who needs to observe your class. What does observation entail and how does one observe a class and learn from others is what we will discuss in the next unit.

NSOU PGEL-10 137 11.8 Review Questions a. What are the different sub-skills of teaching? b. What are the three important aspects a teacher should bear in mind while teaching? c. How are strategies related to the sub-skills of teaching? d. How important in planning before going to a class? e. What are the different components of a lesson plan? f. How are objectives stated in the lesson plan? g. What are the three important features of objectives? h. What does progression or steps in teaching refer to? i. Are the five parts of progression related to each other? j. Is it possible to pay attention to one and ignore other parts? k. Is it necessary to prepare a plan using a format? 11.9 References 1. Harmer, J (2025). The Practice of English Language Teaching (5th Edition). London: Pearson Longman. ISBN 1447980255 2. Tagore. Rabindranath (1893). "Subha". Galsaguccha. Sadhana. Jan-Feb. 1893. http://rmi,org/wp-content/uploads/publi Domain/Subha.pdf.

NSOU PGEL-10 138 Unit 12 Observation and Observation Protocol Structure 12.1 Introduction 12.2 Objectives 12.3 Observation and Learning 12.4 'Why' and 'who' aspects of Observation 12.5 'What' and 'how' aspects of observation 12.6 Observation Skills 12.7 Format of Observation Record 12.8 Summary 12.9 Review Questions 12.10 References 12.1 Introduction In Unit 11 we spoke of an essential aspect of teacher training which deals with developing a lesson plan. A broad framework of the lesson plan was suggested and this can be modified suitably for different lessons. Adequate help can be taken from the other two units on Microteaching and Teacher Training Strategies. In this unit we shall discuss in some detail the importance of observing a peer-lesson and aspects that we can learn from such observation. We will also suggest some dos and don'ts while observing a lesson. 12.2

Objectives After going through this unit, the learners will be able to: a. Understand the importance of

learning through observation b. Observe a lesson systematically and make notes c. See the rationale for observing a lesson d. Critically look at a lesson and provide constructive feedback.

NSOU PGEL-10 139 12.3 Observation and Learning In the previous unit we quoted from a medieval Kannada poet called Sarvagna. One of the ways of learning he suggests is to observe others (experts) and do likewise. This is something we often do in our life. Take a while to observe small children (aged four or five years old) and see how much they try to imitate the elders around them. They do this unconsciously, and we as adults may need to do this consciously. If you are a teacher, just take a critical look at your own teaching. You discover that you are imitating some of the best teachers you have had in your life. There is nothing wrong in this, for it is an established mode of learning, especially when the learning is confined to certain skills - e.g. children learn cooking by observing their mothers, we learn to draw pictures by observing our teacher drawing them on the chalkboard, we can attribute several actions of ours to such imitation. Teaching is one of them. We have looked at a lesson plan. We know it is developed systematically by stating the objectives, previous learning habits, materials to be used, strategies to be adopted etc. If this is systematic, the observation also needs to be so. However, while observing we need to be a little careful. Look at the following short story and try to understand the implications of it. Once upon a time there were two ants who lived on two small hillocks one by the side of the other. The first hillock was made of salt granules while the second one was made of sugar crystals. Every evening, the two ants would come down from their hillocks for a stroll and meet each other and exchange notes. The ant who lived on the hillock made of salt granules often complained of inadequate food and the amount of problems he had. The ant from the hillock made of sugar crystals seemed to be always happy. Seeing his friend sad, the second ant invited the first ant to his home on the sugar hillock. A day was fixed for the visit. On the day fixed for the visit, the ant from the salt hillock went to the sugar hillock. The second ant was happy to receive the friend and said, 'you may eat as much as you want. This hill is full of sugar which is sweet.' The first ant was happy and soon tried tasting sugar, but found it salty. However long the ant stayed here, it was never able to taste the sweet sugar. He complained to the friend, 'I am not sure what you are telling is true. I don't taste anything that is sweet. Everything here is as salty as it is on my hillock'. The second ant was surprised and looked at this friend closely. He discovered, the first ant was carrying a grain of salt in its mouth

NSOU PGEL-10 140 which did not allow it to taste the sweetness of sugar. Did you like this story? What does it teach us? In about two sentences write what you learnt from this story? Your answer: I do not know the source of this story. But I have always liked this while talking about observation. We will get back to this story in a while, and let us now look at some aspects of observation before looking at the relevance of this story. The first question we need to ask is - why should we observe a lesson? Whose lessons do we need to observe? Both these questions are very crucial to teacher education/development. Let us first take up the question 'why should we observe a lesson?' There can be several reasons for this and it depends on the role we play as observers. 12.4 'Why' and 'who' aspects of Observation If I am a teacher educator, I observe my student-teacher's lesson to offer feedback and suggestions. This is the most primary task of observation. In the course of my observation, I also get a feedback on what has been taught and understood. The observation may reveal incomplete understanding of certain concepts. This will make me aware of my own teaching and the course of action I need to take in successive classroom sessions. Observation to me is helpful in providing a feedback on my own teaching as well as providing further guidance to my student-teacher. As a student-teacher, I may get to observe a peer-lesson or a demonstration lesson taught by my supervisor. There is a lot to learn from observing both the lessons. While observing the peer lesson, we get to learn how certain techniques work, and it is possible for us to make these techniques work better by reorganising them or modifying them. Our fellow student-teachers may go wrong in a few places and this works as a warning to us and helps us avoid committing the same error in our class. Observation also helps us understand learner behaviour, about their strengths and weaknesses. This awareness helps us plan our lesson accordingly. While observing a demonstration lesson taught by the supervisor, we get to learn how to use a set of techniques which we are aware of theoretically, and we get to see how they work in real classroom situations.

NSOU PGEL-10 141 Basically, observation is a learning process and demands keen attention on the part of the observer. It also needs a bit of training and this training happens by observing. Let us now look at a few more facts about observation. Having answered questions like why and who to observe, we shall move on to the next two questions what and how to observe a lesson. These are as important as the first two questions. 12.5 'What' and 'how' aspects of observation What to observe is a very difficult question for a novice. As a student-teacher, you are expected to teach a lesson either as part of peer-teaching or in a school. Your supervisor observes your lesson and gives you a written feedback. Have you looked at this feedback carefully? It is provided in a very systematic manner. It is based on what you have written in your lesson plan. A lesson plan provides details of the class you teach, the time date etc. These are factual details or logistics to keep a record which can be verified. We are more interested in the rest of the things. You begin with objectives and statement of previous learning. The supervisor is interested in the statement of your objectives. As your lesson progresses, your supervisor checks if all the objectives are addressed in your lesson. He/she also takes care to see whether the materials you have mentioned in the plan are suitable and whether you were able to use them properly using appropriate techniques. The supervisor does the job of a good checklist and says whether your lesson plan worked or did not. He/she does not stop with this. He/she will also provide you with some suggestions on how to make your successive lesson better - you may be asked to talk more confidently and loudly, use the blackboard better, give more opportunities for the learners to speak, be patient with unacceptable answers etc. Though these may seem as criticism or pointing out your weaknesses, they also have a positive side. They help you become a better teacher. When your friend observes your class, your friend has no access to your lesson plan. His/her observation is open. The comments from your friend may restrict themselves to how well you taught, what were some of the weaknesses, and how he/ she would have taught the lesson in your place etc. Your friend is likely to be less critical of your lesson than your supervisor. This is acceptable. You feel encouraged to receive comments from your friend and this can be partially reinforced by the comments from your supervisor. Both sets of comments are helpful in the process
NSOU PGEL-10 142 of our growth and learning as teachers. Now let us look at the question 'how to observe'. We would like you to look at the story of ants and read it once again. Does this story tell us something about observation or our behaviour? The story gives us one moral which stated idiomatically reads 'don't carry your baggage to the classroom when observing'. What does this statement mean? Don't carry your ideas and opinions. Look at the lesson as it is for its own merit or qualities. The first ant carried a grain of salt when he visited the hillock full of sugar crystals. Because of that he could not taste the sugar. This is exactly what happens to all of us. We go to observe a class with some preconceived notions. For example, we may like the person who is going to teach; we may like the lesson he/she is going to teach; we may like the learners in the class where the lesson is being taught and various factors like this. Sometimes the factors could be negative as well. Depending on whether we like or dislike something will influence our observation. Our observation ceases to be objective. The point we are making here is we have to be strictly objective while observing somebody's lesson. How can we do this? 12.6 Observation Skills We should train ourselves to observe without being intruders. Here are a few points to keep in mind: a. This is possible if we enter the class before the student-teacher enters and sit in one of the corners where we may not be noticed. b. We should avoid taking notes vigorously making the student-teacher nervous. c. We should develop a checklist which helps us observe and tick the points rather than make elaborate notes. This has two advantages. In the first place it makes the work of noting down the points easy, and secondly, it saves time to observe which is the main task for which we are in the class. d. We should not interfere in teaching in any manner. This will again send wrong signals to the student-teacher. e. We should avoid talking to the learners in the class and draw their attention away from what is being taught. f. We should avoid making unnecessary movements or walk out of the class in between. This will again distract the student-teacher and may affect the lesson. NSOU PGEL-10 143 g. To help the student-teacher become familiar and relaxed, we should observe a few classes without giving any comments. (This is familiarization technique.) h. The comments we give should be more in the form of suggestions to improve and should not damage the self-esteem of the student-teacher. i. The comments should be severely restricted to what happened in the class and not what could have happened. It should not transgress the limits of the lesson taught. These are some guidelines to help you observe a class and be objective in your observation. 12.7 Format of Observation Record We have answered four questions about observation. In order to facilitate observation we can have a format (comparable to the lesson plan). Such format will help us to be objective and also focus on the lesson being taught rather than divert our attention to other details. We shall provide a format which can be used in your classes. Observation Record Observation Lesson No. Date: Class: Name of the Teacher: Name of the School: Place: Focus of the lesson: (tick as many as relevant) Listening/ speaking/ reading/ writing/ grammar/ vocabulary/ study skills/language activities and games Topic or title of the lesson: Objectives of the lesson:

