CHAPTER 2 ASPECTS OF SPEECH

2.0 Introduction:

The linguists can explain the sounds in two ways, one relates to its substance and another to its form. These sounds are to be regarded as physical entities which can be described in terms of such differences and similarities of sound as are functional in the language. In the first case he will give a phonetic description of, what he hears or analyses instrumentally; in the second he will give a phonological description.

Speech is a biologically endowed behavior of human beings. It is the first and foremost form of communication and occupies a predominant position in enlightening the minds of the people. Information is understood and processed easily through speech rather than writing.

Speech is an activity. Whilst language is the structural pattern of system we use to convey our message in speech. The pattern of the language exists of words and of the structured relationship between words and phrases, which is known as grammar (Mitchel, 1973: 1)

Spoken language has wider range of functions to perform than the written language. They start from casual spontaneous conversations ending with formal speeches and so on. Written language tends to serve rather specialized functions at the formal level.

One may possess mono-or bi-or multilingual potentiality. He may express his inner speech fluently through all the languages he knows. But, a monolingual cannot express his views other than the L1. If he wants to become a bilingual, he should learn a language in addition to his L1. The additional or second language may be learned in school atmosphere or in society where it is used in real communication. Learning/acquiring spoken mode of an L2 is entirely different from that of L1. If an L2 user has linguistic skills to steer the language fluently with the native speaker of that language, he may be considered as an actual speaker of that language, otherwise he is not. In the process of learning spoken mode of L2, the learner encounters difficulties because of the inter and intra lingual factors, language shock, cultural shock and so on. However, difficulties and problems are inevitable in the process of learning spoken or written mode of the L2.
2.1 Phonology of Indian English:

In spite of the great stress on good English in higher circles, the layman's spoken variety, Indian English, is widespread and well known for its many eccentricities. For this reason, "grammar of Indian English" must be taken with a grain of salt. Indian accents vary greatly from those leaning more towards a purist British to those leaning more towards a more 'vernacular' (Indian language) -tinted speech (one of the reasons for this is that in Indian schools, almost no attention is given to the "Received Pronunciation", but rather to written English). The most ubiquitous instance of modified sounds is the morphing of [[alveolar]] English 'd', 't' and 'r' sounds to more [[retroflex]] variants. South Indians tend to curl the tongue more for 't' and 'n' sounds.

It is to be noted that many Indian English speakers don't even know that their pronunciation scheme is actually incorrect as compared to RP. In general, the important features of phonological differences between Indian English and "Received Pronunciation" of the London region (and even with most other dialects of Standard English) are given below:

* All native languages of India (other than Hindi itself) lack the [[voiced post alveolar fricative voiced palatal or post-alveolar sibilant]] /ʒ/. Consequently, /ʒ/ or /dʒ/ is substituted, e.g. treasure /treʒər/.

* Standard Hindi, most other vernaculars and hence General Indian English lack the difference between /v/ ([[voiced labio-dental fricative]]) and /w/ (bilabio-velar [[semi-vowel]]). Instead, most Indians use a frictionless labio-dental approximant, close to /v/, for both "'v'" and "'w'" graphemes. So "'wine'" is pronounced like "'vine'".

* All consonants are distinctly doubled in General Indian English wherever the spelling suggests so. E.g., "'drilling'"/dril ligg/.

*Inability to pronounce certain (especially word-initial) consonant clusters by people of rural background, and hence modification. E.g., "'school'"/ts ku:l/.

* All native languages of India, and hence General Indian English, lack the phonemes /θ/ ([[voiceless dental fricative]]) and /ð/ ([[voiced dental fricative]]). Hence, the [[aspirated]] [[voiceless dental plosive]] /θ/ is substituted for /θ/ and the unaspirated [[voiced dental plosive]] /d/ is
substituted for /ð/. This can create confusions like "themselves" being heard by native English speakers as "damsels"!

* In RP, word-initial and syllable initial "'p", "'t" and "'k" are slightly [aspirated], but in native Indian languages, the distinction between aspirated and unaspirated plosives is very stark. So General Indian English uses the corresponding unaspirated voiceless plosive—/p/, /h/ and /k/ instead of /ph/, /th/ and /kh/.

* A very stark feature of General Indian English is the use of [[retroflex]] [[plosive]]s continuant /l[[voiceless retroflex plosive |t.]]/ and /l[[voiced retroflex plosive |d.]]/ instead of the corresponding [[alveolar]] [[plosive]]s of English (/l[[voiceless alveolar plosive|t.]]/ and /l[[voiced alveolar plosive|d.]]/). In Indian languages there are two entirely distinct sets of coronal plosives: one [[dental consonant|dental]] and the other [[retroflex]]. To the Indian ears, the English alveolar plosives sound more like retroflex than dental. In [[devanagari script]] of Hindi, all alveolar plosives of English are transcribed as their retroflex counterparts. This also causes (in parts of Uttar Pradesh and Bihar) the /s/ preceding alveolar /t/ to allophonically change to /t/ (/stop/ → /stop/).

Mostly in south India, some speakers allophonically further change the voiced retroflex plosive to voiced [[retroflex flap]], and the nasal /n/ to a nasalized retroflex flap. /nə/

* Most Indians don’t know that English is a [[stress-timed language]], and word [[Stress (linguistics)|stress]] is an important feature of English pronunciation. Consequently, Indian-English speakers[often use inappropriate stress] either put the stress accents at the wrong syllables, or worse, accentuate ALL syllables of a long English word. Also, Indian English speakers speak English with an idiosyncratic pitch accent, which makes Indian-English sound like a "sing-song voice" to native English speakers. Indian speakers also have problems with other supra-segmental features of English.

* Sometimes, Indian speakers interchange /s/ and /z/, especially when plurals are being formed* In native Indian languages, there are no [[affricate]]s. So Indians pronounce RP [[affricate]]s /l[[voiceless post alveolar affricate |t.]]/ and /l[[voiced postalveolar affricate |d.]]/ as corresponding [[Palatal consonant|palatal plosive]]s, without any following friction.

* While retaining /ŋ/ in the final position, Indian speakers usually add a /g/ after it. Hence /rɪŋ ɪŋ/ → /rɪŋ ging/ (ringing).
* [[Syllabic]] /l/, /m/ and /n/ are usually replaced by the VC clusters /ll/, /mm/ and /nn/ (as in "button" /but ton/), or if a high vowel precedes, by /ll/ (as in "little" /lit il). The syllabic retroflex /r/ of [[Standard American English]] is again pronounced as a VC cluster. e.g., "meter", Am.: /mi: t 'r/, Ind.: /mi: tr/. 

* General Indian English has long [[monophthong]]s /e:/ and /o:/ instead of R.P. glided [[diphthong]]s /ei/ and /ou/ (or /əu/); this variation is quite valid in Standard American English.* Many Indian English speakers fail to make a clear distinction between /e/ and /æ/ and between /ɔ/ and /ɔː/. ("[[cot-caught merger]]").

* In R.P., /r/ occurs only before a vowel. But in much of General Indian English, being a Scottish-influenced [[rhotic]] accent, uses a sharp [[alveolar trill]] /r/ in almost all positions in words as dictated by the spellings. Indian speakers do not use the [[retroflex]] [[approximant]] for "r", as opposed to many American speakers.

* Indian speakers convert "gh" digraphs to aspirated [[voiced velar plosive]] /ɡou/. Eg., "ghost" /ɡɔːst/. But "rough", "dough", etc. are pronounced correctly.

* Many Indian speakers always pronounce "the" as /ðiː:/, irrespective of the fact whether the definite article comes before a vowel or a consonant, or whether it is stressed or not. Similarly, they articulate /ei/ instead of /ə/ "a" as /eː:/ (always) rather than as /ə/. Eg; a table, a car, a duster as /ei/ table, /ei/car, /ei/ duster

In total, such discrepancies exist in General Indian English because firstly, Indians do look up to their own rich phonology for the nearest approximations of English phonemes, and secondly, because they by and large tend to follow English pronunciation as it appears through the English spelling. This is because all Indian scripts are highly [[phonemic]] [[Abugida|alpha-syllabic scripts]], and English (in Roman script) seems to be a horrible example of how non-phonemic a script can be.

### 2.2.1 Methodology Adopted For The Error Analysis:

Cor (1967 & 1974) identified a model for error analysis, which included three stages:
1. Data collection: Recognition of idiosyncrasy

2. Description: Accounting for idiosyncratic dialect

3. Explanation (the ultimate object of error analysis).

Brown (1994, pp. 207-211) and Ellis (1995, pp. 51-52) elaborated on this model. Ellis (1997, pp. 15-20) and Hubbard et al. (1996, pp. 135-141) gave practical advice and provided clear examples of how to identify and analyze learners’ errors. The initial step required the selection of a corpus of language followed by the identification of errors. The errors were then classified. The next step, after giving a grammatical analysis of each error, demanded an explanation of different types of errors.

Moreover, Gass & Selinker (1994, p. 67) identified 6 steps followed in conducting an error analysis: Collecting data, Identifying errors, Classifying errors, Quantifying errors, Analyzing source of error, and Remediating for errors.

2.2.2 Error/Data Collection:

For the selection of a corpus of language, following the guidelines offered by Ellis (1995, pp. 51-52), 80 students were interviewed. These students were from standards 5 to 10. They had been studying English since 5th standard and have been taught English mainly by teachers who were not from an English medium school and some of them were teaching the subject not by choice but by chance or by duty. Some were not qualified to teach English. It should be noted however, that most of the students speak Kannada at home with their parents and at school with their friends.

These students were asked to answer five questions to test their aspects of speech. These questions were asked only of the students of Standard 8th, 9th, and 10th. Standard 5th to 7th were not asked these since they had not mastered the art of understanding and responding in English. The following questions were asked to the students, [1] What is your father’s name? [2] Where is your house? [3] How many brothers and sisters have you? [4] In which standard are you studying? [5] Who teaches you English? 6] Name some objects in the class: they were given sufficient time to answer. It was in the last week of June and first week of July they were preparing for their
first test July 2004. In the second language research, a great deal of attention has been paid to related area of communicative behavior. So, this chapter concentrates on communication strategies of the L₂ learners. Further, communication strategy is not dealt with in this chapter, as a learner’s ability to communicate effectively and efficiently requires further development. It is only a strategy employed by the learners to conceal a gap in their communication. So, the objectives of the chapter are to test and identify when and how the learners make use of such strategies in speech.

### 2.2.3 Data analysis and error identification

**Strategy of Inter Lingual Transfer:** The learners adopt the strategy of inter-lingual transfer whenever they find differences between first and second languages. Due to the dissimilarities at the phonological level, the following types of strategies are observed in the performance of the learners.1] Phonological interference 2] Gemination of constant sound 3] Avoidance of initial consonant cluster 4] Vowel lengthening 5] Addition of vowel at the end position of word 6] Diminishing diphthong [closing diphthong]

#### 2.2.3.1 Phonological Interference [phonological errors]:

**Errors in consonants:** 1] In Kannada the fricative sound [f] is nonexistent. So, the Kannada speakers tend to substitute [p] in the place of [f] the examples are given in [table 6] below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>English words</th>
<th>Pronounced form</th>
<th>Correct form</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Father</td>
<td>[pa:der]</td>
<td>/fa:daʔ/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feel</td>
<td>[pi:l]</td>
<td>/fi:l/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fight</td>
<td>[payt]</td>
<td>/faɪt/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Of</td>
<td>[ap]</td>
<td>/əv/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Before</td>
<td>[bipor]</td>
<td>/biˈpo:ɾ/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fault</td>
<td>[polt]</td>
<td>/fo:lt/</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table: 6
2] In Kannada [z] sound is non-existent. So the students tend to substitute [j] in the place of [z]. Examples given below: [table 6a]

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>English words</th>
<th>Pronounced form</th>
<th>Correct form</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Zoo</td>
<td>[ju:]</td>
<td>/zu:/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>zero</td>
<td>[ji:ro]</td>
<td>/zi:ro/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>busy</td>
<td>[biji:]</td>
<td>/bi:zi/</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table : 6a

This type of phonemic transfer strategy had occurred due to the phonemic, allophonic or distributional dissimilarities between first and second languages.

2.2.3.2 Gemination of Consonant Sounds:

Another peculiar strategy adopted by the learners was gemination or reduplication of identical consonant sounds the examples are given below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>English words</th>
<th>Pronounced form</th>
<th>Correct form</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>pit</td>
<td>[pit]</td>
<td>/pit/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>at</td>
<td>[att]</td>
<td>/æt/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>must</td>
<td>[mustt]</td>
<td>/mʌst/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>but</td>
<td>[bʌtt]</td>
<td>/bʌt/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>should</td>
<td>[ʃu:d]</td>
<td>/ʃud/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>could</td>
<td>[kudd]</td>
<td>/kud/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>would</td>
<td>[wudd]</td>
<td>/wud/</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table : 7

This is due to the interference of Kannada. The consonants in Kannada words sometimes get doubled at the end position as given below:

[bittu] ‘leave’ [dodda] ‘big’
So, this feature enables the speaker to double the consonant sounds in English words too. It was found that there were 80% of the students who had adopted intralingual strategy. Of the 80%, 45% of the students had adopted strategies of phonological interferences, diminishing diphthong and vowel lengthening. Remaining 25% of the students had adopted the addition of vowel at the end position of words and gemination of consonant sounds.

2.2.3.3 Avoidance of Initial Consonant Cluster:

Avoidance or dilution of consonant cluster was yet another strategy found among the learners who tend to include a vowel in between the consonant clusters like gr, kr, bl, cr, kl, lm, br, tr, pl, etc. as in the following examples.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>English words</th>
<th>Pronounced form</th>
<th>Correct form</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>cricket</td>
<td>[krikit]</td>
<td>/krɪkit/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>class</td>
<td>[kilas]</td>
<td>/klaːs/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>glass</td>
<td>[gilas]</td>
<td>/glaːs/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>film</td>
<td>[filam]</td>
<td>/film/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>brother</td>
<td>[biradər]</td>
<td>/brædər/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>grammer</td>
<td>[girammər]</td>
<td>/ɡræmər/</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The dilution of the consonant clusters by inserting a vowel is due to the influence of native language. In Kannada, the above clusters are absent and as a result of which the students tend to put a vowel in between the two members of clusters.

2.2.3.4 Addition of Vowel Sound at the End Position: Another interesting strategy is that addition of ‘u’ sound at the end, which end with words stop, or fricative sounds. Examples are given below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>English words</th>
<th>Pronounced form</th>
<th>Correct form</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Books</td>
<td>buksu</td>
<td>/bʊks/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Table</td>
<td>terblu</td>
<td>/tɛrbl/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>House</td>
<td>hauzu</td>
<td>/hauz/</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
This was due to the native language influence. Kannada words mostly do not end with stop and fricative sounds. They mostly end with vowel sounds. So, the learners extended the Kannada rule to the L2 as indicated above.

