TEACHING OF ENGLISH
(Revised)

Units 1-18  B.Ed.

Course Code 519

Department of Elementary Teacher Education
Faculty of Education
ALLAMA IQBAL OPEN UNIVERSITY
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FOREWORD

Education is nation-building activity which unlocks the door to modernization. English is rated high in Education system of Pakistan. It is a compulsory subject from class I to degree level. English language is an important medium for exploring scientific and technological knowledge and information at advanced levels. It is also a medium of international commerce trade and communication and serves as a lingua-franca in contemporary world. This language has a historical association with the social and political development and is considered as the prime language of diplomacy in the world.

Allama Iqbal Open University is dedicated to improve the quality of English language teaching through effective and latest teaching methodologies and techniques. This course entitled “Teaching of English” will give the students greater insights as future English teacher as it contains all the basic requirements to develop their instructional skills and usage in English language.

I am grateful to all the reviewers who participated in the revision of this course. I will highly appreciate any suggestions for further improvements.

Prof. Dr. Mahmood H. Butt
Vice-Chancellor
2006
COURSE INTRODUCTION

This course has been developed keeping in view the needs of the teachers of English Language. As most of our teachers lack proficiency in basic language skills, emphasis has been laid on both the language skills and the methods.

It is full credits course and contain 18 study units distributed almost equally in teaching of linguistic and language skills. The first unit describes the importance of English as a second language. It also covers such topics as the nature of language, its origin and evaluation, the teaching of English at the secondary school level and the objectives of teaching English in secondary schools.

Unit two is about the language learning process and contains topics such as the influence of linguistic on language learning goals of language learning the environment and the role of the teacher. This unit is full of practical examples and would be very useful for the teacher. Unit three is very important from the methodology point of view. As you use see, this unit is about methods of teaching English and covers a long range of topics starting from the translation method to the audio lingual method and communicative approach.

Unit four is based on teaching the learning skill explains detail the methods of training in listening speaking, reading and writing. Unit five of the course is about the techniques of teaching English. Method and technique are two different things. A method is a complete process of transmitting knowledge in a planned manner, while technique as a part of the methods, help in proceeding further with the method. The Unit on one side explains the difference between a method and a technique and on the other defines techniques for teaching English.
Unit six and seven are meant for teaching literature. Unit eight covers composition. Unit nine is about the preparation and used instructional aids. The approach of this unit is very innovative and inspiring. It gives very simple and effective examples of using different instructional aids. The lesson plan is a guide for teaching a lesson' we usually ignore it only because of working load. I dare say that the lesson plan is prepared only when we prepare the lesson it self I think most of our teaching is without any preparation and therefore there does not arise the question of lesson planning. However, unit 10 is based on lesson planning, merely to remind us that is also a part of our job.

If we day by day, go on teaching and do not bother to see the outcomes of our efforts our all activity proves futile and useless. Evaluation is an integral part of teaching. It is not something different. We can proceed further only if we know that the students have assimilated the lessons taught previously. As such unit 11 is devoted to the evaluation of instructional outcomes and explains different methods of evaluation as related to the teaching of English.

Units 12-15 are about basic language skills. They have multiple examples and many exercise to practice. The last three units i.e. 16-18 on textual study and critical appreciation of the selected content of English text-books for IX and X classes. The whole course deals with practical aspects of the classroom situation and suggests practical solution. Besides our students of the B.Ed programnnmes. The teaching community, at large, will also find it useful for the teaching of English.

Dr. Tanveer-uz-Zaman
Chairman
Dept. of Elementary Teacher Education

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ENGLISH
AS
A SECOND LANGUAGE

Written By:
M. Aslam Shah Hashmi

Revised By:
Mr. Umar Farooq
INTRODUCTION

You have been a student of English language up to your B.A. / B.Sc. examination. Like most of the students, you could have found the English language a difficult subject during your school and college days. Indeed, the teaching of English language to Pakistani students has become a serious problem in the field of education. This is evident from the poor results in English at three levels of our public examinations i.e. Secondary, Inter and Degree. There appear a number of personal and impersonal reasons for this state of affairs. They must be attended to if the objectives of teaching English as a second language have to be achieved. While improvements are needed in the spheres of planning, organizations, curriculum and the teacher’s competency, we cannot ignore the significance of the proper methodology adopted by our teachers of the English language.

As a student of this course, you will have an opportunity to make a comparative study of the various methods and techniques suited to the different aspects of English language teaching in the following units. This unit will however, acquaint you with some fundamental information about the English language in general, and its position as a second language in our particular situation in Pakistan.
OBJECTIVES

When you have completed this unit, you should be able to:

- Describe the nature of language; how it began and as to how it reached the present stage;
- List the functions of language in human beings;
- Recognise the role of Psychology in the teaching, learning process of a second language;
- Realise the necessity of including a modern language in the education of our children;
- List the reasons for the importance of learning English language in Pakistan;
- Explain the objectives of teaching the four basic skills of English language in secondary classes.
- Identify the role of a good English teacher.
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1. THE NATURE OF LANGUAGE – HOW IT BEGAN AND REACHED THE PRESENT STAGE.

1.1 What Language Really is?

Language is a complex phenomenon. Different people will answer differently to the question ‘What is language?’ Some think it as a skill (something we do), some as knowledge (something we know), some as a possession (something we have or possess), some as a tool (something we use), some as an event (something which happens), some as a group identity (something which transmit culture), some as an object (something which we can describe), some as a living organism (something which is born, lives and dies). These answers or ways of thinking show the complexity of language.

As you have observed that a child tries to speak from an early age. After the stages of babbling and --------, he learns his or her mother tongue at the age of one or two.

All normal people in the world can speak. No group of people without a spoken language has ever been discovered.

The language is universal. All normal human beings in a community understand and speak well enough to carry out every activity of human life. Many of these same people cannot read or write.

Every language in the world is rich enough and sufficiently complete for its speakers to carry out their daily activities. When the need arises, expressions can be borrowed from other languages or can be coined with the elements of the existing language. For these reasons, the spoken language is considered primary. It is considered primary also because people learn to speak their native language several years before they learn to read and write.
The writing is thus considered a secondary system, derived from speech. Usually, we write much less in a day as compared to the amount of speaking we do. Even as we write, we always think first of how we would say what we are putting down on paper.

1.2 The Definition of Language

Language has been defined by many linguists around the world. Let’s have a look at some of the definitions.

Language is the most frequently used and most highly developed form of human communication.

An act of communication is basically the transmission of information of some kind – a message – from a source to a receiver. In the case of language, both source and receiver are human, and the message is transmitted either vocally, through the air, or graphically, by marks on a surface, usually paper.

Language is series of sounds, usually string together in groups, which convey meaning to listeners. Let us examine a more formal definition:

The Language has been defined as a system of arbitrary, vocal symbols which permit all people in a given culture, or other people who have learnt the system of that culture, to communicate or to interact.

The various components of this definition of language need explanation:

Every language operates within its own system i.e., its own recurring patterns or arrangements which are meaningful to the speakers. The sounds which are used to form words, which in turn, are used in speech utterances, are always arranged in particular ways or designs which convey the same meaning to all speakers of the language.
When you say the words “the man”, I know you are talking of one man and of a man previously mentioned. “The men”, on the other hand, conveys the meaning of more than one man. The difference was made by the middle sound of the word. Similarly, when you hear the word “speak”, you know it would fit into the place used for verb in a sentence. “Speech”, on the other hand, would fit into the place used for what we generally call a noun.

In language, **word order** is an important part of the **system**. For example, compare the two sentences: “The dog bit the boy.” “The boy bit the dog”. The change in meaning has resulted only from the difference in word-order. Again the sentence “Bag with went a he”, does not make any sense, although we know the meaning of each word.

Examining another feature of the **system**, we find that in English, adjectives do not agree with nouns. We say “This tree is tall”. But in Urdu we would say “سدرخت ایہ” and “سدرخت ایہی”. Thus in the native language of your students, changes may occur because of gender (masculine or feminine) or because of number (singular or plural).

Referring back to our definition of language, **vocal** means that we make sounds in our mouth using the tongue, the teeth and lips. We also use other organs such as the vocal cords and the lungs simply produce air for the subsequent production of sounds.

Every language has its own **arbitrary** symbols or words to express the meaning of an object or an idea. Why does “table” mean what it does in English? Why is “dog” the name for the animal it represents? No one knows why words convey certain meanings. But all the speakers of the language do know and can use the general terms associated with the common objects or concepts in their environment.
The words “communicate” and “interact” as used in the definition signify to **understand** and to **speak**; to be able to hear and to respond or react to the spoken word. They also imply the ability to talk about something that happened in the past, that is happening at the present time, or that may happen at some time in the future.

### 1.3 Characteristics of Language

A Language has the following characteristics:

a. Language involves the use of the vocal organs of the speaker and the hearing mechanism of the listener.

b. It is a set of verbal symbols (words) which stand for real objects, or actions, or concepts.

c. These words are chosen arbitrarily by speaker of any particular language.

d. Language is culturally transmitted.

e. Language is spontaneous.

f. In using language, people usually take turns to speak.

g. Language is structure-dependent.

h. We can combine words and structures in any number of different ways.

### 1.4 Function of Language

The communication through the use of the spoken language means understanding and reacting to what someone says. Communication would also include understanding and conveying messages through the printed word. The writing, as we have said, is considered a secondary system derived from the spoken language. We write symbols (the letters of alphabet and punctuation marks) to convey the words and ideas which are themselves symbols of objects or ideas. For example:
Since the language is the medium through which people express their ideas of the world wherein they live, it carries within it what can be called "cultural meanings". Native speakers who have been brought up in the culture, are aware of differences or shades in meaning which gestures, words or expressions may convey. For instance, the expression "I am having breakfast" has an equivalent in all languages, but the sentence may evoke different thoughts and images in speakers of different native languages, depending upon the time they usually eat, what they eat, where they eat, etc.
To conclude, we may think of language as serving two major functions. First, language serves as a system of responses through which individuals communicate with each other (inter-individual communication). Secondly, language functions as a system of responses that facilitates thinking and actions for the individual (intera-individual communication).