NSOU PGEL-10 144 1. How did the teacher begin the class? a. By revising the previous lesson b. By narrating a story/incident c. By asking some general questions d. By revising the vocabulary and grammar e. Any other 2. How relevant was the revision to the lesson? a. Highly relevant b. Somewhat relevant c. Just appropriate d. Not relevant e. Totally unrelated. 3. Give your reasons for the choice you have made to the previous question. (question number 2) 4. Were the objectives of the lesson appropriate? Yes/no 5. What materials other than the textbook did the teacher use? 6. Were these materials ready made or teacher made? 7. Were these materials appropriate for use in the class? a. Suitable to learners needs b. Suitable to the learners age c. Suitable to the lesson being taught d. Not suitable at all. 8. How active were the learners in the class? a. Very active b. Active c. Some what active d. Not at all active

NSOU PGEL-10 145 9. Did the teacher ask many questions? Yes/No 10. How relevant were these questions? a. Closely related to the lesson b. General questions not related to the lesson c. Difficult by relevant d. Easy that could be answered by all just to motivate the learners 11. How many students answered these questions? a. Almost all the students b. A few selected students c. Almost nobody answered 12. Did the teacher have some additional exercises for the students? Yes/No 13. How relevant were these exercises? a. Closely related to the lesson b. Difficult but relevant c. Easy that could be answered by all just to motivate the learners 14. Did the teacher use the blackboard? Yes/No 15. If 'yes', how neat and organised was the work on the blackboard? a. Very systematic b. The handwriting was neat and legible c. Contained a good summary of the lesson d. Points elicited from the learners were put up on the board. e. Used for purposes other than stated above. 16. Did the teacher encourage the students to answer the questions? Yes/No 17. How did the teacher handle the wrong answers? a. By gently suggesting the correct answer b. By asking the student to keep standing for giving a wrong answer.

NSOU PGEL-10 146 c. Asking the student to read the relevant portion from the lesson and revise the answer. d. By simply ignoring the wrong answer and going to the next student for the correct answer. e. By giving the correct answer immediately without giving other students a chance to answer the question. f. None of the above but something totally different. 18. What is your overall impression of the class? 19. If you are asked to teach the same class what changes will you make. State your reasons. 20. Do you have any suggestions to offer to the teacher? Observer's name: Signature with date. This is just a proforma, and like lesson plan which can change according to the lesson being taught, this can also be modified suitably to meet our needs. We shall now conclude this unit with a quick summary of the unit and the module. 12.8 Summary In this module we focussed on teacher training modules. We began with a discussion of microteaching and peer teaching. We looked at some of the sub-skills of teaching which can be practiced by student-teacher using microteaching techniques. Form here we moved to certain teacher training modules. We looked at the terms teacher training, teacher education and teacher development. We also looked at the Craft Model which can train teachers, Applied Science Model which can provide teacher education and the Reflective Model which helps the teachers to develop. From here we moved over to the concept of lesson planning and its importance in teacher education programmes. We looked at different parts of a lesson plan and discussed their uses. Finally we looked at the need for observing classes on a teacher education programme and some of the principles of classroom observation. The next module will continue this discussion further.

NSOU PGEL-10 147 12.9 Review Questions a. What are the principles of observing a lesson? b. Why should lessons be observed? c. How can we train our students to observe the lessons? d. What care should be taken while observing a lesson? e. Do we always need a format/checklist to observe a lesson? f. What does 'do not carry your baggage' mean while observing a lesson? g. Should the lesson be observed only by the teacher? h. Is there any difference between teacher observation and peer-observation? i. What are the lessons one can learn from observing a lesson? j. Can observation be taught? How do we learn to observe a lesson? 12.10 References 1. Mohanraj S. (2015). Methods of Teaching English. Hyderabad, Telugu Akademi 2. Passi. B K., (1975). Becoming a Better Teacher. Indore, Sahitya Mudranalay 3. Woodward, T. (1991). Models and Metaphors in Language Teacher Training. Cambridge, Cambridge University Press.

NSOU PGEL-10 148 Module 4 : Peer Teaching-2 Unit 13 Planning for peer-teaching lessons Structure 13.1 Introduction 13.2 Objectives 13.3 Peer-teaching lessons 13.4 Stages of planning 13.5 Theory and Practice 13.6 Roles of the teacher in peer-teaching 13.7 Summary 13.8 Review Questions 13.9 References 13.1 Introduction Peer-teaching lesson - what does it mean? Is it planning for successful classroom activities? Or planning for the peers a course of study? A peer-teaching lesson is an opportunity to benefit from each-other's knowledge. It is a professional activity which requires preparing oneself for a competent job through learning. This unit is on these views with perspectives on how to prepare teachers as language educators. Planning for peer-teaching lesson is reflection of the teaching practices in the language classroom and focuses on how to explore what teachers think and do in the classroom To synthesize personal and shared knowledge professionally planning of peer-teaching is necessary. 13.2

Objectives At the end of the unit, you will be able to:

Become aware of the concept of peer-teaching Plan a peer-teaching unit and submit it for purposes of inspection Distinguish between theory and practise of peer-teaching

NSOU PGEL-10 149 Develop an annual plan according to repeated teaching experiences For the planning a peer-teaching lesson, the teacher has to be systematic in scrutinizing the assumptions of how we as teachers work, develop our knowledge of the subject matter and knowledge of pedagogy. This is discussed in the following sections. 13.3 Peer teaching lessons From the previous module we have learnt that in a peer-teaching lesson the teacher under training is sent to a class of 10-12 peers. These peers are all equal in competence and they play the role of students. Everyone in the class has a chance for teaching for 10 minutes; behave as a student and as an observer. The supervisor of the class ensures that everyone in the class gets all of these roles. Now, teaching students is not the same as teaching peer- like students. The teacher teaching a peer is more conscious and alert in his conceptual schema. He is more concerned on how the teacher activity is taken by the peers and what they think and believe about his practices. In peer-teaching lessons, there are frameworks for reflecting on our practice. These frameworks can be developed on: the subject matter the relationship with our learners The first is to understand how the subject matter can be presented, the educational processes and interactions. The second is to question assumptions and practices that make our lessons easier for the learners, but are against our long term interests. The teacher has to upgrade the knowledge and translate it into practice. Our professional needs and interests change over time. Planning a peer-teaching lesson is a different kind of professional activity which requires a personal and on-going commitment. It is a learning taking the form of planning and reflection. So planning a peer-teaching lesson has three stages. Stage 1- Preplanning, Stage 2- Planning and Stage 3 - Reflection. 13.4 Stages of planning Stage 1 - Pre-planning: In this stage, the teacher needs to prepare himself/ herself to face the multiple cognitive and personality factors in the classroom, diagnose and utilize them to the fullest. The teacher needs to be very good in specialty. Pre- planning has two facets, a) preparing for known topic and b) preparing for unknown NSOU PGEL-10 150 topic. Sometimes the topic to be taught and the topics, on which others will teach, are known beforehand. If the topic is known, then, the teacher can manipulate on presenting information from several areas and on the class materials. We can try on new fads that will benefit our learners. When the topic to be taught is unknown, we may not have time to think on organization and application of the knowledge beforehand. We have to decide in the moment on organizing the information based on cognitive and personality combination present in the class. Then we do not play along and experiment with the class, rely more on new things, those, on which we have confidence. This is presented in the following diagram. Stage 1 Pre-Planning Known Topic Unknown Topic Experimenting on New Fads Implementation of New things with successful learning outcomes Stage-2 Planning: in the planning stage, the teacher can focus on attitude and self-image. This is about managing classroom interaction and relationships. Shifting our approach from amateur to professionalism, we can take from reading, observation, discussion with colleagues, writing and research. Now ask yourself - I am an academician? Or a professional? Your Answer: The academician is primarily occupied in thinking and researching. Research is refined thinking. The acts of an academician are evaluated in short term in an individual's publications. The long term evaluations are in thoughts and actions as an academician and as a professional. The professional is active in real-time action, trying to improve on action, and find out what works best. The short term evaluation for a professional is by the extent to which the individual can bring about valuable change. The long term evaluations are same as those of an academician. Therefore, when the teacher has been asked to teach a peer-teaching lesson on a known topic, the evaluations are as an academician, and when the topic is unknown, the evaluation is as a professional. Now returning to the discussion on planning stage, the approaches for

