CHAPTER 2

PRINCIPLES OF COURSE DESIGN

(1) RELEVANT THEORETICAL STUDIES AND COURSES

2.1 Introductory.

Chapter 2 will begin with an account of certain contributions to the theory of language structure and language function, controversies regarding the goals and methods of language teaching and the principles of syllabus design. The aim is not to provide a comprehensive account of the views propounded nor to evaluate them in the abstract. Rather it is to treat these contributions and controversies as a background to the courses to be designed for S.N.D.T. University. The discussion concentrates on whatever has proved enlightening and valuable to the course-designer in furthering her own understanding of the nature of language structure and function and the goals of language teaching. Such a background is necessary in order to design a syllabus relevant to the needs of the particular group of students and also in order to develop the necessary course materials and techniques of teaching and testing. The relevance of the discussion will become more apparent in Chapter 3 where the principles of course design are applied to the preparation of a course in speech for the students of S.N.D.T. University.

The latter part of Chapter 2 will give an account of some of the courses that have been scrutinized, particularly
courses in spoken English. These courses will serve to illustrate the pedagogical application of the various theoretical approaches and will be of assistance in arriving at a decision regarding the most effective approach to be followed in the S.N.D.T. University context. The courses will first be discussed from this angle, as illustrations of various approaches. The strong points of the courses will be indicated as well as suggestions that may be gathered from them regarding the preparation of the new materials. At the same time it will be necessary to draw attention to the reasons why none of the courses in spoken English currently available, admirably suited though they may be to their own purposes, are suited to the needs of the S.N.D.T. University students.

2.2 Language structure.

It was explained in Chapter 1 that the genesis of the S.N.D.T. University course in spoken English was the belief that a speech course based on a rigidly controlled and graded presentation of language patterns would lead to greater fluency and accuracy in the use of the language for communication than was hitherto being attained. Hence the first necessity was to prepare a grammatical syllabus based on language patterns. For this purpose a study was made both of theoretical models and of descriptive grammars of the language. The intention was to decide on an over-all grammatical framework and to select items for presentation at the Basic, Intermediate and Advanced levels in an ordered sequence so as to ensure that by the end of the
course the student would have acquired control of all the language patterns essential for communication. By the termination of the Basic Course itself, sufficient coverage of the 'basic' elements of language structure should have been provided for the student to be able to communicate in a limited range of situations, using a restricted range of structure-patterns and vocabulary, but with the confidence that came from having achieved, at last, the ability to communicate in English.

2.2.1 Traditional grammar.

The most detailed descriptions of the grammar of the language are undoubtedly to be found in traditional scholarly grammars. Even the proponents of other models would not dispute this contention, since the descriptive grammars based on these newer models or the illustrations provided in the more abstract theoretical studies serve largely to test or to illustrate the model itself rather than to give a total picture of the structure of the language. One must make a preliminary distinction between grammars which are intended to expound the grammar of a language so that the reader, whether native speaker or foreigner, may acquire an understanding of the grammar as an end in itself and grammars which are intended to assist the foreign learner to acquire control over the language through an understanding of how the language works. The former are intended, it may be said, for the study of grammar, the latter for the learning of a language. The first
group differ among themselves as regards amplitude and style of exposition; they may be intended for scholars, for university students or for school children.

Of grammars of the first type extensive use was made of

A Handbook of English Grammar by R.W. Zandvoort, Present-Day English Syntax by G. Scheurweghs and the recent monumental Grammar of Contemporary English by R. Quirk, S. Greenbaum, G. Leech and J. Svartvik. Zandvoort's book follows the traditional pattern of classification according to parts of speech and pays only brief attention to sentence structure. But within its chosen framework it provides a great deal of detail regarding the constituent elements of sentence structure, in particular the elements that constitute the noun phrase and the verb phrase. Scheurweghs supplements Zandvoort by using Zandvoort's account as a basis of categorization and illustrating by means of reference to a corpus of recent written texts. The work by Quirk et al is based on a survey of current English usage carried out by a team of workers over a period of several years. It may be regarded as the definitive English reference grammar which all students of the subject will wish to consult. Although it is so recently published and although it makes use of some of the insights of transformational generative grammar and systemic grammar, its over-all organization is along the lines of traditional grammar rather than any more recent model. Both the full book and the shortened version, A University Grammar of English by R. Quirk and S. Greenbaum, include far more details on adverbials than do the works mentioned earlier.
and also pay more attention to clause structure. There is also a chapter on these and information focus. To supplement the studies mentioned above, fuller treatments of selected aspects of the grammar of the language are available, of the verb in *A Linguistic Study of the English Verb* by F.R. Palmer and of the adverb in *Studies in English Adverbial Usage* by S. Greenbaum.

It might be expected that grammars that are meant primarily to assist the foreign learner to acquire control of the language would be more elementary and would not be likely to include anything noteworthy omitted by the more scholarly, comprehensive works already cited. But the presentation, explanation and classification in some of these assisted the writer in the clarification of various concepts and in the selection of items for the grammatical syllabus. Among them the most useful were *A Practical English Grammar for Foreign Students* by A.J. Thomson and A.V. Martinet and *A Guide to English Patterns and Usage* by A.S. Hornby. Hornby's book has been grouped with the traditional grammars in spite of its rather original treatment of structural items in relation to concepts of time and mood and its use of some new terms coined by Hornby such as 'the anomalous finites'. This is because the manner in which Hornby views the structure and functioning of the language is not radically different from that of traditional grammar.

*A grammar specifically intended for overseas university students,* *A Communicative Grammar of English* by G. Leech and
J. Svartvik may also be cited here as it makes use of the material from Quirk et al. The material is presented, however, along altogether different lines. The central part of the book is devoted to the uses of grammar, namely the expression of concepts such as time or degree, the use of grammar for logical communication such as giving and eliciting information or making judgments about truth and falsehood, another dimension of communication, namely the expression of emotions and attitudes, and finally the organizational aspect of communication related to meanings in connected discourse. The authors proceed from the uses of grammar to the structures that realize these uses, instead of beginning with the structures and describing their uses. Hornby's treatment anticipates that of Leech and Svartvik to a certain extent but theirs is more comprehensive. Their presentation would be of greater assistance in framing a functional rather than a structural syllabus and it was so used by the writer when revising the Intermediate Course.

To sum up briefly, it may be said that while the wealth of descriptive detail provided by them was invaluable, these traditional grammars were felt to be built on an inadequate theory.

2.2.2 Structural grammar.

The pioneering work of C.C. Fries, *The Structure of English*, serves both as an introduction to the theoretical principles of structural grammar and as a description, admittedly
in broad outline, of the English language, based on these principles. Rejecting the traditional classification of parts of speech based on conceptual definitions (for instance, 'a noun is a name of a person, place or thing') and derived ultimately from Latin, Fries groups words into classes based on their formal (morphological) characteristics (for instance, nouns take the plural inflection) and on the positions they occupy in sentences (syntactical characteristics). Reference will again be made to Fries in Section 2.4.1 when speaking of approaches to teaching methodology. The important principle of the use of sentence frames with substitution at a given point in a pattern, both as a means of grammatical classification and as a method of teaching, derives from Fries. Though structural grammar, it can be seen in retrospect, serves as neither the most exact, accurate nor comprehensive model of grammatical description, a course which consists, as does the S.N.D.T. University Basic Course, of dialogues with substitutions at a given point, cannot but be indebted to Fries. The 'slot and filler' technique, assigning positions to various elements in sentence structure, was also helpful when considering the expansion of basic patterns.

Many books on linguistic theory either accept the structuralist model (for instance, An Introduction to Descriptive Linguistics by H.A. Gleason, A Course in Modern Linguistics by C.F. Hockett and General Linguistics by R.H. Robins) or discuss it and place it in historical perspective (for instance Linguistics by D. Crystal and Introduction to Theoretical
Linguistics by J. Lyons). Some of the descriptive grammars based on the structural model are valuable with regard to their presentation of sentence patterns. Among these are Patterns of English by Paul Roberts and Grammatical Structure and its Teaching by L. Boadi, D. Grieve, B. Kwankwo. Linguistics and English Grammar by H.A. Gleason is also helpful on the subject of sentence patterns. An Advanced English Grammar by P. Christophersen and A. Sandved, on the other hand, though it makes use of morphological and syntactical criteria separately for grouping words into classes, is much more concerned with details regarding the parts of speech (classified according to their system) than with syntax. The detail supplied, however, is a useful supplement to the traditional grammars. An Introductory English Grammar by N.C. Stageberg is of some assistance in the handling of phrasal verbs, though in other respects his grammar appears to the writer to be rather elementary. The first version of the Basic Course contained lessons based on phrasal verbs though these were later omitted.

Structural grammar represents an advance in that it takes as its basis the current language as it is actually spoken and is the first to attach importance to an analysis of speech. Both as regards theory and description, however, it is inadequate as a grammatical model.

### 2.2.3 Systemic or scale and category grammar.

A reaction against structural grammar was not slow in coming. In fact, while teachers of English as a foreign

language all over the world eagerly studied it as the new revolutionary grammar and a spate of school grammars were written, structural syllabuses drawn up and text-books prepared on that basis, already in the late 1950s and early 1960s linguists were becoming increasingly aware of the shortcomings of the theory itself and the ineffectiveness of its use as a basis for the writing of descriptive grammars. The models which are most widely accepted today are transformational generative grammar (T.G. Grammar) and systemic grammar, which in its earlier form was known as scale and category grammar. One is not here concerned with the keen and undoubtedly stimulating debates among theoretical linguists, but only with what can be used for one's own practical purposes. Hence more may be said about earlier versions of these grammars than about later developments. The later versions of the model may more satisfactorily and 'elegantly' account for aspects of language which the earlier versions either left out or explained in a more involved manner. But the use of the later versions for pedagogical purposes is not so apparent.

What the writer was in search of was an over-all framework within which all the details of the grammar of the language fell into place. Neither traditional nor structural grammar could provide such a framework. The scale and category model developed by the British linguist M.A.K. Halliday was found to fulfil this need. Halliday's own contributions were often initially written in the form of papers for learned journals and are difficult to read. But simpler lucid
expositions have been written which will serve as a basis for the brief account given below. Among these are English Grammar: A Linguistic Study of its Classes and Structures by F. Scott, C. Bowley, C. Brockett, J. Brown and P. Goddard, A Modern Approach to English Grammar: An Introduction to Systemic Grammar by James Muir and Introduction to Systemic Linguistics Vols. 1 and 2 by Margaret Berry.

Halliday's 'categories' were found to be helpful when designing the new grammatical syllabus. The categories which are set up are four in number—unit, structure, class and system. A unit is defined as a stretch of language that carries a grammatical pattern. There are five units in English—sentence, clause, phrase, word and morpheme. They are arranged in a hierarchical order, for which the term 'rank' is used; it is said that they are ranged on a 'rank-scale'. The structure of a unit is defined in terms of the elements of that unit which follow one another in a given order. Thus structure is a matter of 'syntagmatic' or chain relations. Each element of a unit is 'expounded' or 'realized' by the various classes of the unit next below. Thus the elements of sentence structure are expounded by an independent clause with the possible addition of one or more dependent clauses. There are thus two clause 'classes'—independent and dependent.

The next units in order of rank are the clause and the phrase. The distinction between the two is not that made in traditional grammar, resting on the presence or absence of a
finite verb. A clause occupies a position in sentence structure, while a phrase occupies a position in clause structure. The structure of the clause is Subject, Predicator, Complement and Adjunct, or SPCA. The term 'Predicator' is used in preference to 'verb' in order to distinguish an element in clause structure from a verb which is a class of word. 'Complement' is inclusive of what is traditionally termed Subject Complement, Object Complement, Direct Object and Indirect Object. Noun phrases may occur at S or C, adjectival phrases at C, verb phrases at P, adverbial phrases at A.

A phrase consists of one or more words. The terminology here again is markedly different from that of traditional grammar in which a phrase is a group of words. The structure of the noun phrase is mhq, standing for modifier, head and qualifier. If one specifies the elements which may compose m, such as deictic (article or demonstrative) and epithet (adjective) one is said to make a move in the scale of 'delicacy'. More details regarding phrase structure will not be given here. One very important aspect of the theory needs to be noted, the concept of 'rank-shift'. When a unit occurs at an element in a unit of the same rank or a lower rank it is a case of rank-shift. If a noun clause functions as S or C in clause structure it is said to be 'rank-shifted', since a clause occurs normally at a point in the structure of a sentence, not of another clause. An adjective clause is also rank-shifted, since it occurs as qualifier in a noun phrase.
Next to be considered is the category of system. System is a matter of paradigmatic or choice relations. Systems operate at places in the structure of a unit. Each system consists of a set of terms which are mutually exclusive but collectively exhaustive. Thus in the verb phrase there are the systems of number, tense, aspect, progression. In each case one has to choose from amongst a limited set of terms. For instance at the clause level one must choose between declarative and interrogative in the system of mood. In the noun phrase one must choose between countable and uncountable, and if one chooses countable, then between singular and plural.