1.5 Non-Linguistic Systems of Communication

The function of language is communication or transfer of meaning. Usually we think of language as something spoken or written, but there are many other forms or devices which man has been using for communication. For instance, there are various signs of highway code which convey diverse information to the motorists. Similarly, there are the red, green and yellow lights and blinkers at the city road crossings. They depend upon a visual symbolism of colours, in which red stands for “stop” or “danger”, green for “safety” or “go”, yellow for “slow” or a transitional signal, and a blinking light for caution.

In none of these cases, exists an interchange of language, spoken or written. There has, however, been an interchange of meaning, a transfer of significant concepts. If we accept only the narrower definition of the language, as that which is produced by the human vocal organs and received by the hearing apparatus, we shall have to deny the name of “language” to these transfers. If we accept the broader definition of language as a transfer of meaning, there are forms of language differing in degree but not in kind from a spoken or written message. In fact, the sound symbols of the spoken tongue are as symbolical of human thought and human meaning as the various forms of activity like gestural, pictorial, artistic, etc. by which men have conveyed significant messages to one another since the dawn of history.
1.6 **Origin and Evolution of Language**

If there is one thing on which all linguists are fully agreed, it is that the problem of the origin of human speech is still unsolved. Many kinds of theories have been put forward, some are traditional and mystical, like the legends prevailing among many primitive groups that language was a gift from the gods. Other theories may be described as quasi-scientific. One hypothesis, originally sponsored by Darwin, is to the effect that speech was in origin nothing but mouth pantomime, in which the vocal organs unconsciously attempted to mimic gestures by the hands.

The ancient Greek philosophers, who gave some attention to the problem of the origin of the language, were led by their speculation. Some of them held that language had come into being out of “inherent necessity” or “nature”, while others believed it had arisen by “convention” or “agreement”. How this agreement had been reached by people who had no previous means of mutual understanding, they did not explain.

In the past, a number of attempts were made to isolate children before they began talking to see whether they would evolve a language of their own. In recent cases of children who had reportedly grown among wolves, dogs or monkeys have shown that the human child, though ignorant of human language when found, takes to it readily and with seeming pleasure, something that his animal playmates are incapable of doing. Animal cries, whether we choose to describe them as language or not, are characterised by invariability and monotony. Dogs have been barking, cats mewing, lions roaring and donkeys braying in the same fashion since time immemorial. Human language, in contrast with animal cries, displays infinite variability, both in time and space. Activity and change may be described as the essence of all living languages.
The language is an expression of human activity, and as human activity is forever changing, the language even changes with it. It seems that the language changes least rapidly when its speakers are isolated from other communities, and most rapidly when they come across foreign people at the crossroads of the world. Whether much or little, all languages change in due course of time. Two different modes of change in language are recognised. The change may arise very gradually, almost imperceptibly, and be as gradually and unconsciously adopted by the speakers; or it may arise suddenly, as the result of an innovation made by one speaker who has prestige in the community and is, therefore, widely imitated.

It is estimated by scientists that some ten thousands of years elapsed between its beginning of society and art (and probably speech) and the first appearance of the writing. During these long centuries, the language continued to evolve, but we have no record of that evolution. The oldest languages of Indo-European family of which we have records are Sanskrit, Greek and Latin, in the order given. The approximate dates for each are 2000, 1400 and 500 B.C. respectively.

As for the speech of infants, observers are still unable to agree in their views. However, no view helps us in solving the problem of the origin of speech, save for what concerns the baby's obvious limitation of the language sounds. It is very difficult to explain the process of association of sounds and sound sequences with ideas and concepts which seems basic to the human language. If all that is needed for language is the process of imitation, why do cats and dogs, who have been living with us and observing us for many centuries, fail to imitate our language when we imitate theirs so well.
1.7 SUMMARY

i. The language is universal among human beings who need it for carrying out various activities of life. The language in the written form came long after the spoken language which is basic and primary. The writing is secondary as it is derived from speech.

ii. The language is a system of arbitrary vocal symbols which permit all people in a given culture, or other people who have learnt the system of that culture, to communicate or to interact.

iii. The purpose of the language is communication. The communication through spoken language means understanding and reacting to what a person says. The language carries within it cultural meaning. It may adopt the forms of inter-individual or intra-individual communication. However, inter-individual communication is also carried out through non-linguistic forms like colours, shapes, facial expressions and physical gestures.

iv. There are several theories regarding the origin of the human speech. Some attribute it to inherent necessity or nature while others make it the result of convention or agreement. The language, being an expression of human activity, has been always changing. The change may be gradual or sudden. The evolution of language took thousands of years, of which there is little record. Imitation seems to be fundamental in the learning of speech by infants.
1.8 **Self-Assessment Question-I**

(A) **PICK OUT THE CORRECT ANSWERS:-**

1. In Pakistan, study of English language is compulsory upto:-
   (a) Secondary level (b) Inter level
   (c) Degree level

2. Language is used by:-
   (a) Civilised Nations (b) Illiterate People
   (c) All Normal Human Beings

3. Writing System came into beings:-
   (a) After the spoken language
   (b) Along with the spoken language
   (c) Before the spoken language

4. Language is basically a series of:-
   (a) Words (b) Phrases (c) Sounds

5. The main function of language is:-
   (a) Education (b) Communication
   (c) Comprehension

6. Language also carries:-
   (a) Cultural meaning (b) Literal meaning
   (c) Little meaning

7. The communicative function of language may be carried out by:-
   (a) Wind (b) Colour (c) Trees

8. Some Greek philosophers believed that language originated from:-
   (a) Natural sounds (b) Speech of gods
   (c) Inherent necessity

9. The essence of all living language is:-
   (a) Loudness (b) Melody (c) Activity and Change
The oldest of Indo-European language is:-
(a) Greek  (b) Sanskrit  (c) Latin

(B) **Write Short Answers to the Following Questions:**
1. Give some important features of language as found by the language scientist.
2. Give a definition of language.
3. Describe the function of language.
4. Give an example of non-linguistic form of communication.
5. Compare and contrast the language used by animals and human beings.
2. Some Psychological Problems Faced by Students and Teachers During the Teaching–Learning Process in Second/Foreign Language Learning

The effective instruction in a foreign language implies a good knowledge of the laws of the psychology of thought and speech together with the ability to apply these laws in practice. A very important aspect in learning a foreign language is the practical speech activity (listening, reading, speaking, writing) without using the native language or translation. However, the learning of speech should be preceded by a conscious analysis of various linguistic facts. The teacher should make every effort to develop in his pupils the ability to think in the foreign language and a feeling for the language studied. The language learning should start with oral speech and then pass on to the written speech, and it is necessary to teach not so much the receptive and reproductive as the productive use of language.

For the teaching of foreign languages in schools, a particularly important role belongs to the psychology of teaching a foreign language. It tells us, for example:

i. The learning takes place when it is related to the needs and experiences of the learner.

ii. The gradation and sequence of the language items are important. The material should go from the known to the unknown, and from the simple to the more difficult.

iii. Many repetitions are needed to develop habits. The learning of any skill takes place in proportion to practice in that skill.

iv. The repetitions should be spaced at increasingly longer intervals.
v. The immediate correction of an error is important. Knowledge that a response is correct leads to the learning of that response.

vi. The learning is favoured when meaningful association is established between sounds and concepts, and cultural or social situation.

vii. The understanding of the place and function of separate elements promotes learning. The learners should, therefore, be given insight into the place and function of various language items in skills involved in broad communication activities.

2.1 Mastery of Language

Wherever a person works and whatever he does, his activity can be productive or effective only if it has a scientific basis. The language teacher must rely in his activities also on pedagogical sciences, including the psychology of teaching foreign languages. Learning of the foreign language is a phenomenon most closely linked with the reasoning activity of man. But the mastery of the language forms an organic unity with reasoning and is closely linked with it. The foreign language teacher must know and thoroughly understand the psychological properties both of language itself and of speech as a way of using language in practice. When mastering a language, students master its phonetics, vocabulary and grammar. So it is absolutely necessary for a teacher to know what psychological laws affect these three basic aspects of a language.

2.2 Phonetics

The mastery of the phonetics of a foreign language requires from students acute aural and functional sensitivity, which is the basic for distinguishing the characteristic sounds
(phonemes) of a foreign language. The students must learn to recognize accurately the sounds of a foreign language by ear and to reproduce them correctly. Psychology says that both aural and functional sensitivity are perfected by long training. The teacher of a foreign language must skillfully recognize the difficulties which pupils meet and which are connected with the assimilation of phonetic peculiarities.

Some students are distinguished from the outset by poor aural sensitivity, and are, therefore, unable to catch the subtle differences between the sounds of the native language and of the foreign language, and also between similar sounds in the foreign language itself. It is quite wrong to consider such students incapable of assimilating the phonetic system of the language studied. On the contrary, they should be specially trained in the perception of sounds, since training is always accompanied by an increase of sensitivity. Other students, well able to catch phonetic distinctions by ear, have extra-ordinary difficulty in reproducing sounds correctly, i.e., they have a bad and incorrect pronunciation. In such a case, too, one must not consider the pupils incapable of assimilating phonetics. Knowing that functional sensitivity also requires training and the teacher must more frequently encourage such students to practice the pronunciation of individual sounds and the whole words and sentences.