NSOU PGEL-10 151 professionalism develop in course of time. From where do we start? The values and goals which we could collect earlier from the influence of peers and colleagues can be worked on. This is for real-time change in the conceptions of teaching a teacher holds. How do we plan for this? First, we are all professionally competent educators. So our planning starts with our interests and needs for principles, knowledge and skills. Let us take an illustration. "After four weeks the Hallidayan framework was given to students to support closer textual analysis. It was intended as a resource for students to draw on when they wished to show how particular readings are warranted by the linguistic features of the text (Widdowson 1992: xiv). While earlier in the course we had looked at features of syntax such as pronoun usage, from week five we focused on, first, a wider range of interpersonal features which characterized the texts we had worked with early in the course, such as advertisements, manifestos, and speeches. We then moved on to attend to ideational features as evidenced through, for example, the nature of participants and processes in descriptive texts, and the representation of causation and agency in reported texts." (Wallace, 2001). Can you relate to the principles, knowledge and skills mediating between the text and frame work from the illustration? Your Answer: The framework for teaching textual analysis covers a time span of six weeks, beginning with the principles of Halliday's functional grammar. The students had acquired the theoretical knowledge for four weeks. Here the teaching conception is on principle and knowledge. In the fifth week, the planning is based on the knowledge on the salient features of connotation and syntax learnt from an earlier course to revision tasks on texts with interpersonal features (advertisements etc.) and finally, for the sixth week, the ideational features are taught. So from the fifth week, knowledge and skills are in the conception. The way of presenting the materials is to be kept in mind, with a goal of creating a classroom atmosphere conducive of learning. Next, the focus is on a flexible set of professional behaviours. For example, when there is a discussion on learning strategy, the teacher can explain, why it works, mediate it to the learners, and describe the way it works and what different learning strategies mean. And finally, a review on the language to be used for processing information, for critical thinking and personal

NSOU PGEL-10 152 identity can be decided. A broad background knowledge with different pedagogical techniques for learners with different learning styles is the basis of the lecture to influence the class. The teacher needs to articulate the automatic and consciously designed activities to relate to the class response and innovate. Stage - 3 Reflection: reflection in peer-teaching is drawing the received knowledge of the field and the experiential knowledge as the classroom practitioner. The teacher can illustrate learning sequences within the classroom as examples. These contribute in making the discussions lively, as well as balance between the received and experiential knowledge. For novice teachers, theory is authoritarian, the 'what' to teach comes first. For experienced teachers, 'how' to teach is important. Are you novice or experienced in teaching? and why ? Your answer: Reflection on practice has a number of aspects. It is a meaning making process that is systematic, rigorous and values professional growth of self and peers. According to Schon, 1987, reflection-in-action is what we do on our feet, in the moment. Reflection-on-action is informed by what we have thought about and learned from previous experience. Reflection enables us to keep on track, slow down, describe the classroom experiences (both from the students and the teacher), and interpret it in different ways. We can develop on conceptualizing the process and plan further. This is discuss in the next section. 13.5 Theory and Practice Theory can be public and private. Eraut, 1994, makes a distinction between public and private theories. Received knowledge of a field, stated in published literature and research is public theory. Griffiths and Tann 1992, claim that, the distinction is between personal and public theories. All practice based on personal theories can be made public. Reflection on practice is essential for constructing personal theories. Personal theories can be based on the following awareness of practice. 1. Making explicit the beliefs based on practice. 2. Making explicit the principles of practice. 3. Making explanations on classroom happenings. 4. An explanation of the classroom happenings.

NSOU PGEL-10 153 So, we are trying to form a theory on our practices. But what is a 'theory of practice'? "A personal theory of teaching practice is a teacher's union of theory and practice, both a way of conceptualizing and enacting teaching. It is an answer to the questions: how do I do my work as a teacher and why do I do it in this way?" (Moran, 2012: 2). Why do we need a personal theory? What are the challenges in forming a personal theory? Your answer: When we have need a personal theory of teaching we can call on theory in difficult situations and establish credibility with students. If we have a rationale behind our practice, we are better placed to communicate with our peers and students. Personal theory gives us an organizing vision in planning peer teaching lessons. It stabilizes us when the forces within the classroom are challenging. Few years ago, I was teaching Immediate Constitute Analysis to you first year students. The concept was new, and had to be learnt through practice. The students were eager to learn, finding out that the analysis earns easy credits. Now, I needed a theory to make them learn. I could recollect that in my student days, I had learnt the theoretical concepts first and then worked on the exercises of my text book. But my students did not have time and interest in learning the theory. They were ready with their copies, with their questions (collected from previous year's papers and assignment). I had no choice. I did exactly what they wanted first, answering the questions. This had raised their consciousness on the need to learning theory. All the exercises that they would work on were applications of the theory. So, my students had turned to the learning materials giving up the vigor of working on the tasks right away. Since I had spent some time initially trying to focus on the theory, I had to keep two tutorials in place of one for completing the Units. I was driven in the moment, by my thoughts prior to the class I way I had learnt from my previous experience. This is an example of the notions, reflection-in-action and reflection-on- action, discussed in the earlier section. Can you give an illustration on what you did and why you did in your class? Your answer:

NSOU PGEL-10 154 Let us now, categorize this. First, we have to learn to see the presence of the reflection-in-action, and learn to describe and differentiate the experience from the flow of classroom activities. Next we can work on the multiple perspectives and think on multiple explanations. For instance, for reflection-in-action, things may not be in the order the teacher had planned, and may have to go for on the moment decisions for sake of the learners. Finally, we need to learn to take intelligent action. Thus, the framework is: systematic and rigorous thinking, learning observation skills, describe a context, generate explanation and learning to take intelligent action. This is represented as follows: Think Take Action Observe Personal Theory Explain Describe Professional commitment is a changing and ongoing process; experienced teachers have their own personal theories which are taken as examples and motivations for novice teachers. One need not have to spend lot of time for framing personal theory. Effective personal theories are also framed with short span of time. For this we need rich description and observation, along with systematic thinking. We will learn on observing and describing peer-teaching lesson in the next Units. 13.6 Roles of the teacher in peer-teaching Teachers find themselves in different roles in peer-teaching lessons. These are tutor/lecturer story teller/ describer defender learner

NSOU PGEL-10 155 moderator The teacher has to be systematic in planning a peer-teaching lesson. The approach can be learner-centered, which begins by the principles and knowledge in conceptual teaching and ends with a lively interaction. These roles have some degree of overlap as perceptions of each of these roles take into account a number of expectations from the class. Roles to be investigated Role Questions to address Tutor — What would be the class content for teaching? — What resources would be used? — What will be the methodology? Story teller/ Describer — When illustration, examples would be used? — How to reflect on teaching strategies? Defender — How to defend teaching techniques? — How to respond to difficult situations? Learner — How to perceive weaknesses in teaching techniques? — How to respond to criticisms on strengths? Moderator — How to create a lively interaction? — What are the strategies on holding the discussion on the interest-level of the individuals? The teacher can turn the lesson and the lecture to openness of discussion as a professional commitment. The teacher can discuss the comments and questions at the end with simplicity and speed look for opportunities for changing teaching conceptions. After the lesson, there can be a reflective plan. The teacher can make notes on the following: 1. At which moments in the peer-teaching lesson did you feel engaged? Why? What was happening? 2. At which moments did you feel distanced? Why? What was happening? 3. What action made you feel affirming and helpful? 4. What action that anyone took in the class was confusing? What was puzzling?

NSOU PGEL-10 156 5. What surprised you the most? (This could be your reactions or reaction from the peers or anything else which occurred to you.) 13.7 Summary Considering the teacher in the context of a peer-teaching lesson, a planning stage is necessary for gathering information for enlightening the lesson. This includes setting an objective, reflection on materials, review of strategies and interacting with peers. Teachers designing peer-teaching lessons, carefully consider their participants from the five roles mention above. Considerations of peers as individuals will pinpoint the relationship of teaching objectives to a selective comprehension system. This acts as a vehicle for interaction (feedback and response) of a specific kind within the lesson. 13.8 Review Questions 1. Define a peer-teaching lesson. 2. Why is planning important in peer teaching? 3. Discuss stage-1 in Planning peer-teaching with an illustration from your experience. 4. What is the major distinction between Planning and Reflection stage? 5. Can we reflect before planning? Why? Why not? 6. What are the principles in planning peer teaching? 7. What is a personal theory? Give two examples from classroom teaching. 8. How can a teacher develop skills of reflection-on action from personal theory? 9. Match the following: a. Tutor i. Working on the weakness in teaching techniques b. Story teller ii. Responding in Difficult situations c. Defender iii. Using Illustrations in class d. Learner iv. Deciding on the Methodology 10. In what role/roles would you like to see yourself as teacher? Justify.