The grammar is still in the process of modification, as Halliday and other linguists associated with the working out of the model have become increasingly interested in language function and have sought to incorporate these new insights into the model. High priority is now given to the sociological aspects of language. Berry's book mentioned above serves as a useful introduction to the later version, now known as systemic grammar, since the central category is now considered to be that of 'system'. But in the preparation of the Basic Course, concepts such as that of 'inter-levels' introduced in the later version were not used. This is not the place to enter into the controversy as to whether the model is as 'powerful' as the T.C. model, whether it accounts for the facts of language equally satisfactorily and economically. In some respects it may not serve as an adequate model as a basis for descriptive grammars and such descriptive grammars as the writer has seen
based on it (for instance Scott et al mentioned above) are
definitely slight. Its over-all scheme of categorization
however has been of great assistance in planning the grammatical
syllabus for the Basic Course.

2.2.4 Transformational - Generative grammar.

There are major differences between the first formulation
of the theory of transformational-generative grammar in Syntactic
Structures by Noam Chomsky (1957) and his own later formulation
in Aspects of the Theory of Syntax (1965) and a number of other
linguists have introduced further ramifications and modifications.

The standpoint of transformational grammar itself is radically
different from that of the grammars considered so far, in that
it is not primarily descriptive. Instead it seeks to account
for all the sentences of a language by providing a complete set
of rules by the application of which all possible sentence-
patterns can be derived. (Indeed an infinite number of actual
sentences can also be produced, but the aim of the grammar is
not to produce these.) For the transformational grammarians
a grammar is a device that generates all of the grammatical
sentences of a language and none of the ungrammatical ones. A
transformational grammar of English will therefore generate all
the grammatical sentences of English and will rule out non-English
sentences. It will also show the relations between sentences of
which the surface structure differs and will explicate the
differences between sentences with an identical surface structure.
The earlier version of the grammar consists of Phrase Structure rules which enable one to derive what are termed kernel or basic sentences. Transformational rules are then applied to these to derive all the other sentences of the language. Not only are negatives, interrogatives and passives thus derived through 'singular' transformations, but sentences with an attributive adjective, an Object Complement and several other types are derived through what are called 'generalized transformations' involving two underlying kernel sentences.

The transformational grammarians claim that the grammar is more comprehensive, economical and accurate than other models. Its concept of deep and surface structure is certainly a revealing one which serves to show, as other models cannot, that sentences with an identical surface structure are derived through transformations from different underlying deep structures. One such pair, often quoted, is 'John is eager to please' and 'John is easy to please'.

The later version of the grammar seeks to explain far more through the underlying deep structure which is indicated either in the form of a string of symbols or a tree diagram, termed a phrase marker. Thus, much that was earlier assigned to the transformational component is now assigned to the phrase structure component. The grammar also seeks to account for aspects of meaning which would earlier have been regarded as lying outside the domain of grammar altogether. The non-acceptability of the oft-quoted sentence, 'Colourless green
ideas sleep furiously', would now be accounted for in grammatical terms through the incorporation in the grammar itself of selectional rules concerned with the co-occurrence of lexical items.

Chomsky makes an important distinction between 'competence' and 'performance'. Competence relates to the native speaker's knowledge of the grammar of his language, his ability to speak and understand new sentences because he has 'internalized' a set of rules. Performance relates to the production of actual utterances. According to Chomsky it is competence rather than performance with which the linguist is concerned.

Simple introductory accounts based on T.G. grammar may best be regarded as introductions to T.G. grammar itself rather than to the grammar of English. Very little of the detail of the language is actually covered, while an undue amount of time is spent by the student in learning to draw tree diagrams. Instances are An Introduction to Transformational Grammar by R.J. Geist, Introductory Transformational Grammar of English by Mark Lester and An Introduction to English Transformational Syntax by R. Huddleston. The more scholarly works on the other hand are extremely abstract and difficult. Some of the accounts which the course-designer found to be lucid and helpful as introductions to the grammar have been condemned by linguists in very strong terms. Instances are English Syntax by Paul Roberts and Transformational Grammar
and the Teacher of English by Owen Thomas. Lakoff says with reference to these two grammars in particular that they merely teach students to use new formulas. Instead of filling in patterns of sentences as did structural grammars, students are made to learn patterns of abstractions. Lakoff even goes so far as to say that the rules they are taught are without exception fakes. Roulet's suggestion appears to be a sound one that at the present moment it would be best to regard T.G. grammar not as a completely perfected model but as a heuristic instrument to discover the functioning of language.

Proposals have been formulated for the construction of courses for language learners based on the T.G. model, for instance one by Ritchie. The course he proposes is meant for foreigners wishing to learn the language, not merely for those wishing to understand the grammar of the language. Without an opportunity to scrutinize actual course materials prepared along these lines, it is difficult to determine whether and to what extent it would be possible to use T.G. grammar successfully as a basis for course construction. Chomsky himself has admitted that as yet the pedagogical implications remain to be worked out. Thus, while proving of great value in adding to the understanding of the language, T.G. grammar did not afford any assistance in designing the syllabus or course materials for the S.N.D.T. University courses in speech.

2.2.5 The contribution of the grammatical models to the development of the S.N.D.T. University course in spoken English

The writer's own understanding of the grammar of English
has been considerably enhanced and clarified by all the models discussed above in ways that will not be obviously reflected in the syllabus and course materials. While designing the grammatical syllabus, which is the core of the Basic Course, the approach adopted has been an eclectic one. The clear-cut distinction between structure and system made in systemic grammar has been mentally preserved when drawing up the syllabus, though in the note for the teacher in the course booklet, the term 'structural items' has been used, even though some of the items listed relate to system rather than structure. This has been done partly because the term is a familiar one and partly to stress the over-all emphasis on structure in the course.

The concept of units arranged on a rank-scale has also helped to shape the syllabus, though once again, since the terminology of systemic grammar has not been adopted, this will not be apparent from the list of 'structural items'. In any case the book is not a grammar but a course-book for the teaching of spoken English and the materials with which the teacher and student are concerned are the dialogues, not the rationale of the course design. Familiar terminology is retained and great exactitude is not preserved. For instance the term 'sentence pattern' is used for what are actually clause patterns. However, as complex sentences are introduced only at the end of the Basic Course, and simple sentences contain only one clause, so that the clause patterns become in effect sentence patterns, the familiar term 'sentence pattern' is retained.
One respect in which the syllabus will be seen to be clearly influenced by systemic grammar is the early introduction of relative clauses. While most grammars would treat these as clauses in complex sentences, in the syllabus for the Basic Course they have been regarded as rank-shifted post-nominal elements and have therefore been included in the section on the noun phrase. It was after much deliberation that this classification was adopted, as the structure of a noun phrase containing a relative clause is a complex one for students to grasp. It seemed advisable however to treat the noun phrase as a unit with all the elements that enter into it introduced in the same section of the course. Noun clauses on the other hand are themselves various in structure and can occur in various positions as rank-shifted elements. Hence in the matter of noun clauses the traditional classification of sentences with noun clauses as complex sentences has been followed.

The familiar term 'pattern' has been used for the variants that can occur in sentence, clause and phrase structure. Systemic grammar would account for the specification of the different types of Complements (namely Direct Object, Indirect Object, Object Complement and Subject Complement) and their co-occurrence in a manner which is not in the writer's view as lucid and helpful for learners as the more traditional labelling. Therefore not only has the structuralists' favourite term 'pattern' been used but their listing of five basic sentence patterns has also been adopted. The patterns are not referred
to as 'structures', as was loosely done when structural courses
first became popular. The term 'structure' will be used only
as an uncountable noun. The following quotations from Lado
will elucidate the sense in which the structuralists use the
term 'pattern' :

"A grammatical pattern is an arrangement of parts
having linguistic significance beyond the sum of
its parts." 6

"An arrangement of words that has a meaning over and
above the separate meanings of the words that constitute
it and is a model into whose parts other words can be
substituted without changing the meaning of the
arrangement itself constitutes a grammatical pattern.
A grammatical pattern is in a sense less meaningful
than an utterance, for an utterance has a total meaning
that includes that of the pattern plus that of the words;
a grammatical pattern is more important than any single
utterance since it is the mould from which countless
utterances can be produced." 7

An important point is made here, that grammatical structure
itself constitutes an important element of meaning. But the
structuralists tend to group together loosely as different
'patterns' a number of systemic variations of a given pattern.
For instance, the pattern represented by the sentence, 'They are
boys', is structurally identical with that represented by the
sentence, 'He is a boy'. The two exemplify the different systems
of singular and plural. One can avoid this type of confusion,
to be found in many structural syllabuses, if one is more
rigorous in the use of terms. Another shortcoming in the
structuralists' grouping of patterns is their failure to arrange
them in any kind of hierarchical order, where classes of the
units of a lower rank appear as exponents of various elements in
the structure of the unit next above. Systemic grammar can provide such a rank-scale.

The second one of the quotations from Lado mentions the idea of substitutable elements at various points in a pattern. This idea has been of great use in what is as important as the framing of the syllabus, the preparation of teaching materials and the development of a technique of presentation. Dialogues with substitutions are, as will be demonstrated in Chapter 3, the main components of the S.N.D.T. University Basic Course.

It has already been pointed out that judged as descriptive grammars, traditional grammars provide a wealth of detail which has not yet been supplied by any descriptive grammar based on more recent models. When filling out the sections in the syllabus on the noun phrase, the verb phrase, noun clauses and adverbial clauses, full use has been made of these.

It may be argued that where a grammatical syllabus consists only of the fundamentals of language structure and system it is scarcely necessary to consult so many grammars and study a variety of models. In answer to this it may be said that when a fresh approach is being attempted, it is absolutely essential that the course-designer should obtain as thorough an understanding of the grammar of the language as possible.
2.3 Language function.

2.3.1 Communicative competence. Use and usage.

Recent decades have witnessed an increasing interest in the manner in which language functions in social situations and the conveying of meaning through a variety of communicative acts. Among British linguists the pioneer in this respect was J.R. Firth and latterly Halliday, Widdowson and many others have carried out investigations in this area. The impact on syllabus construction and course design has also been considerable. As a result the concept of 'communicative competence' has been much in vogue in the 1970s. The term was used by the sociolinguist Hymes who took issue with Chomsky regarding the all-important position accorded by him to competence which, for Chomsky, was the speaker-hearer's latent knowledge of the grammatical structure of his language. Hymes points out:

"We have to account for the fact that a normal child acquires knowledge of sentences, not only as grammatical, but also as appropriate. He or she acquires competence as to when to speak, when not, and as to what to talk about with whom, when, where, in what manner. In short a child becomes able to accomplish a repertoire of speech acts, to take part in speech events, and to evaluate their accomplishment by others."8

Hymes goes on to state that:

"There are rules of use without which the rules of grammar would be useless."9

A similar stress on communicative competence was laid by Campbell and Wales, who, as psycholinguists, were primarily interested in the process of language acquisition by the young.
child. After considering the two senses, a stronger and a weaker one, in which the term competence has been used by T.G. grammarians, they go on to state that these grammarians have omitted a third kind of competence and that the most important: "the ability to produce and understand utterances appropriate to the context in which they are made." They term this 'communicative competence'.

For Halliday too the expression and communication of meaning is of great importance in any consideration of language as well as of language learning. In two recent books, Explorations in the Functions of Language and Learning How to Mean; Explorations in the Development of Language, he speaks of learning language as 'learning how to mean'. He is interested in the manner in which options in meaning are realized in terms of options in grammatical systems. His view of language function will be discussed in Section 2.3.2.

The distinction between use and grammar made by Byrnes is taken up by Widdowson. He goes back to the competence-performance distinction and, as others have also done, attempts to clarify the variations in the meaning of both terms. The term performance may be used in two senses:

"We might refer to performance in the Chomskyan sense of exemplification of linguistic rules as usage, reserving the term use to mean the manner in which these rules are drawn upon to perform social acts."!

