4.1 Introduction
Fluency development does not require extensive practice of grammar and lexis but also takes into account teaching of many strategies. The following view by Campbell-Larsen (2012) encapsulates the rationale behind this chapter.

The view of fluency presented here is that certain linguistic behaviours enhance perceptions of fluency and certain other behaviours enhance perceptions of disfluency. Students can be made aware of these behaviours by overt teaching and must then be given extensive and repeated opportunity to engage in extended discourse using English. (p. 65)

Hence some of the strategies that can develop oral fluency of UG ESL learners at AMU have been discussed in this chapter.

4.2 Teaching Theoretical Perspectives of Phonetics
Teaching of phonetics is essential because it is the tool that aids in building the hierarchical structure of linguistic units, that is speech sounds lead to morphemes and morphemes to words, words to phrases, phrases to clauses, clauses to sentences and sentences to texts. According to McCarthy (1991), the teaching of pronunciation has not given much attention to establish the connection between the articulation of phonemes and the characteristics of connected speech. Citing Pennington and Richards, McCarthy (1991) says that pronunciation teaching deals with three elements which are as follows:

- Segmental feature: It deals with features that lead to the articulation of the speech.
- Voice-setting feature: It discusses the aspects of voicing of speech sounds.
- Prosodic feature: It is concerned with stress and intonation pattern in speech.

The efficiency in the above features is very important in order to communicate with ease. A sound knowledge of phonetics helps one to overcome the discrepancy between sounds and spellings. It also helps to differentiate between sounds which cause interference in learning the second language. For example Southern Chinese speakers are unable to distinguish between the sounds /r/ and /l/. For many of them these two phonemes sound the same but in English these two sounds are distinct (Bloomer, Griffiths & Merrison, 2005).

4.2.1 The Organs of Speech
There are various organs of speech which help to produce the speech sounds. Hence, it is important to learn about the different organs of speech and the structure of the vocal tract. The vocal tract extends from the lungs to the mouth and comprises of the lips (upper and lower), teeth, alveolar ridge, oral cavity, nasal cavity, tongue, hard palate, uvula, epiglottis, larynx and the lungs. The tongue is further divided into five parts which are as follow:

- The tip which is the front most part of it.
- The blade which lies below the alveolar ridge when the tongue is not in motion.
- The front which is below the hard palate when the tongue is not moving.
- The back which is below the soft palate when the tongue does not move.
- The root is backward facing the wall of pharynx.

(Ashby & Maidment, 2005, p. 35-6)
In the production of various speech sounds, some organs are active articulators while some remain passive. Active articulators are those which move in the direction of passive articulators in the production of speech sounds while the passive ones are those which are at rest.

4.2.2 Air Stream Mechanism

Air stream mechanism also plays a very important role in speech production. Initiation and articulation are the two fundamental elements in speech (Bloomer et al., 2005). The authors explain that initiation creates airstream and the articulation patterns the airstream to produce speech sounds. The initiation for most of the speech sounds are from the lungs (pulmonic) and the air flow is towards the outwards direction (egressive). Thus, speech sounds are mostly articulated by pulmonic egressive air stream mechanism. There are other kinds of air stream such as glottalic and velaric where the glottis and velum are closed and the direction of air flow is either inwards (ingressive) or outwards (egressive). These kinds of air stream cause difficulty in speech production, therefore most of the languages in the world make use of pulmonic egressive air stream mechanism.

4.2.3 Speech Sounds in English

There are forty four speech sounds in the “Received Pronunciation (RP) variety of English” (Bloomer et al., 2005, p.230). Out of these, there are twenty four consonants and twenty vowels.

4.2.3.1 Consonant

Consonants are those speech sounds articulated by impeding the air flow in the vocal tract. According to Jones (1998), consonant sounds are described as:

- All breathed sounds
• All voiced sounds formed by means of obstruction in the mouth
• All those in which there is a narrowing of the air passage giving rise to a frictional noise, and
• Certain sounds are gliding.

(Jones, 1998, p.12)

Consonants are generally defined in terms of place of articulation, manner of articulation and phonation (voiced or voiceless).

4.2.3.1.1 Phonation

Vocal folds that lie in the larynx have a significant role in the production of speech. The opening between the vocal folds is known as the glottis. There are four states of glottis which influence the voicing of the speech sounds. These are as follow:

a) Open state: In this state vocal folds are held apart allowing air to pass freely through them without any vibration. This state helps in the articulation of voiceless speech sounds.

b) Vibrating state: Here vocal folds vibrate when air passes through them. In this state, voiced sounds are produced.

c) Narrowed state: This state neither allows the vocal cords to meet nor to vibrate. This state produces whisper sound.

d) Closed state: Here vocal folds are allowed to meet in a way that does not allow air to pass through it. Hiccups, cough and glottal stops are produced in this state.

4.2.3.1.2 Places of Articulation

Supralaryngeal is the area which is above the larynx and consists of three parts:

• The pharynx
• The oral cavity
• The nasal cavity

Bloomer et al. (2005) say that larynx is related with phonation while the supralaryngeal area is related with the places of articulation. Given below is the classification of speech sounds on the basis of various places of articulation as mentioned by Ashby & Maidment (2005).

• Bilabial: Active articulators for these sounds are the upper and the lower lips. Both the lips are in firm contact with each other during the production of bilabial sounds. Example, English sounds /p, b, m, w/ are bilabials.

• Labiodental: Here lower lip is the active articulator and the upper front teeth are the passive one. The articulators are not in firm contact which allows the air to escape through them freely. /f/ & /v/ are the English labiodentals sounds.

• Dental: The active articulator is the tip of the tongue and the upper front teeth are the passive one. /θ/ & /ð/ are the English dental sounds.

• Alveolar- The tip or the blade of the tongue is the active articulator and the alveolar ridge is the passive articulator. English sounds /t, d, l, n, s, z/ are the alveolars.

• Post-alveolar: Here the tongue’s tip is the active articulator and back of the teeth ridge is the passive one. /t/ sound in English is postalveolar.

• Retroflex: The tip of the tongue is the active articulator and is curled back to touch either the teeth ridge or the hard palate. These sounds are mostly used in Indian languages and are articulated by the speakers of English from those areas.
• Palato-alveolar: The blade of the tongue is the active articulator and the teeth ridge or the hard palate is the passive one. /ʃ/, /ʒ/, /tʃ/, /dʒ/ are the palato alveolar sounds in English.

• Palatal: The front of the tongue is the active articulator and the hard palate is the passive articulator. /j/ is the palatal English sounds.

• Velar: The active articulator is the back of the tongue while the soft palate is the passive one. /k/, /g/, /ŋ/ are the velar sounds in English.

• Uvular: The back of the tongue is the active articulator and the uvula is the passive articulator. Uvular sounds do not occur in English. These are found in the Arabic language. Sounds like /q/ and /G/ are equivalent to English sounds /k/ and /g/, respectively.

• Glottal: The vocal folds are the active articulators here. They are in close contact with each other and air from the lungs is not allowed to escape through the glottis. Sounds produced at the glottis are called the glottal stop. Many accents of English spoken in London use the glottal stop. For example, the /tʃ/ sound in the word ‘shutter’ is replaced by glottal stop /ʔ/. English sound /h/ is glottal.

4.2.3.1.3 Manner of Articulation
Apart from the kinds of phonation (voiced or voiceless), places of articulation and air stream mechanism, speech sounds also differ in terms of the “variation in the degree of closure (or stricture) between articulators” (Bloomer et al., 200, p.244-45). This variation is termed as manner of articulation.
4.2.3.1.4 Degree of Stricture

As described by Ashby and Maidment (2005), there are three important degrees of stricture which are as follow:

- Closure: There is a firm contact between the articulators.
- Narrowing: The articulators are brought together but they do not touch each other.
- Approximation: The articulators are widely apart from each other.

The stricture of closure and narrowing produces obstruent sounds while the stricture of approximation produces sonorant sounds.

4.2.3.1.5 Different Manners of Articulation

The different manners of articulation are as follow:

- Stops: Stops are of two types- **plosives** and **affricates**. The articulation of stops consist of three stages:
  1. The approach stage where the articulators come in firm contact with each other and form the closure. This stage is common in plosives as well as affricates.
  2. The hold stage which allows the air from the lungs to build pressure behind the closure. This stage is followed by both the plosives and the affricates.
  3. The release stage where the air pressure formed behind the closure is either suddenly released as in plosives or slowly released with friction as in affricates. Example- English sounds /p, b, t, d, k, g/ are **plosives** and /ʃ, ʒ/ are **affricates**.