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Widdowson, H. G. (1992). Practical Stylistics: An Approach to Poetry. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
NSOU PGEL-10 158 Unit 14 Developing observation protocol for peer teaching Structure 14.1 Introduction 14.2 Objectives 14.3 Purpose and benefits of Peer Teaching 14.4 Procedures in Peer teaching observation 14.5 Implementing Peer teaching Observation 14.6 Methods of Data Collection 14.7 Summary 14.8 Review Questions 14.9 References 14.1 Introduction In Unit 13, we have learnt on the basics of peer-teaching. This unit is structured on the procedures and systematic approaches of observation for peer teaching. Observation in language teaching is closely watching and monitoring a language lesson or part of a lesson to enable critiquing the same. We need to observe to gain an understanding of teaching a lesson, its various steps and the learning outcome includingquality classroom interaction. To become aware of the actual happenings in a lesson observation and monitoring are components of assessment. 14.2 Objectives The unit addresses the following questions on Classroom Observations 1. What are the purposes of peer teaching observation? 2. What do we know about observation? 3. What criteria are used for observation protocols? 4. Who is involved in peer- teaching observation?

NSOU PGEL-10 159 5. How observations are implemented? 14.3 Purpose and benefits of Peer Teaching Observation is the action or process of closely observing or monitoring a process or someone at work. The purpose of peer observation is to collect information that can be in later used and discussed with the teacher both to provide a feedback and also help the teacher become better. Before the actual observation starts, there is pre- observation meeting between the peer teacher and the peer observer, where the observer discusses the focus of the observation and the procedures for recording observation. These are discussed in section 14.4. The peer teacher may suggest things to look for, such as the decisions the teacher would make during the lesson or the problems that may have occurred during the class. The peer teacher may also share the lesson plan with the observer. Before we proceed further, here is a task for you. Look at the following question and give your response: Task Purposes for Classroom observation is: a) Investigation of instructional etiquettes for different learning contexts, b) Instructional practices for different groups of learners and c) Improvement of teacher's instructional practices based on class feedback. Mention at least two other purposes of observation. Your answer: d) e) The observation method is described as a method to observe and describe the behaviour of a subject. It is a way of collecting relevant information and data by observing. Observation is a part of learning for teaching practitioners. Novice and experienced teachers benefit from observation. Novice teachers have the opportunity to observe more experienced teachers - what they do and how they do it while teaching a lesson. Experienced teachers benefit from peer observation. It is an opportunity to observe how the same problems are dealt with by peers. This leads to discovery of new teaching strategies and reflections on classroom teaching. For the teacher (of the observed lesson), the observer can provide insights on the lesson,

NSOU PGEL-10 160 which otherwise goes unnoticed. The social benefits of observation according to Richards and Farrell (2005) is "It brings teachers together who might not normally have a chance to interact and provides an opportunity for the sharing of ideas and expertise, as well as a chance to discuss problems and concerns." The process begins with a series of observations on lesson structure, classroom management, student interactions, teaching materials, teaching techniques, teacher language, student language and types of teaching activities. Activity 1: In the following vignette, discuss whether the observation benefit is feedback or self-awareness of one's teaching. Vignette 1: 4th Grade Writing1 A fourth grade writing teacher delivers a two-day lesson about parts of speech (nouns, verbs and adjectives) within subjects and predicates. As Ms. Yoon reflects on the lesson, she describes how she used different elements within the formative assessment cycle to close the gap. "On the first day of the lesson, I did a quick check of my students learning through an exit ticket. I realized that there were misconceptions about subjects and predicates that I needed to discuss with students. I adjusted the next day's lesson to include a different approach to identifying subjects and predicates. I did more re-teaching and scaffolding than I had planned to do, but the additional instruction supported students to meet the lesson goal." Even though Ms. Yoon had to make unplanned adjustments to her lessons, she closed the gap with her students and they are ready to move on to identifying prepositions within a sentence. Teachers and students close the gaps identified through formative assessment and set new goals and criteria for success. The assessment cycle is a continuous process in the classroom. Your Answer: Vignette 2: 2nd Grade Reading 2 A second grade class transitions from the rug to desks and tables around the room. The class has just finished a mini-lesson on "summarizing," and will now practice reading and language skills in small groups and centers. For this rotation, Ms. London has purposefully grouped her students to ensure she can provide appropriate scaffolding when needed. Ms. London begins her second small group lesson by beginning with a review of the definition of "summarizing." As students read the text, she purposefully pauses to ask students to remind herwhat a summary is and to

NSOU PGEL-10 161 provide her with a brief summary of what they read. She continues to reinforce the definition throughout the small group lesson by asking each group member to repeat the definition after they read. Once the center rotation is complete, Ms. London reflects on students' progress. "When my second group joined me at the kidney table, I asked them to define "summary." The group mostly talked about the summary example that I gave during the mini-lesson. They couldn't really define what "summary" meant. That let me know that they needed a bit more support." By breaking down the specific skill into smaller components, Ms. London is able to target instruction where her students need it most. Instructional supports help students move easily from one idea to the next and rapidly close learning gaps. Teachers (or peers) scaffold new learning by focusing lessons on smaller segments of skills and knowledge. By scaffolding new learning, teachers are able to better determine exactly where students need help, where they succeed and which supports are most effective. Your Answer: 14.4 Procedures and methods in Peer teaching Observation Usually one or two aspects of the lesson should be in the focus of the observer. Some aspects of the lesson are relatively easy to observe while others may not be observable to all and need inference. Student interaction and participation in activities are observable whereas the problems that the teacher encounters or the modifications in the lesson plan may not be observable and need inference. The first procedure on effective observation is participant observation. The observer sits with the learners as a participant in the classroom. The observer may be silent throughout the lesson or may once or twice participate in the activities. The participant observer can create and change of the activities and is responsible with the success or failure of the class. The second procedure is diary description. That is a linear descriptions or written narratives of all the events thathappen within the classroom (with exclusions where necessary). The observer can also record the activities in audio/video files of 30 seconds to 3 minutes for debriefing. The class beginnings and classroom management procedures can be recorded in diary descriptions. Field notes and checklists are other procedures in peer teaching observation. Brief

NSOU PGEL-10 162 descriptions of the key events that occurred throughout the lesson are field notes. These include interpretations of events where necessary. Notes can be time-based i.e., made every five minutes using an observation or can be linked to the key activities occurring in the lesson. When there is little happening in the lesson, for example, learners are silently reading, then the observer can focus on the number of times the learners used their dictionary to check words. Checklist is a structured list of items on features of a lesson that the observer completes during observation. It provides a systematic way collecting information on particular aspects of a lesson. It is thus, focused and easy to complete. Before we move on to the next section, look at the following Vignettes. Activity 2: Discuss the observation procedure in the following: Vignette 3: Observation Sheet: Use of Learning Aids andManipulative3 COURSE NAME: DATE: Are audio-visual materials used? How? Are demonstrations done? When in the lesson? How easy are they to see? Do they help make ideas clearer? Are any models used? Are charts/maps in evidence? Used to enhance the lesson? Are there live/preserved specimens? How effective do the materials seem to be? What evidence do you have? Your Answer: Vignette 4: INTERVIEWING SCIENCE TEACHERS 4 As a group we will come up with interview questions to ask the teachers you've observed this semester. You will submit the answers to us on disk or on e-mail so that we can compile the answers. THE SCHOOL: How many students? Teachers? Others? How would you describe the school: NSOU PGEL-10 163 THE STUDENTS: What are some ways you would describe the students: What percentage of learners finish high school? What percentage continue school after graduating? Where do they live? What is your perception of their life at home or in their neighborhoods? What strategies do you use re: discipline/management that are most effective? THE CLASSES YOU TEACH: Number of classes and subjects taught (classes and preps) Ability groups of your students? THE SCIENCE CURRICULUM IN THIS SCHOOL: Courses offered Enrollment in those courses Textbook(s) used Any special courses offered Enrollment of boys and girls in science courses Changes in courses / curriculum during the past 5 years SCIENCE EDUCATION TODAY What do you see as important trends? Issues? Changes in enrollments and/or enrollment patterns? Professional organizations and their activities YOUR CONCERNS Facilities? Materials? Budgets? Other concerns?