The native speaker of a language possesses the ability to use the rules of the grammatical system appropriately. This Widdowson terms 'usage'. Together with this he possesses the ability to make
use of the grammatical system to express himself clearly in speech and writing in a given context to perform acts such as arguing or describing. This is the manifestation of the language as use:

"Usage is one aspect of performance, that aspect which makes evident the extent to which the language user demonstrates his knowledge of linguistic rules. Use is another aspect of performance: that which makes evident the extent to which the language user demonstrates his ability to use his knowledge of linguistic rules for effective communication."12

Widdowson also makes an important distinction between linguistic 'signification' and rhetorical 'value':

"By signification is meant the semantic specification of linguistic elements in the language code and by value the pragmatic implications the use of such elements have in context."13

Parallel to this is the distinction between sentences and utterances. A sentence, according to his use of the term, is an abstraction, an exemplification of a linguistic rule. What a speaker speaks is not a sentence, but an utterance, which is the realization of a linguistic rule for a communicative purpose. A sentence possesses signification and is a manifestation of the system as usage. An utterance possesses value and is a manifestation of the realization of the system as use.14

When developing a course in spoken English one is naturally concerned with enabling the language learner to acquire the ability to communicate meaning. Earlier in the thesis stress was laid on the intention to assist the learner to acquire a knowledge of the system as usage, to internalize the rules through constant practice. The contention was that a knowledge
of the system as usage could best be acquired through practice which led to communicative facility. Thus, though the introduction dwelt at length on the language as structure and system, it will be evident that the importance of the language as use was by no means neglected. In fact it is through focusing the students' attention on language as use that the new course strives to teach language as usage. The aim certainly is 'communicative competence'. This point will be taken up again in Section 2.3.5.

2.3.2 The functions of language: Halliday, Jakobson, Pit Corder.

What then are the functions of language one endeavours to teach when one wishes to teach the system as use, to assist the student to acquire communicative competence? Linguists have classified these functions according to different schemes. The most useful for the present purpose was that set forth by Jakobson with some modification in terminology introduced by Pit Corder. Mention will first be made, however, of Halliday's classification, as it affords interesting insights into the functioning of language for purposes of analysis.

Halliday distinguishes between the ideational, interpersonal and textual functions. The ideational function is concerned with what one may call the communication of a proposition; it involves merely the content of the message or piece of information. The interpersonal function is concerned with the use of language to express social and personal relations. These functions do not exist in isolation; any given utterance
embodies both functions. Halliday is very suggestive regarding the manner in which grammatical systems realize these functions. The ideational function is realized by the system of transitivity, the interpersonal function by the systems of mood and modality.

The textual function is concerned with the manner in which sentences are organized as messages and how they relate to what precedes and follows in a given piece of discourse. Both through phonological means — stress and intonation — and through word order, one distinguishes 'given' from 'new' information within a sentence. The tonic syllable or nucleus of the tone group singles out the point of 'information focus'. The first constituent of a clause functions as the 'theme'. When one wishes to draw attention to some particular item in the message, normal word order may be reversed. This is termed 'marked' theme.

Halliday's discussion is useful and stimulating and contributes especially to the understanding of the relation between function and structure. Much more useful for pedagogical purposes, however, is Jakobson's formulation and it has been adopted for the designing of the S.M.D.T. University course. Jakobson begins by presenting in diagrammatic form the factors involved in verbal communication. They are as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Context</th>
<th>Message</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Addresser</td>
<td>Addressee</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Contact</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Code</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

---

16
The functions that correspond to these factors are presented thus:

Referential

Poetic

Emotive ----------------------------------- Conative

Phatic

Metalinguual

Pit Corder makes use of Jakobson's formulation but modifies the terminology slightly. If the orientation is towards the speaker it is the personal function, if towards the hearer, the directive function. If the focus is on the maintenance of contact between speaker and hearer, it is the phatic function. If the discourse is topic-oriented, the referential function is to the fore. If attention is directed to language as a code, it is the metalinguistic function (the principal one, according to Pit Corder, in learning and teaching). Finally in literature, where the attention is on the message itself, one finds the imaginative function predominant.

Suggestions regarding the manner in which such a view of speech functions may be incorporated into syllabus design will be considered in Section 2.3.5. To what extent do existing courses teach students the functions which they most require? The referential and conative (or directive) functions are of equal importance to the student when using speech in natural situations apart from the classroom and the examination hall.
Next in importance ran the personal and the phatic. Pit Corder's term 'personal' has been used in preference to Jakobson's 'emotive', since it includes the expression of opinion or preference and not merely emotion which the learner may not be required to express very often in English. The phatic is necessary for 'small talk' on social occasions. The poetic and the metalinguistic may be left out of account, as only a student who is specializing in English language and literature is concerned with them. Pit Corder says the metalinguistic function dominates in the classroom, as the teacher is constantly drawing attention to the structure and function of the language itself. But the student is concerned with it only in his role as language learner, possibly later as language teacher. For no normal social purpose does he require it.

Now a little reflection will show that in the school and college classroom, so far as production is involved and not merely recognition, the student learns only the referential function out of the four that he will actually require. With more advanced students the personal use begins to assume importance for the expression of opinions. When reading stories or plays, the student, of course, comes across questions and commands (the directive function). He also comes across conversational exchanges which serve no purpose other than to keep up a pleasant relationship (the phatic function). But the only occasion on which students frame questions or commands themselves is in the highly artificial context of a grammar.
exercise in the transformation of sentences. It is only rarely that S.N.D.T. University students venture to ask the teacher a question in English. The phatic use of language is never even pointed out, certainly never taught. While devising a course in spoken English, then, the speech functions the student must command must be firmly kept in view. Much more will have to be said on the subject in Chapter 5 where the design of the S.N.D.T. University syllabus is discussed. Speech functions will also be taken up again later in this chapter when speaking of how a number of 'speech acts' or 'micro-functions' as they have been variously labelled, may be subsumed under the major functions or 'macro-functions' noted above.

2.3.3 Speech acts.

As philosophers in recent years have become interested in an analysis of the functioning of language, so linguists have benefited from the writings of philosophers. Austin's discussion of speech acts serves as a starting-point for linguists. Austin's investigation of 'performative' verbs, where the use of a verb by a speaker amounts to performing the action indicated by the verb, (for example, 'I pronounce you man and wife'), led him to consider the different senses in which saying something is equivalent to doing something. He distinguished three types of speech acts: (i) locutionary acts, in which sense and reference or meaning are important; (ii) illocutionary acts, in which the speaker performs an act, such as an act of urging or advising, in the course of saying
something; (iii) perlocutionary acts, in which the speaker
brings about a change in the hearer, such as an act of
persuasion.19

Searle carries Austin's work a stage further. He also
distinguishes between three kinds of act but all three are
simultaneously carried out by the speaker. In the first place
the speaker performs an 'utterance act', in the sense that he
utters words and sentences. Simultaneously he performs a
'propositional act', which involves reference and predication.
But utterances which are identical in so far as they express
the same proposition, for instance a statement and a question:
'Sam smokes habitually'; 'Does Sam smoke habitually? ', can
have different illocutionary force. Thus the speaker every
time also performs an illocutionary act, such as asserting,
questioning, commanding, or promising.20

Searle goes on to examine the conditions under which a
particular illocutionary act, that of promising, is interpreted
as a promise, and from these conditions he extracts a set of
five rules for the use of the indicator of illocutionary force.
For instance, a promise is uttered when some future act of the
speaker is predicated, when the hearer would prefer the
speaker's performing the act to his not performing it, and
when it is not obvious that the speaker will perform the act
in the normal course. Similar rules are then worked out for
other acts, namely requesting, stating, questioning, thanking,
advising, warning, greeting and congratulating.21
While the philosophical discussion referred to above is too abstract and analytical to be of direct value to the syllabus-maker or course-designer, the concept of speech acts has been taken up by applied linguists who have found it useful to specify the speech acts that a learner must be able to perform. Pit Corder takes as a starting-point Austin's classification of speech acts into five categories, namely: (i) acts constituting judgments or appraisals; (ii) acts exercising some power or right, such as advising or ordering; (iii) acts committing the speaker to a course of action, such as a promise; (iv) social behaviour, such as apologising; (v) acts involving the taking of a stance, such as argument or assumption.22

Alexander, who is himself the author of several courses in the teaching of English as a foreign language, groups various speech acts together under six general categories.23 The term 'speech acts' is not used. Alexander speaks of 'functions' but the acts he lists are more akin to what have earlier been referred to as 'speech acts' rather than to Jakobson's or Halliday's 'functions'. His categories are as follows:

(i) imparting and seeking factual information
   (for example, identifying, reporting, correcting);

(ii) expressing and finding out intellectual attitudes
    (for example, expressing agreement or disagreement, denying);
(iii) expressing and finding out emotional reactions
(for example, expressing pleasure or displeasure,
liking or disliking);

(iv) expressing and finding out moral attitudes
(for example, apologising, forgiving, disapproving);

(v) suasion (getting things done)
(for example, suggesting, requesting, inviting);

(vi) socialising
(for example, introducing, leave-taking).

Alexander’s classification would be more useful to anyone engaged in the production of course materials than Pit Corder’s. It will be seen that the groupings suggested by both cut across the classification according to functions which was accepted in Section 2.3.2. This is inevitable, as the same act may in fact be performing two functions. To take an example at random, ‘suggesting’, which Alexander subsumes under suasion, thus implying that the conative function is predominant, also involves the personal function, since the speaker’s point of view is expressed. Munby’s very much more detailed classification of functions in terms of ‘macro-functions’ and ‘micro-functions’ was not available to the writer at the time when the Basic Course was planned or when it was revised or else more use could undoubtedly have been made of it. His term ‘micro-function’ corresponds closely to what have here been termed as speech acts. Munby’s scheme will be considered in Section 2.4.5 where proposals for syllabus design are discussed.
The study of the discussion of speech acts has been fruitful and has contributed to the designing of the S.N.D.T. University course. As the field is a new one and the groupings vary, it will be better to postpone the account of how the categories were incorporated into the S.N.D.T. University syllabus. When the Intermediate Course is taken up in Chapter 3, it will be seen how the teaching of speech acts, or micro-functions, as they may be alternatively termed, is incorporated. The lists above served as check-lists when preparing the syllabus.

2.3.4 Discourse analysis.

Another area in which fruitful investigations have recently been carried out is that of discourse analysis. While the highest unit of grammar is the sentence, grammarians themselves have come to realize that the devices which link sentences must come within their field of study. The use of sentence connectors (such as 'however') and pronoun substitution are examples of such devices. Here, however, one is still at the level of usage. When one comes to language as use, one finds that meaning is expressed, not through isolated sentences, but through a whole stretch of discourse. Widdowson has introduced the terms 'cohesion' and 'coherence' for the manner in which the different elements in a text are combined together to provide logical development, and the manner in which the communicative acts in that same piece of text combine together to provide illocutionary force:

"In all kinds of discourse one can trace propositional development through cohesion and illocutionary development
through coherence, and all discourse can be characterized in terms of the relationship between propositions and illocutionary acts."24

Thus grammarians who are engaged in the study of such matters as linking devices are studying cohesion in a text. When the text is regarded as discourse, the analyst is concerned with how propositions are given illocutionary values to create different types of discourse, such as definitions, generalizations, explanations, directions or reports.

Widdowson has been concerned more with written discourse. His approach is reflected in a series of very original English text-books for students specializing in particular fields such as the physical sciences or the social sciences.25 Through an analysis of the passages in the text, the student learns how generalization, say, differs from definition and he thereby learns to produce written discourse on similar lines. Reference will again be briefly made to this series in Section 2.5.3 where courses in English as a foreign language are surveyed.

The primary concern in the thesis is with spoken, not written English. In this area Sinclair and Coulthard have done pioneering work.26 They have analysed the structure of classroom discourse by setting up a series of units on a rank scale. These are, beginning with the largest unit: lesson, transaction, exchange, move and act. Following the scale and category model of grammar, they give for each unit of discourse the elements of structure, the order in which these elements occur and the classes of the unit next below which expound these elements. By
way of illustration we may take the unit 'exchange'. There are two classes of exchange: 'boundary' and 'teaching'. The elements that compose 'teaching' are: Initiation (I), Response (R), and Feedback (F). They occur in the order I(R)(F), the elements in parentheses being optional. The classes of move that expound each element are as follows:

I: Opening.
R: Answering.
F: Follow-up.

The authors then proceed to the structure of each of these moves and the classes of act that occur at each element of the structure.