2.3 Vocabulary

The direct link between the vocabulary of a foreign language and the thought-process of students is most important. Usually the teachers of a foreign language reduce the semantic aspect of a word to what is called its "contextual meaning", confining themselves to its translation. Psychology helps the teacher to understand that the meaning of a word is not the same thing as the category of reasoning with which the word is connected. What corresponds to a word in a person’s
reasoning is a **concept** which is expressed by the word. The concept and meaning of a word are closely linked but they are not the same thing. So to bring to the students’ attention only the contextual meaning of words is to leave them in almost total ignorance of the concept which is actually expressed by a word in a foreign language.

In order to successfully reveal to the students the semantics of foreign words, the teacher must have a good knowledge of the psychological characteristics of the process of forming concepts, of the different kinds of inter-relations between concepts etc. For instance, when stating that the English word “clash” has four meanings (to make loud noise by striking to meet and fight, to occur at same time, to be in disagreement) the teacher must try to convey a concept corresponding to this word which can be explained as “striking of one thing against an other”. If he does not get students to understand the concepts expressed by the words of a foreign language, the teacher will find his pupils confusing the meaning of individual words and using them wrongly, e.g. “sink” instead of “drown”. “see” instead of “look” “season” instead of “weather”, etc.

### 2.4 Grammar

The teaching of grammar also requires the use of psychology. From a psychological point of view, it is important to distinguish between (i) knowledge of grammatical rules, and (ii) the practical skills involved in using appropriate grammatical constructions in speech or writing. The first will always be conscious, while the second requires an automatic reaction accompanied by the formation of a feeling for language.

The teacher of a foreign language must have a clear impression of the inter-relations between knowledge, acquired abilities and habits. Despite the psychological fact that habits
are only formed by repeatedly carrying out the appropriate action, some language teachers in school wrongly suppose that a direct transition from knowledge to habits is possible. This is not the case. So the students with a good knowledge of grammar are sometimes incapable of applying it in speech and writing. In order to obtain from pupils the necessary automatic approach to using and building grammatical constructions, the teacher must have a clear impression of the habit-forming process and the psychological nature of feeling for language.

2.5 The Psychology of Thinking in a Foreign Language

The peculiarity of a foreign language as the object of teaching in schools is that pupils have to obtain a practical grasp of it as a means of communication, i.e. they must learn to think in it. The basic defect of our present method of English language more than they are taught knowledge about the English language more than they are taught to think in it, as a result of which the main aim of teaching English language is often not attained. In other words, pupils are principally taught the forms of a foreign language without attention being paid to the fact that practical mastery of these forms is only possible if they are directly linked with the students’ thought process.

The problem of thinking in a foreign language has not been fully worked out by psychologists, for which reason the technique of language teaching lags behind in this respect. Moreover, and on the associated principles of techniques is hampered by the incorrect view of some of our educationists and psychologists that only a person’s native language is directly linked with thought. This point of view is refuted both by experience and research.

In investigating the psychology of thinking in a foreign language, we take it as a principle that language and thought are closely linked with each other. This gives rise to an
interesting question whether a person’s thinking has the same character when he uses a foreign language as when he uses his own, or whether it is somehow modified. In fact, the structure of the foreign language is more or less sharply differentiated from that of the native language in its phonetical, lexical, grammatical and stylistic means of expression, so that this difference must also be accompanied by differences in the sphere of thought.
2.6 Summary

i. Effective learning of foreign language is facilitated by a knowledge of the psychological principles of thought and speech along with the ability to apply these principles in practice. A teacher of language must base his instructional activities on pedagogical sciences including the psychology of teaching foreign languages. Psychological laws affect the following three basic aspects of a language:

(a) Students must possess sharp aural and functional sensitivity to master the phonetics of a foreign language. Thus they will be able to distinguish the characteristic sounds of the language. Poor aural and functional sensitivity of the students results in bad and incorrect pronunciation. This sensitivity can be improved by appropriate training and adequate practice.

(b) A foreign language teacher usually gives the students the translation or the contextual meaning of a word. Psychology helps him to distinguish between the meaning of a word and its concept, which are closely linked. The teacher should know the psychological characteristics of the process of forming concepts, of the difference between concepts and ideas and of inter-relations between concepts.

(c) The psychology helps the teacher in distinguishing between knowledge of grammatical rules and the practical skills involved in using proper grammatical constructions in speech or writing. A foreign language teacher must have good knowledge of the inter-relations between knowledge, acquired, abilities and habits. He should know about the habit-forming process and the nature of feeling for language.

ii. The learners of a second language must learn to think in it. As psychologists have not fully worked out the problem of thinking in a foreign language, its teaching techniques have not proved effective in this respect. Though psychology reveals that language and thought are closely linked with each other, yet a
person’s thinking does not have the same character when he uses a foreign language as when uses his mother tongue.

2.7 Self-Assessment Question-II

(A) SOME OF THE STATEMENTS GIVEN BELOW ARE TRUE AND OTHERS ARE FALSE. CHOOSE THE FALSE STATEMENTS AND TELL WHY THEY ARE INCORRECT.

1. A foreign language is best learnt by using the native language or translation.
2. The language learning should start with oral speech, and then pass on to the written speech.
3. The learning takes place when it is related to the material in the text-book.
4. When mastering a language, students should master its translation, essays and letters.
5. The students must learn to recognize accurately the sounds of a foreign language by ear to reproduce them correctly.
6. The direct link between the vocabulary of a foreign language and the thought-process of students is most important.
7. The concept and meaning of a word are closely linked and similar.
8. The teaching of grammar does not require much use of psychology.
9. The students with a good knowledge of grammar are, sometimes, incapable of applying it in speech and writing.
10. The main principle in the psychology of thinking in a foreign language is that language and thought are not related to each other.
(B) WHAT IS YOUR UNDERSTANDING ABOUT THE FOLLOWING REMARKS? GIVE BRIEF ANSWERS.

1. What does psychology tell us about the teaching-learning process of a foreign language?
2. How can students learn best the phonetics of English language?
3. How does psychology help in learning the grammar of a foreign language?
4. Write a brief note on the psychology of thinking in a foreign language.
3. Teaching of Foreign/Second Language at the Secondary Level in East & West

3.1 Introduction

The teaching of a second language holds an important position in the educational curricula of each country. The educationists in all times have advocated the study of more than one language for multi-purposes. In the past classical languages like Persian, Arabic and Sanskrit in the east, and Latin and Greek in the West were held in high esteem. The study of one or more of these languages was considered essential for the complete education of the young people. In present times, the study of only modern and living languages is considered important because of the mass communication at the international level. A modern language is taught as a second language to the students at the secondary-level in the East and the West. It is almost given the position of a compulsory subject of study at the secondary level.

3.2 Teaching of a Second Language in the West

In the West, modern languages, especially French, Italian, German and Spanish were frequently a part of the Englishman’s education, but they were for the most part pursued for practical ends and purposes of travel. However, now it has been established that their study has both practical and educative value. It is recognized that they serve the purpose of commerce and industry; they are needed for scientific instruction and information and for the civil, diplomatic and armed services. Besides, they alone can give us an intimate knowledge of foreign countries and of the best thought of their citizens. But foreign language, like most other subjects, are not learned at school simply as an end in themselves. If properly taught, they will serve to train the pupils in habits of accuracy, and of clarity of thought and expression.
3.3 Teaching of a Second Language in the East

In the East, English has been the language of the rulers for more than a century. Hence the study of English was considered the special privilege of those who aspired to join the ranks of bureaucracy. While the children of the upper classes of society studied English Language in English-medium schools right from the first year of their education, the majority of the native children were taught English language after the completion of the primary level. Although it was rightly decided to change the medium of instruction in various subjects from English to the native language, yet the change has adversely affected the general proficiency of the students in English language. English is taught to our students as a compulsory subject upto degree level, but most of them fail to gain the reasonable command of the language.

3.4 The Difference

The difference in the achievement of the learners of a second language in the East and the West is the result of the differences not only in the quality of their foreign language teachers, but also in the methods and the techniques they use in their teaching. In the West, teachers of the second language have sound command of that language and they are well aware of the latest and most effective teaching methodology with the help of the modern language teaching aids, which are easily available to them due to their ample resources. In the East, comprising mostly developing countries with meagre resources, the results of the second language teaching are not satisfactory because they lack all the above requirements of effective foreign language teaching.
3.5 Summary

The teaching of more than one language has been an essential aspect of education in all ages. In the past, study of classical languages was given great importance but in the present times, teaching of one of the modern languages as a second language is a compulsory part of the educational curricula at the secondary level.

In the West, French, Italian, German and Spanish are the main modern languages taught as a second language in schools. They are learnt because of their utility from the international point of view as well as for their educative and cultural values.

In the East, the English language holds a privileged position in the educational curricula mainly because of its importance as a means of gaining scientific and technical knowledge, and as a means of entry to the all powerful class of bureaucrats. The change of medium of instruction from English to the native language is regarded as one of the causes of the decline in the standard of the second language learning.

The difference in the teaching of a modern language as a second language in the West and the East is due to the difference in all those things that matter in a foreign language learning, e.g. the quality of teachers, methods of teaching, the modern language learning aids, etc.
3.6 Self-Assessment Questions-III

Complete the following statements with the words/phrases:

1. The educationists advocate the study of more than one language for ____________________________

2. In present times, the study of ____________________________ language is considered important.

3. In the West, it has been established that the learning of modern languages have both practical and ____________________________

4. Only the knowledge of a foreign language can give us an intimate knowledge of that foreign country and of the ____________________________ of its citizens.

5. The proper learning of a foreign language also helps as in developing the ____________________________ of thought and expression.

6. The change of the medium of instruction has ____________________________ affected the proficiency of students in English language.

7. The efficiency in the learning of a foreign language depends upon not only the quality of teachers but also on the ____________________________ they use in their teaching.