NSOU PGEL-10 164 LIKES AND DISLIKES What do you like most about science teaching? What do you like the least about science teaching? Your Answer: Vignette 4: 14.5 Implementing Peer teaching Observation Implementation of peer teaching observation is done for improving classroom teaching practices. With observation briefings teachers can put to use valid and accurate information for growing professionally. Systematic observation feedbacks have contributed in understanding ones strengths and weakness in classroom instruction. It makes teachers aware of their practices and helps to bring the changes in instruction they desire. The observational feedback is not a guide according to which the teacher can change instructional practices. Rather it is used to reflect on instructional practices and discuss with peers to decide on actions. Peer teaching observation puts the observer in the center of focus, embedding professional learning with clarity on teaching practices, learner specific needs and improving teaching and learning. It reduces professional isolation, and the observation process collects instructional information which the co-operating teacher could not have collected on his/her own. Focused data collection and analysis is the basis of teaching and learning. The behaviours which can implement peer teaching observation in classroom instruction are: a) The role of the observed teacher: an observed teacher is the leader of the observation process. The observed teacher equips himself/herself into professional learning, with an opportunity to participate in classroom data collection. The observed teacher is placed in a different position to adjust and alter to the learning need. b) Focus of the observation: The data collection can be narrowed to specific areas of teaching and learning. This gives the observed teacher scope for working on specific areas of the teaching learning process. c) Analyzing the data: depending more on visual and auditory data before conclusions. The data from a structured protocol is first shared and then discussed. Finally, the implications on instruction are discussed in improvement- oriented conversations.

NSOU PGEL-10 165 d) The teaching learning interface: The focus of classroom data collected from teacher-driven observation is the relationship between teaching and learning. The conversations after the data collection are on this interface and not on the individual teacher. The observations are the space for individual teachers to develop on their own learning. The observed teacher is committed to improvements that would support student learning. Thus peer teaching observationis implemented by the observed teacher. The observed teacher or the 'lead' teacher specifies the data collection procedures by making use of field notes, checklists, and observation scheme and interaction analysis. Before data collection, it is necessary to identify one or two focus questions. The focus question is usually decided by the 'lead' teacher. The focus question can be narrowed down depending the teaching learning interface. The goal of the focus question is to learn something specific from the data collection on the student learning. After identifying the focus question, the next step is collecting data from observation. The goal of observation is to collect data on the areas that the lead teacher cares about and discover the classroom actuality. Before we move on to the details of data collection, let us work out on the following activity on classroom observation. Activity 3: Match the following items in class observation to the column in the right. a) Student interaction 1. The way the lesson opens Links and transitions between activities Number of activities in the lesson b) Classroom Management 2. Time on ask Strategies Questioning Behaviours Student-to-student talk c) Lesson Structure 3. Setting up groups Maintaining order Time management Seating arrangement NSOU PGEL-10 166 d) Types of Teaching activities 4. Use of text book Use of other resources e) Teacher's use of materials 5. Whole class activities Pair and group activities Individual activities f) Teaching Strategies 6. Use of instructional language Use of question Feedback techniques Explanation of Vocabulary and Grammar g) Students Use of Language 7. Presenting task Organizing Practice Teaching techniques h) Teachers Use of Language 8. Use of language in group work Use of mother tongue during class Problems with grammar Problems with pronunciation Your Answer: 14.6 Methods in Data Collection Ideally there can be two observers. One observer can collect data on the students and another observer on the teacher. This can lead to collective analysis of instruction and student learning.The observation in per teaching is focused on the lesson. The observer is not the evaluator but can be a participant, depending on the observationrequirements. Observing the way an observed teacher performs in the class prepares other teachers for their practice teaching and in solving teaching problems for lessons. The process of observation follows certain methods: the participant as an

NSOU PGEL-10 167 observer, the observer as a participant and the complete observer. If the participant is an observer, then the intensions of the observer is known to the class. The observer is someone from the class who observers the other batch mates in class. This may be applicable for sensitive situations but is limited. It has to be used in conjunction with other methods. For observer as participant and complete observer, there is peer teacher or trainee teacher as the observer. In the first case, the observer participates in the class activities for a few times but as a complete observer, the observer is silent all throughout the lesson. Data collection can be structured or unstructured. The structured observation for example, is a particular checklist on a lesson with the following aspects. Lesson Observation Yes Partially No 1 Teacher Activities Teacher Instruction Teacher Questions Teacher one-to-one conversations with students 2 Student Activities Student Questions Student Responses: Student Volunteers Student responds when called for Student initiates a comment or question related to lesson Student initiates an unrelated comment or question Student answers: Single word or phrase Answer with details to support answer Answer with explanation of thinking or processing Student side conversations Many aspects of a lesson can be in the focus of an observation. The 'how to' dimensions of teaching include the following: How the teacher starts and ends a lesson How the teacher allots time within the lesson: at random or preplanned.

NSOU PGEL-10 168 How the teacher assigns activities to the learners How the teacher deals with withdrawn learners How the teacher asks question Can you add two more points to this list? Your answer: If the observer wants to focus on the purpose of teaching then 'why' is emphasized. Student learning forms the basis 'why' teaching knowledge is used. Can you focus on the 'why' dimensions of teaching and frame five points for field notes? The first one is done for you. Your Answer: Why the students use reference materials? Activity 4: Develop a checklist on the following aspects of Interaction Analysis: Clues on your answer: Teacher movements: Teacher eye contact Student movements: Student attention, Group dynamics Your Answer: Interaction Analysis

NSOU PGEL-10 169 Answer Key of Activity 3:

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a)-2. b)-3, c)-1, d)-5, e)-4, f)-7, g)-8, h)-6. 14.7 Summary The unit

is on the professional development for language teachers. Observation protocol for peer teaching is designed for regularly reviewing and updating teaching skills. The Activities are based on the theoretical approaches of observation protocol. The learners can design their own data collection procedures on the other aspects of classroom observation mentioned in the unit to pursue learning on the topic. 14.8 Review Questions 1. Why do we need observation in language teaching? 2. How can experienced teachers benefit from observation? 3. How can novice teachers benefit from observation? Give an example. 4. Discuss one procedure in peer teaching observation. 5. What are the stages in implementing peer teaching observation? 6. What are the focus areas in collecting data on the lesson structure? 7. What can be the focus areas in the data on students use of language? 8. What is the distinction between field note and diary description? 9. Explain interaction analysis. 10. Collect data on types of teaching activities from your class. 14.9 References Kaufman, Trent and Emily Grimm. (2013). The Transparent Teacher: Taking Charge of Your Instruction with Peer-Collected Classroom Data. USA: Jossey-Bass. Kindle Edition. Montgomery, Diane. (2012). Helping Teachers Develop Through Classroom Observation. New York: Routledge. Richards, Jack C. and Thomas S.C. Farrell. (2011). Practice Teaching: A Reflective Approach. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. Richards, Jack C. and Thomas S.C. Farrell (2005). Professional Development for Language Teachers. Strategies for Teacher Learning. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

NSOU PGEL-10 170 Notes 1&2 Formative Assessment in Practice.Teacher Vignettes from Three Districts.Written in collaboration with the Michael & Susan Dell Foundation. May 2016. https://images.app.goo.gl/s1tCoHNPDgys8NbL9 3& 4 Classroom Observations - What will you look for? https://web.csulb.edu/~lhenriqu/300obs.htm

NSOU PGEL-10 171 Unit 15 Discussing peer teaching lessons 15.1 Introduction 15.2 Objectives 15.3 Purpose and benefits of discussion 15.4 Types of discussions 15.5 Ideas within discussing peer teaching lessons 15.6 Summary 15.7 Review Questions 15.8 References and Reading List 15.1 Introduction We have learnt on observation protocols and its different data collection procedures in the previous unit. After the observation protocols, the next procedure is discussion on the data. Discussing peer teaching lesson is a confidential process through which two or more peers work together. They reflect on the observation, share ideas, teach one another and solve problems that may be encountered in the lesson. 15.2 Objectives After reading the unit you will be able to a) Understand peer teaching collaboratively b) Reflect on types of peer teaching discussions c) Learn the needs and benefits of discussing peer teaching d) Develop your own ideas on peer teaching 15.3 Purpose and benefits of discussion Peer teaching discussion is a developmental process and promotes professional development. It is the discussion on the observation by two or more teachers, usually the observed teacher and the observer teacher. It functions as a form of self-learning