A whole new interesting area of research has been opened up through discourse analysis, which will certainly have important implications for language teaching. Until the analysis has been applied in other areas, however, it is not clear how exactly it can be used for materials production. Sinclair and Coulthard deliberately selected a situation, the classroom, in which the discourse was likely to have more direction and structure than in spontaneous conversation. Having evolved a technique of analysis, they themselves, or other linguists, will undoubtedly apply it in other areas. As an experiment, one lesson has been devised for incorporation in the S.N.E.T. University Advanced Course, making use of a technique of analysis based on that of Sinclair and Coulthard. A situation has been chosen which was suggested by the students who had
studied the Intermediate Course, namely, an interview for a job. No systematic analysis of recorded discourse in such a situation could be carried out. But from the writer's own knowledge and recollected experience, units have been established, with their structure and classes, on a tentative basis. This will be discussed in the final Section in Chapter 3.

2.3.5 The contribution of research in the area of language function to the development of the S.N.D.T. University course in Spoken English.

As with the study of language structure, the writer's own understanding of language function has been clarified and enhanced by the studies briefly outlined above. The account has concentrated on those aspects which appeared to have a bearing on the research and no attempt has been made to provide a comprehensive summary of the works cited. A short review will now be given of the manner in which these studies have influenced the writer in the development of the S.N.D.T. University courses.

Communicative competence is clearly the final goal. But it must be built up gradually over a period of three years. There is no point at all in acquiring control over the system as usage unless one acquires control over the system as use. At the same time it would appear that without some basic control over the system as usage, it is not possible to acquire control over the system as use. Widdowson maintains that:
"It is likely to be easier to extend a knowledge of use into new situations and other kinds of discourse than it is to transfer a knowledge of usage, no matter how extensive, to an ability to use this knowledge in the actual business of communication." 28

He goes on to say:

"The teaching of usage does not appear to guarantee a knowledge of use. The teaching of use, however, does seem to guarantee the learning of usage since the latter is represented as a necessary part of the former." 29

It will be noted that Widdowson is somewhat guarded in his claims and is not dogmatically certain that the teaching of use will guarantee the learning of usage. The stand-point adopted with regard to the S.N.D.T. University courses is rather different. One has no means of judging whether an 'extensive' knowledge of usage can be transferred to an ability to use this knowledge for communication, since the knowledge of usage is simply not being acquired. That, in fact, is the problem. The whole investigation germinated from the belief that perhaps the knowledge of usage would be acquired through practice in natural situations, since it was certainly not being acquired through direct teaching of the rules of usage. But it is not possible to go all the way with Widdowson when he maintains that the teaching of use may automatically guarantee the teaching of usage. It is for this reason that the Basic Course has been very carefully graded, beginning with the simplest sentence patterns and ensuring that no free conversation may be introduced by the teacher in the classroom which would involve the use of more complicated patterns which
had not yet been practised. Naturally, where one imposes restrictions on usage, one also restricts the range of use. But even by the end of the Basic Course the intention is that the student should achieve a certain measure of communicative competence, so that she is able to use the language, admittedly for a limited range of every-day situations, but within this range to use it with facility and fluency. The terminal behaviour aimed at as the culminating point of every stage of the course will be set forth in Chapter 3.

It has already been stated that the teaching of the referential, directive, personal and phatic functions is to be regarded as central to the Basic Course. It is not really necessary to make a deliberate attempt to bring these into the lessons. The very fact that the lessons consist of dialogues in natural situations means that students are asking each other questions, making requests, expressing preferences, imparting information or just chatting without any real intention of imparting or seeking information. Thus all these language functions are taught in the Basic Course, even though the core of the syllabus is grammatical. The Intermediate Course is based on a functional syllabus in which 'micro-functions' or 'speech acts' form the core of the syllabus. These will be found set forth in Chapter 3. The functional approach is partially continued in the Advanced Course. Various other types of lessons will also be found in the Advanced Course. Among them is a lesson in which an attempt is made to apply some of the findings of discourse analysis to the production of
course materials. A detailed account will be given in Chapter 3. The question of approaches to course construction will be taken up again at the end of the next section.

2.4 Approaches to language teaching and syllabus design.

An extensive survey was made of approaches to foreign language teaching and syllabus design which would be of use in reaching decisions regarding the S.M.I.T. University syllabus and the approach to be adopted. The account that follows begins with the structural approach instead of going further back to the direct method or the conflicting views of pioneers in the field like Harold Palmer and Michael West. The object is not to provide a history of language teaching methods, but to make a choice or achieve a compromise between the approaches currently advocated. The Readers used in the secondary schools in Maharashtra State are based on a structural syllabus. The syllabus used for the Basic Course is also a grammatical syllabus. It is therefore necessary to give at some length the justification provided by the proponents of this type of syllabus for the syllabus itself, the materials based on it, the teaching methodology advocated, and the audio-lingual method with which it need not necessarily be, but in fact has been, associated.

After an initial period when these ideas were taken up with great enthusiasm by foreign language teachers all over the world, a reaction set in as results turned out to fall short of expectations. The weaknesses of the approach as pointed out by
its critics will next be summarized and an attempt will be made to assess how far the criticisms are justified and how far it is possible to prepare a course on structural and audio-lingual lines while avoiding these weaknesses.

Next will follow a review of the situational, functional and notional approaches which have subsequently been advocated. Once again an attempt will be made to determine what these approaches have to offer in the designing of a new course, bearing in mind the background of the S.N.D.T. University students and their needs. Finally Hunby's work on communicative syllabus design will be examined. It will help to place in perspective the factors to be borne in mind when planning a syllabus. The Section will as usual conclude by showing what the new courses owe to the various approaches discussed.

2.4.1 The structural approach and the audio-lingual method.

Immediately after the Second World War, the dominating influence of structural linguistics and behaviourist psychology, together with the practical experience of language teaching at the English Language Institute of the University of Michigan as well as in army training institutions, led to the advocacy of what has been labelled the 'structural approach' coupled with the audio-lingual method. Fries and Lado, with whose names these ideas are most closely associated, do not use the term 'structural approach' and Fries speaks of the 'oral' approach, not using the term 'audio-lingual'. While stating the goals and the elements of the language learning process, Fries
expresses the stand-point that is central to the whole approach. He states that:

"The fundamental matters of the language that must be mastered on a production level should, as soon as possible, be made unconscious habits."30

While this partly entails the memorization of complete sentences and phrases, far more important are the "many patterns that must eventually become the customary moulds into which the productive expression must fit without conscious thought."31 Fries cites as examples, the word-order patterns of statements, questions and requests and the fixed positions of single word modifiers of substantives. Earlier (in Section 2.2.2) it was noted that there is a certain looseness in the use of the term 'pattern' by structural linguists, so as to include both elements of structure, such as word order in the noun phrase, which is one of Fries' examples, and transformations of these elements such as the question form, again one of his examples.

At first the production of these patterns involves conscious choice. But through much practice of the patterns with varied substitutions, the production of the patterns becomes automatic. Here, in a nutshell, one finds summarized, the content of the syllabus or course, namely the patterns, the method, pattern practice with substitutions and the psychological theory underlying the method, habit formation through practice. Fries concludes this statement by saying:

"When the student has reached this level of attainment, within a satisfactorily useful but definitely limited range of vocabulary items, he has 'learned the "
The relative lack of importance assigned to vocabulary and
the failure to say anything about the use of language in a
social context or in continuous discourse will at once be
noted.

Fries contrasts his 'oral approach' with the 'direct
method', in vogue when he wrote. Both emphasize the actual
use of the foreign language and eliminate translation. But
whereas the direct method totally eschews the use of the mother
tongue (hence the term 'direct' method) as well as the study
of grammar, in the methods advocated by Fries and his followers
the mother tongue is used when necessary to make sure that
explanations are thoroughly understood. Generalizations
concerning structure, or grammar, are a regular feature of
the method, though the generalizations follow the presentation
of actual language samples. Another major difference is that,
whereas in the direct method there is no bar to the early
introduction of reading, according to the oral approach, the
oral mastery of the language is regarded as the only means
to the mastery of the fundamentals of the language as a system.

A further important difference, not mentioned in this particular
context by Fries, is of course the type of syllabus. While
advocates of the direct method paid great attention to vocabulary
selection, and while no doubt any competent text-book writer
would begin with simpler sentences and gradually proceed to more
difficult, the insistence on rigid selection and grading of
structures was not a feature of the direct method, whereas it is
fundamental to the type of course that Fries advocates.
The principles of the structural approach linked with the audio-lingual method are set forth in detail by Lado, a close associate of Fries at the English Language Institute of Michigan. Although the researcher has several reservations regarding certain points, quotations from Lado are given at some length, as one aspect of the research was to test the hypothesis that this approach provides a firm foundation for the learning of a foreign language. The quotation includes what appear to be the most important of Lado's principles which he calls the principles of the 'scientific approach to language teaching'.

"Principle 1. Speech before Writing. Teach listening and speaking first, reading and writing next. This principle is the basis for the audio-lingual approach.... Deciphering written material without knowing the language patterns as speech is incomplete, imperfect or inefficient....

Principle 3. Patterns as Habits. Establish the patterns as habits through pattern practice. Knowing words, individual sentences and/or rules of grammar does not constitute knowing the language. Talking about the language is not knowing it. The linguist, the grammarian and the critic talk and write about the language; the student must learn to use it....

Principle 5. Vocabulary Control....

Principle 6. Teaching the Problems. Problems are those units and patterns that show structural differences between the first language and the second....

Principle 8. Graded Patterns. Teach the patterns gradually, in cumulative graded steps. To teach a language is to impart a new system of complex habits, and habits are acquired slowly....

Begin with sentences, not words, and order the sequence of materials on the basis of sentence patterns.

There is a conflict between having students memorise dialogues that are contextually natural, on the
one hand, and introducing structural patterns in graded steps, on the other. If the dialogues are natural, they will include patterns not yet taught in the early lessons. If the grading is perfect, the dialogues will be artificial for some time. The proposed solution is to keep to a minimum the patterns that are introduced in the dialogues before they appear in graded steps. The nongraded patterns that have to be introduced are memorized as if they were unanalyzable lexical units.

Principle 13. Speed and Style. Linguistically, a distorted rendition is not justified as the end product of practice.

Principle 17. Learning as the Crucial Outcome. Teach primarily to produce learning rather than to please or entertain. In a scientific approach, the amount of learning outweighs interest.

It should be noted that three distinct principles emerge, which need not necessarily be applied in combination, though Lado and Prick are convinced that successful language teaching can result only if the three are thus combined. There is in the first place the content of what is taught, a graded series of sentence patterns, a structural syllabus on the basis of which teaching materials are prepared. In the second place there is a theory of learning, habit formation as against explanation. In the third place there is a method, the audiolingual method, by which the patterns are established as habits through practice in listening and speaking.

Now it is possible to prepare a structural syllabus, with gradual grading, concentrating on the problems that arise because of differences between the first language and the second, and using the sentence, not the word, as the unit of instruction, and yet teach it through extensive use of translation...
and grammatical explanation rather than through pattern practice. This could be more effectively done through writing rather than speech, but it need not be so. Alternatively the structural syllabus could form the basis of a series of readers, where the principle of pattern practice and habit formation is accepted but not the insistence on speech before writing. Thus the first major principle can be adopted in combination with only one or even with neither of the other two principles.

The principle of habit formation need not be associated with a structural syllabus. Lado himself assigns a place to the memorizing of dialogues which are not based on strict grading. It could be argued that a great deal of exposure to the language in natural situations, either in a speech-based course or a course in reading could result in habit formation.

Finally a speech-based course could be designed without recourse to a structural syllabus. It could be based on situations. It might rely on the absorption of the language through exposure (habit formation) or might make more use of explanation of rules. Thus there is no essential link between the three principles as they have been defined above.

Criticisms of the structural approach have been directed at one or other of these three underlying principles. In the first place it is argued that the students only learn the language as a system; they do not learn how to use it in actual situations. In the second place it is argued that the best way
of learning the system itself is not through habit formation but through conscious attention to the rules. Finally the neglect of reading and writing has been criticised.

In this Chapter more attention will be concentrated on the first of these criticisms and the ways in which it can be met. Then some alternative proposals for syllabus construction will be considered. The first part of the thesis deals with the development of the course in speech as an instrument for the teaching of the skill of speech. So the other criticisms will be taken up in more detail in Chapter 6, in the second part of the thesis, which is concerned with the experiment that was designed to test precisely these two hypotheses, that language is best acquired through habit formation and that language is best acquired through speech.