8. ____________________________ for the teaching of English are mostly not available in our school.
4. The Place and Importance of English as a Second Language in Pakistan

4.1 The National and Foreign Languages

The languages may be divided into two categories – national and foreign. Every civilized nation has got a language, which is the expression of its thought and culture, its national life, its customs and manners, and the whole range of its social pattern. It is the vehicle of thought in official, administrative and educational spheres, and helps the nation in carrying out its manifold activities. This is known as the national language of the country. In some countries, there arises the need of a foreign language for establishing communication with the other nations of the world, and for making access to the advancement of knowledge in physical and social sciences. This foreign language is incorporated in the educational curricula of the country as a second language.

4.2 Complex Position in Pakistan

In Pakistan, Urdu has been officially declared as the national language of the country. English is taught as a second language in our schools and colleges. However, the position assigned to English language in our curricula is not true for most of our students whose mother tongue is not Urdu. In Pakistan, there are a number of regional languages such as Pashto, Punjabi, Seraiki, Baluchi and Sindhi, etc. which are quite different from the national language, Urdu. A child learns to speak the mother tongue at home, but he has to learn Urdu at the primary stage. Than, he is also expected to learn Arabic which is the language of the Holy Quran. It is the source of his religious knowledge, and fulfils his spiritual needs. Among this pattern of language learning enters English which is entirely a different kind of language. Therefore, it is obvious that the learning and teaching of English presents a number of
difficulties for the pupils as well as for the teachers. This is so because English differs not only in syntax, structure and idiom from all the Pakistani languages, but it has also a different mode of thought and expression.

4.3 The Privileged Position of English

The English language occupies a very important place in our educational curricula. During the British rule in the Indo-Pak subcontinent, it was the language of the rulers, the chief medium of instruction and language of the offices and courts. When the British left this country, a reaction took us to the other extreme and we started getting rid of English language in many aspects of educational and social fields. Although it still remains a compulsory subject in the public examinations upto degree level, yet a very high percentage of failure in this subject has led to a frequent protest from the public against the teaching of English as a compulsory subject. A part from sentimental considerations, either in favour or against English, the fact remains that the study of English is indispensable for any enlightened Pakistani young man who wants to reap the full benefits of practical life. In fact, English still retains a privileged position in Pakistan for the following reasons:

(i) Medium of International Communication

Today, English is considered as the most important and widely spoken language in the world. According to an estimate more than half the world directly makes use of English. Rapid means of transportation have conquered time and space, with the result that it takes very little time to reach various parts of the world. In the absence of an effective medium of global communication, the tourists and travelers themselves in great difficulty. Before some international medium of communication is evolved, English serves the purpose best.
(ii) **Store of Knowledge**

The knowledge has been rapidly increasing in the present age due to the work of scholars and scientists all over the world. Most of them present the results of their research in English. Fresh knowledge in every field of life is constantly appearing in books and journals published in English language. English has also a great literature which is continuously expanding in quantity and quality. Besides, all the great books of the world have been translated into English. To be able to read these books is a valuable experience. It is also language of internet which is a store of knowledge.

(iii) **Language of Higher Education**

English is the language of higher education in Pakistan, and for the Pakistani students abroad. It is still the medium of instruction for the scientific and technical subjects. For professions like medicine, engineering and agriculture, and in all branches of higher scientific work, knowledge of the English language is very essential.

(iv) **Store of Standard Terminology**

The standard terminology in all sciences and technology is available in English. If we translate them into the national language, new words will have to be coined which are not in actual use in the language and do not serve the purpose in the scientific world. The great scientific advance in the modern age is the result of a joint effort by all nations of the world. We cannot effectively participate in this team-work unless we learn and use the standard terminology of physical and social sciences.
(v) **A Language of Commerce and Industry**

The international commerce and trade is vital for the survival of a nation. The industrialist countries import raw materials for their factories and export their finished products to other countries. In both cases, exchange of commercial information is essential. Industry in Pakistan can also benefit from the use of the latest methods of production and sale which are available in English language. Without the knowledge of English language, it is almost impossible to take an effective part in the international commercial market.

(vi) **Language of Diplomacy**

English is used by our diplomats in the foreign countries. Our delegates to various international conferences, conventions and seminars express themselves in English language. English is one of the official languages of the United Nations and its various organs and bodies. Without sound command of English language, we cannot effectively represent our country at international forums.

(vii) **Means of Keeping Pace with Modern Developments**

The knowledge of English is necessary for keeping pace with the latest developments in technical professions. Members of these professions must acquaint themselves with the modern developments in their respective fields in order to increase their professional abilities, for instance, doctors, engineers and teachers have to remain in constant touch with the findings of the latest research carried out in their professions all over the world. They also contribute to the world knowledge by getting the results of their study and research published in the English language.
(viii) **Important Means of Promoting International Understanding**

The learning of foreign languages is one of the most important means of promoting international understanding and cooperation. One of the observations made at a UNESCO seminar was “The study of one or more modern languages, in addition to that of the mother tongue, must find a place in any educational system, aiming to preserve and develop the highest power of human mind and spirit.” Dr. West also puts forth a similar idea. “Many subject are taught in the school, not merely because they are useful to the individual but because they are desirable for the well-being of mankind. Foreign language are such a subject ...... International literacy promotes international understanding and goodwill. To understand a nation, we must appreciate their ideals, and these are best expressed by the nation’s greatest man: these great men, living and dead, are met at their best in the nation’s literature. International good understanding can best be promoted by teaching the children of the world to reach each other’s language.”

(ix) **Market Value of English**

A sound knowledge of English still opens up prospects of employment at home and abroad. It has thus market value. Young people proficient in English language, fare well in various competitive examinations for prestigious services of the country like the District Management, Foreign Service, Police, Customs, Magistracy, etc. Those who wish to proceed abroad for employment or education have first to qualify certain English language proficiency tests conducted by some foreign countries. For those reasons, English medium schools are more popular than ordinary schools. This is evident from the number of English medium private schools that have sprung up like mushrooms in the country in recent years, and a great rush for admission to them.
4.4 Conclusion

When a language becomes the vehicle of so much thought and activity in a country, it does not remain entirely a foreign language and it assumes a great importance in the educational curricula. As a subject of study, it is taught as a compulsory language from Class I to BA/B.Sc. level. However, emphasis should be on its functional aspect rather than on literature, except for those who wish to pursue postgraduate studies in English language and literature. As a medium of instruction, English should be gradually replaced by the national language. It should be done after careful planning and preparation in order to prevent the decline in academic standard, particularly at the University level where the students need to study wide range of material in their respective subjects.
4.5 Summary

i. English is the medium of international communication. It is particularly useful for the international travelers and tourists.

ii. There is a great store of knowledge in the English language. Fresh publications in every field of knowledge appear in this language.

iii. English is the language of higher education in Pakistan, and for the Pakistani scholars in foreign countries.

iv. The English language contains the standard terminology used in all branches of physical and social sciences.

v. English is the language of commerce and industry in the international world.

vi. The English language is used all over the world in international organisations, forums and diplomatic relations.

vii. The knowledge of English language enables us to keep pace with the modern developments taking place as a result of latest researches in all spheres of life.

viii. The learning of foreign languages is a very important means of promoting international understanding and cooperation.

ix. The English language has a great market value in Pakistan and abroad. Young educated people having sound command of the English language can hope of getting attractive jobs.
4.6 Self-Assessment Questions-IV

(A) PICK OUT THE CORRECT ANSWERS:

1. For communication with the nations of the world, a country has to make use of:
   (a) The National Language
   (b) A Regional language
   (c) A Foreign language

2. For most Pakistani children, English may be:
   (a) The first language
   (b) The second language
   (c) The third language

3. In Pakistan, Urdu is the national language and mostly used as the medium of instruction, yet English language:
   (a) Is taught as an elective subject
   (b) Holds a privileged position
   (c) Is a favourite subject of the students

4. English serves well the purpose of:
   (a) International communication
   (b) Official administration
   (c) Public examinations

5. We come to know about the research work of the scholars and scientists of the world through their publications in:
   (a) The American language
   (b) The English language
   (c) The National language

6. Pakistani students studying in Western countries acquire education in:
   (a) Arabic    (b) Urdu    (c) English
7. Importers and exporters in Pakistan will suffer loss if they:
   (a) Do not have knowledge of the English language
   (b) Take much care of the quality of goods
   (c) Have knowledge of the latest methods of production & sale

8. If you are a delegate at a UNESCO conference being held in Karachi, you will be required to speak in:
   (a) Urdu    (b) Sindhi    (c) English

9. In order to keep abreast of the fresh teaching techniques, a teacher should:
   (a) Consult his senior teachers
   (b) Read latest books on the subject
   (c) Devise his own teaching methods

10. One of the requirements of seeking employment in Great Britain and America is:
    (a) To have a relative there
    (b) To deposit a certain amount
    (c) To qualify English Proficiency Test

(B) GIVE SHORT ANSWERS TO THE FOLLOWING QUESTIONS

1. What is the difference between the national language and the second language of country?

2. What is the position of the English language in Pakistan?

3. What is the greatest use of the English language for the Pakistani students studying at the post-graduate level?

4. Why is knowledge of the English language essential for international communication?

5. How can high proficiency in the English language help a young Pakistani graduate?
5. The Objectives of Teaching English in Pakistan

We should agree that our first and foremost task is to teach the English language to our students. The teaching of English to our schools is designed to ful fil a number of demands, some of which conflict with others. Among these demands are the need to pass the examination, the necessity for achieving a minimum degree of competence in the use of English language, the need to teach a fairly large number of students in a limited time, the demand to stay within the limits of the resources available in the schools. Because of the external examination system, the teacher is not entirely free to select his own books, his own syllabus and his own consideration of what is important. In-spite of all limitations and difficulties, a teacher of English must try to achieve the objective of teaching English to our students at school. We are expected to develop in our students a reasonable degree of competence in understanding spoken English, in speaking English, in reading English and in writing English.