(Collins & Mees, 2003, p.79)
• Fricatives: There is a partial closure between the articulators and the air passes through the narrow passage producing audible friction.

Example—English sounds /f, v, θ, ð, s, z, ʃ, θ, h/. (Greenbaum, 1996)

• Nasals: The articulation of nasal sounds causes the soft palate to lower and blocks the passage of air flow from the oral cavity. The air passes through the nose during the production of nasal sounds.

Example—English sounds /m, n, ѵ/are the nasal sounds.

• Approximants: The articulators are brought close to each other but the resultant sounds do not produce audible friction. There are four kinds of approximants:

1. Lateral approximant: There is a contact between the articulators (tip of the tongue and the alveolar ridge) in centre of the vocal tract and the air escapes through the lateral passage. English sound /l/ is a lateral sound.

2. Post alveolar approximant: The tip of the tongue is moved towards the rear end of the alveolar ridge in open approximation stricture where air escapes through the articulators without any friction. English sound /ɾ/ is a post alveolar approximant.

3. Palatal approximant: It is a glide like vowel and is known as semi vowel. English sound /j/ is palatal approximant.

4. Labial-velar approximant: It is also a glide like vowel and is called semivowel. English sound /w/ is labial-velar approximant.

(Collins & Mees, 2003, p.87-90)

The Table-4.1 shows the consonant sounds of English and their features.
Table 4.1: Classification of English consonants

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Speech Sounds (Consonants)</th>
<th>Active Articulator</th>
<th>Passive Articulator</th>
<th>Place of Articulation</th>
<th>Manner of Articulation</th>
<th>Phonation</th>
<th>Example</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>/p/</td>
<td>Upper and lower lips</td>
<td>None</td>
<td>Bilabial</td>
<td>Plosive</td>
<td>Voiceless</td>
<td>Page</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/b/</td>
<td>Upper and lower lips</td>
<td>None</td>
<td>Bilabial</td>
<td>Plosive</td>
<td>Voiced</td>
<td>Bed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/m/</td>
<td>Upper and lower lips</td>
<td>None</td>
<td>Bilabial</td>
<td>Nasal</td>
<td>Voiced</td>
<td>Mirror</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/n/</td>
<td>Tip of the tongue</td>
<td>Alveolar ridge</td>
<td>Alveolar</td>
<td>Plosive</td>
<td>Voiceless</td>
<td>Train</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/d/</td>
<td>Tip of the tongue</td>
<td>Alveolar ridge</td>
<td>Alveolar</td>
<td>Plosive</td>
<td>Voiced</td>
<td>Drain</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/l/</td>
<td>Tip of the tongue</td>
<td>Alveolar ridge</td>
<td>Alveolar</td>
<td>Lateral approximant</td>
<td>Voiced</td>
<td>Late</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/n/</td>
<td>Tip of the tongue</td>
<td>Alveolar ridge</td>
<td>Alveolar</td>
<td>Nasal</td>
<td>Voiced</td>
<td>Nest</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/s/</td>
<td>Blade of the tongue</td>
<td>Alveolar ridge</td>
<td>Alveolar</td>
<td>Fricative</td>
<td>Voiceless</td>
<td>Sun</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/z/</td>
<td>Blade of the tongue</td>
<td>Alveolar ridge</td>
<td>Alveolar</td>
<td>Fricative</td>
<td>Voiced</td>
<td>Zeal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/f/</td>
<td>Blade of the tongue</td>
<td>Hard palate</td>
<td>Palato-alveolar</td>
<td>Fricative</td>
<td>Voiceless</td>
<td>Sheep</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/v/</td>
<td>Blade of the tongue</td>
<td>Hard palate</td>
<td>Palato-alveolar</td>
<td>Fricative</td>
<td>Voiced</td>
<td>Measure</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/b/</td>
<td>Vocal folds</td>
<td>None</td>
<td>Glottal</td>
<td>Fricative</td>
<td>Voiceless</td>
<td>Hot</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/k/</td>
<td>Tongue back</td>
<td>Soft palate</td>
<td>Velar</td>
<td>Plosive</td>
<td>Voiceless</td>
<td>Kind</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/g/</td>
<td>Tongue back</td>
<td>Soft palate</td>
<td>Velar</td>
<td>Plosive</td>
<td>Voiced</td>
<td>Grind</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/ŋ/</td>
<td>Tongue back</td>
<td>Soft palate</td>
<td>Velar</td>
<td>Nasal</td>
<td>Voiced</td>
<td>Bring</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/j/</td>
<td>Tongue front</td>
<td>Hard palate</td>
<td>Palatal</td>
<td>Palatal approximant or semi-vowel</td>
<td>Voiced</td>
<td>Yawn</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/t/</td>
<td>Tongue tip</td>
<td>Rear of alveolar ridge</td>
<td>Post-alveolar</td>
<td>Voiceless</td>
<td>Red</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/θ/</td>
<td>Lower lip</td>
<td>Upper front teeth</td>
<td>Labio-dental</td>
<td>Fricative</td>
<td>Voiceless</td>
<td>Fish</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/w/</td>
<td>Upper and lower lips</td>
<td>None</td>
<td>Bilabial</td>
<td>Labial-velar approximation or semi-vowel</td>
<td>Voiced</td>
<td>Warn</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/ʒ/</td>
<td>Blade of the tongue</td>
<td>Hard palate</td>
<td>Palato-alveolar</td>
<td>Affricate</td>
<td>Voiceless</td>
<td>Child</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/ʃ/</td>
<td>Blade of the tongue</td>
<td>Hard palate</td>
<td>Palato-alveolar</td>
<td>Affricate</td>
<td>Voiced</td>
<td>Jury</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/θ/</td>
<td>Tongue tip</td>
<td>Upper front teeth</td>
<td>Dental</td>
<td>Fricative</td>
<td>Voiceless</td>
<td>Threat</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/ð/</td>
<td>Tongue tip</td>
<td>Upper front teeth</td>
<td>Dental</td>
<td>Fricative</td>
<td>Voiced</td>
<td>There</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/ɹ/</td>
<td>Lower lip</td>
<td>Upper front teeth</td>
<td>Labio-dental</td>
<td>Fricative</td>
<td>Voiced</td>
<td>Vinegar</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Collin & Mees, 2003:40; Ashby & Maidment, 2005, p.38)
4.2.3.2 Vowels

Vowels are the speech sounds which use the stricture of open approximation during their articulation. The air flow is not obstructed in the vocal tract when the vowels are articulated. As stated by Bloomer et al (2005: 250) “Consonants really provide the ‘colour’ of speech, while the more featureless vowels merely hold it all together”. The function of vowels is to bind the consonants together. The vowels can be divided as: Monophthong, Diphthong and Triphthong. Those vowels whose quality remains stable are known as monophthongs.

Vowels are described in terms of three features:

- The height of the tongue in the production of the vowel.
- The part of the tongue which is highest in the production of the vowel.
- The position of lips while articulating the vowels.

4.2.3.2.1 Height of the Tongue

It shows the relation between the heights to which the tongue is raised towards the roof of the oral cavity. If the tongue is close to the roof then a close vowel like /i/ is articulated. If the tongue is not raised much and there is a wide gap between its highest point and the roof of the oral cavity, the open vowel like /a:/ is articulated. The vowels produced in tongue position that lies between high and low are known as mid as /e/ in English word bed. Vowels that are between close and mid are called half close and between mid and open are called half open.

4.2.3.2.2 Part of the Tongue

The part of the tongue which is highest in the production of the vowel classifies the vowel sounds in three categories which are as follow:
• Front vowels: vowel like /i/ is produced by raising the front part of the tongue towards the hard palate. English sounds /i, iː, e, æ/ are the front vowels.

• Central vowels: English vowels /ʌ, əː, ə/ are produced by raising the centre of the tongue to the point where hard and soft palates meet.

• Back vowels: Back of the tongue is raised towards the soft palate to produce the back vowels. Vowels like /o, uː, ʊ, əː, əː/ are the back vowels.

4.2.3.2.3 Lip Position

The lip position also determines the quality of a vowel. The lips are either rounded as in /u/ or unrounded as in /i/.