From the account of the recent work in the area of language function discussed in Section 2.3 it will be evident that the focus today has shifted to language as communication. Of the numerous attacks on the structural approach based on the grounds that it fails to prepare the student for the use of language as communication, reference will be made to only a few. Julian Dakin puts it rather amusingly when he says that in many courses based on behaviourist principles (which accept the principle of structural grading), the characters do not talk, they 'structurespeak'. Hence in the drills the student is practising 'structurespeech', not communication. Dakin is writing about language laboratory courses but his
criticism could be equally valid with respect to other courses based on structural principles. According to Pattison, pattern practice is only a modish variant of the old declension and paradigm recitations. (This is rather unfair. The recitation of declensions and paradigms did not involve the use of complete sentences.) But in any case Pattison insists that constructing well-formed sentences is not the skill aimed at, rather it is constructing utterances that do what their user wants. 36

Allen and Widdowson believe that:

“For many years, writers on language teaching methodology have tended to stress techniques for teaching the code, but have had relatively little to say about how students can be taught to use the code.” 37

Rivers is in agreement with this view:

“The teaching of foreign languages has traditionally concentrated on making the student aware of certain aspects of the code (vocabulary of the foreign language, phonological and morphological features, syntactical rules) without providing adequate practice in the selection of a message and in the process of encoding it for transmission.” 38

Wilkins points out one reason why the communicative aspects of language cannot be satisfactorily covered in a grammatical syllabus. It is that there is no one to one relationship between function and form. An interrogative, for instance, may function as a polite request, even a command. Another reason is that the teaching of language lacks situational relevance. 39 Alexander points out other weaknesses. Because the build-up is slow, low frequency
items may be introduced early, as they have a structure which is simpler or more productive. For instance 'What are you?' would be introduced in place of the form which native speakers would actually use: 'What do you do?' 'I want a cup of coffee' would occur much earlier than 'I'd like a cup of coffee', whereas if a student were to use this sentence in a social situation he would be considered impolite. This becomes a matter of stylistic register, the use of language appropriate to a given situation and this is neglected in structural courses.40

Most critics who make these criticisms would agree that in the early stages of language learning a structural syllabus is the only feasible choice but in the later stages a communicative syllabus alone will equip the student for the use of language as communication.41 Alexander however believes that structural grading should from the outset be linked to a functional syllabus. Thus, even if we begin with items such as 'What is this?' we should simultaneously teach, 'What's this called in English?' Transfer, by which he means the ability to use the language acquired in the classroom in real-life situations, is, according to him, too important to be dealt with in a haphazard way and must be "built into the very fabric of a course on a lesson-by-lesson basis so that the student is constantly using language in a way which is relevant to his own experience."42

How far are these criticisms valid? To what extent can
materials be designed which are based on a structural syllabus yet are not vulnerable to such criticism? Is one justified, in view of what has been said, in keeping to the original plan of basing a course on a structural syllabus? Some of the objections, it will be seen, are true of the unimaginative use of the principles in course design rather than of the principles themselves. For instance, it is not at all necessary to introduce ridiculous exchanges such as: 'Are you a man?' 'No, I am a woman.' Nor is it necessary to reduce pattern practice to the level of boring mechanical drills. It should be possible from a very early stage to devise meaningful exchanges.

On the other hand some problems are inherent in the very principle of structural grading. As Lado himself has admitted (see his Principle 8), if the grading is careful, the dialogues will sometimes be contrived; if the dialogues are natural, they may occasionally include patterns not yet taught. How this problem was tackled when preparing the Basic Course will be discussed in Chapter 3. Lado's proposal, that the more difficult items may be treated as akin to lexical items which are simply to be memorized for the time being, does not seem acceptable. Such an approach will confuse the learner. Nor does Alexander's proposal appear desirable, that one should teach the more difficult but more natural construction side by side with the simpler but more stilted or unsuitable one. Once one admits of exceptions, there will be no end to them and the whole
principle of structural grading will break down. It would be better to avoid the unnatural or impolite uses of a particular pattern. 'I want some coffee, please' is not impolite when addressed to a shop-keeper, though 'I want a cup of coffee' addressed to a hostess is impolite.

The principle of grading on the basis of a grammatical syllabus appears to the writer to be basically sound. Pattern practice with substitutions appears to be a sound method of teaching, with the important proviso that the patterns must be contextualized and the practice must not become mechanical. Speech before writing ensures that one thing is taught at a time, the language separately from its written representation. This facilitates learning. Whether in fact a speech-based course results in transfer to writing skills and whether practice results in the establishment of the patterns as habits is what this investigation sets out to test. It was because the approach through writing and the approach through grammar had proved unsatisfactory that it was proposed to try out alternative approaches.

On two issues one must part company with Lado. His Principle 17, which treats the factor of interest as insignificant, goes against all principles of learning. For the young child, the adolescent student and most adults, interest is a factor which a course-designer neglects at his peril. Principle 13, which relates to the concept of mastery learning, the researcher would whole-heartedly endorse in
theory. When teaching language as a system, it makes no sense to proceed to the second step before being firmly secure of the first and Lado is justified in insisting that one should not accept a distorted rendering but should persist till the student can produce the right response automatically. Yet in practice one is forced to compromise. With large mixed classes of learners at different levels and with different rates of learning, and the year's course to complete within a fixed time, it is impossible to wait till each member of the class has reached the level expected. Thus one passes on to the negative or question form before the student can without hesitation produce the S.V.O. word order in a statement. Perhaps if some method could be discovered to ensure mastery learning, our language teaching problems would be largely solved. However, so far, no practical means of ensuring it has been discovered.

It is true that mastery of the language as a code, even if it could be achieved, does not of itself ensure that the language can be used for purposes of communication. However, the B.A. Part I students are so far from having mastered the code itself, that in such a context it must be accorded first priority. The researcher therefore felt justified in not abandoning the original plan in spite of all the criticisms of the grammatical syllabus. As many of the critics themselves agree, at the earlier stages such a syllabus seems the only feasible one. It may be said that the B.A. Part I course is not for beginners. The students
have already studied English for eight years at the secondary
and Higher Secondary stages. Yet at S.J.D.T. University, as
at other Indian universities, the anomalous situation
prevails that the vast majority of these students have
scarcely any knowledge of the language as a system. In the
skill of speech they seem to have had no training at all.
One might say then that, in so far as the course is a course
in speech, it must start from the beginning and a structural
syllabus is therefore appropriate. In so far as the course
seeks to enable the student to learn the language as a system,
it is a remedial course. But in this respect too, as was
argued in Chapter I, it is not possible to take anything for
granted; one has to start at the beginning.

So the core of the Basic Course for B.A. Part I is a
grammatical syllabus and the course materials adhere to it
strictly. But from the very first lesson the student has the
opportunity to make use of the limited amount of language
introduced in that lesson for a short natural exchange. Thus
from the outset language is taught for communication. Although
it has just been said that it is not possible to take anything
for granted, the student has of course been exposed to the
language for eight years. Hence it is not necessary to
proceed as gradually as would be the case with absolute
beginners. The statement should be qualified to mean that
one does not expect any control over structure or any
communicative ability. On the other hand one does expect some
facility in the receptive skills of listening and reading and
2.4.2 The situational approach.

Dissatisfaction with the structural syllabus and the audio-lingual method has led to attempts to formulate other approaches and the preparation of coursebooks based on them. (It will be noted that the omnibus term 'approach' tends to be used in the literature, obscuring the difference between 'what is taught' and 'how it is taught', the syllabus and the teaching method.) The first new direction taken was an emphasis on 'situation'. According to the situational approach, the syllabus is planned in terms, not of the subject and its content, but of the learner and his needs. The syllabus-maker must predict the situations in which the learner will need to use the language and categorize them appropriately. Units in the syllabus will be grouped according to situations, not grammatical structures. It is claimed that such a learning process will be more relevant to the learner and hence more motivating.

Pride, who is an enthusiast for this approach, claims that the language is more effectively taught through such procedures because thereby formal features which belong together for certain practical purposes are brought together, whereas in a grammatical syllabus they would be taught separately, as they belong to different parts of the grammar. Skill in handling such formal complexes cannot be assumed to follow automatically from the learning of their separate
components in a logical order. Hence he asserts that:
"Situational teaching not only motivates. It makes formal
sense." Newmark and Reibel likewise claim that
situational rather than grammatical cohesion is what is
'necessary and sufficient' for language learning to take
place. Situational randomness results from the need to
minimize grammatical randomness and this hinders learning.

Widdowson, arguing for the teaching of English through
science in countries like India, where English is the medium
for science education, speaks of the 'contextual' approach,
which is in most respects akin to the situational. According
to him, whereas the structural approach stresses the systemic
nature of language, the contextual approach takes the
situation as the basis and thus teaches the student the
language he will actually be required to use. In another
article he distinguishes between a situational presentation
of a linguistic structure, merely in order to demonstrate
its use in context and thereby make its meaning clear and the
contextual approach proper, where the student learns the
forms that he would actually require in a given context. For
instance it is usual to teach the present continuous
and present perfect tenses in the classroom by means of a
sequence such as the following, accompanied by the appropriate
activities:

(1) I am going to write on the blackboard.
(2) I am writing on the blackboard.
(3) I have written on the blackboard.
Though the endeavour here is to form a direct association in the student's mind between the performance of an action and the choice of an appropriate form in the system of tense, as Widdowson rightly points out, sentences are used to perform the act of commentary in situations in which in normal circumstances no commentary would be called for. His distinction between two kinds of meaning, signification and value, is relevant here (see Section 2.3.1). The type of contextualization demonstrated above is directed to the teaching of signification alone.

What he proposes as an alternative envisages, not only a consideration of the situation, but of the communicative acts the student will be required to perform in that situation. Thus we have a combination of a situational and a functional approach. As an example let us take the following sequence in a course for science students:

(1) Stales expand when heated.
(2) Iron is a metal.
(3) Therefore iron expands when heated.

As Widdowson says, here we are teaching value, not merely signification. We are demonstrating the use of the simple present tense. At the same time we are teaching the student the form of a syllogism, a communicative act which he will certainly be required to perform.

Situational courses are available and will be discussed in Section 2.5.2. As with the structural approach, this
approach too was initially greeted with great enthusiasm and has subsequently been found to have its limitations. It would appear that syllabuses as well as courses along these lines would have to be designed very specifically for specific groups of learners on the basis of an exhaustive list of situations in which they would need to use the language. It is difficult to visualize a general purpose course of this nature preceded by the fundamental groundwork of categorizing all the possible situations in which the learner would need to use the language. How would the learner cope with an out-of-the-way situation? Lessen states that:

"The underlying competence to be achieved by all speakers, if they are to be considered as truly knowing a language, points to the acquisition of fully internalized sets of 'rules' of great flexibility which form the basis of the speaker's mastery of the language." 47

It is doubtful whether a situational syllabus can attain this end. A 'situation' is an entirely non-linguistic category and it appears to be a sounder approach to build up a knowledge of the language through a gradual introduction on structural lines. None the less, when planning the Basic Course, the preparation of a list of situations was found to be useful.