5.1 Listening Comprehension

Every language is a series of sounds, arranged in groups which convey meaning to the listeners. We receive sounds through our ears. In order to learn a language, ear-training is very essential. Unless we hear the correct sounds and pay close attention to them, we shall not be able to produce the same sounds ourselves. There can be no learning of a language without exposing the learner to that language. We must take into account the kinds of English to which our students are normally exposed and what opportunity, therefore, they have to learn the English language.
There is little opportunity for our students to listen to the spoken English outside the classroom. They would naturally copy the model set before them by the teacher. Therefore, it is important that the teacher of the English language must acquire a fairly good standard of speech. The teacher should provide to his students a variety of situations and experiences of listening to the spoken language. A language learner experiences difficulties with the sounds of a foreign language, both when listening and speaking. Trying to help students with their pronunciation can also be annoying for the teacher. The teacher should tackle this problem by considering first what the learner as listener has to deal with, i.e. the nature of spoken English. Then to help the learner to cope with the stream of sound as input, and finally how to help the learner to develop satisfactory pronunciation.

At the initial stage, the teacher has to carry out the hard and boring task of repeating himself many times in order to convey the correct sounds to the children’s ears. He has also to ensure their interest and attention. The teacher has to cultivate in them the habit of attentive listening. Therefore the first experiences in listening should be made pleasant. For this, the teacher should be as soft and sweet as possible. He should also make the students actively participate in the lesson.

5.2 Reading Comprehension

The ability to read English with understanding is the skill which will be needed most by our students in their future life—while acquiring education as well as in practical life. However, asking the students to read aloud is of little value in helping them to develop into efficient reader because normally, reading is a silent and individual activity. Of course, a teacher of English needs a high level of skill in reading aloud since he has to provide a good model of the written language (Textbook) for his listeners to listen to. Most of the exposure to English language
in our schools take place through the reading of texts. Nearly all new learning takes place while the pupil is reading. Therefore, the quantity and quality of reading are of the first importance. The textbooks of English must provide the situations and the contexts in which learning takes place.

The learner should make a beginning with the common place English and gradually move to the difficult and literary aspect of the language, first, those words and sentences should be introduced in the reading material which he has been listening and which relate to his experience and knowledge. This should be followed by simple stories and descriptions of familiar objects. The general principle for the reading text should be, “very simple English at the early stage, simple English at the middle stage and full English at the high stage”.

The use of reading aloud for pronunciation practice has no relation to silent reading. If the teacher really wants to do pronunciation work, it is spoken and not the written material that is needed. In our English class, reading aloud is often done simply because the teacher wants a change of activity or a rest. Although variety of activity for both teacher and learner is essential, yet such an ineffective activity as reading aloud should not be used so often for this purpose.

The reading comprehension has two broad aspects or levels. First, there is basically a visual task in which the brain receives signals from eye and identifies the marks on the page. This mechanical level includes eye movement, from left to right for English. This is also to be learnt by our student who uses right to left script in all local languages. Secondly, there is a cognitive task, that of interpreting the visual information. This involves thinking skills by which the reader tries to build up in his mind the meaning of the written material. Efficient reading depends first of all on having a purpose for reading, i.e. knowing why you are reading a text. The purpose could be a very
general one like reading a novel for pleasure, or on the other hand, it could be very specific like looking up a word in a dictionary. The purpose will usually determine the appropriate type of reading and the relevant skills to be used.

5.3 Ability to Speak English

We learn to speak our mother tongue by imitating those who speak around us. In a similar manner, a foreign language is learnt by imitation and reproduction. In the earlier stages, parrot-like repetition is more important than understanding the various parts of a sentence, or formulating ideas in a desired pattern. It is just like learning some skill as driving or knitting. The rule followed is, "Practice makes man perfect". When certain forms of language have become automatic with the learner, he will be able to reproduce them at his will. The teacher should, therefore, give drill and ample practice in the basic patterns of language so that they become automatic with the pupils. The questions and answers also help in developing the power of expression.

In order to acquire the ability to speak English, the student must possess:

(a) Sufficient vocabulary;
(b) A reasonable command of English idiom;
(c) Reasonably correct pronunciation and intonation;
(d) A proper sense of sentence structure.

The skillful use of language requires endless repetition and practice. It is due to the absence of this mode of learning a skill that most of our students can hardly speak a sentence of English even after graduation which means at least nine years of study of the English language. The teaching of English must be done by the skillful teachers for four reasons. First, children can learn correct pronunciation only from a teacher whose own
pronunciation is reasonably correct, and who knows how to teach the sounds of English that differ from those of the mother tongue. Secondly, because it needs special skill, liveliness and energy to give a lot of young children in a large class enough practice in speaking a new language. Thirdly, because it needs great patience and persistence to keep a repeating correct sentences and correcting pupils’ mistakes with good humour. Finally, needs the skill of a good teacher to vary the ways of repetitions and corrections so that they turn into enjoyable games.

5.4 Ability to Write English

On leaving the high school, a student is expected to be able to write in simple stories, letters, applications and descriptions of objects, places, process and events. The communication rather than mere practice of linguistic forms should be the main concern of the written exercises. A sentence is the basic unit of a written text, so the students must know the sentence grammar as well as the way of putting sentences together for communicative purposes.

Before a student starts writing, and from time to time as he writes, he should be asked, and encouraged to ask himself: "What is the purpose of his writing? To tell a sequence of events? To explain how something is made up? How something works? The reasons for something? To compare? To advise? To seek advice?" etc., etc. If the student knows sufficient language, this highlighting of the function of what he is writing will help call to mind the appropriate grammar and vocabulary learned and used in relation to that function.

The teacher of English language should not ignore the two mechanical aspects of the ability to write in which our students are usually weak. First, English spellings are the common hurdle in the learning of writing. Incorrect spellings are also a sign of lack of command over the language. There being no regular
system of spelling English words, it causes great difficulty and confusion to our students. However, often the cause of bad spelling in pupils is the habit of carelessness in observation and the hurried looks over the material read. Extensive reading with concentration is a good handwriting. The first and foremost characteristic of a good handwriting is that it should be legible. A number of candidates score poor marks in the examinations due to this defective habit, otherwise on the score of their material they could have obtained higher marks. Legibility depends upon the proper shape, uniformity and proportion of different letters.

5.5 Inter-Relations of Language Skills

Among the four fundamental skills of language discussed above, the first two, i.e. Listening and reading, are the passive or receptive skills, and the last two, i.e. speaking and writing, are the active or productive skills. If we analyse these activities in learning English, we find a large overlap among the component skills involved in them. There are some differences, but there are many elements in common. They should be taught in close association right from the early stages. This will bring economy in learning.

Although the basic skills of the language are closely inter-related, yet it is advisable that the teacher should keep a specific aim in view in a particular lesson. A lesson for training in speech should be exclusively devoted to the elements of speech, i.e. pronunciation, intonation, tone and pitch of voice, etc. Similarly, a lesson for written work should be devoted to the teaching of spellings, sentence construction, punctuation or other related elements. In short, the teacher should ensure harmonious development of all the basic skills. He should pay equal attention to all of them and devote proportionate time to the development of each of them.
5.6 **Role of an English teacher.**

a) A good language teacher constantly seek PROFESSIONAL UPGRADING and improvement of skills by attending courses, workshops, seminars and talks. He is AWARE OF CURRENT TRENDS AND DEVELOPMENTS in English language teaching He reads professional journals, and also reads extensively on non-ELT topics.

b) They have a GOOD COMMAND OF ENGLISH.

c) They are FRIENDLY and SYMPATHETIC to their pupils, and sincere in their attitudes. They have a close rapport with their pupils and are respected by them.

d) They are INNOVATIVE and CREATIVE willing to experiment in their classes. They are flexible in their approach, enthusiastic and lively in their work.

e) They adopt a STUDENT-CENTRED APPROACH by adapting their materials and activities to meet the needs, interests and capabilities of their individual pupils.

f) They create an atmosphere that PROMOTES LEARNING by their pupils, and encourages self-directed and peer learning. They use a variety of learning materials and techniques. They evaluate their work and constantly seek to improve the effectiveness of their lessons. They have a mastery of questioning techniques.

g) They plan their lessons well, in a careful and methodical way. They have clear goals to achieve in each lesson.

h) They cooperate with colleagues by sharing ideas and pooling resources. They are receptive to constructive criticism and suggestions. They relate well with colleagues, superiors and parents, and are tactful in their dealings.

i) They test what they have taught, and set effective tests and exams.
j) They have good communication skills, and express themselves clearly and effectively.

k) They are dedicated people who take pride in their jobs.

l) Their judgments and decisions are sound and full of common sense. They are self-confident.

m) They have an appropriate (preferably graduate) educational background.