The table below shows the qualities of monophthong vowels:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>English monophthong vowels</th>
<th>Part of the tongue</th>
<th>Height of the tongue</th>
<th>Lip position</th>
<th>Example</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>/i/</td>
<td>Front</td>
<td>Half close</td>
<td>Unrounded</td>
<td>Pick</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/iː/</td>
<td>Front</td>
<td>Close</td>
<td>Unrounded</td>
<td>Peak</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/e/</td>
<td>Front</td>
<td>Half open</td>
<td>Unrounded</td>
<td>Peg</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/æ/</td>
<td>Front</td>
<td>Open</td>
<td>Unrounded</td>
<td>Pack</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/u/</td>
<td>Back</td>
<td>Half close</td>
<td>Rounded</td>
<td>Push</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/uː/</td>
<td>Back</td>
<td>Close</td>
<td>Rounded</td>
<td>Pool</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/o/</td>
<td>Back</td>
<td>Open</td>
<td>Rounded</td>
<td>Pot</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/ɔː/</td>
<td>Back</td>
<td>Mid</td>
<td>Rounded</td>
<td>Pond</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/aː/</td>
<td>Back</td>
<td>Open</td>
<td>Unrounded</td>
<td>Part</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/ʌ/</td>
<td>Central</td>
<td>Half open</td>
<td>Unrounded</td>
<td>Pluck</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/ɔː/</td>
<td>Central</td>
<td>Mid</td>
<td>Unrounded</td>
<td>Perk</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.2.3.3 Diphthongs

According to Ashby & Maidment (2005, p.75), “the quality of a vowel can change within a single syllable”. These are vowel glides and are known as diphthongs. In producing the centring diphthongs which are five in numbers, the tongue glides
towards the /ə/ which is a central vowel. The closing diphthongs glide towards the close vowels /ɪ/ and /u/ and are three in numbers.

![Diphthong Diagram](image)

**Fig 4.1 Classification of diphthongs**

(Roach, 1991,p.20)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>English Diphthong Vowels</th>
<th>Example</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>/eɪ/</td>
<td>Pale</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/aʊ/</td>
<td>Pound</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/ɑː/</td>
<td>Pour</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/eə/</td>
<td>Peer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/eʊ/</td>
<td>Pair</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/ʊə/</td>
<td>Poor</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 4.2.3.4 Triphthongs

Roach (1991) has explained triphthongs as:

The most complex English sounds of the vowel type are the triphthongs. They can be rather difficult to pronounce, and very difficult to recognise. A triphthong is a glide from one vowel to another and then to a third, all produced rapidly and without interruption. (p.23)

There are five triphthongs as listed by Roach (1991). These are eɪə, aɪə, ɔɪə, ɔuə, ʌə.  

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Examples are as follow:

\begin{tabular}{ccc}
\texttt{eɪə} & \texttt{əɪə} & \texttt{əʊə} \\
Player & Royal & Power \\
\texttt{əɪə} & \texttt{əʊə} & Slower \\
Fire & & \\
\end{tabular}

Further, Roach (1991) says that:

The principal cause of difficulty for the foreign learner is that in present-day English the extent of the vowel movement is very small, except in very careful pronunciation. Because of this, the middle of the three vowel qualities of the triphthong (i.e. the \texttt{i} or \texttt{u} part) can hardly be heard and the resulting sound is difficult to distinguish from some of the diphthongs and long vowels. (p.23)

4.2.3.5 The Vowel Quadrilateral

The vowel quadrilateral is used to represent the vowels graphically. It shows the area that is involved in articulating vowels. The upper boundary that is used in vowel articulation is the region below the articulation point of fricatives. On the vowel quadrilateral, the part of the tongue (front, central, back) is labeled horizontally, while the height of the tongue (Close, Half-close, Half-open, Open, mid) is labelled vertically. The vowel quadrilateral is shown below:

![Vowel Quadrilateral Diagram](image_url)

Fig. 4.2: The vowel space shown by the quadrilateral
4.2.4 Syllable

Ashby & Maidment (2005) have described Syllable as a group of sounds produced in "one pulse of speech" (p.7). In the structure of a syllable, the consonants either
precede or follow the vowel. Roach (1991) has defined a syllable phonetically as well as phonologically. Phonetically, the author has put the definition of a syllable as:

Phonetically (that is, in relation to the way we produce them and the way they sound), syllables are usually described as consisting of a centre which has little or no obstruction to airflow and which sounds comparatively loud; before and after this centre (that is, at the beginning and end of the syllable), there will be greater obstruction to airflow and/or less loud sound.

(Roach, 1991, p.67)

Phonologically, the author has also defined syllable keeping in mind the possible combination of phonemes. The phonological structure given by Roach (1991) is as follow:

\[
\begin{array}{cccccccc}
\text{pre-initial} & \text{initial} & \text{post-initial} & \text{VOWEL} & \text{pre-final} & \text{final} & \text{post-final} & \text{post-final} \\
\hline
\text{ONSET} & & & & & & & \text{CODA} \\
\end{array}
\]

Fig. 4.6: Phonological structure of a syllable

(Roach, 1991, p.17)

Example: Sprain- Pre-initial (s)+ Initial (p)+Post-initial (r)+ Vowel (ai)+ Final (n).

The occurrence of two or more consonants in a single syllable is called consonant cluster. Collins & Mecs (2003) have listed a set of possible vowel and consonant structures in English. The list is as shown in Table 4.4.

The knowledge of possible structure of a syllable in English may help one to overcome the problem of epenthesis and metathesis in speech. This will help the speakers to communicate intelligibly.
Table 4.4: English consonant clusters

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Examples</th>
<th>Structures</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Eye /ai/</td>
<td>V</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Raw /ro:/</td>
<td>CV</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>On /ɔn/</td>
<td>VC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dawn /dɔn/</td>
<td>CVC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lawns /lɔnz/</td>
<td>CVCC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Draw /dɔ:/</td>
<td>CCV</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Drawn /dɔ:n/</td>
<td>CCVC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Straw /stɾɔ:/</td>
<td>CCCV</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strands /strændz/</td>
<td>CCCVCCC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Glimpsed /ɡlimpst/</td>
<td>CCVCCC</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.2.5 Stress

Collins & Mees (2003) have said that stress is indicated by four factors which are:

- **Intensity**: Syllables that are stressed are associated with a greater audibility than the unstressed syllables.
- **Pitch variation**: Syllable with a strong stress is associated with high pitch.
- **Vowel quality**: Central or peripheral vowels also determine the pattern of stress. Stressed syllables tend to contain a peripheral vowel, for example /e/ as in *red*, while the unstressed syllables have central vowel /a/ as in *better*.
- **Vowel duration**: Vowels are shorter in unstressed syllable while they are longer in the stressed syllable.

Ashby & Maidment (2005) have said that stress is a relational feature, unlike features such as place and manner features or vowel quality features. So while it makes sense to ask whether an isolated consonant is, for example, alveolar, or whether an isolated vowel is back, it can never be sensible to ask whether an isolated syllable is stressed. (p.155-56)
4.2.5.1 Word Stress

Stress is either primary or secondary. Syllable that is prominent than the neighbouring syllables tend to receive the primary stress while the next prominent syllable have secondary stress. Primary stress is indicated by “a raised vertical line at the beginning of the syllable” (Ashby & Maidment, 2005, p.157). The secondary stress is marked by a vertical line which is placed below the syllable receiving the secondary stress. The authors have also mentioned a few factors which govern the stress placement in English words. These are:

- Syllable weight: According to the authors, there are two kinds of syllables: Light syllables (contain a short vowel and one or no consonant), Heavy syllables (consist of one long vowel or diphthongs or a short vowel with not less than two consonants). The authors have said that in a word, heavy syllable receive the primary stress. Example: feeder -/fi:do/. The syllable /fi:/ has the long vowel /i:/ and thus it is a heavy vowel which receives the stress.

- Word class: The authors have said that “stress placement in variable stress languages may be sensitive to the lexical class of a word, that is, whether it is a noun, a verb, an adjective and so on.” (Ashby & Maidment, 2005, p.159).