2.2.3.5 Vowel Lengthening:

Another strategy was noted that the students had the tendency of lengthening the final vowels (mainly the diphthongs). This occurs especially in places where the English vowel is an upward back glide. In the data, it was found that English words with the spelling 'u' 'oo' 'o' and 'ou' in some cases are pronounced by lengthening the vowels as there are no gliding sounds in Kannada. Examples are given:

Table : 10

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>English words</th>
<th>Pronounced form</th>
<th>Correct form</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ko-operate</td>
<td>ko:perate</td>
<td>/ku:pareit/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>poor</td>
<td>pu:r</td>
<td>/pɔ:ɹ/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>occupation</td>
<td>o:kkupas</td>
<td>/ɒkəˈpeɪʃən/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tour</td>
<td>tu:r</td>
<td>/tuːɹ/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>open</td>
<td>o:pen</td>
<td>/əuˈpen/</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2.2.3.6 Diminishing Diphthong:

Phonetic differences of a phoneme too lead interferences. For example, Kannada has a mid, back rounded vowel [o] as observed in the word [ho:gu] 'go' as found in English, but English[o] is phonetically different in certain environments from Kannada, because it has a prominent upward back glide. As a result of this phonetic differentiation, when the Kannada speakers speak English, they produce English words with the up glide vowel nature of Kannada. That is, the diphthong - two vowels that become continuous are reduced to a single vowel, which is called contraction. As a result of this, the
speakers tend to pronounce the following words as follows. The result is occurrence of diminishing diphthong. Examples are given below:

Table: 11

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>English words</th>
<th>Pronounced form</th>
<th>Correct form</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>no</td>
<td>[no:]</td>
<td>/nəʊ/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>so</td>
<td>[so:]</td>
<td>/səʊ/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>row</td>
<td>[ro:]</td>
<td>/rəʊ/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rose</td>
<td>[roːs]</td>
<td>/rəʊz/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>role</td>
<td>[roːl]</td>
<td>/rəʊl/</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It was found that there was 78% of the students had adopted intralingual strategy. Of the 78%, 48% of the students have adopted strategies of phonological interferences, diminishing diphthong and vowel lengthening. Remaining 22% of the students have adopted the addition of vowel at the end position of words and gemmation of consonant sounds.

2.2.3.7 Avoidance:

It has been observed that 8% of the selected informants avoided speaking or talking with the researcher in English. Reasons for the avoidance are that the learners do not want to show their inadequacy in the second language to others. So, to conceal their linguistic inadequacy, the learners follow the strategy of avoidance. Further, the anxiety, language shock and culture shock are yet another factors which lead them to the use the strategy of avoidance.

2.3.3.8 Phonological error types typical for Kannada medium students:

A] Errors in consonants: The final consonant ‘r’ in spelling is mostly silent in English language but in Kannada all the letters of the words are pronounced so the students make the following mistakes while speaking:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>English words</th>
<th>Pronounced form</th>
<th>Correct form</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Our</td>
<td>[aʊə]</td>
<td>/au əf/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Four</td>
<td>[f ɔːr]</td>
<td>/foːr/</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Before [bifor] [bipor] /bi ʃər/  
Brother [bradar] /bɾədər/  
mother [madar] /mədər/  
Father [fa:dər] /fa:dər/  
sister [sistər] /sistər/  
Farmer [farmər] /fɑːmər/  
driver [draivər] /drajər/  

Table : 12

2. The silent letters in words like ‘t’ and ‘l’ are pronounced. The examples are given below:

Table : 12a

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>English words</th>
<th>Pronounced form</th>
<th>Correct form</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>often</td>
<td>[aːften]</td>
<td>/əːfən/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>listen</td>
<td>[listen]</td>
<td>/lɪsən/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>walk</td>
<td>[waːlk]</td>
<td>/wɔːk/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>talk</td>
<td>[taːlk]</td>
<td>/tɔːk/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>would</td>
<td>[wuld]</td>
<td>/wʊd/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>could</td>
<td>[kuld]</td>
<td>/kʊd/</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3) In the following examples the /h/ is pronounced as [y] or [ye] and /fl/ is pronounced as [p]

Table : 12b

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>English words</th>
<th>Pronounced form</th>
<th>Correct form</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>have</td>
<td>[yaːv]</td>
<td>/hæv/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>has</td>
<td>[yaːz]</td>
<td>/hæz/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hear</td>
<td>[iʃər]</td>
<td>/hər/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hall</td>
<td>[aːl]</td>
<td>/həl/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hot</td>
<td>[aːt]</td>
<td>/hɔt/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>andy</td>
<td>[yɛndi]</td>
<td>/hændi/</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### B) Errors in vowels: [ɔː] is pronounced as /aː/

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>English words</th>
<th>Pronounced form</th>
<th>Correct form</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>hall</td>
<td>[haːl], [aːl]</td>
<td>/hoːl/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ball</td>
<td>[baːl]</td>
<td>/boːl/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>on</td>
<td>[aːn]</td>
<td>/ɑːn/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>of</td>
<td>[aːn]</td>
<td>/ɑːn/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>often</td>
<td>[aːfen]</td>
<td>/ɑːfən/</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table : 12c

#### 2.3.4 Teaching pronunciation and the need for proper pronunciation:

Pronunciation is a very important component of speaking skill. Without proper pronunciation, which should be somewhat similar to but not necessarily identical to native performance, second or foreign language users of English will not be able to communicate accurately.

It is possible to communicate the information and one’s intent without elegant pronunciation. However, such communication would be inadequate or could even lead to miscommunication. Moreover, if we allow this to happen all the time and if we do not insist on certain standards of pronunciation, there is a danger that the students would be “led to a permanent plateau of pidgin from which very few emerge” (Bowen et al. 1985).

It is to be remembered that pronunciation lends accuracy to the message conveyed. It is also to be remembered that if the learner’s pronunciation is “very poor”, a concept which needs to be clarified and specified in context, s/he will have great difficulty in communicating orally with native speakers of English. The student may have excellent skills in writing and reading, but if his pronunciation is very poor, he will not be seen to be proficient in English. Native speakers of English often tend to be
generous towards the second/foreign learners of English. Consequently there is always the danger that poor pronunciation may be equated to a lack of expertise.

2.3.4.1 Modeling proper pronunciation:

The teacher who asks students to listen and imitate her has often taught Pronunciation through modeling. She corrects the pronunciation, possibly then and there, and asks students to listen and imitate her pronunciation through graded presentation of words, phrases and sentences. Minimal pairs of words such as bit, beat, hit:heat are used to develop correct pronunciation. These may be followed by phrases and sentences for proper sentence melody practice.

More often than not, the teacher expects a native-like pronunciation from her students, which the adult students often find impossible to achieve. Ultimately such a teacher is forced to settle for a level of pronunciation which may be understood without much effort by the native speakers, even though it is heavily accented!

2.3.4.2 Factors which influence pronunciation:

Experience tells us that individuals differ from one another as to their ability to pronounce English correctly. Teachers of TESOL have identified at least six factors. These are: 1. The influence of the learner’s native language. 2. The learner’s age. 3. The learner’s exposure to English – length and intensity of exposure. 4. The learner’s innate phonetic ability. 5. The learner’s attitude and sense of identity. 6. The learner’s motivation and concern for good pronunciation (Celce-Murcia and Goodwin 1991:137).

The socio-economic class of the learner, whether he comes from a family in which members already know and use some English, and whether there are opportunities available in the community to continue to practice English outside the classroom, may also have an impact upon the level of proficiency attained in the pronunciation of English. The socio-political attitudes towards learning and teaching English that prevail in the nation appear to influence the performance of students in the rural areas.

2.3.4.3 Goal of teaching pronunciation:
Most teachers do not aim at imparting “perfect” pronunciation. Even native-like pronunciation is not insisted upon in all contexts. Teachers have recognized that it takes a lot of time to master “perfect” pronunciation and that the results are not often worth the time and effort.

When mature students try seriously to imitate a foreign pronunciation model, and when the expertise is available to offer technical assistance, they will demonstrate the physical capacity for a quite satisfactory production. But the minute the students’ attention is diverted to the content of the message, the pronunciation control loosens, and native language influence reappears to produce a heavy speech accent . . . For most adult students a reasonable goal is the ability to communicate orally with ease and efficiency, but without expecting to achieve a competence in pronunciation that would enable them to conceal their own different language background. At the same time it should be possible to achieve a consistent production of the basic contrasts of the sound system, to speak fluently and understandably in a form that requires minimum adjustment on the part of one’s listeners. And of course students must be capable of understanding native pronunciation under normal circumstances of production, and not require of their interlocutors a special style (Bowen, p.102, in Celce-Murcia, et al. 1979).

2.3.4.4 Time spent on pronunciation practice:

The time devoted to learn pronunciation depends on factors such as “level of instruction, age range of the students, aims of the course, availability of materials, training of teachers, intensity of involvement, interest of students, etc” (Bowen et al. 1985:133).

Availability of time for the course and for the specific class hour is another important factor. If the course is intended only for the development of pronunciation, there will be plenty of time on hand, and the teacher will lead her students through several levels and kinds of materials dealing with structures.

If we spend a lot of time on pronunciation exercises, student interest may dwindle. So, teachers should move on to something else when pronunciation exercises no longer produce noticeable progress. Five to ten minutes of class time per meeting for as long as the need and willingness of the students last - this is a golden rule (Bowen et al. 1985).
2.4 Teacher’s preparation:

The first requirement that a teacher should meet is that she should be familiar with the basic sound system of English. The basic system includes the individual consonants, consonant clusters, vowels, and diphthongs as well as stress, and intonation. It also includes the combinations and the distributional patterns of these elements. The teacher should know what is meant by vowels, consonants, diphthongs, stress, and intonation. It is important for the teacher to be familiar with and able to use either the International Phonetic Alphabet or some modified form of it. This will help her to make some comparison between English sounds and sound patterns with those of the native language of the learners. This will also help her to explain in some graphic details why the learners have difficulty with some sounds and not with others. Again, by using the International Phonetic Alphabet she will be able to demonstrate and make the learners identify the manner and place of articulation of the sounds they have difficulty in producing. Teaching pronunciation involves teaching the articulation of consonants, vowels, and diphthongs used in English. These are called segmental sounds. Teaching pronunciation involves teaching also the use of stress and intonation, called suprasegmental. First of all, familiarize yourself with the parts and uses of speech tract. Then, understand the processes involved in the production of the sounds.

2.4.1 Consonant production:

The teacher should be aware of the processes involved in the production of English consonants. They may be looked at from two angles: manner and places of articulation.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Manners of articulation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Obstruent, Click, Plosive, Ejective, Implosive, Affricate, Fricative, Sibilant, Sonorant, Nasal, Flaps/taps, Trill, Approximant, Liquid, Vowel, Semivowel, Lateral</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In linguistics (articulatory phonetics), manner of articulation describes how the tongue, lips, and other speech organs involved in making a sound make contact. Often the concept is only used for the production of consonants. For any place of articulation, there may be several manners, and therefore several homorganic consonants.
One parameter of manner is *stricture*, that is, how closely the speech organs approach one another. Parameters other than stricture are those involved in the ar sounds (taps and trills), and the sibilancy of fricatives. Often nasality and laterality are included in manner, but phoneticians such as Peter Ladefoged consider them to be independent.

**Stricture:** From greatest to least stricture, speech sounds may be classified along a cline as stop consonants (with occlusion, or blocked airflow), fricative consonants (with partially blocked and therefore strongly turbulent airflow), approximants (with only slight turbulence), and vowels (with full unimpeded airflow). Affricates often behave as if they were intermediate between stops and fricatives, but phonetically they are sequences of stop plus fricative. Historically, sounds may move along this cline toward less stricture in a process called lenition.

**Other parameters:** Sibilants are distinguished from other fricatives by the shape of the tongue and how the airflow is directed over the teeth. Fricatives at coronal places of articulation may be sibilant or non-sibilant, with sibilants more common.

Taps and flaps are similar to very brief stops. However, their articulation and behavior is distinct enough to be considered a separate manner, rather than just length.

Trills involve the vibration of one of the speech organs. Since trilling is a separate parameter from stricture, the two may be combined. Increasing the stricture of a typical trill results in a trilled fricative. Trilled affricates are also known.

Nasal airflow may be added as an independent parameter to any speech sound. It is most commonly found in nasal stops and nasal vowels, but nasal fricatives, taps, and approximants are also found. When a sound is not nasal, it is called oral. An oral stop is often called a *plosive*, while a nasal stop is generally just called a *nasal*.

Laterality is the release of airflow at the side of the tongue. This can also be combined with other manners, resulting in lateral approximants (the most common), lateral flaps, and lateral fricatives and affricates.
Individual manners:

- **Plosive**, or **oral stop**, where there is complete occlusion (blockage) of both the oral and nasal cavities of the vocal tract, and therefore no air flow. Examples include English /p t k/ (voiceless) and /b d g/ (voiced). If the consonant is voiced, the voicing is the only sound made during occlusion; if it is voiceless, a plosive is completely silent. What we hear as a /p/ or /b/ is the effect that the onset of the occlusion has on the preceding vowel, and well as the release burst and its effect on the following vowel. The shape and position of the tongue (the **place** of articulation) determine the resonant cavity that gives different plosives their characteristic sounds. All languages have plosives.

- **Nasal stop**, usually shortened to **nasal**, where there is complete occlusion of the oral cavity, and the air passes instead through the nose. The shape and position of the tongue determine the resonant cavity that gives different nasal stops their characteristic sounds. Examples include English /m, n/. Nearly all languages have nasals, the only exceptions being in the area of Puget Sound and a single language on Bougainville Island.

- **Fricative**, sometimes called **spirant**, where there is continuous frication (turbulent and noisy airflow) at the place of articulation. Examples include English /f, s/ (voiceless), /v, z/ (voiced), etc. Most languages have fricatives, though many have only an /s/.

- **Sibilants** are a type of fricative where the airflow is guided by a groove in the tongue toward the teeth, creating a high-pitched and very distinctive sound. These are by far the most common fricatives. Fricatives at coronal (front of tongue) places of articulation are usually, though not always, sibilants. English sibilants include /s/ and /z/.

- **Lateral fricatives** are a rare type of fricative, where the frication occurs on one or both sides of the edge of the tongue.

- **Affricate**, which begins like a plosive, but this releases into a fricative rather than having a separate release of its own. The English letters "ch" and "j" represent affricates. Affricates are quite common around the world, though less ubiquitous than fricatives.

- **Flap**, often called a **tap**, is a momentary closure of the oral cavity. The "tt" of "utter" and the "dd" of "udder" are pronounced as a flap in North American English. Many linguists distinguish **taps** from **flaps**, but there is no
consensus on what the difference might be. No language relies on such a difference. There are also lateral flaps.