5.7 Summary

i. The effective training in listening facilitates the learning of English language. Ear-training exercises should be provided so that the students become quite familiar with the sounds of English which are different from those of our native languages.

ii. Reading is a silent and individual activity. However, the most available opportunity of the pupils’ exposure to the English language is the loud model reading of the text by the teacher. For sound foundation in the learning of reading, beginning should be made with commonplace English and gradually take up the difficult and literary English. Reading aloud in the class should not be used very often by the teacher just for the purpose of change of activity in the class room. Reading comprehension demands visual and congestive tasks on the part of the reader. The efficient reading depends on first determining the purpose of reading.

iii. Speaking is the productive activity of the language and is the fundamental means of communication. The speaking ability can be acquired by persistent practice in speaking and by imitation of the spoken English. As the teacher provides the model of spoken language to the students, he
himself should be reasonably perfect in various aspects of English speech.

iv. At the end of the secondary stage, a student should have developed the ability to write few sentence of simple and correct English on topics of general interest. The students should know the sentence grammar as well as the ways of putting sentences together with coherence. They must be conscious of the purposes of their writing, and be able to collect, organize and convey their writing, and be able to collect, organise and convey their ideas in the form of simple, correct and coherent text. The teacher should also devote sufficient attention to the spellings and handwriting of the students.

v. The four basic skills of language are closely related and overlap one another in actual practice. Their teaching in close association brings economy in learning. However, it is important that in each lesson, the teacher should have a specific aim so that he may adopt the appropriate methodology for imparting training in a particular skill. The teacher should aim at balanced and integrated development of all the basic skills of the English language.
5.8 Self-Assessment Questions-V

(A) COMPLETE THE FOLLOWING STATEMENTS WITH THE WORD/PHRASES.

2. The teaching of English to secondary classes is designed to fulfil ..................................

3. Every language is series of ..........................................................

4. A language learner experiences difficulties with the sounds of a foreign language, both when ..................................

5. Pupil’s first experiences in listening should be made ..................................

6. Most of the exposure to the English language in our schools takes place through ......................................

7. The Reading comprehension requires visual task and ..................................

8. We learn to speak our mother tongue by ....................................

9. The skilful use of the language requires .................................

10. The incorrect spellings are a sign of ........................................

11. The teaching of four language skills in close association brings ........................................
Write Short Answers to the Following Questions:

1. What kind of teacher would be most suitable to teach English to our children at the initial stage?
2. What is the difference between the purposes of loud and silent reading?
3. How does reading comprehension take place?
4. What should be the main purpose of written composition in our schools?
5. Suggest some measures to develop the ability of speaking English in our students?

Activity

Give your opinion of a good teacher by putting √ marks in the “Yes” or “No” column against the following activities carried out by the teachers of English in our schools.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Activities of a Good Teacher</th>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>No</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Does a loud reading of the textbook.</td>
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<tr>
<td>2. Translates the text in the class.</td>
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<td>3. Teaches grammar rules to the students</td>
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<td>4. Explains difficult words to the students</td>
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<td>5. Checks the comprehension of the text by asking suitable questions.</td>
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<td>6. Always speaks English in the class.</td>
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<td>7. Encourages the students to practice spoken English.</td>
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<td>8. Makes the students write a lot of</td>
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<td>English.</td>
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<td>9. Uses interesting language activities in the classroom.</td>
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<td>10. Shows no reaction to the answers of the students.</td>
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<td>11. Uses only the exercises given in the textbook.</td>
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<tr>
<td>12. Gives a lot of home-task to the students.</td>
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6. ANSWER TO SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS

Self Assessment Questions — I
A. 1 (c)  2 (c)  3 (a)  4 (c)  
    5 (b)  6 (a)  7 (b)  8 (c)  
    9 (c)  10 (b)

Self Assessment Questions — II
A. False statements are 1, 2, 3, 4, 7, 8 & 10

Self Assessment Questions — III
Works/Phrases to be filled in:
Accuracy and clarity, modern and living, adequate facilities, multipurpose, best thoughts, methods and techniques, educative value, adversely.

Self Assessment Questions — V
(A) Words/phrases to be added:
Listening and speaking, reading of tent, listening and speaking, end less repetition and practice economy in learning, a number of demands, pleasant, lack of command over the language, imitating those who speak around us, cognitive task, ounds.
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INTRODUCTION

The Purpose of this unit is to make you aware of the new trends of teaching as a foreign language. Since world war II, the need for learning quickly the language of the invaders or countries invaded has become more evident. Keeping this very fact in view, the linguists paid more attention to methods which helped in acquiring a new language more rapidly. In USA, such methods were developed through which it was made possible to acquire proficiency in a foreign language within three months. The result of these activities led to the study of language linguistic which resulted in developing new methods of teaching.

This unit is written to introduce to you some relevant findings of linguistics. It is a fact that speech is a learnt behaviour and the sound producing equipment of human being is capable of producing all sounds that are found in any language of the world. The linguists have analysed languages and thus came to the conclusion that language is not a haphazard confusion of sounds, which are assembled in a jumbled whimsical order. Every language has a system of arranging words, making sentences and expressing ideas through signs and gestures.

The recent developments in linguistics and the psychology of learning have produced a methodology of teaching a second language which is also discussed in this unit.
OBJECTIVES

After studying this unit thoroughly, you are expected to be able to:

- Understand and describe the process of the language learning:
- Know and discuss that the language learning is not a theoretical process rather it is a habit formation:
- Describe and act according to the basic principles of the language and teaching:
- Improve your teaching capabilities;
- Appreciate and create love for learning language;
- Make your methods of teaching English interesting and meaningful.
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1. THE NATURE OF LANGUAGE

To be able to teach a second language effectively and in a minimum period, you have to understand the nature of the language:

The characteristics of human speech have been described in the following ways:

(a) Displacement
(b) Duality
(c) Cultural transmission

a) DISPLACEMENT:

It is the ability to communicate in the absence of original stimulus. For example; the words like big, small, cup, spoon, rivers, and mountains when uttered, immediately bring to the mind of the learner the qualities of things with which these words are associated. This is an important characteristic of speech. It eliminates the use of real objects or things or extensive use of signs in expressing ideas. You can imagine how hard it would have been to communicate if the speech did not provide this facility.

b) DUALITY:

It means the use of vast number of words with the help of small number of sounds. The number of sounds used in any language is relatively small. Similarly, the number of sounds that distinguish one language from the other is still smaller. If you go through the alphabets of English, you would notice that the sounds represented by them are also present in your language. The alphabets of a language are in reality symbols for sounds of a language. Therefore the shape of alphabets differs in many languages, but they represent the same sound. Take the example of \( \text{A} \) and \( \text{B} \); they represent the same sounds as A,B
and P in English. But the difference in the language lies in the combination of these sounds, which are known as sound clusters. The formation of sound clusters is very systematic and standardised for speakers in a community.

c) Cultural Transmission:

All words in the language are symbols of something human beings use. A language is a system of arbitrary vocal sounds which allow all people in a given community to communicate and interact. A language is a series of sounds which acquire meaning when grouped together in certain arranged patterns. Take the word ‘cat’. It is made up of the sound c. a. t. It stands for a small animal, furry animal. The combination of these sounds for a speaker of Urdu, means nothing because he/she has not learnt to associate the combination of these sounds with an animal. The association of certain combination of sounds with certain objects or qualities or activities is a learned behaviour depending upon the culture of the people.

The language is thus a learned behaviour. The words are used by ways as ‘Signs’ and as ‘Symbols’. The ‘Sign’ refers to things in the environment and are accompanied by gestures. The special human characteristic is the use of words for things not in the environment and for concept. Example: Sputnik, eskimo, whale, truth, honesty, etc.

The human being can also retain auditory images in the mind. Other features of the human speech are ability to create new messages readily. The ability to communicate thought, feelings and values, are other features of the human speech.

The sounds of a particular language are not difficult or easy. It is the familiarity or unfamiliarity of the learner that makes them easy or difficult. A child can produce an indefinite variety of sounds which an adult may find difficult to imitate. In
the process of learning his own language, a child learns to eliminate many sounds that are not found in his own language.

**ACTIVITIES**

1. Note the total number of alphabets of Urdu and English.
2. Note some of the sounds common in English and Urdu.
3. Describe the sounds which are different in both the languages.

**SAQ-1**

1. What are the characteristics of human speech?
2. How does one language differ from the other?
2. THE INFLUENCE OF LINGUISTICS ON LANGUAGE LEARNING

With the development of linguistics, the approach to teaching a language has changed. Before the development of linguistics, the study of a language meant the history of development of language rather than how it was currently spoken, read and written. The approach to teaching a second language was ‘Grammar translation approach’ or reading method. Bloomfield, the pioneer linguist, was the first to attack on this method. He pointed out the importance of spoken languae. He analysed the spoken language and recommended the use of spoken forms in teaching languages. Bloomfield had pointed out that each language consists of certain sounds. These sounds are produced by human organs. The organs of speech are lungs, bronchial tubes, throat including larynx, uvula, hard and soft palate, tongue, teeth and lips. The following diagram gives an idea of these organs.
The unit of sound of a language is known as Phoneme. The phonemes may have various forms. The language is nothing but combination of sounds produced by these organs. The speech sounds are therefore “organized noises”. The sounds produced by these organs are named according to the method of production and point of articulation. In each language, the phonemes – the basic unit of sound with its variant forms allophones and its combinations are limited. For the practical purpose, it is necessary that phonemes be easily distinguishable and for this reason the number of phonemes in any language is limited.

The other feature of the language is structure. The simplest unit of structure is morpheme. A morpheme is any word or part of word used as an affix or combining form that conveys meaning and cannot be further subdivided into smaller elements conveying meaning. Each linguistic sound has a meaning. It stands for something, but the meaning change with the way words are used.

Other features of the language are intonation, pause and stress. These are called supra segmental phoneme. The meaning of linguistic forms depends upon the arrangement of these forms.

As pointed out earlier, the learning of a language does not look as confusing and frightening if you understand that any language has only a limited number of sounds and a definite structure which may be different from your own language. Understanding this very characteristic well makes learning easier.

The teachers are advised to learn what organs are used in producing English sounds. How the various sounds are combined to convey some sense and the basic structure of sentences. The practice of these makes both learning and teaching easy. If you want to develop the ability to use English
language to convey thoughts, intentions, wishes and information, you would need mastery of various elements. These are individual sounds which are related to one another in utterances by structure (the grammar of the language) in respect of the written language. The written symbols that represent the spoken word are also involved.