NSOU PGEL-10 172 for the professionals of the same field. Peer teaching discussions provide benefits for the observer teacher. The observer teacher has the satisfaction of helping a peer and at the same time re-energizes co-operative education. The observed teacher benefits from the constructive feedback of the observer teacher. In the process this leads to expanding teaching repertoire and gaining knowledge to achieve desired needs and aspirations. Peer teaching discussion is an open forum for collaborative open-ended exchange of ideas with the purpose of furthering thinking, learning, problem solving and understanding pedagogic activities. Teacher thinking is integral to language teaching. The inner work of reshaping our thinking supports our outer work of classroom teaching. Teacher thinking in language teaching has two constructs; Decision-making and thought process. Decision-making refers to a situation in which a teacher wants to organize relevant information and assess alternative resolutions. The teacher may seek assistance of another teacher who is experienced and knowledgeable in the area. For example, a teacher might want to try to teach writing in digital media for specific kinds of communication. To learn how to implement the idea, the teacher seeks advice of a colleague, who advices on the process with feedbacks before it is tried out. Decision-making cannot be predicted and it is context specific. It requires examining and assessment by more knowledgeable teachers or by teachers who are involved with the academic recommendations for learners. Thought process is the process of using one's mind to consider something carefully. This construct comes after furthering learning. It presupposes availability of knowledge and putting it to use. In the process two teachers are involved on refining their views on teaching. For example, while teaching reading, the thought process includes whether to teach the learners metacognitive procedures that organize reading strategies appropriate for the text or to differentiate learning strategies for each text type.We as teachers have surely been through decision-making and thought processes many times. Activity 1 From the following vignette discuss the Teacher Thinking processes. Vignette 1 Teacher A has planned to teach Present Continuous Tense for English lesson that day. The class started at 2.15 p.m and ended half an hour later. However she NSOU PGEL-10 173 managed to enter the classroom at 2.20. Teacher A spent around 18 minutes talking in the class. Out of 18 minutes, 9 minutes has been spent explaining in mother tongue. Half of the time was spent using Bahasa Melayu. This also means that she has used 50% of the time during the teacher talk in mother tongue. It is found out through the recorded tape that teacher A code mixed her utterances in most of the time. In almost all her sentences half of each sentence was used in English and half of it in Bahasa Melayu. Let us see how she conveys message across in explaining meaning of words, first, at simple word level, followed by sentence level and after that how grammar was taught. Recycling...kitar semula Empty can - tin kosong Your Answer: The teacher has adopted the GT Method for teaching English. She is mostly bilingual in the class. She is confident that use of MT would encourage learners. She finds that the learners readily comprehend MT but reluctant to do so in TL. It may also be a draw back from the teacher's perspective. 50% use of MT needs to be replaced by TL. Its use can be gradually reduced to 25% and then to 10% for the actual learning. The GT method is unsuitable in teaching communicative English. Problem solving is a day-to-day educational practice. This is learner centered and needs careful monitoring and measures. These are shaped by meaningful experiences. Class experiences in a teacher's professional life shape the understanding and actions that may be put to practice at a later time. Observer teachers together with co- operating teachers, who are also learners of teaching make sense of the nominal elements of the profession. For this there has to be an understanding between them as well as understanding on the subject. Understanding how the teaching-learning interface occurs in a language classroom is a complicated, messy, conceptual and practical application. There is a starting point and an ending point, but to make a particular method work is a challenge for the teacher. Let us work out on the following student vignette. Activity 2 Read the Student-teacher vignette 2 and state the understanding on pedagogic activities

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am taking a broad variety of classes. They are at a variety of times and even located on two separate campuses. One of my classes is in the evening. It is a bit closer to home and it is an easy drive, with easy parking, and a teacher who is truly a joy. Her positive, charming energy makes me want to be a better student and a better teacher. We have a relatively small class size. She takes attendance for each class and expects us to be present to learn. It is her classroom and her rules and I am cool with that expectation. Interestingly enough, my other professors are a mix of attendance taking and "your choice to show up and learn" approach. I appreciate and respect the different approaches.'

Your Answer: The Student is taking professional development course and is aware of the teacher activities within a class. There are reflections on the positive attitude of the teacher and how it motivates to be a better learner. There are also reflections on the approaches of other teachers of the course, with which the student can relate to. This is a quality of a good learner. 15.4 Types of discussions Data based discussion approaches are productive discussions which are structured and focused. These discussions are flexible to generate professional learning. Data based discussion are of two kinds: A) Observer teacher-led discussion and B) Observed teacher-led discussion. Observer teacher-led discussion can be of two kinds: Problematical discussion and Dialectal discussion. Problematical discussion is focused on solutions to simple and complex problems. This discussion is usually initiated by the observer teacher which is then substantiated, actualized and debated by the observed teacher.Dialectal discussion is on expressing, refining and comparing observed teacher's point of view and the observer teacher plays a dominant role. It is interpretation of the thoughts and ideas of the observed teacher.Informational discussion focus on controversial issues within an accepting atmosphere and the observed teacher has considerable freedom to bring up the topic he/ she wants to discuss. This is an observed teacher-led discussion. The focus of all the discussions is to develop/ change an attitude or idea and solve problem. The relationship between the types of discussion is presented in the following flow diagram.

NSOU PGEL-10 175 15.5 Ideas within discussing peer teaching lessons Within the peer teaching discussionsdevelopment of ideas about language teaching can be traced from the 1950s. There are four generations as patterns of ideas which describe the development on language teaching knowledge. The first two generations, i.e. 1960s and 1970s the focus was on the 'what' and 'how' aspects, what knowledge is needed to teach language and how is knowledge used. In the 1980s and 90s knowledge in person and in-place was marked with 'who and where' aspects discussing individuals personal experiences shape how the individual use knowledge in teaching. In the 2000s and 2010 the knowledge for teaching gained importance. 'Why and how' aspect of language teaching was in discussion. Why individuals with a common focus use knowledge in teaching in similar ways, which are modified as they come to the field.

NSOU PGEL-10 176 Activity 3 Read the Vignette3 on 'Being Observed' and identify the central ideas on language teaching. I remember in my TESOL class during university that one part of the class was to be observed by our TESOL instructor. Since I had never been observed before as a teacher, I didn't reallyknow what to expect. AliI knew was that my TESOL instructor would come in, sit in my class, and observe how I teach, interact with the students, and maintain control of the class. I knew I wouldn't be nervous when the instructor came because I typically don't get nervous in these types of situations. I also felt very confident that my instructor would not find much negative to criticize or comment on because that week I had planned a very good lesson as we were covering a great topic. The only thing I did not like about being observed was that when the instructor came, she was late and the only seat that was left was in the very center of the classroom. So much for trying to pretend she wasn't there! During the observation, I felt very confident that what I was doing seemed very professional and well organized. Also, my students were being "extra good" that day as everyone actively participated in the lesson and listened to my instructions the first time. After the lesson was finished, I felt very confident that my instructor liked what I did and that I really was capable of being an ESL teacher. Later on that week I went to my instructor's office to talk to her about my lesson and sure enough, she enjoyed observing my lesson and thought I did a very good job and had what it takes to be an ESL teacher. The whole experience of being observed really made me reflect on how I teach and also gave me the confidence to know that I am good at what I do. Jacob, Canada Your Answer: The observed teacher has focus on the question 'What accounts for differences in teaching?' The fact that the observer teacher was late and sat in the middle of the classroom was a bit tedious for him. This was knowledge in-person and in-place. This was also application of 'how' for the first time. The observer teacher was well organized and was confident on classroom interactions. This is application of knowledge of pedagogy.

NSOU PGEL-10 177 Activity 4 Read the Co-operating Teacher's Post- lesson conversation4and discuss the ideas on language teaching knowledge. 'After the lesson I was a bit nervous to speak to my cooperating teacher because I wonderedwhat she would say about the lesson. I felt the lesson had gone well, but you never know what another more experienced teacher will say about it. To my relief she told me thatshe was happy with the lesson in general and that it was delivered clearly with a specificdirection that was in the lesson plan. She said that she noticed that I attempted to providemore learning opportunities for the students than when she had observed me the previoustime and I agreed because the last time, I felt that I had difficulty putting myself in theshoes of learners of that age and of course little did I expect that I had overestimated theirlearning capacity. I guess this has something to do with my own experience when I was astudent - my classmates and I understood what my English teacher was saying most of thetime when I was a student. I suppose our better command of English helped. Now I toldher that I intend to teach slowly whenever I introduce a new topic in order for students tobuild a strong foundation for the basics of the topic. I was very pleased that she noticed thischange because she hadwritten this on my observation sheet before and now she could seethat I was following her suggestions. This time, however, she did suggest that I should try toliven up the lessons a bit as she said I seemed a bit tight. That is true, I guess, but I alwaysfeel a bit scared when she observes me and I think I am different and more relaxed when I teach the class by myself. She also suggested that I try to set more of a nonthreateninglearning environment for the class, and I should try to inject more humor into the lessons.I think this tooisrelated to my nervousness of being observed by my cooperating teacher.Anyway, I will try to relax in my next observed lesson.' Tung, Singapore Your answer: Focus Pre-lesson Lesson Feedback Key issue Recommendations:

NSOU PGEL-10 178 15.6 Summary Discussing peer teaching is a skill which develops with experience and practice. The observer teacher is a friend who can observe and talk about teaching critically. This leads to a clearer understanding of teaching. The job of this friend is to separate teaching into parts and discern how these parts work together. 15.7 Review Questions 1. What is 'discussion' on peer teaching? 2. What do you think are the benefits of discussing peer teaching? 3. What are different types of discussion? 4. Illustrate different types of discussion. 5. Discuss the first generation of ideas in language teaching. 6. What was the idea behind language teaching in the 2000s? 7. Discuss Activity 1 in terms of language teaching knowledge. 8. Write a vignette on your class performance of a particular lesson. 9. Write a vignette on class observation of your peer. 10. Write a vignette on peer teaching discussion. 15.8 References Freeman, Donald. (2020). Educating Second Language Teachers. Oxford: Oxford University Press. Richards, Jack C. and Thomas S.C. Farrell. (2011). Practice Teaching: A Reflective Approach. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. Richards, Jack C. and Thomas S.C. Farrell (2005). Professional Development for Language Teachers. Strategies for Teacher Learning. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. Notes 1 English_vignettes_from_Malaysian_classrooms https://www.researchgate.net/publication/268226030 2 Teacher goes back to school https://www.teachthought.com/pedagogy/teacher-goes-back-school-a-vignette/ 3 https://studylib.net/doc/8198687/classroom-observation, page 105 4 https://studylib.net/doc/8198687/classroom-observation, page 100