- **Trill**, in which the articulator (usually the tip of the tongue) is held in place, and the airstream causes it to vibrate. The double "r" of kannada "karrage" is a trill. Trills and flaps, where there are one or more brief occlusions, constitute a class of consonant called rhotics.

- **Approximant**, where there is very little obstruction. Examples include English /w/ and /l/. In some languages, such as Spanish, there are sounds which seem to fall between fricative and approximant.

- One use of the word **semivowel** is a type of approximant, pronounced like a vowel but with the tongue closer to the roof of the mouth, so that there is slight turbulence. In English, /w/ is the semivowel equivalent of the vowel /u/, and /l/ (spelled "y") is the semivowel equivalent of the vowel /i/ in this usage. Other descriptions use semivowel for vowel-like sounds that are not syllabic, but do not have the increased stricture of approximants. These are found as elements in diphthongs. The word may also be used to cover both concepts.

- **Lateral approximants**, usually shortened to lateral, are a type of approximant pronounced with the side of the tongue. English /l/ is a lateral. Together with the rhotics, which have similar behavior in many languages, these form a class of consonant called liquids.

**Broader classifications**

Manners of articulation with substantial obstruction of the airflow (plosives, fricatives, affricates) are called obstruents. These are prototypically voiceless, but voiced obstruents are extremely common as well. Manners without such obstruction (nasals, liquids, approximants, and also vowels) are called sonorants because they are nearly always voiced. Voiceless sonorants are uncommon, but are found in Welsh and Classical Greek (the spelling "rh"), in Tibetan (the "lh" of Lhasa), and the "wh" in those dialects of English which distinguish "which" from "witch".

Sonorants may also be called resonants, and some linguists prefer that term, restricting the word 'sonorant' to non-vocoid resonants (that is, nasals and liquids, but not vowels or semi-vowels). Another common distinction is between stops (plosives and nasals) and continuants (all else); affricates are considered to be both, because they are sequences of stop plus fricative.
Other airstream initiations

All of these manners of articulation are pronounced with an airstream mechanism called pulmonic egressive, meaning that the air flows outward, and is powered by the lungs (actually the ribs and diaphragm). Other airstream mechanisms are possible. Sounds which rely on some of these include:

**Ejectives**, which are *glottalic egressive*. That is, the airstream is powered by an upward movement of the glottis rather than by the lungs or diaphragm. Plosives, affricates, and occasionally fricatives may occur as ejectives. All ejectives are voiceless.

**Implosives**, which are *glottalic ingressive*. Here the glottis moves downward, but the lungs may be used simultaneously (to provide voicing), and in some languages no air may actually flow into the mouth. Implosive oral stops are not uncommon, but implosive affricates and fricatives are rare. Voiceless implosives are also rare.

**Clicks**, which are *velaric ingressive*. Here the back of the tongue is used to create a vacuum in the mouth, causing air to rush in when the forward occlusion (tongue or lips) is released. Clicks may be oral or nasal, stop or affricate, central or lateral, voiced or voiceless. However, English has a click in its "tsk tsk" (or "tut tut") sound, and another is used to say "giddy up" to a horse.

---

**Figure: 1 Places of articulation**

Places of articulation (passive & active):

In articulatory phonetics, the place of articulation (also point of articulation) of a consonant is the point of contact, where an obstruction occurs in the vocal tract.
between an active (moving) articulator (typically some part of the tongue) and a passive (stationary) articulator (typically some part of the roof of the mouth). Along with the manner of articulation and phonation, this gives the consonant its distinctive sound.

**Types of articulation:** A place of articulation is defined as both the active and passive articulators. For instance, the active lower lip may contact either a passive upper lip (bilabial, like [m]) or the upper teeth (labiodental, like [f]). The hard palate may be contacted by either the front or the back of the tongue. If the front of the tongue is used, the place is called retroflex; if back of the tongue ("dorsum") is used, the place is called "dorsal-palatal", or more commonly, just palatal.

There are five basic active articulators: the lip ("labial consonants"), the flexible front of the tongue ("coronal consonants"), the middle/back of the tongue ("dorsal consonants"), the root of the tongue together with the epiglottis ("radical consonants"), and the larynx ("laryngeal consonants"). These articulators can act independently of each other, and two or more may work together in what is called coarticulation.

The passive articulation, on the other hand, is a continuum without many clear-cut boundaries. The places linguolabial and interdental, interdental and dental, dental and alveolar, alveolar and palatal, palatal and velar, velar and uvular merge into one another, and a consonant may be pronounced somewhere between the named places.

In addition, when the front of the tongue is used, it may be the upper surface or blade of the tongue that makes contact ("laminal consonants"), the tip of the tongue ("apical consonants"), or the under surface ("sub-apical consonants"). These articulations also merge into one another without clear boundaries.

Consonants that have the same place of articulation, such as alveolar [n, t, d, s, z, l] in English, are said to be homorganic. A homorganic nasal rule is a case where the point of articulation of the initial sound is assimilated by the last sound in a prefix.
Table of active articulations and places of articulation

Places of articulation

Labial, Bilabial, Labial-velar, Labial-alveolar, Labiodental, Coronal,
Linguolabial, Interdental, Dental, Alveolar, Apical, Laminal, Postalveolar,
Alveolo-Palatal, Retroflex, Dorsal, Palatal, Labial-palatal, Velar, Uvular,
Uvular-epiglottal, Radical, Pharyngeal, Epiglottio-pharyngeal, Epiglottio-
pharyngeal, Epiglottal, Glottal

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Active gesture</th>
<th>Active + passive place of articulation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Labial</td>
<td>Bilabial</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Labiodental</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coronal</td>
<td>Laminal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Linguolabial</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Interdental</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Laminal dental</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Laminal denti-alveolar</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Laminal alveolar</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Laminal postalveolar (&quot;retroflex&quot; #1)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| Domed consonant| Domed consonant post alveolar ("palato-
| (partially palatalized) | alveolar")                              |
| Palatalized    | Palatalized post alveolar ("alveolo-
|                |   palatal")                            |
| Apical         | Apical dental                          |
|                | Apical alveolar                        |
|                | Apical post alveolar ("retroflex" #2)  |
| Sub-apical     | Sub-apical (pre)palatal ("retroflex" #3)|
| Dorsal         | Prepalatal                             |
### List of places where the obstruction may occur

- **Bilabial**: between the lips
- **Labiodental**: between the lower lip and the upper teeth
- **Linguolabial consonant**: between the front of the tongue and the upper lip
- **Dental**: between the front of the tongue and the top teeth
- **Alveolar consonant**: between the front of the tongue and the ridge behind the gums (the alveolus)
- **Postalveolar consonant**: between the front of the tongue and the space behind the alveolar ridge
- **Retroflex**: in "true" retroflexes, the tongue curls back so the underside touches the palate
- **Palatal**: between the middle of the tongue and the hard palate
- **Velar**: between the back of the tongue and the soft palate (the velum)
- **Uvular**: between the back of the tongue and the uvula (which hangs down in the back of the mouth)

(All of the above may be nasalized, and most may be lateralized.)

- **Pharyngeal**: between the root of the tongue and the back of the throat (the pharynx)
- **Epiglottopharyngeal**: between the epiglottis and the back of the throat

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Radical</th>
<th>Upper pharyngeal</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Lower pharyngeal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Epiglottopharyngeal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Ary-)epiglottal</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Laryngeal</th>
<th>Glottal</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

Table: 13
- Epiglottal: between the aryepiglottal folds and the epiglottis
- Glottal: at the glottis

**Nasals and laterals**

- **In nasals**, the velum is lowered to allow air to pass through the nose (technically a place, but generally considered as a manner of articulation)
- **In laterals**, the air is released past the tongue sides and teeth rather than over the tip of the tongue. English has only one lateral, /l/, but many languages have more than one, e.g. English written "l" vs. "ll"; Kannada with dental, palatal, and retroflex laterals;

### 2.4.1.1 Vowel production:

The teacher should also have a good knowledge of the processes involved in the production of vowels in English. Vowels pose greater difficulty to the second or foreign language learners of English, especially because of certain complex relations between them, stress, and the production of diphthongs.

In the production of a vowel sound there is no interruption whatsoever of the airflow in the speech tract and there is no audible friction either.

Four criteria are generally employed in the identification and description of vowels. 1. Lip rounding/unrounding, that is, the kind of opening made at the lips, the degrees of lip rounding or spreading. 2. Tongue height, that is, the extent to which the tongue rises in the direction of the palate. 3. The part of the tongue that is raised: front, center, or back. 4. The position of the soft palate which is raised for the production of oral vowels, and which is closed for the production of nasalized vowels (Crystal 1987:153).

It is also important to note whether a vowel is tense or lax and whether a vowel is accompanied by another vowel-like sound, which together forms a diphthong. In some cases it is important to note the length of the vowel produced.

### 2.4.1.2 Teaching Supra-segmental phonology in English:

The teaching of supra-segmental phonology is done very badly worldwide, even
by native speakers. The sad truth is that very few teachers know how to handle it, even if they are aware of the problem.

The first rule for teaching this stuff is that we can't really do it analytically. It is just too complex. Rhythm, intonation, and stress-timing are best learned by imitation done frequently for a short time (every day!) The teaching style should be brisk, humorous and ready to adapt instantly to handle individual difficulties.

One tool for learning rhythm, intonation and stress-timing is shadow talking. This is a big topic to explore in itself, but basically involves intense concentration, and an attempt to talk at exactly the same time, and to the same speech template, as a model speaker. Shadow talking is mimicking raised to an art form. We have to tape record two or three minutes of the speech of a speaker we admire. Figure out the meaning first, so we don't have to worry about that while we are practising intonation. Finally, shadow talks the speaker again and again and again, every day for a few minutes. We have to forget our own personality. BECOME the other speaker, like an actor. We should not be discouraged! Most people give up quickly. If we persist, we can become very skilled at shadow talking. It is one of the few known ways to master native speaker intonation.

2.4.2 Strategies for the correction of pronunciation [problems of over correction]:

Paulston and Bruder (1976) suggest the following: Correct errors immediately at single word drilling phase. Correct the mistakes by modeling and by asking your students to imitate your pronunciation. In conversational exchanges, correct errors only on particular teaching points. Correct those items, which interfere with comprehensibility, and overlook other mistakes. Judge content and form separately. Correct carefully without reducing motivation and self-image of the adult learners.

Doff (1988) identifies three approaches to error correction practiced by teachers.

1. “I never let my students make mistakes. If they say anything wrong, I stop them and make them say it correctly. I don’t want them to learn bad English from each other.” This approach focuses more on errors of students than on what they do correctly. This approach hampers developing fluency in English, for committing mistakes is an integral part of any learning activity.
Currently it is agreed that the errors committed by the students should be considered as an indication of what we still need to teach.

2. “I correct students sometimes, but not all the time. If we’re practicing one particular language point, then I insist that they say it correctly. But if we’re doing a freer activity then I try not to correct too much. If I do correct, I try to do it in an encouraging way.”

3. “I try to correct errors as little as possible. I want my students to express themselves in English without worrying too much about making mistakes. Sometimes I notice points that everyone gets wrong, and deal with them later – but I never interrupt students to correct them.”

Presently, “most teachers would agree . . . that we need to correct some errors, to help students learn the correct forms of the language . . . But this does not mean that we have to correct students all the time – if we do, it might make them unwilling or unable to say anything at all” (Doff 1988:188).

Doff further gives the following suggestions. “As far as possible, encourage the students, focussing on what they have got right, not on what they have got wrong. Praise students for correct answers, and even for partly correct answers; in this way, they will feel they are making progress. Avoid humiliating students or making them feel that making a mistake is ‘bad’. Correct errors quickly; if too much time is spent over correcting errors, it gives them too much importance and holds up the lesson” (Doff 1988:190).

It is to be remembered that our ultimate goal in pronunciation and speaking practice is developing fluency with comprehensibility.

2.5 Indian English morphology:

Indian English morphology is very creative and it is filled with new terms and usages. Indian English uses compound formation extensively, as in English-speaking classes or convent-going. The compounds cousin-brother and cousin-sister allow the Indian English speaker to designate whether their cousin is male or female -- a function that is inherent in the terminology of most Indian languages. Others include chalk-piece, key-bunch, meeting notice, age barred, and pin-drop silence. Indians also pluralize many English mass nouns and end up with words such as litters, furnitures, and woods (Trudgill & Hannah, pp. 129-130). Sometimes words, which should be pluralized, are not; for example, S.Shah says, "One of my relative". A quintessential Indian English term, which comes from compound formation, is time-pass, which denotes something as
non-exciting, as in "That movie was real time-pass." It can also indicate the act of passing time without a specific purpose or motivation.

Indians also shorten many words to create commonly used terms. Enthusiasm is called enthu; as such, it can be used in new ways. One can say, "That guy has a lot of enthu." While this is simply an abbreviation, enthu can also be used as an adjective where enthusiasm cannot, as in "He’s a real enthu guy." The same applies for fundamentals, which is shortened as fundas. "She knows her fundas." What is interesting about fundas is that when the -as ending is dropped and -u is added, it takes on a new meaning and can be used in a new way. Fundu basically means wonderful or brilliant. One can say "He is a fundu person" or even "He is fundu."

When bringing Indian words into English, terms such as roti (bread), which are already plural, will be pluralized for English by the addition of -s (rotis). English suffixes are also appended to Indian terms. An example which was brought up in the first discussion is the practice in Bombay of adding -fy to a Hindi word to indicate that an action is being done to someone by someone. From the Hindi word muska, to muskafy means to flatter somebody or to butter them up. Similarly, to pataofy is the action of wooing someone. Other suffixes such as -ic (Upanishadic), -dom (cooliedom), and -ism (goondaism) (Gandhism) are used to create new usages for Indian terms. Prefixes can also be used in new ways. In Indian English, pre- is substituted for post- in postpone to create prepone, which indicates, for example, that a meeting has been moved to a sooner time.

2.5.1 Morphological error analysis data:

Strategy of Intra Lingual Transfer: The learners adopt the strategy of intra lingual transfer wherever they find irregularities in the rules of target language.

A] For instance, the students had the tendency to add simply ’s’ to all singular nouns whenever the need for the use of plural arises.

The following errors are identified while speaking in English by students.

Examples;

1) Childs for children, 2) sheeps for sheep, 3) peoples for people, 4) fishes for fish, 5) womens for women, 6) Mans for men, 7) oxes for oxen
B] The other errors committed by the students were, they had not used the plural forms wherever it was necessary:

Eg: 1] I have two brother, 2] I have two sister

C] Errors in using possessive nouns and plural forms of nouns

Eg: 1] My father name is Nagraj, 2] In our school teacher are teaching well.