You must not forget that there are various skills involved in the mastery of a language. These may be classified as receptive skills: listening (spoken language) and reading (understanding of written language) and productive skills: (speaking and writing). These skills involve a further element of selection of relevant language for the situation concerned.

As a teacher of English, you will need to exercise your judgement to decide what skills should be taught to your pupils. The choice of skills would naturally depend upon the purpose for which you are teaching English. That is why you must have a clear understanding of the purpose for which you are teaching this language.

Again, for mastery of English, the patterns of this language must be mastered. Just teaching rules of grammar does not help in mastering structure. Rules of grammar are like scaffolding a new building. The scaffolding are removed as soon as the building is complete. The best way to master patterns is continuous and systematic practice.

It is better to teach phrases, idioms and colloquial usage in context without analysing their structure. The examples of these are given for your help, very good, very bad, repeat, altogether, see you, etc. If you use these continuously, they are learnt without much effort.
ACTIVITES

1. Try sounding alphabets of English and note what organs of speech are helping in producing these sounds.

2. Look into the mirror while pronouncing these words. You can look at the organs of speech in action.

3. Pronounce some Urdu sounds like ن ب ا و ر and note the difference in the working of organs.

4. Write down from where these sounds are being produced.

5. Try to classify different English phonemes according to the organs that are helping in producing them.

SAQ-2

1. What is Bloomfield contribution to teaching language? How has it changed the concept of teaching a second language?

2. Previously attention was given to only past development of language, i.e. history of language, literary criticism or study of folklore. Bloomfield pointed out the importance of spoken language, how it is currently spoken, read and written.
3. THE GOALS OF LANGUAGE LEARNING PROCESS

The goal of language learning is that the students should be able to understand and speak the language fluently to a reasonable extent. The students should also be able to read and write the language which they have learnt to speak. The goal is to develop confidence among students to speak, read and write the language with their own ability.

Many educators have recommended the idea that growth in understanding of spoken language must come first before the teaching of reading starts.

The process of language learning is a habit formation. It is not a problem solving process like learning of mathematics or sciences or other forms of knowledge. The process of problem solving may come much later when the students have mastered the language.

The Objectives of Teaching Language in the Beginning Stages are:

1. To give training in listening and comprehension of what is spoken.
2. To reproduce sounds that ear has learnt to recognise. The sounds are not to be recognised as isolated individual sounds but as they are found in normal pattern of utterances, i.e. in morphenes or words.
3. To recognise speech symbols in printed words. In order to be able to understand the sounds represented by alphabets or their combination for example what does A or B etc. stand for or what sound ‘Th, ‘Sh, represent.
4. To be able to reproduce those graphic symbols (written alphabets) in writing.
THOSE OBJECTIVES ARE FOLLOWED BY THREE MORE OBJECTIVES, WHICH ARE A COROLLARY OF THE ABOVE OBJECTIVES. THESE ARE AS FOLLOWS:

a. Controls of structure, sound, forms and order of new language.

b. Acquaintance with vocabulary items that will involve content and structure.

c. Meanings to indicate the significance of these oral or verbal items have for the native speaker.

If one recognises and understands these objectives then the methods of accomplishing them can be developed. Before it is considered how to teach a language, it becomes necessary to know how a person learns a language in normal circumstances. In other words, what is the process of language learning.

Language learning refers to a number of processes which are difficult to analyse, but some of the processes analysed are:

1. Interpretation or getting the idea from the utterance of a person.

2. Ability to understand larger units of utterances, i.e. ability to hear part of an utterance and supplement the rest. Thus it is possible to get ideas quickly on hearing less. In our everyday conversation in our own language, we seldom hear the whole sentence to understand, what the speaker is saying. Thus our speed of understanding increases and conversation goes on smoothly. This process is known as aural comprehension.

3. Ability to retain an image of the noises until the auditor (nearer) interprets them. This is aural language span which is important in language learning, specially in second language learning. Besides other factors, this will be conditioned by the speed of the speech heard, the difficulty
and continuity of its content, understanding of words or expressions in the content. A symbol or an alphabet in a word may be familiar, but learner may not know what it means if he has no clear idea of what it refers to.

4. Ability to think in the language in which he is speaking or listening the native speaker. For example, if the native speaker says ‘cat’, the native listener does not analyse or concentrate on the sounds of ‘c’ ‘a’ ‘t’, he pays attention to the meaning of the word and immediately understands that these combinations of sounds refer to the small furry animal. Similarly in speaking, the native speaker gives attention to thinking what he says without paying attention to process of making noises or thinking of words. That is why if a student of second language thinks in his native language while talking in a foreign language his speech lacks fluency.

5. Ability to develop linguistic set. These sets make us respond in certain associations and inhibit others. It is directional and discriminative, i.e. it makes us to do certain things with certain material and not others

**ACTIVITIES**

Experiment with yourself, try to copy correct word sounds of English. Use radio or TV broadcasts in English as model. Study the objectives of teaching a second language; think of some methods which would be helpful in fulfilling these objectives.

**SAQ-3**

1. What are the goals of learning a language?
2. What should be the final outcomes of teaching a language?
4. PRINCIPLES OF SECOND LANGUAGE TEACHING

First language acquisition of a child is the simultaneous development of the faculty of language as well as structure of a particular language. As you must have noticed, it is the natural and automatic product of the process of socialisation with adult human beings. The child is more or less proficient in the use of his native language depending upon his language environment and socialisation with adults surrounding him. It is a common experience that the only child living in an adult environment picks up adults language more quickly. It is also true that we as adults continuously go on modifying language as we grow.

The process of acquisition of a second language is complex at all levels. However, linguists, psychologists and anthropologists are becoming increasingly aware of operation of a second language in a social setting. You will read in the following passages the principles of second language learning, but you must not forget that language learning is a social phenomenon and appropriate social environment is a basic requirement for any language learning. It is, therefore, recommended that games, paired conversation and group learning must form an important part of second language learning.

Psychological laws of learning and findings of linguistics have been utilized to evolve the principles of second language teaching. Following are some of these broad principles. They are not the last word in teaching a foreign language. They may change or be modified, if future knowledge and research open new doors.

1. Speech and writing should come before reading and writing. That means the approach to teaching should be audio lingual. It is argued that the language finds more complex expression in speech as intonations, stress,
rhythm and juncture cannot be adequately expressed in writing. The students who have oral mastery of language can learn to read more readily whereas the students who have learnt to read cannot learn to read as readily. That is why deciphering written material without knowing language patterns is an imperfect and wasteful technique.

2. The memorisation of basic language conversational sentences, as accurately as possible, is supported by linguistics. These sentences provide students models for further learning. These sentences can also be dialogues in authentic speech situation. Such as greetings, welcoming, inquiring, giving information, asking questions, etc.

3. Learning individual words, sentences and rules of grammar do not help in knowing a language. To know a language requires the use of patterns of construction with approximate vocabulary at normal speed of communication. The pattern should be practised through analogy, variation and transformation to become habitual. In English, like other languages, sentences are based on a very limited number of types of words groups. The subject predicate sentence is the most common and popular sentence form, but other sentences-type are:

**Question Sentences:**
- Did she say that?
- She said that’

**Equational Sentences:**
- The more the merrier
- Like father like son
- Fine young man, that’
Completion Sentences:
(Are you coming along?)
Whenever you are ready
(When shall we leave?) This afternoon.

Exclamatory Sentences:
Go away
How sad

Reporting Sentences:
Age fifty
Beautiful girl, Fair skin.
The practice of these sentence forms in a realistic situation would make the use of language more realistic.

4. The sound system should be taught in expression and sentence with intonation and rhythm of a native speaker. The learner should acquire the system through demonstration, imitation, contrast and practice. Attention to phonetic differences and articulation should be given along with pattern practice.

5. Minimum vocabulary should be used while students are learning the sound system. The vocabulary should be taught and practiced in real situations to clarify and remember meaning.

6. Massive practice in problem units be given, i.e. in those units and patterns that are structurally different between the first and second language.

7. Reading and writing should be taught as graphic representation of units and pattern already learnt.
8. The sentence patterns should be introduced in graded steps. The patterns may be graded, questions and answers, request, greeting as well as statements. The parts of speech, structure, words and modification should be introduced in full sentences. The presentation should be adopted to the capacity of the learner.

9. The translation should not be used for language practice. However, the full meaning of a sentence in the first language to give meaning for patterns and memorization is an acceptable practice.

10. Continuous practice is an important feature of language learning. When new patterns are introduced, they should be practised with already familiar vocabulary.

11. Interesting media for practice may be provided and each student’s successful attempt be continuously appreciated.

12. The teacher should teach primarily to produce learning and provide sufficient opportunity to listen, hear, carry out instructions, make statements, answer questions, make rejoinders.

To facilitate goals of language acquisition, attention must also be given to the selection of content for teaching. Here are some recommendations which might help you to choose the content:

1. Choose the subject matter which is of immediate importance to the learner.

2. Choose something which appeals to feeling. Balance cognition and effect. Something distasteful is hard to learn.

3. Try to choose something which leads to emotional response. Stories of adventure, bravery, etc. are topics which appeal to emotions.
4. Look for content of greater significance. Choose content related with learners external world. Try to integrate knowledge, facts and behaviour.

5. Invent an inventory of instructional procedures that make it possible for learners of different interest and abilities to achieve the same educational gains.

6. Make the environment to be more rewarding.

7. Be aware of changes continuously taking place in the society and anticipate what knowledge would be worthwhile in society.

**ACTIVITIES**

Choose a sentence pattern that you wish to teach. Devise a plan to teach this pattern to a class as beginners, with details of the type of activities and methods of drill you would use.