- Suffixes: Addition of a suffix in a word can cause a stress to shift from the position where it was placed in the word without the suffix. These kinds of suffixes are called stress-imposing suffixes. Sometimes, addition of a suffix does not let the stress to shift from its previous place. These suffixes are known as stress-neutral suffixes.
Examples are as follow:

Table 4.5: Words having stress-imposing suffix and their transcription

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Stress-imposing suffix</th>
<th>Words without suffix</th>
<th>Transcription</th>
<th>Words with suffix added</th>
<th>Transcription</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-ic</td>
<td>Photograph</td>
<td>['faутогреф]</td>
<td>Photographic</td>
<td>['faутогрефик]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ical</td>
<td>Hypothesis</td>
<td>['hai-poθəsɪs]</td>
<td>Hypothetical</td>
<td>['haiθəθetikl]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ity</td>
<td>Complex</td>
<td>['kɒmpleks]</td>
<td>Complexity</td>
<td>['kɒм'pleksəti]</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.6: Words having stress-neutral suffix and their transcription

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Stress-neutral suffix</th>
<th>Words without suffix</th>
<th>Transcription</th>
<th>Words with suffix added</th>
<th>Transcription</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-ed</td>
<td>Edit</td>
<td>['edit]</td>
<td>Edited</td>
<td>['editad]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-er</td>
<td>Pretty</td>
<td>['priti]</td>
<td>Prettier</td>
<td>['pritiə]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-est</td>
<td>Lovely</td>
<td>['lavi]</td>
<td>Loveliest</td>
<td>['laviəst]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ing</td>
<td>Examine</td>
<td>['ɡəzəmɪŋ]</td>
<td>Examining</td>
<td>['ɡəzəmanɪŋ]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ive</td>
<td>Suggest</td>
<td>['sæ dʒest]</td>
<td>Suggestive</td>
<td>['sæ dʒestɪv]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ly</td>
<td>Rapid</td>
<td>['ræpid]</td>
<td>Rapidly</td>
<td>['ræpidli]</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Ashby & Maidment, 2005, p.160)

Collins & Mees (2003) have presented some of the guidelines for placing stress in English words. These are as follow:

a) Disyllabic or trisyllabic words: The rough guide given by the authors suggests the non-native English learners to place the primary stress on the first syllable. Example: 'Project.

b) Words that have four or more syllables: The tendency is that primary stress would be placed on the third syllable from the end, that is, antepenultimate syllable (syllable preceeding the last one).

Example: Exami'nation

c) Prefix words: Words that are shorter and begin with a prefix are primarily stressed on the syllable following the prefix. Example: Im'pose, A'ttract.

d) Verbs are differentiated from noun by shifting the stress on different syllables. The authors have termed this as "switch stress" (Collins & Mees, 2003, p.112). The prefix is the carrier of stress in nouns, while the syllable
following the prefix receives the stress in verbs. Example: 'Conduct (noun),
'Conduct.
e) Word endings: There are some word endings that attract stress and they fall
into two groups.
• Stress on ending itself- Examples are given below:

Table 4.7: Examples of words having suffix
on their ending

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Word Endings</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-ade (nouns)</td>
<td>cascade</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ain (verbs)</td>
<td>abstain</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ee (nouns)</td>
<td>nominal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-eer (nouns)</td>
<td>engineer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-esque (adjectives/nouns)</td>
<td>picturesque</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-esce (verbs)</td>
<td>convalesce</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ess (verbs)</td>
<td>assess</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ette (nouns)</td>
<td>cigarette</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ique (nouns/adjectives)</td>
<td>physique</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-oon ()</td>
<td>lampoon</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-self/-selves</td>
<td>himself</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

• Stress on syllable preceding ending

Table 4.8: Examples of words having stress on the syllable
preceeding ending

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Word Endings</th>
<th>Examples</th>
<th>Word Endings</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-ative</td>
<td>pejorative</td>
<td>-inal</td>
<td>nominal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-itive</td>
<td>infinitive</td>
<td>-ion</td>
<td>examination</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-cient</td>
<td>proficient</td>
<td>-ital</td>
<td>hospital</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ciency</td>
<td>proficiency</td>
<td>-itous</td>
<td>inelicitous</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-eous</td>
<td>courteous</td>
<td>-itude</td>
<td>attitude</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ety</td>
<td>society</td>
<td>-ity</td>
<td>negativity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ian</td>
<td>musician</td>
<td>-ive</td>
<td>subjective</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ial</td>
<td>initial</td>
<td>-ual</td>
<td>casual</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ic</td>
<td>iconic</td>
<td>-ular</td>
<td>secular</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ical</td>
<td>musical</td>
<td>-uous</td>
<td>nocuous</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ident</td>
<td>incident</td>
<td>-wards</td>
<td>towards</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Stress in English compounds: English compounds receive stress either on their initial element, that is, "Initial Element Stress (IES)" or the "Final Element Stress (FES)". (Collins & Mees, 2005, p. 113)

Guidelines for placing stress in compound words.

- **Word Shape:** When the compound words are written as a single word, it will receive IES. Those compounds written as two words or separated with a hyphen can have both IES and FES.

- **The Manufactures Rule:** If one of the words in the compound is a material that is used in its manufacturing then FES is applied. Example- Cotton clothes. While the non-manufactured items take IES. Example- Cotton plant.

- **Location Rule:** Following are the compounds where locations are mentioned.
  1) If the first word in the compound is the name of a country, region, or town, then FES is followed. Example- Bermuda shorts
  2) Compounds depicting various geographical features have FES. Example- Bridges, Parks, etc.

- **Parts of a building tend to receive FES.** Example- Kitchen garden.

- **A large number of compounds related to food items have FES.** Example- Tomato sauce.

- **Compounds that have the names of academic subjects, skills, etc. follow IES.** Example- English teacher.

- **Compounds that are the names of magazines, newsletters, etc. have FES.** Example- Women's Era.
• IES is followed in compounds where an activity is carried out with the help of an object. Example: 'Washing machine.

• FES is followed in compounds which show a trait of the object. Example: Running 'water.

(Collins & Mees, 2003, p.112-15)

4.2.5.2 Sentence Stress

In connected speech, the above mentioned rules for word stress may be lost. The primary stress in a sentence is placed on those words that carry the important information. Function words like prepositions, articles, auxiliary verbs, pronouns, etc. carry little information so they are unstressed in the sentence. Content words like nouns, adjectives, adverbs, main verbs, etc. are the information carriers, so they are stressed in a sentence.

Example: 'I've 'seen that 'Mary and 'Jack 'loved to 'play in 'park.

There are some exceptions to the rules of sentence stress.

a) Demonstratives like this, that and wh-words when used in interrogative sentence are stressed because they impart important information in the sentence.

b) When function words show a contrast in the sentence, they receive stress.

Example: Give 'him a cup of tea not 'her.

c) Prepositions are also stressed when a contrast is implied or stated.

d) In rapid speech, unstressed syllables will increase and many lexical words may be unstressed.

(Collins & Mees, 2003, p.115)
4.2.6 Rhythm

Rhythm has its roots in the sentence stress. English language follows stress-timed rhythm which "tends to occur at roughly equal intervals of time" (Collins & Mees, 200, p.115). Languages that follow syllable-timed give "the impression of roughly equal length for each syllable regardless of stressing" (Collins & Mees, 2003, p.116). Languages like Hindi, Greek, Spanish, Polish and Turkish follow syllable-timed rhythm. According to McCarthy (1991), "The impression of rhythm may arise out of a feeling of alternation between strong and weak 'beats' in various patterned recurrences" (90). The longer stretches of speech have rhythm of various degrees. Further, the author has said that utterances are divided into chunks of syllables having almost the same length and these chunks are called feet. A foot should have one syllable that is stressed. In each foot, syllables are either expanded or compressed (which depends on the number of syllables) in order to maintain rhythm in the speech.

4.2.7 Intonation

The variation in pitch is limited to intonation in English. It extends over the larger stretches of speech and writing. The intonation pattern is crucial for communication because it adds additional meaning to the words used in written or spoken discourse. According to Wennerstrom (2000),

"...native speakers of English use a system of pitch contrasts to disambiguate given and new information and to segment chunks of discourse according to turn-taking conventions. It is hypothesized that the ability on the part of a nonnative speaker to exploit these systems will contribute to his or her overall fluency. " (p.106)
4.2.7.1 Functions of Intonation

The four functions of intonation are discussed below:

- **Focusing function or Accentual function:** The speaker emphasizes on that part of the utterance which is significant for the discourse. As per the need, the speaker can shift the position of nucleus in order to emphasize the different information.