3] I took two day leaves.

D] Another strategy, in the area of morphology, adopted by the learner is anological creation. For instance, as far as English is concerned, the suffix 'ed' is mostly used while changing the verb into a past tense form. But, certain verbs are exceptional to this rule.

For example: buy – bought, see – saw, go – went,

The learners have acquired the uniform change, namely, adding - 'ed' to the verb while making a present form as past form. But the exceptions are not properly learned or even after learning, they have difficulty in using them appropriately. As a result, the above mentioned words in English are conjugated by following the general rule of adding the past tense marker - 'ed' with the basic present tense form. Thus, the terms produced by the students are as follows.

| buyed for bought | seed for saw | runned for ran | gived for gave | goed for went | putted for put |

68% of the students have adopted intra lingual strategy such as over generalizing plural suffix 's' 'es' as well as past tense marker 'ed' where they are not required as indicated in the above examples.

2.5.2 Teaching the spoken language:

A] Words to teach: We have to decide which words to include in our language teaching? Perhaps we should aim at teaching the most useful words
for the learner, as well as the most frequently used words in English. However it is very difficult to strike a balance between the two.

Since frequency counts depend upon the topics of passages, etc., frequency count alone will not be of much use. Fortunately for us, scholars have come up with several lists of important and most useful content words as well as functional words in English. These words are used in most textbooks. Most of the teaching materials at the beginner's level revolve around these identified words. If we could choose those textbooks, which seem to match our interests and skills in teaching and the needs of our students, then we can follow the suggestions given in the textbook. That is, it may be a safe bet often to follow the order, arrangement, and presentation of words in a textbook, making improvisations wherever necessary. In deciding which words to include in language teaching, it is important to strike a balance between words that are most useful to the learner and the most frequent used words in the English language. This can prove a challenging task. The best choice of textbooks would be those that suit the interests and skills of teachers and the needs of students.

Freeman Twaddell recommended that vocabulary skills will develop if students are encouraged to guess the meaning of unfamiliar words. He also recommended that the teachers should tolerate some vagueness of meaning where precision is not absolutely needed.

Content words are innumerable and are used to meet the needs of the context. Addition to the lists of content words can always be made. On the other hand, the structure words are few and additions to these words are not permissible.

Students learn the structure words when they begin to use the content words in larger units in appropriate sentence and social contexts. Structure words are more frequently used, whereas the use of the content words will depend upon the frequency of the field in which it is used. Students add to the content word list as they are exposed to new environments.

2.5.2.1 Active and passive vocabulary:

Textbooks tend to introduce the basic English words in the beginning level of instruction. Basic vocabulary consists of all the vocabulary items that are found in daily use in listening, speaking, reading, and writing contexts of the native speakers of English. It excludes all the items not found in the every day language activity. Thus the most frequent words that occur in the daily language
activities are the basic vocabulary of English. Moreover it is generally assumed that the basic vocabulary consists only of the root words and not their derivatives.

A distinction is often made between active and passive vocabulary used by the native speakers of English. The teachers as well as the textbook writers should make use of this distinction in classroom practice and in writing lessons and exercises.

The active vocabulary is defined as the number of words we actually use. The passive vocabulary refers to the larger number of vocabulary able to be understood, but only rarely used. Scholars have defined the active vocabulary as the one, which is learned very intensively with respect to form, meaning and use in such a way that the learner will be able to use it in all the listening, speaking, reading, and writing activity.

In contrast, the passive vocabulary is the one, which is understood by the students in a spoken, or written context but the student cannot reproduce the same independently. Some words will be taught as active vocabulary, and some others will be treated only as passive vocabulary.

Recognition vocabulary is defined as the one, which is recognized or identified in listening or reading responses. The reproduction vocabulary is identified either in actual spoken or written responses.

Teachers may or may not make much of these distinctions. They may give the meanings for all the words they are about to introduce. The distinction between active and passive vocabulary is bound to be established sooner or later in the speech habits of the student. In order to use the class time efficiently and economically to the best advantage of the learner, teachers would do well if they gave more exercises for the use of the “active” vocabulary.

The teacher presents a lesson, making use of a situation appropriate to the course design and to the particular group of students. The vocabulary is introduced in meaningful contexts, but leaves the students to make their own active/passive choices through focus or lack of focus on particular words. “The words in a student’s passive vocabulary, when the need for them arises, will move into the active vocabulary. Some movement from the active to the passive, can be expected as students learn more words and don’t consistently review older ones” (Bowen et al. 1985).
2.5.2.2 Using the words for communication:

“Understanding, hearing, and seeing a word are only first steps towards knowing it. Those first steps should be followed by activities that require students to use the new words for communication. ... the emphasis has been on experiences, which require students to use English words for communication. ... the new words are used for making something happen. (An action is performed, or a picture is drawn, according to directions that are given in English.) In other activities, English is used for giving and receiving information. For instance, students find out, by using English, what a classmate is doing or they guess which pictures a classmate has drawn. The instructional value of such activities is this: when someone has to accomplish something which can be done only by using certain words, those words will be learnt” (Allen 1983:42).

It is useful to collect pictures which may be displayed in the classroom. Collect and group these pictures showing different kinds of animals, usage of flash cards, vehicles, vegetables, furniture, buildings, occupations, etc. Write below the names of these objects/events/actions. Give the words to students and ask them collect pictures for the words.

It is to be remembered that words are learned not only through a formal introduction in a lesson in the classroom but also through reading and conversations/interactions with the native speakers as well as other users of English as a second/foreign language. The lessons given to students for extensive reading should use simple structures and use only those words already known to the learners. A few words, however, may be introduced here and there without affecting the comprehension of the text. Some have suggested that one or two new words out of one hundred words would be a good proportion.

Use of the words appropriately:

Teachers have to recognize the fact that communicating the meaning of a new word is different from learning it to use appropriately. To establish the words in the learner, it is important to repeat the newly introduced words in as many contexts as possible within the classroom, the textbook, and the exercises.

Nation (1994:vi) suggests repetition in several ways: “by setting aside class time for revision, for example reviewing learners’ vocabulary notebooks, by periodically and systematically testing previously met vocabulary and following up on the results and by planning the recycling of previously met vocabulary through pair and group activities.”
Using the newly introduced vocabulary in various contexts will help answer questions such as “As what part of speech can it function? What range of meanings can it have? What is its core meaning? What prefixes and suffixes can it take? With what other words does it collocate? What grammatical patterns does it fit into? What particular positive and negative associations does it have? Is it a frequently word or an infrequently used word?” (Nation 1994:viii). Many other questions concerning the socio-linguistic appropriateness of the use of the words will also get clarified.

Lexical study should include the pieces that make up words: prefixes, suffixes, stems, inflectional patterns, derivational patterns, enough information for the student to be able to associate the im- of “improbable” or the ir- of “irregular” with the in- of “inadequate” word families (sign, design, signature, assign, designate, etc.).

2.5.2.3 The way to acquire more words:

One way to learn the meaning of unfamiliar words is to observe how they are used and make intelligent guesses. Over time the guesses are refined and the meaning comes to be specific. As Nation (1994:viii) points out, “in addition to learning new vocabulary, learners need to be able to use strategies to cope with unknown vocabulary met in listening or reading texts, to makeup for gaps in productive vocabulary in speaking and writing, to gain fluency in using known vocabulary, and to learn new words in isolation.”

Another good way is to ask about one’s surroundings, requesting from friends and acquaintances identifications and definitions.

Quite a few exercise types are found in the commercial textbooks aimed at teaching English as a second or foreign language, which helps us to teach and learn words in a graded manner.

Carefully one has to go through these exercises found in series such as Hello English and “Success English”. One has to make use of these exercises every day in the classroom.

2.5.2.4 Some vocabulary exercises:

The following are as additional exercises. These are taken from Bowen et al. (1985):
• Pick out things you see around you, and ask what they are, what they are called, what they are used for, etc. This helps direct vocabulary building. Preferably things you don’t know or don’t recognize.

• Phrasal Verbs: Listen carefully to each sentence. Then paraphrase the sentence by substituting an appropriate phrasal verb for the single verb (or vice versa). (He arose 10 minutes later: He got up 10 minutes later; He ascended to the second floor: He went up to the second floor).

• Picture-cued responses: Describe the activities pictured in the following drawings.

• Noun compounds and noun phrases: From the clue you will be given, produce an appropriate response that distinguishes a compound from a phrase (a store that sells toys: a toy store; a box to keep firewood in: the wood box; a pin to hold your necktie: a tie pin; a toy in the form of a store: a toy store).

Shortened forms: The teacher will set up a sentence frame, and then will suggest a substitute for the first word. When called on, the student produces the sentence as modified by the substitution.

• Literal acronyms: Pronounce the acronyms by giving the names of the letters that make each up. Then finish the sentence by giving the equivalent full form.

Nicknames: As the teacher presents a series of names, make statements following the pattern given

2.5.2.5 Learning the spoken language:

Asking and answering questions: To get a second/foreign language learner to speak English, we may just ask the student to speak, ask him to say something in English. We can even tell him what to say. He may or may not understand the meaning of the utterances he is asked to produce, but he will imitate what we tell him to repeat.

Another way is to ask the student a question. He will try to answer if he realizes that he is being asked to answer a question. For this, he should understand what the question is, and he should have some mastery over the English phonology, grammar, and lexicon necessary to frame an appropriate answer. This is a more difficult task.

Asking and answering questions is an essential part of teaching, learning, and using any language. Asking questions and eliciting answers may be used
for various purposes. First of all, asking questions enables the student to practice what he has learnt. Secondly, you may ask questions to find whether the student understands the new vocabulary and the structures, and whether he is able to use them appropriately.

As Bowen et al. (1985) points out, “Successful learners should be able to produce their thoughts in a way that will make their message accessible to native speakers of English who have no special training in linguistics or in the native language of the speaker.” We can be good speakers if we do not attract the attention of our listeners to how we say something, but to what we say. If we attract our speaker to what we have to say rather than how we say it.

It is to be remembered also that our goal in teaching speaking in English is not developing accuracy of pronunciation. There are several, almost insurmountable, problems that an adult second or foreign learner of English will face if he or she aims at perfect pronunciation like a native speaker of English. It is not accuracy of pronunciation but adequacy of fluency and communicative effectiveness that becomes the focus of speaking skill. Gradually and step by step one can proceed in this direction.

Despite a heavy accent, if the speech of a second/foreign language learner can be comprehended by a native speaker of English without forcing the native speaker to speak in shorter sentences than he normally does, with greater repetition and paraphrase of what he says for the benefit of the second language learner, we may consider the second or foreign language learner to have adequate efficiency in English speech. However, this is only an impressionistic evaluation, at the mechanical level of speaking. Speaking skill in English includes more than adequacy of pronunciation, as already pointed out. The ultimate goal of the speaking skill in English is to enable the learner to communicate his or her thoughts, ideas, and feelings via oral language to meet his or her needs a little smoother.

1] **Imitation and repetition:** Imitation and repetition are important elementary steps in developing speaking skills in English. Imitation and repetition are inter-related, and yet they are distinct because we know that children acquire their L₁ only through imitation. Second language learning process should be done through imitation.

Imitation helps students to pronounce and produce the English utterance they hear from the teacher as closely as possible to the utterance produced. Imitation is not restricted to mere production of the sounds, phrases, and
sentences. It includes also the capacity to produce the utterances in the contexts they were originally produced.

On the other hand, repetition refers to the acts of producing the utterances in as close a manner as possible to the original. Repetition leads to automatic reproduction of the utterance, and, in the process, some sort of memorization of the sound or structure practiced takes place through repetition.

It is to be noted however, that neither imitation nor repetition results in the mastery of any language. These are important steps in practicing the language material, but these should not become the focus of the learning process in the classroom, because ultimately the speaker is expected to know English in novels, poetry, drama and etc., to meet his or her needs and get perfected in the primary skills.

Some of the imitation and repetition exercises may be organized in the following manner: Present some simple sentence, phrase, or word and ask students to repeat it. If we want them to understand and repeat a conversation, we can tell the questions and the answers and have the students repeat the latter, or perhaps both, signaling the meaning in some way. The meaning can be demonstrated with realia (real objects brought into the classroom), pictures, gestures, or translating.

The teacher may use pictures, gestures, translation, guessing, and drawing on the board to make the students understand the meaning. It is important that we use only meaningful words, phrases, and sentences for imitation and repetition. The props we use to explain or demonstrate the meaning should enable the student to learn the meaning with ease, along with the pronunciation.

We should ask students to repeat the utterance several times. Some learning takes place through repetition, and the student begins to see patterns at different levels. He may form some hypotheses as to the order of occurrence of sounds in a word, words in a phrase, or a sentence. He may begin to distinguish between statements and questions. He may generalize from what he has been exposed to, and form even new sentences based on what he has repeated so far. He may begin to substitute new words in place of the old in the sentences he has repeated and form new sentences.

In the initial phase of learning and teaching English, repetition and imitation serve to make students familiar with the sounds and structures, get the attention and interest of the students, and focus their effort in the learning process.
However, if these are stressed continually, or made as the main process of learning, these soon become boring events, and do not contribute to the real learning of English. Naturally, the student will commit many errors at first. His/her pronunciation may not be appropriate, or s/he may not have reproduced all the elements or units of a word, phrase, or sentence. He will be hampered or guided by the structure and sounds of his language. However, imitation and repetition will help him to practice producing native-like utterances at the sound level.

2] **Substitution:** Substitution of a word, phrase, or sentence by another is an elementary method, which helps students to produce new utterances and to develop speaking skill.

Students repeat the sentence “This is a ball” several times, and then are given some names of objects such as mat, cat, rat, one after another to substitute in the proper place. In place of this, they may be given that and the students make the substitution and produce a new sentence ‘That is a mat’ and so on. In this way, a sentence frame is practiced first, and then suitable slots in the frame are identified for substitution. When substitution is made, students produce a number of new sentences with ease.

The substitution drill has been used very much by teachers in the past. Although the substitution drill is highly useful for the production of new sentences, it is of limited value (like imitation and repetition) and may not be used as the chief means to develop speaking skill.

Substitution of sounds in minimally different words is a common practice in listening exercises to develop auditory discrimination of sounds. Substitution of one word or phrase by another in the same slot in a frame is a common practice in speaking exercises at the beginners’ level.

From single word substitution, one may proceed to multiple word substitution in the same slot, without making grammatical changes in the frame:

- This is a pencil: This is a table, [school, book]

Consider the following:

- Let’s go to the cinema. (Theater)
- Let’s go to the theater (library).
- Let’s go to the library (football).
- Let’s play football (hockey).
Let’s play hockey (pizza).
Let’s eat pizza (milk).
Let’s drink milk. (Coffee)

Likewise it is possible to proceed to multiple word substitution in the same slot, which necessitates making some grammatical changes in the frame: This is a cat (cats): These are cats, this was a classroom (classrooms): These were students.