NSOU PGEL-10 179 Unit 16 Values of constructive feedback 16.1 Introduction 16.2 Objectives 16.3 Purpose of Constructive Feedback 16.3.1 Establishing trust 16.3.2 Balance the Positive and the Negative 16.3.3 Observation and not interpretation 16.3.4 Observation as a professional 16.3.5 Providing Consistent feedback 16.3.6 Providing timely feedback 16.4 Types of Constructive Feedback 16.5 Procedures of Constructive feedback 16.6 Constructive Feedback and Destructive Feedback 16.7 Examples of Constructive Feedback 16.8 Summary 16.9 Review Questions 16.10 References 16.1 Introduction Constructive feedback in ELT is providing comments and suggestions that result in a better teaching-learning process, and a positive outcome. Constructive feedback helps teachers and students to understand their strengths, the areas that need improvement and the resources at their disposal. All these affect their performance and motivation to work further. Constructive feedback enhances personal and professional growth amongst teachers. Feedback is a listening/viewing/reading activity and analysis of the discourse involved. Feedback provides appreciation and criticism and allows reflecting on what everyone can change and improve to perform better.

NSOU PGEL-10 180 16.2 Objectives After reading the unit you will be able to: a) Understand what it takes to bring people together and create healthy communication b) How to think on the best possible solution and better performance c) Learn to change focus and improve results 16.3 Purpose of Constructive Feedback Constructive feedback is based on observation,which is information-specific and focused. It is a personal judgment on appreciation and criticism about a performance effort and outcome. Praise is a favourable commentwhile criticism is not a desirable comment. Giving constructive feedback involves five factors. These factors are: 16.3.1 Establishing trust Within the peer teaching discussions each member of the peer group has a specific role to perform. These roles define the ways in which constructive feedback can be given and received.These roles are: Mentor and apprentice, trained teacher and uninitiated teacher. By establishing trust, the uninitiated teachers can benefit from constructive feedback. Novice teachers may come up with solutions on potential difficulties from constructive feedback. 16.3.2 Balance the Positive and the Negative There is a fine line of separation between criticism and direct attack on the individual. Positive feedback provides comments about the past actions that were correct and can be repeated, whereas negative feedback has comments on the actions that are incorrect and need to be avoided.Successful teachers give five to six times more positive feedback against a negative feedback. 16.3.3 Observation and not interpretation Creating a feedback culture motivates the teachers to learn. They are then aware of what is expected and how success can be achieved. Observation reinforces what is actually happening. Constructive feedback is based on what actually happened and not on interpretations of the actions.

NSOU PGEL-10 181 16.3.4 Observation as a professional Constructive feedback empowers the observer teacher to comment and the observed teacher to perform better. This may not be taken as a personal feedback and is effective at the professional level. In constructive feedback, peers, seniors, and colleagues are treated as individuals and the self-esteem of each individual needs to be guarded while offering the feedback based on observations. 16.3.5 Providing Consistent feedback Consistent feedback encourages positive behaviour and better performance. The teachers feel valued and have opportunities to improve ineffective actions. It takes into account the routine daily actions and is not given at the extreme point. This reinforces stage-wise improvement. 16.3.6 Providing timely feedback Constructive feedback is not review of extreme actions that require attention. This has to be in private to avoid being critical or causing embarrassment. Positive feedback can be public if it is appropriate and the observed teacher receives it for personal benefit i.e. to improve his/her performance. Activity 1 Discuss the Purpose for giving Constructive feedback from the following Vignette1. I recently started working for a private language institute. When I started, I realized that most of the other native-speaking teachers and I were in the same situation - we had relatively little teaching experience and were fairly uncertain as to what being an EFL teacher really involved. We decided to pair up and take time to team-teach one of our classes a week. We met before each class and worked out who would teach each part of the lesson. While one taught, the other observed. After the class, we met to review the lesson and to compare notes on what worked and what didn't. It was a very useful experience and everyone thought we developed and improved our teaching as a consequence. Your answer: In the excerpt, the observed teacher and the observer teacher had paired together for constructive feedback. In the process, they had established trust in each other and their observation. This made them receptive to the feedback given. They had also

NSOU PGEL-10 182 gone for analysis on the observations as professionals. The feedback was on conducting class, review of lesson and teacher notes on the class. Since the teachers met before and after each class, the feedback was provided in appropriate time and this was a valuable input for professional development. Activity 2 Discuss the factors in constructive feedback from the following excerpt. Feedback is a two-way street. You need to know how to give it effectively and also to receive it constructively. When you make a conscious choice to give and receive feedback on a regular basis you demonstrate that it is a powerful means of personal development and positive change. Done properly, feedback need not be agonizing, demoralizing or daunting, and the more practice you get the better you will become at it. It may never be your favorite means of communicating with your team members, co- workers or your boss, but it does have the potential to make your workplace a much more productive and harmonious place to be in. Your answer: 16.4 Types of Constructive Feedback Constructive feedback can create thriving work environment if it is giving in the most constructive way as possible. For this we need to learn about different types of constructive feedback. Feedback refers to past actions while feed-forward refers to future actions. Constructive feedback is of four kinds. a) Negative feedback : Constructive feedback need not be positive always. Negative feedback which suggest corrective comments about past behaviour are constructive in nature. Negative feedback leads to developing behaviours which appear awkward in the beginning but leaves one feeling more valued in profession. E.g. 'You did not use the teaching aids properly', is a negative, but constructive feedback. How can we make it positive? 'You used the teaching aids well, but there is a better way to use it, would you like to know, how?'

NSOU PGEL-10 183 b) Positive feedback : That is affirming comments about past behaviour. This feedback confirms repetition of behaviour or action that was correct and has been praised. Positive feedback boosts morale and helps to overcome the hurts generated from negative feedback. E.g. 'You read the poem very well, and the students were interested in it.' c) Negative feed-forward : or corrective comments about future performance. Negative feed-forward are comments on future behaviour that has to be avoided. They would be incorrect in future and should not be continued. Use of polite language is generally used for negative feed-forward. Improper language may change constructive criticism into destructive criticism. E.g. 'While narrating the story, you made several errors of grammar? You need to revise the use of tenses before you teach next.' We will learn on destructive criticism is section 16.6. d) Positive feed-forward : in other words, affirming comments about future behaviour. These are comments on future actions that have to be taken. These are the 'do-s' in the teacher notes, positive feed-forward reflects an individual's success and positive behaviour. It is easy to give and increases self-esteem and confidence in teaching. E.g. 'You narrated the story well, but this could have been better if you had used some voice modulation.' Activity 3 From the following Vignette3 discuss the type of constructive feedback. In our EAP program ....a young.... teacher with little teaching experience was having trouble with some of his teaching assignments. I agreed to observe some of his classes and give him feedback and suggestions after each class. I also invited him to observe some of my classes and do the same. Through this process we began to explore alternative ways of approaching the materials, my junior colleague began to see how he could adjust his own teaching strategies, and he gradually became much more confident. We also ended up becoming good friends. Your Answer: The vignette talks of exploring alternative ways of approaching the materials. This was necessary because some of the assignments were not working for the junior teacher. Thus negative feedback was in the likelihood. The excerpt also included positive feed- forward as the junior teacher could decide on adjusting his own teaching strategies.

NSOU PGEL-10 184 16.5 Procedures of Constructive feedback Giving a constructive feedback includes answering the question 'Why' it is needed. Feedbacks are usually given to improve a situation or an individual's performance. Feedback is a process that requires constant attention. When something needs to be said, one must say it. The individuals would then know where they stand. For maximum results, the approach may be positive and focused on results. Being harsh, offensive and critical leads one to unaccomplished results. The steps that are to be followed in giving a constructive feedback are: a. State the purpose The first step of a constructive feedback is stating the purpose. In the section 16.3, we have learnt on the various purposes of constructive feedback. The only thing that needs to be added to this is stating what is going to be talked about and why it is important. b. Describe what you have observed The second step of constructive feedback is describing the observation. It is based on observation and the reactions of the observer on the observation. The best feedback is tied to goals and ensures that actions can be taken. Give the feedback from a personal perspective, staring with 'I'. Constructive feedback is about focusing on what we see and hear. It is not about making assumptions and inferences. c. Offer specific suggestions The third step of constructive feedback is offering specific suggestions or solutions. We all respond better when we receive specific feedback. Specific suggestions can come when the feedback is immediate, while all the details are fresh in the observer's mind. While trying to offer specific suggestions one must avoid the words like 'never', 'all', 'always'. Then the observed individual may get offensive. It is better to discuss the direct impact of the behaviour and avoid a personal blame.Focusing on the action and not on the individual is a feature of constructive feedback. d. Summarize the discussion The fourth and final step is summarizing everything that was said in the discussion. This requires using the right language for the type of feedback so that the observed individual do not miss anything. The observed individual should have an opportunity to respond to the discussion. The individual needs to be listened to and get him/her into offering solutions for the problem. This can be in form a better performance at