  For example:
  
  a) Rebecca drove her new car. (neutral)
  
  b) Rebecca drove her new car. (new one not the old)
  
  c) Rebecca drove her new car. (not anybody’s else)
  
  d) Rebecca drove her new car. (not washed but drove)

- **Attitudinal function:** This function implies that an utterance may have various connotations. As stated by Collins and Mees (2003), “Attitudinal function is what allows speakers constantly to superimpose an attitude on top of the base semantic content of what is being said” (p.125). Hence, intonation helps to understand the kind of interpretation speaker wants to attach with his/her utterance. The two tones fall-rise and rise-fall help in marking the attitudinal function. The uses of these tones as given by Collins and Mees (2003, p.125) are given below:

  a) Fall-rise: To clear doubt, to make corrections, to make an appeal to the listener to reconsider.

  b) Rise-fall: Impressed, arrogant, confident, self-satisfied, mockery, putting down.
Another two tones, that is, high fall and low rise are considered as neutral. The low fall and high rise strengthens the impact of an utterance. The above two tones help one to add something new to the utterance, focus or exaggerate the attitude of the speakers.

- Grammatical function: It helps the speakers to differentiate grammatical functions of the utterance.

For example: You are coming. (statement)

You are coming? (question)

- Discourse function- It helps one to participate in spoken discourse. With the help of this function, the speaker signals to take turns or demonstrate the relationship between them and their listeners. In this regard, the nuclear tone is allocated in two categories:

  a) Falling tone which suggests completedness and that the information is unloaded.

  b) Rising tone that shows incompletedness and that more information is needed to complete the message.

Therefore comments and statements have falling tones whereas yes/no questions and the sub-ordinate clauses in the beginning of the sentence have rising tones.

Further, Wennerstrom (2000) has suggested the aspects given below to be included as "components in an interactional model of fluency in English" (p.125). These are

- The use of pitch on lexical items to indicate their respective roles in the information structure and in contrasts.

- The use of pitch at boundaries to hold or relinquish turns.

(p.125)
4.3 Teaching Phonological Processes

These processes are frequently used in the connected speech. They help to maintain an easy flow in oral communication. Sounds in a word are conditioned phonetically on the basis of the context of their occurrence. The concern of phonology is not only limited to the distinction of phonemes (which are the minimal meaningful unit of sound) and sound distribution but also with the patterns of sound (Ashby & Maidment, 2005). As stated Ashby & Maidment (2005), “phonological processes operate upon natural groupings of sounds and give rise to alternations in the forms of words” (p.40). The following are the various phonological processes which are the marked feature of oral fluency.

4.3.1 Assimilation

In this process a sound is substituted by some other sound under the influence of the adjacent one. For example- in the word break down /brekdaun/, the sound /k/ becomes /g/ under the influence of /d/ and hence becomes /bregdaun/.

4.3.1.1 Types of Assimilation

- The process of assimilation is regressive or leading when a sound changes under the influence of the following sound.

  Example: white page /wait pei d3/ becomes /waip peid3/.

- The process of assimilation is progressive or lagging when a sound changes under the influence of preceding sound.

  Example: in the room /in ə ruːm/ becomes /in nə ruːm/.

  (Collins & Mees, 2003; Richard, Platt & Platt, 1992)
4.3.1.2 Types of Influence in Assimilation

- Assimilation that alters the place of articulation is known as place assimilation.
  
  For example- Alveolars are substituted by labials, velars or palatal sounds. *Wet bed* /wet bed/ becomes /wepbed/.

- Assimilation that involves the manner of articulation is called manner assimilation. For example- nasal or lateral sound may substitute fricative sound, like *Coin the term* /koɪn də təm/ becomes /koɪn ni təm/.

- Co-occurrence of assimilation involves different assimilations which happen together at a time. For example, *mind you* /maind ju:/ becomes /maindʒu:/.

Both place and manner assimilations influence /d/ & /j/ of the pure form. Here /j/ palatal approximant under the influence of /d/ alveolar plosive becomes /dʒ/ palato-alveolar affricate.

4.3.2 Elision

Sometimes a sound in the sequence is omitted in the word when used in connected speech. This is also called deletion or truncation. As mentioned by Collins & Mees (2003), most of the times elision is followed by assimilation. Example- *let me* /let mi:/ becomes /lemme/. Further, the authors have discriminated between “contemporary assimilation and elision vs historical assimilation and elision processes” (Collins & Mees, 2003, p.103). The contemporary assimilation and elision processes are restricted to some phonetic context and in many cases these processes tend to be optional. In historical assimilation/elision, original forms of the words are lost and only the assimilated or elided forms exist.
For example- *cupboard* /kʌbɔːd/ *instead of* /kæpboːd/, *comb* /kəʊml/, *wrist* /rɪst/ etc. Hence, assimilation and elision are useful elements for maintaining rhythm in speech. They frequently deal with the unstressed syllables in the utterance.

### 4.3.3 Liaison

It is a process where a sound is inserted in a sequence in rapid speech. English accents form two categories that depend on the distribution of /r/ sound. Rhotic accents are those where /r/ is pronounced in all the environments. /r/ in non-rhotic accents is pronounced only when it precedes a vowel. In non-rhotic accent “orthographic r is regularly restored as a link across word boundaries” (Collins & mees, 2003, p.104).

Example- *butter and jam* /bɔtə ænd dʒæm/ becomes /bɔtəndʒæm/. This *r* between /t/ and /ə/ is called linking *r*. Many speakers of non-rhotic English insert /r/ even when there is no *r* in the orthography of the word. This is called intrusive *r*. Example—*his idea of party* /hɪz aɪˈdiə əv paːti/ becomes /hɪz aɪˈdiəəv paːti/.

### 4.3.4 Juncture

It marks the boundary between two phonemes in order to retain the identity of the words used in colloquial or fluent speech. Gimson (1962) explained juncture in the way mentioned below:

Despite the fact that the word may have its isolate form identity considerably modified by its immediate phonemic and accentual context, both as regards its constituent sounds and its accentual or rhythmic pattern, phonetic features may be retained in the speech continuum which mark word or morpheme boundaries. (p. 275)
Example: *big and scary picture* /big æn skeəri/ becomes /bɪɡæn skeəri/ if the juncture between /g/ and /æ/ is not properly stressed. Therefore, establishing juncture between words (where needed) is important to gain intelligibility in fluent speech.

4.4 Use of Community Language Learning & Total Physical Response Teaching Methods in Classroom

Besides the communicative approach towards developing oral fluency among L2 learners, there could be many more approaches which can be implemented to get the desired result. The aim of teaching fluency to L2 learners should be to enable them to convey their message effectively. Their speech should be intelligible to a larger audience, not only nationally but also internationally. The strategy as suggested in this research is to combine the teaching methods: Charles Curran’s Community Language Learning (CLL) and James Asher’s Total Physical Response (TPR). These teaching methods should be used in two different phases. In the first phase, the CLL should be applied to ensure that the learners’ attention is mobilized and their interest is aroused. Here the role of the teacher would be that of a counselor. Later the TPR method should be used in the classroom where the learners shall be provided with imperative inputs from the teacher, who will be then playing a partially active role. The technique for carrying out the proposition would be Maurice’s (1983) 4/3/2 technique which is a shrinking time frame within which the learners have to articulate the tasks assigned to them.

The current trends in language teaching focus on the oral skills. But this was not the approach to language teaching earlier. A language was learnt earlier merely to read its literature. Emphasis was just laid on just the mastery of texts i.e. rote memorization
and translation of literary texts. A person's mastery over the language was based on his/her knowledge of the grammar and its structure. There was not much importance given to develop the speaking skills in the language. Later, the ever growing globalization of English changed the language teaching perspectives. Methods that focused more on the spoken language skill were adopted. English became a bridge to the world. Methods such as 'the Silent Way', 'Suggestopedia', etc. were tried on small scales for teaching purpose. These methods were based on psycholinguistic theories of language. The other two methods that focused on the oral skill were the 'Situational Language Teaching', which put emphasis on the teaching of language in various situations. The learners had to repeat or had to take drills of the structures as provided by the teacher. This approach failed at the level of its practicality because the learners would have to face situations that may not have been taught in the classroom. Though this method focused mainly on developing oral skills, its belief over predicting all situations was impractical. The other method that tried to develop oral proficiency was the 'Audio Lingual Method' that focused on the use of dialogue and followed conditioning and habit formation models of language learning. To have the accurate pronunciation was the target. Hence, significance to accuracy was given more priority than to fluency in oral communication. This method gained criticism due to the lack of communicative proficiency. The above two methods were supported by structural linguists. But the revolution in linguistics brought by Chomsky changed the perspectives in language teaching. The most popularly accepted and practical approach for the present day needs is the 'Communicative Language Teaching' (CLT). It claims that “function is the framework through which forms are taught” (Brown, 1987, p.213). It focused on fluency rather than accuracy. CLT encouraged the use of group and pair work where students could learn language by interacting in groups and pairs. But the
disadvantage that came while carrying out such kind of involvement was that if a classroom had all speakers sharing the same mother tongue, the students will end up using their mother tongue with each other while performing the task in groups and pairs. The reason being that they may not be confident enough in using the target language (unless they are monitored properly). CLT implies the use of authentic language in classroom teaching. Keeping all the above criticism of the different teaching methods and the result of the survey carried out in this research (which has revealed that undergraduate students at AMU are highly anxious) in mind, it is suggested that the use of Community Language Learning (CLL) and Total Physical Response (TPR) simultaneously may promote fluency of undergraduate ESL learners at AMU.