Substitution drills can be made more complex as students learn more structures and words. Combining the substitution drill with processes of addition, deletion and transposition of words/phrases makes these more complex and challenging to students.

**3] Day to day expressions:** There are 2 types of expressions through which one can have mastery over the language a] stereo type b] phatic communication. Expressions of greeting, gratitude, small talk, introductions and making acquaintance, leave-taking, appreciation, expressions of regret and asking to be excused, etc., are very important communicative acts students need to master. For one thing, such expressions may take on different form and importance in English than the ones students are accustomed to in their language and culture.

These expressions include, among others, Good morning. How are you? Fine, Thanks, Hello, How do you do?, and Good-bye. These are learned as they are, with some explanation as to their meaning. The units of these constructions cannot be substituted.

The students may be asked to memorize them and practise using them appropriate for example; Good morning, good afternoon, good evening, good day, good night, etc. You should model their pronunciation and use in appropriate contexts and give students repeated practice so that they can incorporate these in their exchanges with you and other students in the class.

Sentences the teacher teaches should be framed so that these are useful and extendable to a variety of real situations. As already mentioned, some cultural information needs to be learnt/taught in the use of these expressions. Students may use first names to address one another, but they will be required to use some titles such as Mr. or Mrs. or Dr. when they address adults. They may also use family names to begin with when addressing adults.
Small talk revolves around weather in English. One might begin a conversation with another by commenting on weather. Then one might introduce himself or herself to the other person. Starting a conversation across the fence, in crowded public places waiting for a game to begin, or in such similar contexts is quite common. This is called **phatic communion**.

Such phatic communication does not convey a heavy load of information. It functions as icebreakers, to maintain rapport between people, and to signify friendship or lack of enmity. These expressions do vary from culture to culture. Perhaps teachers of English should learn the phatic communion adopted in the native language of our learners and teach, not only the phatic messages used in native English context, but also incorporate the messages from the culture of the learner as well.

4] **Simple question-answer dialogues**: Simple question-answer dialogues around a given context and object/objects is another elementary method to develop speaking skills in students.

There are three types of questions in English: Yes/No questions, “or” questions, and WH-questions. Consider these questions, which illustrate these types: Do you drink tea? Do you prefer tea or coffee? What do you usually drink? What is this?

Perhaps the easiest question to ask is what is this? Have a number of real objects and pictures of objects with you and ask the question, what is this? While pointing to the object. Supply the name of the object and the answer for the question. Following this model, repeat the question and encourage the students to provide the suitable answer.

From this simple process of starting a dialogue, you may proceed to ask more complex questions. Note that the Yes/No questions are also easy to answer. The “Or” questions need more practice to answer.

To teach a dialogue; There are three types of drills one could use in the class: 1] **Choral drill** in which the entire class participates in one voice with the teacher modeling the utterance; 2] **Chain drill** in which one student asks the question and another answers, and in this way the entire class participates as a chain; and 3] **Individual drill** in which individual students are pointed out and asked to produce the utterance modeled by the teacher.
It is recommend that the teacher starts with some form of choral drill, then proceed to chain drill, and finally ask individual students to answer questions directly (individual drill). The class may be divided into two sections, one section repeating the question and another answering it. If role-play is involved, assign roles to the sections.

The teacher can himself/herself one of the roles among children. It is always fun when the teacher associates herself with some role and assigns the other roles to students. Set up puppets, stick figures on the board, pictures, or even live objects for the roles, and the teacher will go behind each of these and produce their utterances as models (Bowen, et al. 1985). The teacher can create situations and give students some model questions to ask these objects. Through dialogue accommodation we modify the dialogues so that the roles and names in the dialogue are made suitable to the participants.

The question-answer dialogue may take the following format: The teacher may write the example on the board or model the example orally. The students will repeat the model, then the teacher asks questions and the students give answers. The teacher then gives some cues for additional dialogue question-answers. The students ask each other questions. After this has been practiced for some time, the students are encouraged to make up their questions and answers. All these must be done within the limits of words and structures already known to the students.

Long answers are elicited using several strategies. The teacher gives a question and asks for a long and complete answer. What is your name? My name is Susan Madison. A question such as “What do you do in the morning?” generally leads to a long answer. Likewise, a question such as “Tell me about your work” results in a long answer. Questions on the previous lesson generally lead to long answers.

Eliciting long answers helps the student to compose his thoughts in English, search for appropriate words and structures and use them in the appropriate order. This brings out explicitly his grammatical knowledge (knowledge about the structure of English). It is to be noted, however, that in normal conversations long answers are not often expected or given.

As their knowledge of and proficiency in using words and structures increases, the teacher can ask her students to talk about real life, about themselves, their friends, things in the world and so on. The teacher can suggest some imaginary situations or the students themselves may assume an imaginary
situation and engage themselves in conversation. In such free oral practice, the students may be asked to build the content of a dialogue by giving one sentence each (Doff 1988). There will be some initial reluctance on the part of the students, but such reluctance should be overcome.

5] Eliciting: Eliciting is related to presentation of the lesson as well as asking questions. Eliciting is an important process, which teachers must employ to get the class involved in what is going on in the class. For speaking practice eliciting is highly essential. It helps students to focus their attention, to think, and to use what they already know. It helps teachers to assess what the class already knew.

Presentation of a lesson with eliciting questions helps students remember words and structures, and gives them practice right then and there when the word is introduced. This may be used even to test the learning level achieved so far within that particular lesson. For example, one may present words for the different parts of the face. Then it should be followed by eliciting each word by pointing to the feature on one’s face, asking students what it is called, and then how to spell it. If no one knows the answer for a particular item, then black board can be used to write the words.

In straightforward presentation, the teacher gives the word and points to the part, asks the students to repeat, and then writes the word on the board. In presentation with simple eliciting, the teacher presents the words one by one and points to the parts, asks the students to repeat, writes the words on the board, points to the feature and elicits the word for it, and elicits the spelling. It should be noted that, in eliciting, students are actually asked to practice speaking.

One can elicit vocabulary from pictures; one can also elicit sentences and phrases, which give the description of what is depicted in the pictures. One can ask simple and common questions when the teacher shows the pictures to the students. Let the student answer according to each picture. For example, a picture can be shown in which a girl is swimming, and ask the question, what is she doing? Show the picture of a doctor and ask the question, who is this man?

Pictures from previous lessons would be most ideal, for students already would be familiar with the words, phrases, and sentences needed to describe the pictures. How about a story known to your students, which is now given in pictures and the student, is asked to narrate it in English? Picture cues are very helpful in teaching tense in English.
Care should be taken to frame questions in an unambiguous manner and the questions should be such that the students are able to answer without much difficulty.

At least two types of questions may be asked using pictures. In Type 1, the questions relate directly to what is seen in the picture. In Type 2, the questions ask students to imagine and interpret the picture beyond what is seen clearly in it (Doff 1988).

Type 1 Questions: Where is this woman standing? What is she wearing? What is she doing? What is she holding in her hand? What time of day is it?

Type 2 Questions: Why is she standing here? What has happened? How does she feel? Why? What is she thinking? Write some of her thoughts in a few words. Imagine this is a scene from a film. What will happen next?

Type 1 questions elicit important words or structures relating to the picture.

Type 2 Questions, however, ask students to imagine things beyond the picture, and to express possibilities using English. For this the students need to think and compose their thoughts, as well as find appropriate words and structures in English.

6] Speaking through guessing: Guessing is important for listening comprehension. Guessing also is used to develop speaking skill. Through the process of guessing, students are encouraged to see the patterns of usage and to “invent” the correct words and sentences. Students will guess words and sentences that have not yet been taught to them. Through guessing, students work out the rules of deriving new words for themselves.

The teacher writes a few pairs of sentences such as the following on the board (Doff 1988):

He drives buses. ----- He’s a bus driver.
She sells books. --- She’s a bookseller.

Based on these examples, students would guess the correct answers for the following:
Someone who drives trucks (truck driver)
someone who owns ships (ship owner)
someone who robs banks (bank robber)
We can find lots of such sets of words for eliciting. Egypt-Egyptian, Brazil-Brazilian; Russia-Russian, India-Indian; buy-bought, catch-caught, think-thought; leaf-leaves, loaf-loaves, knife-knives, wife-wives; interesting-more interesting, beautiful-more beautiful; sleep-slept, meet-met, feel-felt; short shorter, big bigger.

Mime may be used to encourage students to guess and speak about what is being mimed. The teacher writes an act on a sheet of paper and asks a student to mime what is written on the paper. Other students describe the act as in sentences such as “You are changing a light bulb”; “You are brushing your teeth”; “You are reading a book.”

A number of guessing games have been suggested by Doff (1988) and others to help students to produce sentences, to get the students to speak. One student may pretend to be a famous person demonstrating some characteristic features of that person. It may be physical appearance, dress, gait, posture, etc. Other students are required to guess who that person is by asking questions such as Are you alive? Are you Indian, British, etc.? Are you a writer? Are you a movie actor? Are you a general?

A student may choose a job and mime a typical activity of that job. Other students try to guess the job by asking questions as to whether he is mending a shoe, cooking, is using his stethoscope, etc.

In yet another guessing game, an object is hidden and students are asked to guess the name of the object by asking questions such as, Is it made of wood? Is it a pencil? Is it on this side of the room? Is it high or low? etc.

7] Directed dialogues: In Directed Dialogues, the teacher asks a student to make a comment to, or ask a question of, another student (Bowen et al. 1985). The teacher suggests the content of these remarks: Peter, ask Ann whether she needs some water to drink. Ann, tell Peter that you would like to have a soda.

In such directed dialogues, students must be able to understand what the teacher asks them to do, and then identify the appropriate part of the teacher’s utterance that would become their response, manipulate the grammatical structure suitably, and then produce the correct response.

It is to be noted that this exercise can be used to elicit full sentence statements or questions. This involves comparable adjustment in word order, choice of appropriate pronouns, verbs, and tense, etc.
In this dialogue, the fading of the teacher is more easily done: “Fading involves the withdrawal of the teacher stimulus and participation in an activity as student interest mounts and the activity no longer needs to be sustained by teacher direction. More and more responsibility is passed on to the students” (Bowen, et al. 1985:110).

8] **Show and tell:** In this activity, students are encouraged to bring a favorite toy or object of any kind to class. Encourage the students bring only those objects which they can handle using the level of competence they have. They show their classmates what they have brought. They also tell them about it: how they got it, where it came from, what is it used for or what it can do, etc. Other students handle the object, try it out, ask questions about it, etc.

This provides a good opportunity for self-expression. More often than not, the class would ask WH-questions. The student will also tend to give answers in a form that is possible for him/her to frame.

9] **Role-play:** Role play is perhaps the liveliest form to get the class involved in speaking. Role-play brings situations from real life into the classroom. Students imagine and assume roles. They create a pretend situation, and they pretend to be some different persons.

Once they assume a role the students are forced to improvise and to produce words and sentences appropriate to the situation as well as to the roles they have assumed. Teachers should select the roles beforehand so that the roles to be assumed are familiar and are within the linguistic competence attained until then by the students.

Roles such as friends, brothers, sisters, parents, teachers, shopkeepers, police officers, characters from the textbook and popular television programs have been suggested by Doff (1988) and others. Everyday life situations such as shopping, holidays, camps, local journeys, fables and folktales, etc., have been found very useful. Interviews are yet another excellent situation for role-play.

As Doff (1988) points out, role-play increases motivation. Always talking about real life can become very dull, and the chance to imagine different situations adds interest to a lesson. In addition, role-play gives a chance to use language in new contexts and for new topics.

Students may have difficulty composing their thoughts in English or expressing them coherently, using appropriate grammatical structures and words. Teachers
should give prompts wherever necessary, which would encourage students to
guess and produce utterances appropriately. Role plays help reduce the common
reluctance found among the second language learners in using English because
of fear of committing errors in English. Teachers can improve structure practice
by encouraging students to give a variety of responses, rather than the usual set
responses a situation and a role may demand. The focus of practice should be
on producing a text of related sentences suitable for the role and the situation,
rather than on the production and practice of single sentences.

Role-play involves several students at once and holds the attention of the class,
even as it enables students to be original and produce utterances often on their
own. Begin first with the contexts of familiar stories. Go to local contexts
including market situations, and then to contexts that may be peculiar to the
native English speakers. This activity comes highly recommended. We can try
to include a role-play for every lesson we teach.

10] Use of English in real world: While the role-play gives practice in
using English in situations similar to those outside the classroom, the situations
are still controlled in some sense, because of the presence of the teacher and
other prompts. On the other hand, use of English in the real world may offer
features that are not captured in the classroom pretend situations.

Also, use of English in the real world will demand a competence that solely, if
not wholly, revolves around the student’s attainment of English. Several
community interaction activities are advised in order to develop the speaking
skill in real world situations. Assignments should be given to students, which
will require oral communication between the student and the community. These
assignments must be task-oriented.

For example, these assignments may involve buying a train or bus ticket,
getting information about schedules of trains or buses, transactions with the
“dry cleaners, shoe repairs, self-service laundries, auto repair shops,
employment agencies, fast food establishments, the public library, fire stations,
car wash facilities, state highway patrol, ambulance service, self-storage
facilities, airport transportation, etc.”

It is strongly recommended that contexts are chosen in such a manner that what
is chosen is familiar to students and appropriate to their level of competence in
English. It is to be noted that it is not necessary for all the material culture
facilities of the West to find a place in the English language lessons for the non-
native speakers. If we can find suitable contexts within their own environment
in which the use of English would lead to an appropriate diction and structure in English, these contexts should be preferred first.

As English plays a very crucial and important role in India in all walks of life, the teachers of English should identify situations that are relevant to life in India relating to a variety of professions where English is ordinarily used. And we should use these situations to develop communicative competence in students.

Gathering information from the community is another important way of using English language in the real world. This requires going to the community institutions and getting information about the services they offer. These institutions are many, such as the post office, a bank, a movie theater, the bus company, a car rental office, the International Student House, and so on. Include in it dialogues in a doctor’s office with the nurses and doctor, dialogues in a department store, with a waiter and so on. In all these situations, the student should acquire adequate vocabulary, relevant structure, and socially appropriate usage (Bowen, et al. 1985).

Interviewing native speakers in the classroom is an important exercise that will encourage speech. This will also be an occasion to explain certain cultural constraint one is expected to observe. For example, questions relating to the age, weight, or salary of the interviewee, are not considered appropriate in native English-speaking context.

Another important step in developing speaking skill is to ask and enable students to pass on the information they have collected to other students in the class. This will help students focus on the essentials and compose their thoughts and sentences accordingly.