2.4.3 The functional approach.

The account of language functions in Section 2.3 will provide an indication of the kind of stress that is laid by proponents of the functional approach. Function rather than structure is given importance and a variety of linguistic forms are taught together if they serve as exponents of a
common function. Alexander's grouping of functions (see Section 2.3.3) could serve as a basis for drawing up such a syllabus. Florence Stratton refers to a syllabus outline prepared by C.H. Candlin ('Form and function in language', a paper presented at the University of Marburg, 1975), which appears to provide useful guidelines for a syllabus of this nature. The writer has not been able to see Candlin's paper, but Stratton informs us that he presents one function as subsuming a number of speech acts, which in turn subsume a number of linguistic realizations, for example:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Function</th>
<th>Directive</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Speech Acts</td>
<td>Command</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Request</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Realizations.</td>
<td>Give me your coat!</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Could I borrow your coat?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Stratton regards a communicative syllabus of this nature as the only suitable one at the advanced stage of language learning. She points out, however, that there would be several problems if it were introduced at the initial stage. An utterance may be multi-functional and the demands made on the learner would hence be excessive. A beginner cannot simultaneously learn several structurally dissimilar linguistic realizations of a speech act and recognize the conditions governing their appropriateness, thus identifying their illocutionary force.48

A specimen of the kind of content that could occur in a unit of a functional syllabus will be found in Wingfield's suggestions for a method of drill based on an analysis of
communicative functions. The teacher may make a statement and ask the student to (1) associate himself with it; (2) disassociate himself with it; (3) agree politely; (4) disagree politely; (5) indicate strong agreement; (6) disagree strongly; (7) express doubts about the accuracy of the statement; (8) ask for a repetition; (9) express surprise; (10) express unconcern; (11) express interest; (12) express whatever emotion the statement was intended to arouse.49

A strikingly original approach, which may be considered as a variant of the functional, is that reported on by Beverly Galyean. Galyean's English classes for foreign learners formed part of a humanistic programme of teaching, leading to growth in interpersonal awareness, interpersonal sharing and intellectual development. The teacher, for instance, might ask: 'I am looking at you. What kind of person am I looking at?' Or students might fill in frames and then converse on that basis, stating whether they agreed with the first speaker. An example of such a frame is the following: 'I am a person who is..., who likes..., who needs..., who feels..., who wants... who believes in...'. It would need a skilful teacher to handle an approach such as this and Galyean is well aware that the student's privacy must be respected. From the student reactions quoted, it appears that it was highly successful when taught by Galyean. One student wrote: 'I'm amazed how my words could mean so much to me and to other people. They sort of tell me who I am and who I am becoming.'50
It is obvious from the proposals for a functional approach just discussed that the material taught assumes a prior knowledge of the language as a system, though such knowledge may be restricted and areas of error may persist. No advocate of the functional approach that the writer knows of has recommended it for the initial stages. Alexander, it will be remembered, does believe that it should be introduced from the very first lesson, but he links it with structural grading. At the intermediate and advanced stages, however, it is the approach most widely accepted today. The writer, both on theoretical grounds, and as a result of her own experience of adopting this approach in the second year for the Intermediate Course in Spoken English, believes that such an approach prepares the student for communication. Language functions, unlike situations, are intrinsic to language and it should be possible, even if difficult, to draw up an exhaustive list of functions, though their linguistic realizations would be too numerous to allow for complete coverage. It seems advisable to prepare courses for particular types of learners, say science students, separately for the two skills of production, writing and speech. The functions to be included in such courses would have to be identified through an analysis of actual samples of writing and speech.

2.4.4 The notional approach.

The notional approach was first advocated by Wilkins in the 1970s and has been much discussed since. The writer is not
aware of any course based on it, however. Indeed what Wilkins has provided is not even a notional syllabus proper, but an inventory of notional categories which could be used for the construction of such a syllabus. Wilkins explains the use of the term 'notional'. The question asked is not how speakers express themselves, or when and where they use the language, but what it is that they communicate through language. Language teaching is then organized in terms of the content rather than the form of the language.\(^5\)

Wilkins' categories include the following:
(a) Semantico-grammatical categories covering the areas of time, quantity, space, relational meaning and deixis; (b) Modality, in which a distinction is made between a scale of possibility, which is labelled 'logical' or 'epistemic' and a scale of obligation, labelled 'moral' or 'non-epistemic'; (c) Categories of communicative function covering the areas of judgment and evaluation, assertion, argument, rational inquiry and exposition, personal emotions and phatic utterances.\(^5\)

Wilkins recommends a cyclic rather than a linear approach. The learner is expected to work through all the themes at one level before returning to them at a higher level.\(^5\) It will be seen that the third category is identical with what would be taught through a functional approach. As with the functional approach, the teaching of materials based on 'notions' can only be introduced at an advanced stage of language learning. Since the researcher has not had an opportunity to scrutinize any
materials making use of this approach, it is not possible to pronounce upon its usefulness. It appeared altogether too abstract for the purpose in view. However, in the syllabus for the Intermediate Course lessons have been introduced involving the expression of doubt and certainty, which would come under the category of notions rather than functions.

2.4.5 Syllabus design.

Naturally the consideration of all the approaches just discussed has involved a consideration of proposals for syllabus design. But a separate section has been devoted to the topic in view of the publication of Hunby's book entitled Communicative Syllabus Design, which seeks to provide a model based on which it should be possible to design an effective syllabus, taking into account all the relevant factors. The book was not available in time to make use of it when designing the over-all plan of the S.N.D.T. University course. However, it can be used to examine how far the design measures up to the parameters set up in his model.

Hunby makes use of the term 'Communication Needs Processor' for his model. It has eight parameters, four providing input information about the learner and the other four providing the output consisting of the communication needs of that particular individual learner or category of learner. After obtaining basic information on age, sex and present level of proficiency in the language, one passes on to the first of the input parameters, 'Purposive Domain'. The
broad distinction here is between occupational and educational purpose, with many sub-heads of information under each. The second variable to be taken into account is 'Setting', both the physical and the psychosocial setting in which the learner will need to use the language. Of the twenty-five items in the inventory of psycho-social environments, a few may be quoted by way of illustration:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>culturally similar</th>
<th>culturally different</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>professional</td>
<td>non-professional</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>intellectual</td>
<td>non-intellectual</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>demanding</td>
<td>undemanding</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>reserved</td>
<td>unreserved</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Each pair is to be regarded as a continuum, at some point along which the setting in question will be placed.⁵⁵

The third parameter is 'Interaction', by means of which one can identify the other participants with whom the learner has to communicate and the relationship between them. The social relationships may be asymmetrical, such as 'colleague-colleague' or asymmetrical, such as 'buyer-seller'.⁶ The inventory contains thirty-seven asymmetrical and twenty-four symmetrical relationships. Under the fourth variable, 'Instrumentality', he includes the medium, spoken or written and the mode, for instance, monologue, spoken to be heard (as in a lecture).

Having 'fed in' this information as it were, one obtains the four output variables. The first of these is 'Dialect'. In the matter of pronunciation, for instance, is it R.P.,
some modified form of R.P., or some national or regional standard that is aimed at? The second output parameter is 'Target Level'. In the light of the input one determines the size and complexity of utterance or text, the range and delicacy of forms, micro-functions and micro-skills, the speed and flexibility of communication which the learner must attain and the degree of tolerance of error, stylistic failure or hesitation that he may expect.

The next two output parameters are 'Communicative Event' and 'Communicative Key'. Under the 'event' are specified the kinds of situations in which the learner will use the language, the types of communicative activities he will have to perform and the topics he will have to handle. The example given is that of an air traffic controller having to guide an incoming plane. To take another example, some of the S.N.D.T. University students become receptionists. They would be engaged in activities such as making appointments. If one were, say, a doctor's receptionist, one topic might be the nature of the illness, depending on the urgency of which the appointment might be timed.

The 'Communicative Key' relates to the tone which the learner will have to adopt in the communicative activities. Munby's 'Attitudinal-tone index' includes fifty-one pairs of antonyms such as 'excitable-inexcitable', 'lenient-severe'. 
Under each of these superordinate terms a number of hyponyms are listed. For instance, under 'lenient' one finds 'gentle, mild, indulgent, tolerant, easy-going, permissive, accommodating'. Once again each pair of antonyms is to be treated as a continuum.58

The profile of communication needs must next be interpreted in terms of the language skills, functions and forms, which are required for its realization. Munby regards the customary classification of the four skills of listening, speaking, reading and writing as inadequate for his purpose. Reading and understanding a passage he would term an 'activity', which the learner can perform because he has acquired, among other micro-skills, that of 'understanding relations between parts of a text through the grammatical cohesion device of logical connectors'. A very useful inventory is provided of two hundred and sixty micro-skills subcategorized in fifty-four groups.59 As instances a few may be cited that are relevant in the teaching of speech. These include micro-skills relating to the production of sounds, the expression of concepts, the grasp of structure and the ability to use all these for communication.

(4) Articulating sounds in connected speech:
(4.1) strong and weak forms
(4.2) neutralization of weak forms
(4.3) reduction of unstressed vowels
(4.4) modification of sounds, especially at word boundaries through
  (4.4.1) assimilation
  (4.4.2) elision
  (4.4.3) liaison
(4.5) phonemic change at word boundaries
(4.6) allophonic variation at word boundaries

(25) Expressing conceptual meaning, especially
  (25.1) quantity and amount
  (25.2) definiteness and indefiniteness
  (25.3) comparison; degree
  (25.4) time (especially tense and aspect)
  (25.5) location; direction
  (25.6) means; instrument
  (25.7) cause; result; purpose; reason; condition; contrast

(29) Expressing relations within the sentence, using especially
  (29.1) elements of sentence structure
  (29.2) modification structure
    (29.2.1) premodification
    (29.2.2) postmodification
    (29.2.3) disjuncts
  (29.3) negation
  (29.4) modal auxiliaries
  (29.5) intra-sentential connectors
  (29.6) complex embedding
  (29.7) focus and theme
    (29.7.1) thematic fronting; inversion
    (29.7.2) postponement

(48) Maintaining the discourse
  (48.1) how to respond (acknowledge, reply, loop, agree, disagree)
  (48.2) how to continue (add, exemplify, justify, evaluate)
  (48.3) how to adapt, as a result of feedback, especially in mid-utterance (amplify, omit, reformulate)
  (48.4) how to turn-take (interrupt, challenge, inquire, dovetail)
  (48.5) how to mark time (stall, use 'breathing-space' formulae).

As with skills so with functions, for Munby's purpose a broad classification into 'macro-functions' such as
Halliday's or Jakobson's (see Section 2.3 above) is inadequate. Activities have to be converted into micro-functions and marked for attitudinal tone. This is termed 'Socio-semantic processing'. To take one of Munby's examples, one of the micro-functions under the activity 'attending to customer's order' in the event 'waiter serving in a restaurant' would be 'suggestion'. This would be marked for attitudinal tone as '+personal, +deferential, +encouraging'. Only at the final stage would one proceed to linguistic encoding, involving the actual words to be used. Thus a course-designer would be far more accurate than if he were straightaway to start with the event 'waiter serving in a restaurant' and proceed to think up all that occurred to him as likely that a waiter might need to say.60

Munby's inventory of micro-functions is as useful as his inventory of micro-skills. He makes use of Wilkins' third category (see Section 2.4.4 above) and Leech and Svartvik's categories (see Section 2.2.1 above). There is some overlap between his 'micro-functions' and the 'speech acts' discussed by Austin and Searle (see Section 2.3.3 above) as well as Widdowson's rhetorical acts (see Sections 2.3.4 and 2.4.2) but Munby is careful to make a distinction.61

The model put forward by Munby should prove of great value to anyone involved in designing an English language syllabus at an intermediate or advanced level for students
receiving training in some specialized field. For instance, at S.H.D.T. University, courses for Commerce and Home Science students, as well as the various diploma courses conducted at the Polytechnic, could be designed according to his model. A vast amount of work would still be required for the collection of the requisite information regarding purposeful domain, setting, communicative event and communicative key through the collection of data from various professional settings. For a general purpose course, as in an Arts college, the most useful sections are the inventories of micro-skills and micro-functions. The likely occupations which the Arts graduates tend to enter could, however, also be kept in view.

The book was unfortunately not available to the course-designer till a late stage in the research. The work in the form of an unpublished thesis had been consulted before the revision of the Intermediate Course, but was not available for ready reference. It so happens, however, that the functional syllabus for the revised version of the Intermediate Course was based on the same categories drawn up by Wilkins and by Leech and Svartvik which form the basis of Munby's inventory of micro-functions. When drawing up the objectives and learning outcomes for the Advanced Course, reference was made both to the parameters and the inventory of micro-skills. How an attempt has been made to teach the micro-skills, in particular those related to
discourse, is discussed in Chapter 3 (Section 3.5). In some lessons an effort has also been made to process a dialogue in terms of the communicative events, communicative activities and communicative key.

2.4.6 **The contribution of the approaches to language teaching and syllabus design to the development of the S.N.D.T. University course in Spoken English.**

The S.N.D.T. University course was primarily a course in speech, though the Basic Course in particular was also intended as a remedial course in the structure of the language. Hence the researcher used, from the variety of approaches described above, whatever was relevant to her needs and purpose. As Lee suggests, notional, functional and situational syllabuses are best regarded as 'pre-syllabuses' rather than syllabuses proper and one may draw on them for the particular needs of particular students. Widdowson points out that language is not automatically taught as communication by concentrating on 'notions' or 'functions' rather than on grammatical structure.

"People do not communicate by expressing isolated notions or fulfilling isolated functions any more than they do by uttering isolated sentence patterns." He suggests that we should pay more serious attention to the nature of discourse and the abilities engaged in it.