Making any learning process totally student-centered is not practical in the Indian classroom. Both the teacher and the learner have to be given equal importance in the teaching programme. First, while adopting the CLL (Community Language Learning) method, it is important to ensure that the students have calmed down and prepared enough to participate without any hesitation in the speaking activity. It is basically a counseling method proposed by Charles Curran where the teacher acts as a counselor. This method uses techniques to help the learners overcome their psychological and emotional problems that hinder in the learning of a new language. This is one of the major problems faced by the students at AMU. Therefore, CLL is the most appropriate method for meeting the needs of AMU students. The CLL emphasizes the learners' personal feelings and their reaction to language learning. Here the students will have to talk about things which they want to say in their native language. The role of a teacher is to translate their utterance in the target language. The learner then repeats the same to the other members of the group. Hence, this method puts the learners at
ease and in a comfortable learning environment. At the later stage, TPR (Total Physical Response) should be applied in the classroom. It is a method proposed by James Asher which is "built around the coordination of speech and action" (Richards & Rogers, 1986, p.87). Its objective is to teach oral proficiency at the beginning level. Asher claims that "adults should recapitulate the process by which children acquire their mother tongue" (as cited in Richards & Rogers, 1986, p.87). The author further states that "most of the grammatical structure of the target language and a wide range of vocabulary items can be learned from the skillful use of the imperatives by the instructor" (p.88). This method minimizes learners' stress. Therefore, this method is given importance in ESL classrooms to improve and develop the speech of learners. Further, this proposition should use Keith Maurice's 4/3/2 technique to carry out activities, which is a shrinking time frame within which they have to retell the same message again and again. The above technique emphasizes the concept of repetition. In a repeated speech some knowledge is already activated and therefore easier to access. Accuracy in speech is not sought as it would not give the expected result. The learners will definitely make errors but they are developmental errors which would help them to improve upon themselves.

4.4.1 Worksheet for CLL Activity

Describing an object

In this activity one of the students is asked to describe the object placed on the classroom table. The student describes that object in his/her native language to the teacher at first. Then, the teacher provides the student with the English translation of the description. After this, he/she is asked to face the classroom and retell the description provided by the teacher. Afterwards, another student is called and asked to
recapitulate the same description to the whole class in four minutes. Likewise, two more students are called and asked to repeat the same thing for three and two minutes respectively.

Write some of the key words to be used:

4.4.2 Worksheet for TPR Activity

Giving directions

In this activity one of the students is blindfolded. An object is kept at a distant place. The person who is being blindfolded does not know about the object. Rest of the students gives directions and necessary information one by one to that person so that he/she finds that object and reaches that place safely. Likewise each student gets the chance to get instructed.

Write some of the key words to be used:

It is believed that while carrying out CLL activity, the participants shall start to lose the feeling of self-consciousness. The phenomenon of repetition may make them confident enough to use a wide range of vocabulary to convey the message. The length of fluent runs shall increase significantly after repetition of the same message. Number of pauses and hesitations may also decrease with the decreasing time frame. The pausing used by the ESL students should be taken as the thinking time when they were processing language in their mind. Hence, the CLL and TPR methods along with Maurice’s 4/3/2 technique may prove to be very efficient for developing the confidence in the participants to speak English.
4.5 Artistic Use of Fillers

Generally the teaching of English language includes introducing the students with grammatical rules and the theories related to phonetics and the phonological processes. But, it would be a very effective step if they are introduced to some communication strategies also which are necessary for a successful communication. "Communication strategies are used by the non-fluent learners during L2 interaction, in order to overcome specific communicative problems" (Mitchell and Myles 2002, p.94). These are the strategies which provide a kind of help to the learners themselves.

A high speech rate while communicating is not what fluency in speech demands. Instead, it implies conveying meaning by using various strategies of communication without distracting the listener's attention. Pauses, stammers and errors of articulation are the "rules in conversation" (Abercrombie, 1965, p.7-8), but if they happen to be too long, the effectiveness of the message is lost. To avoid breakdown in communication, these pauses must be filled with some communication strategies. One of those strategies can be the use of fillers that has definite semantic implications in oral communication. Different kinds of fillers such as words, phrases, sounds, paralinguistic features, and various other communication strategies can be used to gain fluency in speech. Since L2 learners of English at AMU have an average linguistic competence, they are unable to clear their doubts in the classroom as well. Such a loss can be compensated by sharpening the second language learners' strategic competence (Anderson, Mclean and Lynch, 2004). The artistic use of fillers is one of the major components of strategic competence because as defined by Canale and Swain (as cited in Brown, 1987, p.200) strategic competence is "the verbal or non-verbal communication strategies that may be called into action to compensate for breakdown
in communication due to performance variables or due to insufficient competence". Hence, fillers in speech are the moves made by the speakers to maintain a smooth flow in their speech so that it sounds natural. Previously, a high speech rate in communication was considered as an efficient marker of oral fluency. Gradually, when the emphasis shifted on the message as an important element of communication many new definitions of fluency emerged. It is observed that fluent native speakers of English vary their speech depending on the context in which they are speaking. Since high speech rate with heavily accented words would make the English speech barely comprehensible in Indian context, a moderate rate of speaking is preferred. Hence, while developing oral fluency, speech rate should not be given too much importance. Instead, the extensive use of fillers should be introduced to the learners so that they can speak English confidently with their present knowledge of vocabulary and grammar. Hedge (1993, cited in Riggenbach) says that “learners' fluency increases as they learn to deal with their linguistic uncertainty rather than pauses.” (p.11)

4.5.1 Types of Fillers

There are many types of fillers that are used while speaking. Some of the communication strategies that are widely used as fillers in a fluent speech are discussed below:

- Sounds: These are the most common fillers used by both fluent as well as non-fluent speakers of English.

- Words and phrases are also used by the communicators to avoid any unusual pauses in their speech.

For example: Speaker A is talking to Speaker B in a restaurant.

Speaker A: What should I order for you?
Speaker B: A pizza...and...mhmm...you can also place an order for a cup of coffee.

- Sometimes the last sound of a word or phrase is elongated intentionally so that the speech sounds natural and the speaker gets enough time to think what to say next. Most of the times a filler word or phrase is elongated while taking turn in a conversation.

For example:

Speaker A: This is a beautiful place.

Speaker B: Yes, I agree with you.

Speaker A: How do you feel here?

Speaker B: Wellll...in the lap of nature.

- Repetition of the filler words or phrases also maintains the flow of speech.
  For Example: Speaker A needs some suggestions from Speaker B
  Speaker A: you are my best friend. Please tell me what should I do next?
  Speaker B: you are right my friend but I think...I think...you need to talk to your parents also.

- Very often, some paralinguistic features are also used to convey the message which is being understood by the listener from the context.

For example:

Speaker A: I could not find my keys that I had kept in the upper drawer.

Speaker B: (No reply) just shrugs off his shoulders.

Speaker A: Ok...please help me to find them.

Just shrugging off the shoulders by speaker A meant that he had no idea about them.

- Approximation: Using target language vocabulary and structure which the learners know is not correct but has common semantic features with the desired word/sentence.
For example: A person saying:

There was no *light* in my area yesterday.

Instead of: There was no *electricity* in my area yesterday.

- **Word Coinage:** The speaker coins a new word to describe a concept.

For example: A person saying:

He is a *chatterbox*.

Instead of: He is very *talkative*.