In the real world, making excuses and getting oneself excused from an activity is a very important skill in the domain of conversation. It requires tact, understanding of the parties involved, concise and convincing explanations, not too much prodding and such other characteristics that would be considered imposition or intrusion, and other socially appropriate usage. There may be differences in this area between practices followed in English-speaking societies and the society of the second language learner. We should learn how excuses are made in an appropriate manner in the language of our students and ask students to imagine such situations in native English-speaking contexts and teach appropriate usage.
Developing abilities to understand the intentions of someone, and to communicate one’s own intentions in a more sophisticated indirect manner, are very much demanded in native English. Recognizing the intentions of the speaker often requires a good linguistic and socio-linguistic sensibility.

It will be difficult to imagine and prepare passages of this type. Suggestion is that we should watch for these passages in the day-to-day conversations we might have had with our friends, in cartoons, and in books, which focus on jokes. Here is a dialogue reported in Bowen, et al. (1985).

Teen-age son: The manager at the used car lot assured me that the Plymouth had only one previous owner, an elderly lady who drove it very little and treated it like a jewel.

Father: That’s a man you can really trust.

Expressing Politeness/Annoyance requires a skill in the manipulation of intonation (tone of voice), as well as in the use of words and expressions. A number of situations may be presented to the class for practice. Students will be given a description of the situation and asked to generate appropriate sentences to the roles they are assigned. While suggesting situations for practice, we should look for the most appropriate contexts for the class. The class should not be expected to know a lot more about the social life of the native English speakers to understand these passages. If a lot of explanation were to be given, the fun in learning these would be lost. We should choose contexts which are easy to recreate and easy to explain. We should choose those contexts, which would not demand complicated structures. And choose those contexts, which would use only those structures which are familiar, and which have been practiced already in the class.

Sometimes it may be necessary to analyze and describe situations to enable the students to understand whether an utterance is a formal one or not, whether it is an informal utterance, rude, neutral, etc. This discussion may be incorporated as part of the introduction the teacher gives to the class before speaking practice of selected utterances begins. Problems in interpersonal relations are easily revealed in linguistic exchanges. Linguistic exchanges reveal the attitude of the participants in the conversation process.

2.5.3.1 Indian English syntax: Kannada syntax affects Indian English syntax in several ways. There is a seemingly arbitrary use of the articles a and the, which do not have parallels in Kannada. Often, one is substituted for a;
for example, S. Shah says "And one black lady...". ‘The’ and ‘a’ are often dropped when they should be said and used when they should be left out. It is not uncommon to hear something like, "We are going to temple." Whether or not these apparent misuses are actually arbitrary would require further study. I suspect they are not. Something, which Indian English has, that is not found in other varieties of English is the use of only and itself to emphasize time and place. It comes from the Kannada word “maatra” and produces sentences like "I was in Bangalore only" and "Can we meet tomorrow itself?" Indian English speakers often use reduplication as a way of emphasizing an action -- I have been told before to "Come come! Sit sit!" Reduplication can also replace very for intensifying or extending something, as in hot, hot water and long, long hair. Such usage is common in spoken Kannada. Another thing Indian English speakers do is leave out when giving a range of numbers. For example: "...two three languages..." This often expresses exaggeration when larger numbers are used, as in "one hundred two hundred."

Certain verbs are used in Indian English in the same way they are used in Kannada. Indians use ha:ku and tege when asking someone to turn a light on or off; the literal translation is retained, so some Indian English speakers say "put light" and "take light." The same is true of giving a test (from the Kannada verb “kodu”) rather than taking a test. Take means consume when used with food and drink items -- "Will you take tea?" The verb “tago” is the Kannada equivalent of this. There is another Kannada-based syntactic element, the tag question, He says, "I like this guy Suhas felt like when he went back, yes no?" This use of ‘no’ (and the expression isn’t it in the same manner) stems from the use of ‘haudalla’ in Kannada.

Indian English speakers often use certain verbs in ways that are confusing to speakers of other English varieties. Keep is used for put, so one finds Indians saying things like "keep the ball there" or "keep the ball back" to a person who is still holding the ball. Leave replaces ‘keep’ is lost function of allowing something to remain somewhere. ‘Put’ is often used without an explicit destination or direction, so an Indian might say, "Shall I put the tape?" or, like "- put an image." “I put a chain” for “I wore a chain”

One of the most indicative signs of Indian English grammar is the use of the progressive aspect with habitual actions, completed actions, and stating verbs. This produces sentences such as "I am doing it often" rather than "I do it often"; "Where are you coming from?" instead of "Where have you come from?"; "and "She was having many sarees” rather than "She had many sarees".
The word order of questions is often unique in Indian English. Sentences such as "What you would like to eat?" and "Who you will come with?" show the absence of subject-verb inversion in direct questions. Here is an example in, "...what is your companion," in which an inversion does not take place where it should. Another aspect of grammar that is often inconsistent is the use of also (a very popular word in Indian English). It can be found in various parts of a sentence, but it tends to be placed at the end, like - "We never even used Kannada word also."

2.5.3.2 Order of acquisition:

Researchers have found a very consistent order in the acquisition of first language structures by children, and this has drawn a great deal of interest from SLA scholars. Considerable scholarship has been devoted to testing the "identity hypothesis," which asserts that first-language and second-language acquisition conform to the same patterns. The equivalence hypothesis has not been confirmed, probably because second-language learners' cognitive and affective states are so much more advanced. However, orders of acquisition in SLA do often resemble those found in first language acquisition, and may have common neurological causes.

Most learners begin their acquisition process with a "silent period," in which they speak very little if at all. In some cases this is a period of language shock, in which the learner actively rejects the incomprehensible input of the new language. However, research has shown that many "silent" learners are engaging in private speech (sometimes called "self-talk"). While appearing silent, they are rehearsing important survival phrases and lexical chunks. These memorized phrases are then employed in the subsequent period of formulaic speech. Some learners, by choice or compulsion, have no silent period and pass directly to formulaic speech. Formulaic speech, in which a handful of routines are used to accomplish basic purposes, is often highly grammatical. It eventually gives way to a more experimental phase of acquisition, in which the semantics and syntax of the target language are simplified and the learners begin to construct a true interlanguage.

The nature of the transition between formulaic and simplified speech is disputed. Some, including Krashen, have argued that there is no cognitive relationship between the two, and that the transition is abrupt. Thinkers influenced by recent theories of the lexicon have preferred to view even native speaker speech as heavily formulaic, and interpret the transition as a process of gradually developing a broader repertoire of chunks and a deeper understanding
of the rules which govern them. Some studies have supported both views, and it is likely that the relationship depends in great part on the learning styles of individual learners.

A flurry of studies took place in the 1970s, examining whether a consistent order of acquisition could be shown for morphological aspects of language. Most of these studies did show fairly consistent orders of acquisition for selected morphemes. For example, among learners of English the cluster of features including the suffix "-ing," the plural, and the copula were found to consistently precede other features such as the article, auxiliary, and third person singular. However, these studies were widely criticized as not paying sufficient attention to the details of acquisition, such as the degree of mastery that learners had gained over a specific feature. More recent scholarship prefers to view the acquisition of each linguistic feature as a gradual and complex process. For that reason most scholarship since the 1980s has focused on the sequence, rather than the order, of feature acquisition.

2.5.3.3 Sequence of acquisition:

A number of studies have looked into the sequence of acquisition of pronouns by learners of various Indo-European languages. These are reviewed by Ellis (1994), pp. 96-99. They show that learners begin by omitting pronouns or using them indiscriminately: for example, using "I" to refer to all agents. Learners then acquire a single pronoun feature, often person, followed by number and eventually by gender. Very little evidence of interference from the learner's first language has been found; it appears that learners use pronouns based entirely on their inferences about target language structure.

Research on the sequence of acquisition of words is exhaustively reviewed by Nation (2001). Research on the sequence of acquisition of pragmatic features, although much more scarce, has been thoroughly examined by Kasper and Rose (2002). In both fields, consistent patterns have emerged and have been the object of considerable theorizing.

2.5.3.4 Variability:

Valid though the interlanguage perspective may be, which views learner language as a language in its own right, this language varies much more than native-speaker language, in an apparently chaotic way. A learner may exhibit very smooth, grammatical language in one context and uninterpretable
gibberish in another. Scholars from different traditions have taken opposing views on the importance of this phenomenon.

Those who bring a Chomskyan perspective to SLA typically regard variability as nothing more than "performance errors," and not worthy of systematic inquiry. On the other hand, those who approach it from a sociolinguistic or psycholinguistic orientation view variability as a key indication of how the situation affects learners' language use. Naturally, most research on variability has been done by those who presume it to be meaningful.

Research on variability in learner language distinguishes between "free variation," which takes place even within the same situation, and "systematic variation," which correlates with situational changes. Of course, the line between the two is often subject to dispute.

Free variation, variation without any determinable pattern, is itself highly variable from one learner to another. To some extent it may indicate different learning styles and communicative strategies. Learners that favor high-risk communicative strategies and have an other-directed cognitive style are more likely to show substantial free variation, as they experiment freely with different forms.

Free variation in the use of a language feature is usually taken as a sign that it has not been fully acquired. The learner is still trying to figure out what rules govern the use of alternate forms. This type of variability seems to be most common among beginner learners, and may be entirely absent among the more advanced.

Systematic variation is brought about by changes in the linguistic, psychological, social context. Linguistic factors are usually extremely local. For instance, the pronunciation of a difficult phoneme may vary based on whether it is to be found at the beginning of a word or the end.

Social factors may include a change in register or the familiarity of interlocutors. In accordance with speech accommodation theory, learners may adapt their speech to either converge with, or diverge from, their interlocutor's usage.

The most important psychological factor is usually taken to be planning time. As numerous studies have shown, the more time that learners have to plan, the more regular and complex their production is likely to be. Thus, learners may
produce much more target-like forms in a writing task for which they have 30 minutes to plan, than they do in conversation where they must produce language with almost no planning at all.

**2.5.3.5 Syntactic error analysis data: [Errors in syntax]**

Sentence avoidance is a strategy adopted by the learners to conceal their linguistic inadequacy. Upon questioning, the student had given one word answer instead of constructing sentence or giving complete answers as mentioned below.

1. What is your father's name?
   
   A] Nagraj [WORD]
   
   B] father –mmm-Shivangauda [phrase]
   
   C] Ganesh my fatheru name.[obj-sub-obj]
   
   D] My father name is Lakshman[name] [s-v-o]
   
   E] My fathers name is nagraj [name] sub-verb-obj]

**2.5.3.6 Error identification [Syntactic Avoidance]:**

Some of the students had answered only in a word for the above question. They are not able to answer in a sentence. So they had answered in a] formate. Some of them remained silent because they were not able to understand simple questions. So when the researcher translated the sentences they were able to understand and reply in kannada. Some answered in the b] formate. Just in a phrase or two words. In certain cases the students use the fillers to conceal the internal process-taking place in the inner minds of them. The fillers may be of the user's expression, which literally do not carry any meaning. The speakers also avail such fillers like mm...uu. Etc., and a sound like mmmm., by which users take time to get the word they search for. Some had answered in the c] format –the structure of the sentence is object-subj-obj and the verb is missing in the sentence. In the d] formate though the structure is correct the possessive noun is wrong. Only the e] format is correct sub- verb- obj

2] What is your father doing?
The samples of answers given by students for the second question are as follows.

2) What is your father doing?

a) farmer---[word]
b) father ----father wyavasaya [phrase]
c) my father farmer.[sub-obj]
d) my father doing farmer [sub-verb-obj]
e) father doing kooli work[
 f) father enundre-----K.E.B.[sub—obj]
g) my father master [sub-obj]
h) my father drivingu [sub-obj]
i) my father ...mmm fish work [sub-obj]
j) farmer doing father [obj-verb-sub]
k) my father is a farmer [sub-verb-article-obj]

Given below are the samples of answers of the students for the 3rd question.

3) Where is your house?

A) Megalpet {word}
B) My house Nagarbenchi [sub-obj]
C) Venkatrayanpete [word]
D) house---house—Manvi[sub-obj]
E) Halepete my house [obj-sub]
F) My house in khilla [obj- preposition- sub]
My house is in Mudgal [name of the place] [sub-verb-preposition-obj]

The sample of answers of the students for the 4th, 5th, and 6th questions

4] What are you doing? sitting [word]
   -sitting-[word]
   -my sitting [phrase]
   -my read [phrase]
   -I study in class [sub-verb-preposition-obj]
   -I am studying in the class [sub-auxiliary verb-verb—object]

5] In which standard are you studying?
   -eight [word]
   -study in eight. [phrase]
   -I studying in eighth [sub—verb-prepo-obj]
   -eighth standard I studying.[obj-sub-verb]
   -my studying in eigth standard [sub-verb-prepo-obj] [wrong pronoun]
   -I am studying in standard eigth [sub –verb –obj]

6] Who teaches you English?
   -Anand sir [word]
   -Teach anand sir [verb-sub]
   -Teach------english -----anand sir [verb-obj-verb]
   -My English--- English --teacher teacher.[obj-sub-verb]
   -[NAME]is teaching us english.

2.5.3.7 Error classification:
40% had answered only in a word. 10% of students didn’t answer at all. 30% had answered only in a phrase. 19% had answered in a sentence and the structure of the sentence is wrong. ONLY 1% had answered correctly in a sentence.

2.5.3.8 Error explanation: In the similar way, students responded to all questions in an epilliptical form. It was evident that they had followed the strategy of sentence avoidance to conceal their linguistic inadequacy. And also it was found that they had not experienced in conversational English. Further, it was identified that about 65% of the students under observation had avoided to form complex as well as even simple sentences in the conversational discourse and that compensated by using one word answers.

2.5.3.9 Teaching structures [Structuralist Applied Grammar]:

Applied linguists and language teachers usually mean by grammar is seldom discussed publicly, much of the evidence for what they mean has to come indirectly from syllabuses, teacher-training manuals, and course books. A conventional notional/functional syllabus sooner or later yields a list of "structures", in the case of the Threshold Level (van Ek and Alexander, 1980) for instance a "structural inventory" that goes in alphabetical order from "A/AN" to "Zero article" for some 39 pages. The usual complement to such inventories are displays that map a column of 'functions' onto a column of 'structures', again profusely illustrated in the Threshold Level.

Identifying demonstrative pronouns ...
identifying demonstrative adjectives ...
personal pronouns ...
declarative sentences ...
short answers...