the next session or positive behaviour in a different context. This will ensure the actions and will end the discussion on a positive note. 16.6 Constructive Feedback and Destructive feedback The whole idea of constructive feedback is to enhance personal and professional growth. It can enhance individual's morale, and lead to positive impact on individual's behaviour. The individual receiving constructive feedback reduces confusion on expectations and builds new perspectives on current performance. At this point, we can learn to distinguish between constructive feedback and destructive feedback. Destructive feedback is a direct attack on the individual highlighting the faults. Destructive feedback does not provide supportive statementsor practical advice. Examples of destructive feedback are: 'You are wrong', 'you have no idea of what you are doing', 'that is not how things are done' etc. Constructive feedback is about corrections and improvement. The feedback is on the things that the individual can change, and not on the things that are out of his/ her control. Activity 4 Read the following feedback 4 from a parent to a class teacher and change it into constructive feedback. You may point out specific solutions to the problem. "We have noticed that what is being taught in the classroom appears to not age appropriate. We're not happy with our child being exposed to content such as inappropriate books / images before we as the parents feel our child is ready. We would like to respectfully request that this content be removed from the classroom." Your answer: 16.7 Examples of Constructive Feedback It is not necessary to talk about the advantages of constructive feedback. Here are a few examples for you to go through and infer for yourself. a. That was a good class. But your plan was a little ambitious; you could learn to adjust your time.

b. I liked the way you introduced the words to the class. Did you check the spellings for all the words you taught before the class? This is an important aspect of good teaching. c. You were asking questions loudly, but when some students did not understand, you just repeated the questions. Though this is helpful, it is better to rephrase the question. Will you try doing it? d. Teaching poetry is quite difficult, but you did it very well. When you read a poem, you need not stop at the end of each line; you should care for the punctuations. This will make the meaning clear. You may remember this next time you teach a poem. Activity 5 Read the paragraphs 5 below and discuss the effects of feedback.

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Some managers only focus on the positive and choose to gloss over the negative, hoping that showering their employees with endless praise will magically inspire them to overcome their shortcomings. Others only focus on the negative and never acknowledge when their employees do a great job. Both of these approaches are misleading to your staff. Employees who receive the first type of feedback never get to know how they can improve and thus can't achieve their full potential while those in the second group feel overlooked and discriminated against from the lack of recognition. Constructive feedback is a healthy blend of praise for achievement and suggestions for improvement. In order to give constructive feedback managers have to master the art of having difficult conversations with their employees and offering them meaningful praise in the right measure.

Your answer: Activity 6 Mention the reason of constructive feedback from the following excerpt 6. "I have been getting positive reviews regarding your work not only from your team leader but fellow team members as well. However, there is one area which might be stopping you from achieving your fullest potential as the top contributor, which is your lack of communication. We would love to hear your ideas and thoughts regarding different agendas that are discussed during team meetings. Please be assured that we all work as a team, and

therefore hearing out every team member is our priority and part of the team culture that we want to build. Feel free to reach out to me in case you are facing any sort of hiccups and I would be happy to help you. Do not hesitate to voice your opinions as everyone is entitled to their own and even if there occurs a mistake, your team will be there to help you in every way possible." Your answer: 16.8 Summary The unit is designed to introduce the fundamental concepts of constructive feedback. We as language teachers need constructive feedback as a factor in professional development. It is necessary to learn to take and as well as to give constructive feedback for the benefit of the teaching-learning process. The following are the review questions to check your comprehension of the unit. 16.9 Review Questions 1. What is constructive feedback? 2. Why do teachers need constructive feedback? Give at least five reasons. 3. What are the purposes for constructive feedback? 4. What are the different types of constructive feedback? 5. Which types of constructive feedback do you think is necessary for your students? Give some examples of constructive feedback. 6. What is destructive feedback? 7. What are the differences between constructive feedback and destructive feedbacks? 8. Do you have any experience of constructive and destructive feedback?— Discuss. 9. What are the procedures for implementing constructive feedback? 10. Write the procedure for giving negative feed-forward.

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PREFACE In the curricular structure introduced by the University for the students of Post Graduate degree programme, the opportunity to pursue post Graduate course in a subject is equally available to all learners. Instead of being guided by any presumption about ability level, it would perhaps stand to reason if receptivity of a learner is judged in the course of the learning process. That would be entirely in keeping with the objectives of open education which does not believe in artificial differentiation. I am happy to note that this University has been recently accredited by National Assessment and Accreditation Council of India (NAAC) with grade 'A'. Keeping this in view, the study materials of the Post Graduate level in different subjects are prepared on the basis of a well laid-out syllabus. The course structure combines the best elements in the approved syllabi of Central and State Universities in respective subjects. It has been so designed as to be upgradable with the addition of new information as well as results of fresh thinking and analysis. The accepted methodology of distance education has been followed in the preparation of these study materials. Co-operation in every form of experienced scholarship is indispensible for a work on this kind. We, therefore, owe an enormous debt of gratitude to everyone whose tireless efforts went into the writing, editing and devising of a proper layout of the materials. Practically speaking, their role amounts to an all-out involvement in layout of the materials and an involvement in 'invisible teaching', as well. For, whoever makes use of these study materials would virtually derive the benefit of learning under their collective care without each being seen by the other. The more a learner would seriously pursue these study materials, the easier will it be for him or her to reach out to larger horizons of a subject. Care has also been taken to make the language lucid and presentation attractive so that they may be rated as quality self-learning materials. If anything remains still obscure or difficult to follow, arrangements are there to come to terms throughout the counseling sessions regularly available at the network of study centers set up by the University. Needless to add, a great deal of these efforts is still experimental-in fact, pioneering in certain areas. Naturally, there is every possibility of some lapse or deficiency here and there. However, these do admit of rectification and further improvement in due course. On the whole, therefore, these study materials are expected to evoke wider appreciation the more they receive serious attention of all concerned. Professor (Dr.) Subha Sankar Sarkar Vice-Chancellor Printed in accordance with the regulations of the Distance Education Bureau of the University Grants Commission First Print : March, 2022 Netaji Subhas Open University Post Graduate English Language Teaching Programme (PGELT) PGEL-10 (Value Added Course) Course Title: Critical Pedagogy- Peer

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Elective Course) Course Title: Application of Theories of 3 Netaji Subhas Open University Post Graduate Degree Programme M A in English Language Teaching Course Code: PGEL-8B (Elective Course) Course Title: Application of Theories of ELT Module No Unit No Course Content Writers Course Dr Niladri S Dash 2 5–8 Dr Niladri S Dash Prof S Mohanraj Professor of ELT, NSOU 3 9–12 Dr Suvarna Lakshmi 4 13–16 Dr S Mohanraj Dr J S Basu Associate Professor of ELT, NSOU NSOU Board of Studies Dr Sumana Bandyopadhyay

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A History of English Language Teaching. 2nd Edn. Oxford: Oxford University Press. 1.11

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Summary 3.8 Review Questions 3.9 References 3.1 Introduction In the previous unit we

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Objectives At the end of this unit, you will be able to: a.

Objectives At the end of this unit, the learners will be able to: a.

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Objectives At the end of this unit, you will be able to a. Understand the concept of microteaching as

Objectives At the end of this unit, the learners will be able to: a. understand the concept of interlanguage as

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Objectives After going through this unit the learners will be able to a. Understand the concept of

Objectives: After going through this unit, the learners will be able to: a. Understand the mechanism of

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At the end of the lesson, the learners will be able to: a.

At the end of the unit the learners will be able to a)

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Objectives After going through this unit, the learners will be able to: a. Understand the importance of

Objectives: After going through this unit, the learners will be able to: a. Understand the mechanism of

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Objectives At the end of the unit, you will be able to:

Objectives At the end of the unit the learners will be able to

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Principles & Practice in Applied Linguistics. Studies in honour of H.G. Widdowson. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

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Principles and Practice in Applied Linguistics: Studies in Honour of H.G. Widdowson." Oxford: Oxford University Press. 98

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a)-2. b)-3, c)-1, d)-5, e)-4, f)-7, g)-8, h)-6. 14.7 Summary The unit

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a.4; b.3; c. 1; d. 5; e. 7; f. 8; g. 10; h. 6; i. 2; j. 9 16.5 Summary of the Unit

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am taking a broad variety of classes. They are at a variety of times and even located on two separate campuses. One of my classes is in the evening. It is a bit closer to home and it is an easy drive, with easy parking, and a teacher who is truly a joy. Her positive, charming energy makes me want to be a better student and a better teacher. We have a relatively small class size. She takes attendance for each class and expects us to be present to learn. It is her classroom and her rules and I am cool with that expectation. Interestingly enough, my other professors are a mix of attendance taking and "your choice to show up and learn" approach. I appreciate and respect the different approaches.'

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