- **Circumlocution:** Instead of pausing for a long time to think for a word to be used in an utterance, a speaker should use this strategy to convey the meaning of that word. In circumlocution, a speaker describes the characteristics of the object rather than using the exact target language word or structure.

For example: A person is trying to explain to his friend that he has bought an ashtray in the conversation stated below:

Speaker A: I have bought...mhmm...a thing in which we put ashes of cigarettes..err..one that is kept on the centre table of your living room.

Speaker B: Ohh..you mean an ashtray!!!

By using this communication strategy the speaker indirectly asks for help from his listener.

- **Code Switching:** Here, a speaker changes his speech from one language or a variety of language to another one or it can be said that code switching refers to alternating between one or more languages.

For Example: A person whose mother tongue is Urdu starts talking in English but he switches over to his mother tongue in between his English speech when he senses breakdown in communication.
Speaker A: How did you fracture your leg?

Speaker B: Actually, when I was going towards the stairs...i..my right leg got trapped..You know..*kisi cheez se atak gaya..*and I completely lost balance *aur sidhiyon se gir gaya*..

Speaker B wants to say that his right leg got trapped in something due to which he lost his balance and fell off from the stairs.

These are some of the strategies that can help the speakers of English to improve their oral proficiency. There are many CDs available to help ESL learners to practice pronunciation, stress, rhythm & intonation. Likewise, L2 learners of English can be provided with a CD in which the use of these strategies that fill up the silence in communication, are dealt in a wide perspective with proper examples taken from the speech of non-native fluent speakers of English.

4.6 Formulaic Expressions as an Aid in Promoting Oral Fluency

As indicated by the result of the survey, many L2 learners are unable to retrieve vocabulary or expressions from their mental lexicon when they have to communicate in English (Lennon, 2000). This happens because either they lack competence in the language or performance in the same. Hence, the strategy to make ESL students aware of the use of different formulaic expressions in various speech acts can be useful. These expressions will vary according to the degree of formality of the situation. This may prove to be an effective strategy in teaching oral communication, as Fillmore (2000) has also observed that one must have command over a number of processes for creating new expressions.
4.6.1 Formulaic Expressions

These expressions, as explained by Fillmore (2000), are fixed and their appropriate interpretation depends on the context in which they are used. These are being memorized rather than generated. It has been claimed that formulaic expressions can work as a miracle for less proficient speakers because “constant exposure to and practice in the use of the prefabricated chunks with which communication is forged, whether those chunks be complete lexical phrases ... may be more useful than dissecting and analyzing those chunks” (O’Keeffe, McCarthy & Carter, 2007, p.137) They have pointed out that “formulaic utterances can extend from multiword chunks to discoursal routines” (p.63). Expressions like *nice to see you* and *see you later* are formulaic because they keep on occurring in certain context and perform pragmatic function.

Some of the conversational routines are as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Random example of routinised patterns for CANCODE</th>
<th>Conversational routine</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Hey, Hiya, hello there, How are you</strong></td>
<td>Greeting</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>See you later</strong></td>
<td>Leave-taking</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Welcome, thank you very much, thank god for that, thank goodness for that, thank you ever so much, thanks for your help</strong></td>
<td>Expressive (or acknowledgements) Such as: apologizing, appreciating, complimenting, condemning, congratulating, regretting, thanking, welcoming</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Would you like to, do you want, do you want some, I’d love to, that’s a nice idea, that would be lovely</strong></td>
<td>Commisives such as promising, offering, inviting</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>How would you feel about, have you got, would you be willing to, you’ve got to, you’re supposed to, you’ll have to, you’d be better off</strong></td>
<td>Directives such as commanding, instructing, suggesting, advising, warning, requesting</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(O’Keeffe et al, 2007, p.165)

These routines help to maintain relationship between speakers and listeners. Further, discourse markers function communicatively and organise the discourse by marking shifts and junction in conversation. O’Keeffe et al (2007) has defined discourse marker “as words and phrases outside of the clause structure, that function to line segments of
the discourse to one another in ways which reflect choices of monitoring, organisation and management exercised by the speaker” (p. 172). These markers help to reformulate the speech if certain error/mistake has been monitored by the speakers. This feature helps to maintain fluency in speech.

Hedging as mentioned by O’Keeffe et al (2007) is a prominent feature of natural speech. It is a term which show how some words/phrases can be used in conversation as a “face-saving devices” (p.174).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Form</th>
<th>example</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Modal verbs and verbs with modal meaning (believe, feel, guess, imagine, reckon, suppose, think), specially when used with the pronoun</td>
<td>I guess the bus service isn't too good, is it?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nouns</td>
<td>There is a possibility, the thing is, etc.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adverbs</td>
<td>Quite, really, relatively, necessarily, Just, only, Of course, actually, kind of, sort of, really, maybe</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Syntactic choices</td>
<td>And would you have thought you were very close to him? [as opposed to: and were you very close to him?]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>It's not that I'm not afraid.....vs. I am afraid</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>You got them to do this cross-group reporting which was a good idea but the time was the problem</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Features of ‘onliness’ adjustments (false start, repetitions, etc.)</td>
<td>And will you would you like to go sort of on a sun and sea holiday with him this year?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(O’Keeffe et al, 2007, p.175)

Thus it can be said that features like discourse markers, conversational routines and hedging help “...speakers in the real time of online speech orient, monitor, manage, modify and soften their message so as to relate to the hearer. (O’Keeffe et al, 2007, p.181).
Hence, mastery over formulaic utterances helps students to use language easily. These fixed linguistic forms must become the part of ESL speaker's knowledge.

4.6.2 Speech Act:

It is an utterance which is a functional unit in communication. It has both propositional (literal meaning) and illocutionary (the effect of speech or writing on the reader or listener) meanings. Some examples of speech act are requests, order, complaints, promises etc. Talking about relational language and transactional language, O’Keeffe et al (2007) describe the former as those features of language which are used to hold healthy relations between speakers and listeners. Transactional language is used to commute information. However, both types of language use may occur in different speech acts.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Feature of relational language</th>
<th>Example</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Conversational routines</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Thanking</td>
<td>Thanks, thanks a million</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Leave-taking</td>
<td>Bye now, bye</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Requestive routines</td>
<td>Can I have.....please?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Small talk</td>
<td>Coolish isn’t it</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hedging</td>
<td>You don’t sell stamps do yet?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Hedged syntactic structures</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>o Negative declarative + tag</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>o questions</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>o Noun phrase + tag</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>o Vague interrogative + hedging</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>modal verb would</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Discourse markers</td>
<td>Now, ah, oh, last of all, right, okay</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vagueness and approximation</td>
<td>Coolish, any lad around, tis kind of dry</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vocative use (endearment form used)</td>
<td>Dear</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(O’Keeffe et al, 2007, p.162)

4.6.3 Use of Formulaic Expressions in various Speech Acts

Formulaic utterances for various speech acts should be introduced at the very onset of teaching English to ESL students. This will help the students later when they are asked to perform speaking activities like role plays, storytelling etc. because they will not
groped for words or phrases or expressions to communicate in English. Once the second language learners get the opportunity to break the silence, their anxiety level decreases. Hence, they may improve their speaking skill gradually. According to Krashen’s affective filter hypothesis (as cited in Brown, 1987), affective variables such as anxiety, stress, low motivation etc. act as filter and impede the development of second language.

The use of formulaic expressions is dependent on the formality of situation. Expressions would vary in their physical manifestation in different situations despite carrying the same meaning. Sometimes ESL students express their message in a way that is impermissible in that context. Hence, they land themselves in a very awkward situation. This creates frustration and anxiety in them. They become demotivated to use the language any more.

For example:

A conversation between a teacher and a student.

Teacher: Why your work is not checked?

Student: Sir, I came for the same yesterday, but you were so busy that you did not check it. (Inappropriate response.)

Student: Sir, I came for the same yesterday, but I could not get it checked as you were held up in some work. (Appropriate response)

Thus, utterances in most of the formal situations tend to use passive voice.

Some of the examples of different formulaic expressions for various speech acts are listed below:

1. a) Agreeing in a formal situation.
   - Yes Sir/Madam.
b) Agreeing in an informal situation:

- You know that’s exactly what I think.
- I couldn’t agree more.

2. a) Disagreeing in a formal situation.

- I’m afraid, I don’t agree with that.
- I’m not sure. I wonder....

b) Disagreeing in an informal situation.