The underlying assumption is that the grammar of a language consists of a certain fixed number of 'structures'; these discrete items can most conveniently be handled in lists or inventories, unorganized except alphabetically. Individual structures consist of sequences of slots filled with words. Those who adopted the audio-lingual method of language teaching assumed that students learn structures by substituting vocabulary into structural slots; the communicative assumption is that they are learnt as a byproduct of communication. One source of such beliefs seems to be American structuralist grammars such as Fries (1952). But they also draw on the strong British tradition of Palmer (1926), and Hornby (1954). Because of its links with the
structuralist tradition and its distinctive use of the term 'structures' as a countable, let us christen this familiar way of thinking about grammar in applied linguistics Structuralist Applied Grammar, or SAG for short. What after all is wrong with SAG as part of language teaching?

I) Substitution table grammar: Let us start with the substitution table. Palmer (1926) talked about 'ergonic construction' in which the student puts together sentences from 'working units' selected by the teacher, as in his table;

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ich</th>
<th>kann</th>
<th>meinen Stock</th>
<th>heute</th>
<th>nicht</th>
<th>nehmen</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>muss</td>
<td>meinen Bleistift</td>
<td>morgen</td>
<td>sehen</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>soll</td>
<td>Ihren Regenschirm</td>
<td>heute morgens</td>
<td>bringen</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>...</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>...</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Students make up sentences by choosing one of the alternatives in each column. Despite the apparent unfashionableness of such exercises, this grammatical tradition is far from dead in language teaching. To quote Harmer (1983), 'if we slot bits of grammar into this tree or frame, we get a sentence. By changing the bits of vocabulary we get completely different sentences ...' Substitution tables are still frequent in the present generation of course-books such as Opening Strategies (Abbs and Freebairn, 1982) or grammar books such as Bald et al (1986, p.24); an example from Bosewitz (1987, p.65) for instance is:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>She</th>
<th>has</th>
<th>already</th>
<th>left</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>They</td>
<td>have</td>
<td>just</td>
<td>paid</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>am</td>
<td>still</td>
<td>living here</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>We</td>
<td>will</td>
<td>never</td>
<td>learn</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>...</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>...</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Nowadays the use of such tables has shifted ground, being more a graphic display of the grammar than the direct teaching exercise it was formerly. But the grammatical insight is still the same.

Lurking behind the slot and filler idea of 'structures' is a model of grammatical processing in which hearers and speakers process sentences from left to right; each choice they make influences the next one until the end of the sentence is reached. So in Palmer's substitution table, the speaker starts by choosing "Ich" and then decides to utilise a possible noun-phrase such as
"meinen Stock" or "Ihren Regenschirm"; he or she then chooses an item from the next set of possibilities; and so on till the end of the sentence. In terms of the concepts put forward by de Saussure (1916), the speaker is making a paradigmatic choice from the paradigm of possibilities sequentially open at each point of the sentence rather than syntagmatic choices from the possible order of elements in the sentence. Such sequential left-to-right choices is amply illustrated by tables in Krashen and Terrell (1983); it is also present in the popular open dialogue techniques seen in say Opening Strategies (Abbs and Freebairn, 1982) and recommended in Krashen and Terrell (1983). Technically this is a Finite State Grammar in which the mind passes through a series of transitions from one state to another as it progresses from start to finish of the sentence.

The familiar linguistic objections to this picture of grammar go back for generations. One difficulty is the question of discontinuous constituents; producing a question such as "Is he going?" involves a right-to-left relationship in which the choice of "is" depends on the prior choice of the Subject that actually follows it rather than on the usual left-to-right sequence. Another difficulty is the apparent breach of the principle of structure-dependency, which says that all languages depend on structural relations rather than on linear order (Cook, 1988a); substitution tables often violate this by their insistence on linear left-to-right processing of items rather than processing in terms of grammatical constituents. For this, and other reasons, it is inadequate as an account of grammatical knowledge. It is also implausible as a model of learning; Miller and Chomsky (1963, p.430) argued that learning English as a set of transitions from one state to another would mean learning 109 transitions 'in a childhood lasting only 108 seconds'. Left-to-right processing above all ignores the top-to-bottom direction; despite its use of the word "structure" SAG treats the sentence as a sequence of items rather than a structured whole. Most theories of speech production, and indeed most ideas of communicative language teaching, assume that speakers have some overall idea of what they want to say before they start. If I say, "Ich muss Ihren Regenschirm morgen nicht nehmen" (I mustn't take your umbrella tomorrow), it is because there is an overall idea I want to express related to umbrellas, you, and tomorrow. In other words the sequential choices in the substitution table are unreal because a speaker never in reality has to choose arbitrarily between vocabulary fillers for slots in this way. This is not to say that more sophisticated versions of such theories have not been developed, for example Augmented Transition Networks (Woods, 1970) and connectionist theories (Rumelhart & McLelland, 1986); as it stands, however, the SAG model used in applied linguistics does not reflect any coherent contemporary view of
grammar. One of its problems is indeed the transition from an E-language technique for describing data to an I-language grammar for representing knowledge; as a description of actually occurring sentences, a substitution table view of 'structures' may be quite acceptable; the problem comes when claims are made for its psychological reality as knowledge and for its relationship to language processing, both of which may be crucial for its use in language teaching.

Let us turn from the narrow version of SAG seen in the substitution table to its broader implications. A preliminary point is the reliance on structures almost to the exclusion of other grammatical concepts. Grammar to linguists is not just 'structures', but involves relationships such as movement or agreement that link distant parts of the sentence. The word "inventory" used by syllabus designers is peculiarly apt; such lists resemble inventories of totally unrelated items stored in a warehouse rather than the overall links and relationships that grammar is actually concerned with - grammar is an interrelated system of systems, not merely lists of structures arranged in an arbitrary order.

Another familiar objection to lists of structures is their sheer length. SAG contains an indefinite, though large, number of discrete structures. Belasco (1971) once suggested that a student might need some 50,000 'structural features' to master a second language; the first of the six stages in Alexander et al (1975) contains 30 'patterns' with an average of 7 sub-patterns each, which extrapolates to some 1260 in the whole book; the Threshold Level (van Ek & Alexander, 1980) contains around 400 main entries, some having up to 9 subentries. It is difficult to see how anybody learns such massive quantities of distinct structures in any realistic timespan; 'the number of patterns underlying our normal use of language and corresponding to meaningful and comprehensible sentences in our language is orders of magnitude greater than the number of seconds in a lifetime.' (Chomsky, 1972). The very essence of syntax is that it makes possible economies of statement - generalizations, rules, or principles - rather than accumulates items; it is a closed system of choices rather than an open-ended accumulation of items; however appropriate alphabetical lists of items may be for vocabulary, they completely miss the point of syntax. The slot and filler concept of structures glides smoothly into the concept of Phrase Structure Grammar (PSG) familiar from tree diagrams, such as:

Phrase structure Grammar (PSG) [figure : 2]
Phrase Structure Grammar differs from the substitution table grammar seen above in that it puts structures within structures, rather than constructing lists; it breaks the sentence into smaller and smaller immediate constituents, a technique familiar from Bloomfield (1933) and formalised by Chomsky as rewriting rules such as S --> NP VP (Chomsky, 1957). It thus appears to give a coherent overall view of the structure of the whole sentence.

Since they do not appear to have been mentioned recently in the applied linguistics literature, it is worth recapping some of the objections to PSGS: i) tree diagrams (and the equivalent substitution tables) lack the power to generalize from one sentence to another if the parts of the tree or the boxes on the table are unlabelled. If "the train" is not identified as an Noun Phrase, or "Ich" as a Pronoun in the table, the reader or student cannot tell what class of words is substitutable at that point; the particular items to choose from cannot be generalized to all the others that might occur in that position. This might seem an obvious and dated criticism if it were not that many tables in course books ignore labels in this way, e.g. those labeled "Grammar to study" in Communicate (Morrow and Johnson, 1980), or "Classroom language" in Teaching English through English (Willis, 1981), or 'structure review' in BBC Beginners' English (Garton-Sprenger & Greenall, 1987), as in:

I feel amused
You ... frightened
He feels excited
She looks bored

ii) like substitution tables, PSGs cannot deal with discontinuous elements, a not uncommon feature of English; stage 1 of Alexander et al (1975) for instance includes "Why are you standing up?" in which "are" and "standing up" together form a Verb Phrase interrupted by "you". Simple PSGs will not handle the everyday grammar necessary for language teaching; either such phenomena will
be left out or the analyses will distort the facts. Again this is not to say that there are not contemporary versions of PSG such as Generalised Phrase Structure Grammar (Gazdar et al, 1985) that deny any such lack, but to show its existence in the form espoused by most teaching materials.

iii) PSGs cannot handle various types of structural problem, for example the hackneyed pair of sentences "John is eager to please" and "John is easy to please" in which both sentences have the same tree structure in PSG terms but clearly have different grammatical structures in that in the former, "John" is in an 'object' relationship to "please", in the latter, in a 'subject' relationship. While linguists no longer explain such structures in terms of straightforward deep versus surface structure distinctions, nevertheless the problem of underlying structure still remains; an adequate model of grammar has to be able to capture such differences potentially. The applied linguist may object that such differences are rare and unimportant for language teaching, but this still dodges the whole issue of levels of underlying structure that such sentences raise.

To sum up the objections to substitution tables and PSGs, SAG is inadequate as I-language description of knowledge; it uses outdated forms of grammar that exist today only in more sophisticated versions. Applied linguists should clearly look for more adequate grammatical models. The same is true of much of the research into second language learning of syntax during the 1970s, which essentially employed some version of SAG, as we see in such accounts as Language Two (Dulay, Burt, & Krashen, 1982). The acquisition orders for various syntactic items such as grammatical morphemes or negation largely come down to whether an appropriate item is supplied in the right structural slot; the impression is given that there is an inventory of item/structures which the learner acquires item by item rather than that grammar is a system. To take the well-known set of grammatical morphemes of which so much has been made (Dulay, Burt, & Krashen, 1982); these are treated as a convenient set of items, rather than connected to different grammatical systems; one may well query what aspects of the noun phrase (articles, plurals, possessives) have to do with aspects of the verb phrase (past tense, present tense, auxiliaries, and copulas) in any respectable grammar. The giveaway however is the criterion of occurrence or nonoccurrence; does the learner use "the" or "a" or not? A parrot can be taught to say "the"; the fact that "the" occurs in its speech tells you nothing about its grammatical knowledge. The important question for syntax acquisition is whether the learner knows the article system for English, consisting at least of "the", "a", and zero article ("the man", "a man", "man"), and uses the oppositions between the items meaningfully, i.e. knows the article system of English. Similarly with "progressive -ing" and all the others; sheer
occurrence of the item "-ing" matters little, what counts is whether the learner has a meaningful contrast between progressive and non-progressive tenses and so on. Indeed Rutherford (1987) points out that this underlies Krashen's very concept of the "1+1" level of comprehensible input (Krashen, 1985); syntax is still being seen as the acquisition of discrete 'structures' that can be numbered.

2.6 Semantics:

- Semantics is a part of language studies which focuses on the meaning of what is spoken or written.

- It can encompass whole items such as a lecture or an annual report, or the smallest unit of meaning.

- Linguists do not regard the word as the smallest unit, but the components of a word which carry separate items of meaning.

- The smallest unit of meaning in a language is called a morpheme.

The semantic level of a statement, whether it be spoken or written, can be seen as the reason for its existence.

Meaning develops and shifts constantly in any language, and semantic study is often an attempt to chart these changes, using the structure of the language as a yardstick.

2.6.1 Semantic Avoidance:

The learners evade from communicating a given content for which appropriate target language rules and forms are not available to them by talking related concepts, which may presuppose the desired content.

Samples of answers from students:

1) What will you do when you finish your high school?

-I do----job
-I go home
-finish high school
-this year.

2] What kind of job would you like to take up?
-I like job.
-I like teacher.
-my like cricket.
-I like------

3] What is your father doing ?
-My father driving-u—
-father doing
-father catch fish.

4] What will you do if it rains when you come to school?
-I come school?
-rain is coming
-my umbrella...
-
-I go home.

2.6.2 Error identification and explanation:

The above samples show the semantically non co-operative relationship between the question of researcher and the response of the learners. The learner responded as 'I go home' for the question 'What will you do if it rains while going to school?' and the response 'I like job' for the question 'What kind of job would you like to take up?' So, these examples show the fact that the learners for certain questions could not co-operate semantically deviant one for the question 'How do you feel if you go to college? So, these examples show the
fact that the learners for certain questions could not co-operate semantically in
the conversational discourse with the researcher. Reasons for this kind of
semantic avoidance are the learner’s linguistic inadequacy as well as ignorance
of the pragmatic and semantic norms of L2 utterances they received. There are
32% of the learners who had followed the semantic avoidance strategy in their
communication.

2.6.3 **Literal Translation:**

The learners followed word for word translation from the native language to L2.
The samples from the corpus are as follows.

1] My evening is T.V. see.

   My-na:nu
   Evening- sayanaka:la
   T.V.-T.V.
   See—no:dutte:ne

2] I am—teacher’s work very like.

   na:nu shikshakiya kelasavAnnu tamba ishta padutte:ne.

   I am—na:nu
   Teacher’s-shikshakiya
   Work-kelasavAnnu
   Very—tumba
   Like-isha

   I like teaching very much.
2.6.4 Error identification and explanation:

The appearance of word-for-word translation, while producing second language structure was due to the $L_1$ interference. The learners relate the $L_1$ words with the $L_2$ words which were stored in their mental dictionary without considering or realizing the sentence structure of $L_2$. Thus, the learners tend to express what they intended to say by translating the word for word applying the $L_1$ structure as shown in the above sample. It was found that 33% of the students had adopted this strategy in their communication.

2.6.5 Fillers:

In certain cases the students use the fillers to conceal the internal process-taking place in the inner minds of them. The fillers may be of the user’s pet words or expression, which literally do not carry any meaning. The Kannada speakers also avail such fillers like end, mAttu, etc., and a sound like mmmm., by which users take time to get the word they search for.

1] I study—passing 10th college doing mAttu my father like -------doctor. I will doctor.

2] My father field mmm...maretuhoitu...work, my father ...enuhe:lodu gottila.

3] My father drivingu…is doing mAttu mother house…mm..doing

2.6.6 A] Error identification and error explanation:

The samples indicate that the students initiated to speak on a topic, but while they faced difficulty in the process of communication, they used sounds like mmm… and then $L_1$ words like maretuhoitu, enueltare gottila mAttu etc., then again they continued their speech. So, the use of fillers indicated the learners’ mental search. After getting linguistic elements and information from their mental dictionary, they continued their linguistic behaviour. This was another type of peculiar strategy adopted by the learners to fulfill the ontogenic linguistic developmental gap they faced in the process of communication. In certain contexts, the learners used the sound mmmm… alone without $L_1$ words as gap filler as indicated below.

1. I study 10th .....mmm..mm..college doing.
2. My father …mmm….fish mmmm…catch mm…father study no
3. mmm…. My teacher like …mm….I want teacher

Further, in some other contexts the learners did not use fillers to fulfill the gap, instead of that, the learners took long pause. It can be seen explicitly in their linguistic manifestation.