At the end of the three year course at S.N.D.T. University, the goal is to enable the students to participate effectively in discourse. Over the three years the courses
seek to build up the skills required to that end. The first year's syllabus was grammatical. But the researcher was well aware of the purpose of teaching macro-functions. Situations and topics were also given systematic coverage. The revised syllabus for the second year was primarily functional. The lessons were built up on the basis of 'micro-functions', to use Munby's term which the researcher finds most accurate. However there are some lessons which are built round a situation, a notion or a topic rather than a micro-function. Finally in the Advanced Course, not only is the teaching of micro-functions carried forward, but the course strives to equip the students for continuous discourse in the occupational and educational domains and not merely in every-day situations. Aspects of the micro-skills involved in the activities of listening and speaking which had not yet been accorded specific attention, such as the following of sounds in connected speech uttered at a rapid rate, and the maintaining of discourse, are now worked in with several lessons. Munby's inventory of micro-skills has been made use of for this purpose. Although sufficient data is not available regarding the occupational and educational domains in which the students will later use the language, the course attempts to equip them for their communicative needs in the occupations that some of them enter and the advanced studies that some of them may pursue through the medium of English. Chapter 5 will provide a detailed account of the goals, the syllabus and the teaching materials of the S.N.D.T. University courses.
2.5 Courses in the teaching of English as a foreign language.

A vast range of courses for learners of English as a foreign language are available, integrated courses in the learning of the language, courses in one of the 'macro-skills'—listening, speech, reading or writing, courses for use in different countries and with different age groups. The discussion of these courses which follows will be classified according to the approach adopted. The course will thus serve as an illustration of the approach when applied to the production of teaching materials. Concentration will naturally be on courses in speech, but other courses will also be discussed if they have some bearing on the investigation.

2.5.1 Courses based on the structural approach.

It is only fitting that one should begin with the Intensive Course in English of the English Language Institute at Michigan, concentrating on two volumes, *English Sentence Patterns*, which seeks to enable the student to 'understand and produce English grammatical structures', and *English Pattern Practices*, which seeks to 'establish the patterns as habits'. Although the oral approach is adopted, the course is not intended as a course in speech but as a course in the learning of the language as a system. But it will be discussed at some length as it illustrates all the characteristics, the strengths and the weaknesses of the structural
approach ac envisaged by its first champions, Price and Lado.

The foreword to *English Sentence Patterns* states that the course is regarded as well adapted to intermediate students but it could also be used with beginners or with advanced students. The two books are to be used in combination, the second book providing additional practice in language items introduced in the first. It is impossible to visualize how this course could be used with complete beginners, as the grading is much too steep. Singulars, plurals, questions, negatives, short answers are all introduced in the very first lesson. Each lesson in *English Sentence Patterns* provides key examples, comments on the structure, a table with a number of examples and drills for practice, all of them distinctly mechanical. For instance, the teacher makes a series of statements about Paul to which the student responds with a question about John: 'Paul arrived in June.' 'When did John arrive?' This exercise is termed a conversation exercise. A frequently used exercise is pattern practice with substitutions in which the teacher first provides the sentence frame which the students repeat, for instance: 'A friend told me the name of a good store.' Then the teacher provides cues for the substitutions and the students repeat the sentence with the substitution. For instance the teacher provides the cue: 'her'. The students repeat: 'A friend told her the name of a good store.'
The cues are generally not at the problem point in the pattern as the method demands that the students' attention should be forced away from the linguistic problem involved, while forcing them to use examples that contain the problem.

While the method of teaching appears to be far too mechanical and decontextualized to use for any purpose other than a course in remedial grammar of the type that has already been found unsatisfactory, the books were of considerable help in drawing up a grammatical syllabus. But if this is the kind of material placed before one as a model of course design, it is no wonder that it has come to be regarded as utterly unsuitable for the teaching of the language as communication and also as utterly devoid of interest.

The next instance selected of a course based on the structural approach will be the series of six readers designed for the teaching of English in non-English-medium schools in Maharashtra State from Standard V to Standard X according to the eleven-year S.S.C. syllabus. In spite of the fact that some of these readers have been replaced and others revised, while the S.S.C. course itself is now a ten-year course, the series to be discussed is the one originally introduced in 1960, as the extensive amount of repetition and practice contained in the original series more effectively illustrates the principles of the structural approach.
Although this course too is designed to teach the language as a system and the stress in fact is on reading rather than on speech, it is selected for discussion for three reasons. In the first place it is a good illustration of the effective use of the structural approach for the production of teaching materials. In the second place, not only has the underlying syllabus been of use in planning the syllabus for the S.N.D.T. University Basic Course, but the technique of incorporating grammatical items in a context which is natural, varied and interesting has also been of value when attempting something similar in a speech course. In the third place these are the books which have been used for many years in the secondary schools from which the S.N.D.T. University students are drawn. One must examine what materials and methods were used by the schools. One may discover that the shortcomings in the final level of proficiency are not the result of weaknesses in the underlying approach but may be attributed to a variety of other factors which will be briefly enumerated.

The main features of the course may be said to be the following:

(i) The syllabus for each year consists of a set of 'language items'. For the first year's course, these were listed in order of presentation. Thus the principles of selection and grading, hitherto confined to the area of vocabulary, were now systematically applied to grammatical
items, patterns of structure and systems.

(ii) The readers based on this syllabus consisted of lessons designed to make repeated use of a given grammatical item in a variety of contexts. Side by side, items from earlier lessons were repeated for reinforcement and revision. Thus the principle of pattern practice with substitutions was fundamental to the course. But the attention of the students when reading the lesson was on the situation or story. They did not realize that the same pattern was being practised, as the identical words did not recur. Only at the next stage of the lesson was pointed attention drawn to the language item in question, through substitution tables as well as through oral and written exercises. The writing of lessons which naturally and unobtrusively introduce a given pattern, not once but repeatedly, and yet retain the students' interest as stories, presents a tremendous challenge to the text-book writer. To confine oneself to oral pattern practice would simply not have been feasible or desirable with a student population of the size involved. Besides, the existence of a reader makes it possible to present language in a meaningful context and to make language-learning interesting to the learner, thus avoiding two of the main drawbacks of the audio-lingual method. Yet another drawback of an exclusively oral approach is that it is impossible to introduce some complex patterns which tend to be used in writing rather than in speech.
Instances are the non-defining relative clause and various participial constructions. Such patterns can be easily introduced in a reader.

(iii) Although reading occupies a large part of the teaching time, the method of teaching advocated is listening and speech before reading and writing. Thus an important principle of the audio-lingual method is preserved, though in a modified form. Each new sentence pattern or sentence transformation (it is preferable to avoid the loose use of the term 'structure') is to be presented and practised orally, in the classroom situation or with reference to situations from previous lessons, before the pupil encounters it in the lesson itself.

(iv) The sentence is the unit of language presented, not the word.

(v) Functional grammar is taught, not formal grammar. The student learns to construct sentences and not to parse or analyse.

It cannot be claimed that the teaching of English in secondary schools in Maharashtra has fulfilled all the main objectives with the majority of students. The defect however does not, in the researcher's opinion, lie in the syllabus or the course-books. The factors which observation and experience indicate as responsible for these shortcomings are as follows:
(i) The method of teaching advocated is followed half-heartedly, although the teachers may have been trained in the audio-lingual method. Oral practice is not provided; there is no prior presentation of the grammatical item or subsequent drill in it. Very often the lessons are translated sentence by sentence and the pupils tested on the content. Thus the purpose for which the lessons are intended, the teaching of structure, is ignored.

(ii) English is a compulsory subject for every child in secondary schools in the State. As a result of experience of teaching English for thirty years, the researcher is convinced that the learning of a foreign language requires a certain degree of academic aptitude which a large number of pupils do not possess. Besides research has shown that foreign language aptitude is a factor that exists apart from general academic aptitude, so that even those who possess academic aptitude may not be successful in learning foreign languages. J.B. Carroll, one of the leading researchers in the field, believes that:

"Differences in what we may call foreign language aptitude are observable not only in adults and in college student populations, but also in elementary school children and in high school students. Furthermore, at all levels the differences show considerable independence from differences in general intelligence."
Research conducted by Carroll, Pimsleur and others goes to show that the correlation between intelligence and success in foreign language studies may be as low as .40.\textsuperscript{70} One is led to the conclusion that it may be a mistaken policy to expect the entire population of a country to learn a foreign language. This is a much debated subject and it will be taken up again in Chapter 9, when discussing the results of the experiment with matched groups.

(iii) For the success of language teaching courses of any type, particularly courses requiring oral practice, experience indicates that the maximum number in a class should not exceed twenty-five. The average secondary school class contains double that number. As a result the teacher passes on to the next lesson fully conscious that the students have not mastered the patterns already practised.

(iv) Many teachers themselves do not possess the minimum competence in the language.

(v) Most pupils have no exposure to the language outside the classroom.

(vi) Many pupils are first generation learners with no assistance or atmosphere conducive to study in the home.
The final example of a course based on the structural approach is a course in speech, *Conversation Exercises in Everyday English Books 1 and 2* by M.F. Jerrom and L.L. Szkutnik. Of all the speech courses that will be discussed, this comes closest to the pattern decided on for the S.N.D.T. University Basic Course. It is intended for learners who have already acquired some preliminary competence in the language but who continue to make errors - the type of learner for whom the Basic Course is also intended. It therefore aims at teaching the skill of speech while at the same time serving as a remedial course in language structure. These are the aims of the Basic Course as well. Each lesson is centred round a single grammatical item presented through a natural conversation. The students obtain further practice both in the use of the language pattern and in the skill of speech through further short conversations that they construct in accordance with the model provided. The conversations are very natural, unlike those in some other books that have been designed to teach grammatical structure through conversation.

The course thus corresponds in large measure to the Basic Course and indeed suggested how the twin aims that the researcher had in view might be accomplished. Why then, it may be asked, was it not prescribed for use at S.N.D.T. University? Why was it necessary to develop a new course? There were two reasons. In the first place, although the course begins with simpler patterns and proceeds to more
difficult ones, it does not follow the order of grading nor does it provide the comprehensive coverage of patterns that the researcher had in mind. Items are selected rather as in a remedial course. In the second place the context and setting are alien to Indian students. What was wanted was the familiar Indian setting of their day-to-day existence. Hence, though the books by Jerrom and Sakhutnik had valuable guidelines to offer, it was not possible to prescribe them; a new course had to be written.

2.5.2 Courses based on the situational approach.

Integrated courses based on the situational approach need only be mentioned. The Penguin course entitled Success with English (general editor: G. Broughton), Situational English (produced by the Commonwealth Office of Education, Australia), and the Gul Mohar Graded English Course for English-medium schools in India (general editors: M.L. Tickoo and N.S. Prabhu) are all examples of a situational approach linked with structural grading. The element of humour in Success with English made the books appealing and an effort was made, in vain, to emulate it. Since all these are integrated courses intended to teach the language as a system, attention will be focused in this section on a course in speech which is a good example of the situational approach, English Conversation Practice by K. Methold.
The Foreword states:

"This is an experimental work. It attempts to explore for the benefit of the non-native speaker of English some of the more important nuances of English conversation. An attempt has been made to analyse a selection of fairly typical conversations related to frequently recurring situations, and to provide exercise material that requires the student to produce, as a result of this analysis, spoken English that is not only grammatically acceptable but idiomatically and socially correct. The material is an attempt to relate some of the work now being done by the socio-linguists to language teaching methodology in a practical way. Throughout the book the students are presented with carefully structured situations for which they must create dialogues. Although there is considerable linguistic control as well, the student must be flexible in his use of the suggested patterns. Although there is a small 'drill' element in this book, it is not intended to be a 'drill book', but to encourage the student to take part in social situations which require him to use his knowledge of English."

One notes the emphasis on 'use', on 'what is idiomatically and socially correct'. The course is planned in terms of situations, such situations as the student will commonly encounter. The following are covered: (i) asking the way; (ii) shopping; (iii) on the telephone; (iv) informal introductions; (v) formal introductions; (vi) party introductions; (vii) approaching a stranger; (viii) agreeing with people; (ix) disagreeing with people; (x) giving and receiving instructions; (xi) making complaints; (xii) apologizing; (xiii) making excuses. It may be felt that some of these lesson titles may be said to relate to functions rather than situations. Indeed it sometimes becomes hard to draw the line between courses based on a situational approach and..."
those based on a functional approach. It is of course hard to teach functions except in the context of a set of situations. As the foreword emphasizes the situational context, and the functions indicated in the lesson titles are always presented in a situational context, it has been treated as a course based on a situational approach.