- Surely not! Certainly not!
- I really don’t think that’s right.
- I don’t agree. I completely disagree.

3. a) Inviting in formal situation.

- You are cordially invited to attend....
- It would give us/me immense pleasure if you could.....

b) Inviting in informal situation

- You are coming for....
- I don’t want any excuse, you have to....

4. a) Greetings in formal situation.

- Good Morning/Evening/Afternoon! How are you sir/madam?

b) Greetings in an informal situation.

- Hi! What’s up?
- Hey, what’s up?

5. a) Requesting in formal situation.

- It would be very kind of you if you....
- I would be highly obliged if you....
b) Requesting in an informal situation.

- Please, you can....
- Do take some.

6. a) Expressing gratitude in a formal situation.

- That is/was (vey) kind/good/nice of you.
- I am really very grateful/obliged to you.

b) Expressing gratitude in an informal situation.

- Thanks!
- Thanks a lot!
- Many thanks!

7. a) Accepting thanks in formal situation.

- It's my pleasure!

b) Accepting thanks in an informal situation.

- It's all right!

Likewise, many more formal and informal formulaic expressions can be introduced for different speech acts. This strategy is for those ESL learners who always remain silent in the class because of the fear of cutting a sorry figure in front of others. The idea behind this strategy is to familiarize ESL learners with these expressions so that when they come across such situations, they can retrieve those utterances from their memory easily. According to Lennon (2000, cited in Riggenbach) proficient speakers tend to access words from the memory easily and the formulation process is highly automatized for them. Thus, this technique would prove to be a motivation booster for tongue-tied ESL learners.
4.7 Teaching of Vocabulary

Teaching of vocabulary is of great importance because incompetency in vocabulary impedes the fluency of English. The findings of this work indicated that retrieval of words when needed by the students is very problematic and thus is a serious concern.

Wallace (1982) has mentioned some problems that are associated with the learning of vocabulary. These are:

- Retrieval of vocabulary when needed.
- Unable to use vocabulary according to the degree of formality of the communicative situations.
- Unable to use dictionary correctly that is, looking for the words in the dictionary without knowing its context of use.
- Bad pronunciation or incorrect stress on words.

Thus it is very important to make students aware of the basic system of vocabulary. Lado (1955) has mentioned three facets of words which are significant in the study of vocabulary. These are as discussed in later sections.

4.7.1 Forms

Words take up different forms. The process of affixation is one of the processes that change the word forms. Likewise, the position of words in a sentence, the rate of speech and the pattern of stress also determine its form.

Example: The word and may have different realizations in different context. Like /ən/, /æn/ and /æŋ/. These forms depend on the rate of speaking and pattern of stress speakers are using.
4.7.2 Meaning

Meaning of a word depends on many factors. One of those factors is culture. Thus word may have various connotations. For example- people living in cold countries experience various kinds of snow and hence use different words to distinguish between the kinds of snow. Meanings can be lexical, syntactic as well morphological.

For example:

The meaning “housing that someone is living in” when attached to form “home” is lexical meaning in English.

The meaning “past tense marker” that is attached to –ed in looked, loved is a morphological meaning.

The meaning “exclamation” attached to the arrangement of words in the sentence ‘How nice you look!’ gives syntactic meaning.

Moreover, the use of words by a speaker may indicate his/her social class or reveal their geographical identity.

4.7.3 Distribution of Words

A word has different distribution which depends on the context of its occurrence. A word may act as a noun or as a verb. Example- love in sentence Poor need a lot of love is a noun but it acts as a verb in I love French food. However, it cannot act as an adjective without the change in its form.

Example lovely dress.

Apart from the forms, meanings and distribution, words have got various classifications. Fries (as cited by Lado, 1955) has explained four groups which are mentioned below:
• Function words: These words impart grammatical functions. Example- do, be.
• Substitute words: They substitute a word class. Example- pronouns.
• Grammatically distributed words: Words like some and any exhibit grammatical limitations in their distribution.
• Content words: These words form the major part of the vocabulary system in English.

4.7.4 Semantic Relationships
Besides having a sound knowledge of so far discussed aspects, the teaching of vocabulary also includes awareness of the various semantic relationships a word has. These are discussed below:

• Synonyms: Words which mean nearly the same are synonyms.
  Example- show and exhibit are synonymous.

• Antonyms: Words that are opposite to each other.
  Example- Hard and soft.

• Hyponym: It shows relationship between words where the meaning of one words cover the meaning of other. For example- Flower and rose. Flower is a general term that includes rose and other flowers. Another example is sound which covers the different kinds of sounds like moan, yell, whisper, shout.

• Homonym: Words are written and pronounced alike but they differ in their meanings. Example-Dear. Meaning of dear is loved one and also high price.

• Homophones: Words that are pronounced alike but have different meanings and are also written differently. Example-cite and sight.
- Homographs: Words that are written alike but are pronounced differently and have different meanings. Example- Dove (a bird) and dove (second form of verb dive).

4.7.5 Associative Learning

Vocabulary is also taught by using the concept of associative learning as mentioned by Richards, Platt & Platt (1992). Here the learners are asked to make connections between things. Associative learning can be classified in following ways:

- Association by contiguity: Here students are required to guess words that are closely associated to each other. Example- a word like class may associate words like teacher, notebook, learning, questions.

- Association by similarity: Words that have similar meaning are associated with each other. Example- soft, gentle, mild.

- Association by contrast: Words that are opposite to each other are associated by contrast. Example-light and heavy.

Learning vocabulary in context helps in retaining the words in the long term memory. Hence, the teaching of vocabulary should not only be done in isolation but also in appropriate context. Moreover, different languages have different vocabulary system that differs in form, meaning, distribution and classification. In this context, use of mother tongue to teach vocabulary helps to overcome the problem of interference.

4.8 Role of Audience in Fluency Development

Spoken grammar exhibits flexible structures, hence utterances that are accurately structured are least expected in spoken discourse. There are many kinds of responses from the audience/listener that signals the speaker to continue, monitor or terminate their speech. These responses are discussed below
Continuer response tokens are an aid to maintain fluency in speech. These responses which are from the audience motivate speakers to carry on with their talks. Minimal response token like uhmm, mmm are the continuer response token in spoken discourse. The authors have described minimal responses as “short utterances (for example yeah) and non-word vocalisations” (O’Keeffe et al, 2007, p.142) and non minimal responses as “mostly adverbs or adjectives (for example good, really great, absolutely) or short phrases/minimal clauses (such as you’re not serious, Is that so?)” (p.142-43).

Convergence response tokens: These are used when audience shows degree of agreement with the speaker or when the topic of discussion or conversation is not interesting. Usually, non minimal response tokens signal the speaker to either shift, change or end the topic. Example- got it! is a convergence response token.

Engagement tokens: These show the greater degree of involvement with the speaker’s talk. The authors say that “They signal the addressee’s enthusiasm, surprise, shock, and disgust etc. at what the speaker is saying without taking over the turn” (p.152). These tokens use non-minimal responses which consist of one word response such as superb, definitely, fantastic etc. and short phrases such as that’s ok, that’s true etc.

Context-specific functions: Many responses are confined to certain context. For example the response certainly by the waiter to the guest at hotel is more appropriate than the response definitely in the conversation given below:

A(Guest): Can I get a glass of water?
B(Waiter): Yes, certainly.
The assertion that these responses are necessary for gaining fluency in speech are supported by the authors who say that “without response tokens, interactions would very often fail because speakers would perceive their message as not being well received” (p.156). Hence, “listenership” (p.157) is very important for a successful communication. The audience before whom students are rehearsing to develop speaking should give students positive response tokens as this may help them to shed their fear and motivate them to perform their best. Harmer (1983) has stated that speakers learn a lot from the behaviour of their audience. Therefore, the size (small, medium or large), proficiency level as compared to the speaker (less proficient, equally proficient or more proficient) and types (familiar, unfamiliar, or a mixed group of both) of audience should be adjusted time and again in order to put the speaker at ease when they are practicing to speak. The strategy to tailor the number and nature of the audience continuously for a certain interval of time may help students to develop fluency in their ESL speech.

4.9 Conclusion

This chapter has discussed some strategies that may be a part of teaching oral fluency to UG ESL students at AMU. Teaching to use fillers artistically, developing context-based vocabulary among students, teaching phonetics and phonological processes, emphasizing utility of formulaic utterances and participation of audience play a significant role in improving fluency.