1. My English ….Mulur sir ….teach.
2. My house …khilla…is there.
3. I …10 th…study..in this…school.

The dots in the samples suggest the long pause and then the learners continued the sentence or passage after getting the clues. So, both the fillers as well as long pause signify the learners' mental searching processes for apt words or linguistic elements.

46% of the students under observation had followed this strategy in their communication. Of the 46%, 37% of the students had used both Kannada words as well as sound mmmm as fillers, and 6% of the students had used only 'mmmm' sound without any Kannada words and remaining 3% of the students had taken long pause for searching apt word, etc., instead of using fillers in their communication.

2.6.7 Message abandonment:

Message abandonment is yet another type of strategy followed by the learners, whereby communication on topic is initiated but then cut short as the learner run into difficulty with target language form or rule. The learners stoped in mid-sentence, with no appeal to authority to help finish the utterance.

Sample 1

a. English is….important ….job…English gottu is job is getting. I study….m*ttu gotzilla teacher.

b. My 10th pass adre college study ….my father my engineer study is…. mmm….enhelodu

With the help of the above samples it is identified that the students had initiated their speech on topic. After producing one or two sentences, they took long pause (it is realized by dots), then they continued and again they took long
pause. After that they used even Kannada words like enuhelodu... etc. With these Kannada words, they stopped in the mid of the speech.

Similarly, the learners stopped their responses in the middle of the sentence the followings are some of the examples of this type.

**Sample 2**

Do you like English?

-Yes. I like for English ...

Why do you like English?

I far... far... go ....out ...I job...get...talk ...English...and...

**2.6.8 A] Error identification and error explanation:**

The learner initiated the sentence, but stopped in mid of the sentence. The learner has responded the answers as "I like for English ..." and "I far go I job get talk...English". Both the answers are in incomplete linguistic forms. Further, in the response to the second question the learner used conjunction 'and' at the end of the sentence after that he failed to continue and stopped his speech with that word. So, reason for these types of incomplete response is that the learner finds difficulty with the target form.

41% of the students have followed this strategy. Within the 41%, 30% of the students cut short their speech on topic in the mid of speech and remaining 11% of the learners stopped in the mid sentences while making conversational discourse in response to the questions asked by the researcher.

**2.6.9 Language switching:**

The learners used the native language terms without bothering to translate it to the second language terms.

marantuhoitu for forgot enhelodu for don’t know...

37% of the students under observation had used the native items in their L₂ communication. These native items are also used as fillers as stated before.

**2.6.10 Approximation:**
The learners sometime supply an appropriate similar vocabulary or structure instead of right word, but however that shares semantic features in common with the desired item to satisfy the researcher.

teacher's work for teaching, field work for farmer, driving for driver.

There are 30% of the students who had used these types of approximated items in their conversational discourse.

2.6.11 Teaching vocabulary

**Learning words [Meaning and usage]:** The importance of learning words in any language cannot be exaggerated. When we say that we know English, we mean that we know the meanings and usage of a few thousand words in English. Communication in any language is impossible without some mastery of the vocabulary used in that language. It is mainly through using vocabulary that we compose and express our thoughts to others.

A second or foreign language learner of English is required not only to focus upon the sentence structures but also upon the acquisition of words. Often, the learner seeks to learn the words before even attempting to understand and use the sentences. When a new sentence is presented to a learner, he tends to break it into manageable units called words.

Everyone intuitively feels what a word is on most occasions. However it is indeed hard to define word, because some times two or more “words” may be combined, printed, and used as a single word.

Learning words in any second or foreign language program involves not only learning the meanings of the words, but also learning how these words are used appropriately in linguistic, sociolinguistic, and cultural contexts.

Words carry connotations which may be quite different from their literal meanings. *The Oxford Advanced Learner’s Dictionary*, for example, uses several labels to indicate a particular attitude associated with the use of words: Approving, Derogatory, Euphemistic, Figurative, Formal, Informal, Ironic, Jocular, Offensive, Rhetorical, slang, and Taboo.

Meanings of words often become clearer when they are used in proper linguistic structures and in appropriate social contexts.
Some words from the native language of the ESL [English Second Language] learner may look alike or share similar meanings in some contexts with corresponding English words. However, they may differ from each other in other more important contexts.

Learning words involves learning structures of the language. So, it is important that when a word is learnt, students are encouraged to learn not only the words but also their grammatical characteristics (usage).

Questions regarding vocabulary teaching: The teaching concerns regarding the development of vocabulary by Allen (1983:6):

1. Which English words do students need most to learn?
2. How can we make those words seem important to students?
3. How can so many needed words be taught during the short time our students have for English?
4. What can we do when a few members of the class already know words that the others need to learn?
5. Why are some words easier than others to learn?
6. Which aids to vocabulary teaching are available?
7. How can we encourage students to take more responsibility for their own vocabulary learning?
8. What are some good ways to find out how much vocabulary the students have actually learnt?

Content vs. function words: To begin with, we need to distinguish between function and content words. Function words such as prepositions, are, and, are etc., in English are part of the grammar of the language. They are limited in number, and they express some relational features. The function words are learnt early. They are used more frequently than the content words. Sentences are not composed without the function words.

Although content words in themselves have their own meanings, combinations of content words often require the use of function words. The meanings of function words are sometimes very hard to explain, but the students are often
able to perceive the meanings of these function words, while having greater difficulty in actually using them. The beginning level textbooks try to explain the usage of function words through pictures with captions such as The cat is on the table, The basket is under the table, Jack and Jill, etc. It is easier in some sense to grasp the meaning as well as the usage of content words. Students will continue to have difficulty with the use of function words even when they are able to recognize their meanings.

Some strategies to teach content words: A simple but a fairly frequent strategy adopted in the classroom to introduce the students to the words for things and individuals in the classroom. Their meanings are easily explained and understood by the students. These words refer to concrete objects and people, which the students can see, touch, and feel. In addition, learning the names of objects found in the immediate environment both within and without the classroom helps the students to meet some of their needs. In incremental stages words are introduced and explained.

There are several ways in which the meanings of words can be communicated and explained to the students. We may bring in the real object to the classroom and associate the object and the word. We may perform the actual action and associate the action with the word denoting it. We may show the relevant picture of the object or the event, etc., which communicates the meaning of the word. We can give explanations in the students’ own language. We can use the words in English already known to the students to give definitions in simple English.

It may be useful if the words are written on the board and then pronounced. Students will then associate the written form with the pronunciation of the word. Seeing the object or the picture or action, associating it with the written form while actually hearing the word pronounced all help the students to internalize the meaning as well as the form of the word. We should make them copy the words in their notebooks.

Students should be asked to demonstrate the actions, which the words mean, or go and touch the object referred to by the object. Students should be asked to spell the words letter by letter. However, more needs to be done to help students actually use the words in a grammatically and contextually appropriate manner.

Experiential vocabulary teaching/learning: In the classrooms where there is a greater emphasis on experiential learning, teachers may prefer to have the students first experience the meanings in some manner before the words for
these meanings are given to them. For example, students may be given a variety of fruit, which naturally differ from each other in terms of color, shape, smell, and taste. Students feel and touch the fruits. Sometimes they may even taste the fruits. During and after this experience, words are introduced to refer to the fruits.

The teacher (who prefer an experiential mode of teaching and learning) suggests and draws the attention of students to meanings before drilling.

As Raimes (1983) points out, it is important to remember “the ways in which people learn vocabulary outside of school.” We do not seek the words first. We experience something and then we ask for words to denote what we have experienced. Students learn those words better which they really need.

So that students will use the words and not just recognize them and, reveal an understanding of the words, it is necessary to compose simple sentences using these words. Teachers have found putting words in simple commands highly useful for this purpose. One student will give a command, and another will perform. The students will take turns and this gives each person an opportunity to actually produce the words and use them in a conversation or communication setting. It is to be remembered that from the beginning it is important for the students not only to know the meanings but also to use the words appropriately. The Total Physical Response method is very useful at this stage.

Using real objects and pictures of objects will help teaching the meaning of many non-action words. Parts of the body can be taught using the pictures and nursery rhymes. Again when commands are given to show the hand, leg, finger, etc., students begin to engage themselves in a conversational mode. They take turns in asking and answering questions.

While learning words for individual body parts, students learn also plurals and even possessive forms. In other words, we introduce words and their meanings while at the same time we teach the variations these undergo in certain grammatical contexts.

A choral drill of spelling for some words whose pronunciation differs radically from the written spelling is a good addition to the classroom exercises at this stage. Dictation may also be considered. Some teachers encourage their students to draw pictures for the word they have just learned. Puzzle-like tasks are given to identify the objects referred to by the word. Some use “fill in the blanks” technique to enable students to recall the spelling as well as the word.
2.6.12 **Conclusion:**

**Performance of the Students:** The performances of students are compared and contrasted on the basis of the variables chosen such as sex, economic position, parental education. The table shows the overall performance of the students in the speaking skill of English language.

*Students performance in % in the aspects of speech*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Error types</th>
<th>Gender wise</th>
<th>Economic position</th>
<th>Parental education</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>B</td>
<td>G</td>
<td>T</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Phonological</td>
<td>24.28</td>
<td>15.00</td>
<td>39.28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Morphological</td>
<td>37.50</td>
<td>52.50</td>
<td>68.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Syntactic</td>
<td>17.40</td>
<td>15.40</td>
<td>32.80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Semantic</td>
<td>21.80</td>
<td>15.60</td>
<td>37.40</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

M - Male, F - Female, LIG - Low Income Group, MIG - Middle Income Group, HIG - High Income Group, UED - Uneducated, ED - educated.

**Findings:** It was found that the performance of Kannada Medium high school students was poor. The reason for the low performance of students is that they are mostly first generation learners and they have less exposure to English. Further they come from rural illiterate background. Their physical environment is rural their socio-economic environment is illiterate. They do not have access to customary exposures such as English dailies, weekly and monthly journals. Moreover, they have very less chance of watching and listening to English programmes on TV and radio respectively and also visit to the theatres. Students of illiterate background get less exposure to English. The economical factor plays a role in the performance of rural students.

The performance of female students was better than the performance of male students. This might be attributed to the fact that female students experiencing less diversion of time than male students. Physical and mental expectations vary considerably according to the socio economic hardships experienced in some families. Educated parents are in a position to offer superior support, and motivation, than that which can be offered by uneducated parents. Speech plays a vital role in maintaining the relationship between and among the people. Communication through English occupies predominant
position in all the fields of the global village. Because of this, teaching/learning of English is inevitable in almost all the non-English society. India has long history for teaching/learning of English as a second language. Further, to enhance the teaching/learning of English, proper guidance and remedies also have often been provided with the help of the results drawn by research studies, which have been carried out in this field. The research findings help to identify and promote the remedies for the problems of teaching/learning of English.

It was found that the process of learning to speak, the students followed certain strategies in their communication to conceal their linguistic inadequacy. The avoidance is the first and foremost strategy followed by the students. 10% of the students avoided to talk with the researcher in English and to speak on given topic due to the anxiety, language shock, cultural shock and the linguistic inadequacy. Syntactic avoidance is yet another type of strategy, in which they have avoided to construct sentences. Instead of constructing sentences, they have given elliptical responses for the questions asked. The strategy of semantic avoidance is of peculiar type, in which the students had avoided to following semantic co-operation for the questions asked.

The present research findings such as, strategies followed by the students and problems encountered by them are summarized, and remedies are given for eradicating or at least minimizing the problems in the process of learning oral communication. The word-for-word translation from the native language to \textit{L}$_2$, and use the fillers in their communication whenever they encounter gap and linguistic inadequacy. Self-repairing, drawling and repetition are yet another types of strategies followed by them. In the strategy of self-repairing, certain vocabularies, grammatical items are self-corrected. Sometimes, the self-corrected items have gone wrong. Drawling is of lengthening the syllables. This strategy provides time to the speaker to search for the forthcoming elements. Repetition is also one of the strategies followed by them. In this strategy the students have repeated certain items such as words, partial sentence and full sentence. It was found that the repetition of full sentence gives more time to the learners than the word or partial sentence repetition. Message abandonment was a strategy followed by students. The students initiate the communication on a specific topic, but in the middle they cut short due to difficulty, and due to the anxiety about the linguistic elements in the target language system. The students reduce their voice when they feel that they are incorrect. The strategy of voice reduction shows that they have no confidence in \textit{L}$_2$. Resource expansion strategy is yet another peculiar strategy whereby the learners attempt to increase their linguistic resources instead of giving required enough response.
It is observed that some of the students had invented certain new words in their oral communication, when a word can’t be found or for the word, which is absent in their mental lexicon. In certain contexts, the students follow the code switching strategy. That is, the use of certain L1 words in L2. Approximation is another strategy in which the learners have used the approximate items instead of correct ones. However, this approximate words share near semantic feature. In addition to the above strategies, the learners follow the inter and intra lingual strategies. The learners adopt the strategy of inter lingual transfer when there is a difference between first and second language. The inter lingual strategies are phonological interference, diminishing [centering or closing] diphthong, vowel lengthening, avoidance of initial consonant cluster, addition of vowel at the end position of word and gemination of consonant sounds. The fricative sound [f] is absent in Kannada, so the Kannada speakers tend to substitute [p] in the place of [f]. The phonetic difference of a phoneme too leads in interference. That is, Kannada has a mid-back rounded vowel [o] as observed in the word [ho:gu] 'go' as found in English, but English [ou] is phonetically different in certain environments from Kannada, because, it has a predominant upward back glide. As a result of this phonetic differentiation, when the Kannada speakers speak English they produce English words with the up glide vowel nature in Kannada.

The Kannada speakers had the tendency to lengthening the word final vowels. This occurs especially in the places where the English vowels are an upward back glide such as the vowel and diphthong eg; ‘u’, ‘oo’, ‘ou’- ‘u:’ and ‘u’ are back vowels-ou [as in boat] is aclosing diphthong with the glide moving further back in the progression from the first unit to the second. Avoidance of initial consonant cluster by including a vowel in between members the consonant cluster and addition of vowel sound at the end position of the words, which end with stop and fricative sounds. Reduplication of the consonant sounds was another peculiar strategy adopted by the learners. These are some of the inter lingual strategies adopted by the learners in their communication.

Further, it was identified that the learners had adopted the intra lingual strategy where there is an irregularity in the rules of target language. The learners had often over generalized the target language rules. For instance, the learners had the tendency to add simply ‘s’ to all singular nouns whenever the need arises for the use of plural form. And also, the suffix ‘ed’ is mostly used while changing the verb into a past form. However, the students had conjugated the ‘ed’ morpheme even to the irregular verbs. These are some of the intralingual strategies followed by the learners in their oral communication.