Each lesson begins with a dialogue in a given situation. Notes are provided, drawing the attention of the students to points related to social interaction, such as the appropriate use of first names and surnames, the effect of a smile in softening a critical remark, a routine enquiry after someone's health which is not to be taken seriously. The dialogue is either read out or played on the tape to the students and their attention is drawn to the points singled out in the notes. The students repeat the dialogue several times before going on to the next stage in the lesson which consists of fluency drills in key expressions. This takes the form of sentences to be made from a given frame with all substitutions supplied. The students then go on to make up conversations for a number of analogous situations. There is a preliminary exercise in which points are provided for guidance and there is also a section on 'special difficulties' with further exercises. The conversations are to be prepared in small groups and performed as a little scene before the class. A model reading of the dialogues is available on tapes or cassettes and may be found useful if teachers wish to introduce the students to R.P. as a model of pronunciation or to provide practice in listening to a native speaker of the
language.

All the situations are such as one frequently encounters and the guidance given is always helpful. It may be relevant in any context, as when suggestions are made as to how one can keep up a conversation with a new acquaintance without making it unduly personal or reducing it to an interrogation. At times it may be a specifically British convention that is in question, such as the conventions regarding shaking hands. The course is really more suited to the needs of those who actually intend to visit England. The context is thoroughly English. References are made to British coinage. Whereas a person visiting England would be grateful for the advance information that sales assistants or bus conductresses may address one as 'dear' or 'love', to other learners this would merely be a piece of amusing 'local colour'. For those who are learning English as a 'second language' rather than a 'foreign language', a more specifically Indian context seems more useful. Besides, the course assumes a control over the structure of the language which the S.N.D.T. University students do not possess. If it is used at all at S.N.D.T. University, it could be as an 'enrichment course' in the second or third year. It could scarcely serve as a substitute for the S.N.D.T. University Advanced Course since the three-year course is conceived as a whole. Effective though this book is for its purpose, then, it is not quite the purpose that is in question at S.N.D.T. University.
2.5.3 Courses based on the functional approach.

The section begins with an examination of some Speech Courses based on the functional approach. Attention will chiefly be directed to How to Say It by P. Binham, as this was the only such course available at the commencement of the research. Binham's aims are similar to Methold's — to equip students with the basic expressions needed to cope with everyday conversations in English. The introduction clearly indicates that the writer has in mind the needs of a learner who is either going to an English-speaking country or wants to talk to English-speaking people. The method followed is also similar to Methold's. The students proceed in carefully rehearsed steps, since impromptu conversation classes seldom work successfully. There is a good deal in common in what is actually taught as between the two courses. But while Methold's lessons are centred round a situation, Binham concentrates more on the communicative activities that take place within that situation. Hence it has been regarded as a course designed on functional rather than situational lines.

The first and main section of each lesson covers 'what to say' in the following contexts: (i) meetings and greetings; (ii) hello and goodbye; (iii) some polite remarks; (iv) please and thank you; (v) apologies; (vi) questions and answers; (vii) agreement and disagreement; (viii) conversational openings — questions; (ix) conversational openings — remarks; (x) expressing an opinion; (xi) requests; (xii) invitations; (xiii) suggestions; (xiv) trouble;
(xv) sympathy and consolation; (xvi) exclamations;
(xvii) on the phone. The format of the lessons differs from
Methold's in that each lesson begins with a number of
appropriate expressions, then leads on to a conversation
which includes several of these expressions and concludes
with a number of exercises for practice. Useful supplementary
exercises are available on the tape or cassette accompanying
the course.

Although the book contains a great deal of useful
material, guiding the student regarding the appropriate thing
to say in a number of situations and providing a great deal of
practice, it cannot be prescribed for the same reasons that
applied to Methold's book. A basic control over the structure
of the language is taken for granted. Once again the context
is thoroughly British. Inviting a person to a dance, when one
has not met for the first time, is not an acceptable social custom
in India. A further reason that makes the course unsuitable
at Basic or Intermediate level is the use of a number of
expressions which, though they are very frequently used by
native speakers of English, are rarely heard even from fluent
speakers of English in India. Examples are: I imagine......;
as a matter of fact; by all means; would you mind......;
I wouldn't let that worry you; I was wondering if you would......;
if you ask me; fancy that; great Scott.

The same reasons that make these two otherwise
well-designed courses unsuitable for use at B.N.D.T. University
would apply equally to two more recent courses very clearly
designed on functional lines, Approaches by K. Johnson and
K. Morrow and Functions of English by L. Jones. The
introduction to Approaches states that the main emphasis
is on 'language activation', on the ability to communicate
in a fluent and accurate way. Functions of English is for
advanced students and the introduction reminds the student
that when using English in real life one must be aware of:
the social role, psychological role, setting, topic and
language function. The contents of both books are similar
to those already enumerated, although more detailed and more
definitely described in functional terms.

Functional courses reflect the current trends in
language teaching and a large number of them have been produced
in the 1970s. Of integrated courses for the learning of the
language one may mention the New Concept English series by
L.G. Alexander as an instance of the approach advocated by
Alexander himself (Section 2.4.1), linking structural grading
with language functions. The series did not in any way
contribute to the development of the S.N.D.T. University
courses.

Yet another type of functional course, the English in
Focus series, was referred to in Section 2.3.4. The volumes
in the series are meant to train students for the kind of
tasks in reading and writing that they will be called upon
to perform in their subjects of specialisation. A limited
number of reading passages are provided but they are exploited to the maximum. The attention of the students is directed to rhetorical acts such as description, definition and generalization. After a careful analysis of the reading passage to this end, the students are guided in carrying out similar tasks in writing. As the course is primarily one in reading and writing, it is of no direct relevance here. However, the approach is an original one and it may be possible to attempt something similar at the Advanced level, linking listening with speech. The passages for listening may be analysed by the students and teacher in conjunction, with a view to studying the appropriate linguistic realizations for various elements, and these may be incorporated by the students into their own discourse.

2.5.4 Courses for the development of discussion skills.

In the last few years several courses have been published which aim at the development of discussion skills. An effort is made to select topics likely to interest learners of the particular age level for which the course is intended and also to suggest a variety of activities within each lesson or various angles from which the topic may be discussed. Such courses can be of assistance not only in providing ideas for discussion topics but also for the manner in which discussion may be organized. A good example of such a course, meant in this case for students with considerable fluency in English, is *For and Against* by L.G. Alexander. Several of the topics are such as
would interest B.A. Part III students at S.N.D.T. University, for instance: 'It's high time men ceased to regard women as second-class citizens'; 'Television is doing irreparable harm'; 'Advertisers perform a useful service to the community'; 'Only a madman would choose to live in a large modern city'. The subjects are such as would encourage students to become better-informed and more critical of the world in which they live. The author seeks to stimulate discussion by suggesting a number of issues which may be raised. Other courses along similar lines are cited in the bibliography.

2.5.5 Courses in remedial grammar.

Some of the recently produced courses in remedial grammar are more imaginatively planned than earlier ones and make use of natural dialogues, often humorous ones, for practice in a given language item. Of particular interest is the series English Language Units (General Editor C.E. Nuttall), which will eventually comprise forty units, each concerned with a language element that presents problems for foreign learners, such as the Passive, Indirect Commands and Requests or the Nodal Auxiliaries. The course is noteworthy for the manner in which the use of a particular construction is worked into a continuous dialogue of some length, always natural and often amusing. It consequently proved helpful in suggesting ideas for dialogues for the Basic Course.

2.5.6 Courses in pronunciation.

The fact that nothing has so far been said in this
chapter regarding books on English pronunciation may be regarded as a surprising omission. Several of the standard theoretical accounts were in fact studied and are listed in the bibliography. They have not been discussed in this chapter, however, as, for reasons that will be stated in Chapter 3, it was decided to assign low priority to the teaching of pronunciation in the Basic and Intermediate Courses, and so the theoretical studies cannot be said to have made any direct contribution to the development of the S.N.D.T. University courses. Courses containing drills and exercises, accompanied by explanatory observations, proved to be useful to the researcher in her capacity as a teacher, particularly in the difficult area of intonation, and so they will be cited here. The most helpful of these were: *Exercises in Spoken English Part I: Accent, Rhythm and Intonation* by the Department of Phonetics and Spoken English, C.I.E.P.E., *Living English Speech* by V.S. Allen, *Intonation of Colloquial English* by J. O’Connor and J. Arnold and *Active Intonation* by V. Cook. It was felt that if practice materials were to be provided in the area of stress and intonation at the Advanced level, it would be advisable, at least initially, to make use of some of these courses, instead of attempting to prepare new materials. The courses would naturally have to be used together with the accompanying tapes.

2.5.7 The contribution of the courses in the teaching of English as a foreign language to the development of the S.N.D.T. University course in Spoken English.

The only course materials which seemed to lend themselve-
to use in the S.N.D.T. University Compulsory English teaching programme were some of the course materials for the teaching of pronunciation. Some of these were already being used with students who were specialising in English, notably the C.I.E.F.L. course on Accent, Rhythm and Intonation in its entirety and exercises from Living English Speech by U.S. Allen. Students taking the new Advanced Course in Spoken English as part of the 'enrichment' component will also make use of the section on intonation from the C.I.E.F.L. booklet, supplemented with exercises from Living English Speech. The C.I.E.F.L. materials, prepared in India by Indians, present no problems of explanation resulting from cultural differences, while with a book such as Allen's the teacher is frequently compelled to divert attention from the teaching of intonation in order to explain some trifling reference to English food, English dress or English habits and customs. Courses on pronunciation can also assist the teacher in preparing lists of minimal pairs for vowel phonemes.

Reasons have already been given as to why none of the courses in Spoken English could be prescribed. They have, however, proved useful as a kind of check-list to ensure that the S.N.D.T. University courses included the functions, situations and topics with which the students should be familiar. From the point of view of language and expression also, it has been of advantage to be able to note the phrases currently used by native speakers of the language. As colloquial speech is constantly changing, books which have been very recently
published are of value in this respect.

2.6 Concluding remarks.

Modifications in the original course design were primarily the result of the experience of teaching the courses. This will be made clear in Chapters 3 and 4. The theoretical studies and courses discussed in this chapter also contributed to the change in the original design. As originally planned, a grammatical syllabus not only formed the foundation of the Basic Course, it also played an important part in the Intermediate Course. In addition, a list of more complicated structure-patterns, together with uses of modals and other function words was to be prepared for the Advanced Course as well. The study of works on language structure assisted in the preparation of the grammatical syllabus and many of the course materials, including some which were primarily meant for the teaching of reading or remedial grammar, helped the course-designer to acquire the skill of constructing dialogues for practice in a given pattern.

It was evident that in the light of experience with structural courses, the consensus of opinion in recent years was in favour of laying emphasis from the outset on the teaching of communicative ability. The S.N.D.T. University experiment led to a similar conclusion, although it also indicated that students obtained greater benefit from the more advanced stages of a course if the first stage was based on a structural syllabus. Accordingly the original
was modified. The works on language function assisted in the designing of a functional syllabus for the Intermediate Course. Finally the studies of syllabus design and of discourse analysis appeared in time to enable some of their findings to be used for fresh experimentation in the Advanced Course.

References.*

1. A useful collection of some of these papers is found in Halliday; System and Function in Language, ed. G. Kress (London: Oxford University Press, 1976).


9. ibid, p.278.

*Where two dates of publication are indicated, the earlier is the date of original publication, the later that of the edition or reprint used.


17. Ibid, p.57.


22. S.P. Corder, op.cit, p.41. Based on J.L. Austin, op.cit, Lecture XII.


27. ibid, p. 26.


29. ibid, p. 19.


31. ibid, p. 9.

32. ibid, p. 9.

33. ibid, pp. 6-8.


40. L. G. Alexander, op. cit.


52. Ibid, Chapter 2.

53. Ibid, Chapter 3.

54. J. Munby, *Communicative Syllabus Design* (Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1978/1979). Chapter 9 presents the 'Communication Needs Processor' in its entirety. It may be difficult for a reader to follow the chapter, however, unless he has read the earlier chapters.

55. Ibid, Chapter 3, pp.64-65.

56. Ibid, Chapter 4, p.72.

57. Ibid, Chapter 6, pp.99-100.

58. Ibid, Chapter 6, pp.104-110.


60. Ibid, Chapter 10, Example A, pp.190-204.

61. Ibid, Chapter 9, pp.185-188.