**SAQ-4**

1. How would you start teaching a class of beginners? Write the initial steps you would take.

2. How would you judge whether your students have become proficient in the language?
5. LEARNING ENVIRONMENT AND THE ROLE OF THE TEACHER

The age of student, linguistic and cultural background, mental capacity and educational background are important factors in language learning. Special techniques will be needed with different ages, such as play method, memorisation, mimicry, role playing, dramatisation, recitation, etc.

In cases where learner needs the language for his social and personal use, the speed of learning is faster.

Social prestige is attached to language if it is required for business or professional or recreational use. The interest in language is an important factor in learning. The interest would be guaranteed if the learner becomes aware of its value for future use. Good linguistic habits in the first influence second language learning. A person using the first language skilfully will be inclined to do the same in the second language.

Motivation is another important factor in learning. Learning by rote, memorisation and mimicry may become a little boring, and extrinsic motivation may be needed. For linguistic setting, a proper atmosphere should be created. The students will differ in the kind of material, they find easy to learn and remember. Some may remember and learn by seeing the written word for mental images; others may have vivid aural perception or memory, for others muscular movement in speaking and writing would be important. These differences must be kept in mind for preparing and presenting language material.

Teachers's influence is another important factor in language learning. The knowledge of the subject matter, enthusiasm, interest and the attitude of teacher will effect learning. The teacher’s role is that of a catalyst. The behaviour pattern of language will depend upon modelling by the teacher.
To teach language is to demonstrate. This needs a teacher who is thoroughly at home in the language he is teaching.

A confident and well-prepared teacher can easily devise ways of creating interest in language. A corner library pamphlets, advertisements, posters, add interest to learning. Films, film-strips, poetry, songs and dramas are added incentives. The teacher should have to be actively aware and involved in all these to create enthusiasm in learning the language.

All educationists tend to agree that all that is necessary for first class teaching is a good teacher and responsible pupils, but they don’t grow on trees. Without teacher’s preparation and special training in teaching a second language, little improvement is expected.

A good understanding teacher is God’s greatest gift to the learner. Some of the qualities that make good teacher are

- Continuous professional development.
- Desire to help pupils by individual attention.
- Good at communication
- A voice that has tone modulation and carrying power.
- Interest in the profession
- Friendly and cooperative.
- Creative & innovative.

The following are some guidelines for developing a programme for the learners. Additions and subtractions can be made according to needs:

**Guidelines for the learner:** The language must be related to the culture. Without cultural background the language
carries incorrect meanings. The following topics are suggested by Brooks and other linguists in teaching language:

- Greetings, friendly exchanges, farewell, personal exchange, show respect to age, status, sex, patterns of politeness and their common formulas.
- Knowledge about personalities and themes of the past and present which are sincerely respected. This can be done by easy books, radio-listening, films, TV magazines, etc.
- Speech development through pitch, intonation patterns.
- Learning contractions and omissions. Abbreviating phrases.
- Expletives, devices used to enliven speech by commenting on one’s feelings and actions, or on those people addressed.
- Likely errors in new language and their importance.
- Verbal taboos; what common words or expressions or their words or expressions or their equivalent are not tolerated in the language.
- Numbers: How are numbers pronounced, spelled and presented in arithmetic notations.
- Folklores, myths, legends, stories, traditions and customs universally found among common people.
- Childhood literature, lyrics, rhymes, songs, and jingles of authentic merit.
- Discipline - in home, school, public places, military, past time and ceremonies.
- Festivals - holidays, games, music, that a person is likely to do.
- Practising saying a series of sentences describing an action he was doing.
- Pattern practice.
- Re-statement.
- Completing sentences.
- Learning songs.
- Dramatisation - a story, a poem, an activity, an experience or discovery, (doll play, house, postman, doctor, etc.).
- Choral speech - good for teaching pronunciation.
- Repetitions and rhymes.
- Reading out stories to children.
- Listening to records, music, radio, seeing movies.
- Parents may be involved in some activities.
- Reading book in other fields in second language.
- Learning through sensory experiences. For example: Pupils look at different shapes, touch them, handle and talk about them. Other topics similarly treated, may be colour, texture, sounds, temperature, solids, liquids, directions, distances, length, time, etc.
- Reading dialogues dictated by children themselves.
- Stories with pictures.
- Choral Reading.
- Abridged editions of classics.
- Children books, magazines, comics.
- Cartoons.
- Use of dictionary, encyclopaedias, reference books. The teacher can develop a programme of his own based on these ideas suitable to the need of his or her pupils. You must keep in mind the following other suggestions for improving learning.
- The learner must be active in his approach to learning and practice.
- The learner must come to grip with language as a system.
- The learner must use language in real communication.
- The learner must monitor his own language.
- The learner must come to with effective demands of language.

**ACTIVITIES**

1. Develop some simple dialogues teaching vocabulary and structure practice in the classroom and record the outcome.

**SAQS-5**

1. How can you motivate students to learn English?
2. What habits of native language learning can help the learner of English?
6. GUIDELINES FOR TEACHERS

You as teacher of English must work on improving your own mastery of the language. As you have been told repeatedly, language is a learnt behaviour and it goes on improving with practice. It is necessary that you go on improving your language. I am giving you some suggestions for doing this, though I am sure many of you are doing these things yourself:

- Keep a good dictionary at hand like Oxford dictionary or Websters’ dictionary.
- A good reference grammar is absolutely essential. Keep it with you always.
- Keep a diary of vocabulary of words you have learnt recently or which have recently been introduced in newspapers, books or radio or TV broadcasts. Organise your vocabulary diary either alphabetically, topic wise or like a diary of daily additions.
- Try to practise English with friends and colleagues. If you have learnt new words or sentence structures, practise them, with your friends, your family and your students.
- Read materials in English outside the school text. If you feel insecure, start with easy reading-material even starting with picture stories, children cartoon, children story books which would help you to improve English and build your confidence.
- Evaluate yourself: What do you find most difficult to do in English listening, speaking, reading or writing. Concentrate on improving that aspect by a planned programme.
- Use radio and TV programmes for improving English. Listen to BBC programmes for learning English. If
you have a TV, watch all English programmes from Cartoons to films. You may not understand at all in the beginning but if you regularly watch these programmes you would improve your vocabulary and get a feel for the language.

- Try to read English newspapers, start with headlines, if you feel difficulty in reading the whole news item.
- If you can get hold of tapes, cassettes prepared by national and international agencies for language laboratories, take help of them in improving English.
- In this age of computers, there are various computer programmes that are being advertised in our newspapers. Keep your eyes and ears open and grab any of these programmes if you can, and then use it.
- Form an English language club where you and your colleagues can practise English – poetry reading, dramatisation, dialogues, courtesies can be consciously practised.
- See English classic-feature films. These provide entertainment and learning, as well.
- Learn some skills of simple black board illustrations like stick drawings, etc.

**ACTIVITIES**

1. Start your vocabulary diary in your class.
2. Start collecting saying, favourite couplets, poems you like and share it with your students
3. Practise stick drawings or other types of B.B. drawing in your lesson plans.
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TEACHING METHODS

Written By:
Malik Muhammad Iqbal

Revised By:
Mrs. Shagufta Siraj
INTRODUCTION

In this unit you are going to learn about methods of teaching English. Now, what is a method, you may ask, and why do we need to know about various methods and use them in our classes?

A method may be defined as a set of teaching techniques, based on a course of study, which uses certain types of materials. In other words, a method is a cluster of teaching procedures utilized in a classroom situation. A method may also be spoken of as a way to put across the selected language-material to the learners so as to facilitate its understanding and to make its impression everlasting.

The language is the most valuable human property. It is a tool for social interaction. As an English teacher, you, are engaged in an activity which has far-reaching effects and, therefore, it is very important. A good knowledge of teaching methods will help you in making your teaching more effective and fruitful than it would be otherwise. Wilaga M. Rivers writes about the need for a method in the following words:

“The question how students learn is a vital one for all teachers. Much teaching is diffuse, hit-or-miss procedure because of unclear notions teacher have on this subject. Increased efficiency must result from scientifically based insight into learning process”.

1. Wilaga M. Rivers, Teaching Foreign Language Skills. P. 88
OBJECTIVES

After reading this unit you would be able to

1. know how different methods developed and what sort of thinking has produced each method;

2. know which method is more effective in teaching various aspects of your subject;

3. know the importance of English language which it possesses in the present day world as a medium of communication;

4. Sharpe your consciousness as a foreign language teacher and would help you make a better teacher than you would be without a knowledge of teaching methods;

5. Motivate to read more about the methods of teaching English.
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1. The Nature of Language, its Origin and Evolution

According to Charles F. Hockett, “Language is the most valuable single possession of the human race.”

(A) Definition of Language

The language has been formally defined in the following words:

“Language is a system of arbitrary symbols which have been agreed upon by a group of people”.

This definition is very concise; it needs some explanation so that you may fully understand it. Following are the key points in this definition.

i) That the language is a system – a system is a combination of many items, it is not something like a single entity which may be indivisible. The language is an inter locked system of systems, many systems are inter woven together to form a language. For example, the phonological system of language in which the sounds of a language are arranged in a special manner to make words. The grammatical system which means that words are arranged in a special way to make phrases and sentences meaningful, etc. As a matter of fact, any language is a complex culture of various systems and the final totality of combinations is called a language.

ii) Arbitrary Symbols

a) Arbitrary – The language uses vocal symbols and these symbols are arbitrary. By calling the symbols arbitrary, we mean that the symbols have no relationship of physical-resemblance
with the things symbolized by them. The relationship is only conventional. That is, it has been agreed upon by a group of people. An example will make the point clear. Let us take the English word ‘CAT’. There are three distinct sounds in this word (K), (ai) and (T). Now, there is no resemblance between the physical shape of the animal and these sounds or their orthographic form (written form). These symbols are only arbitrary.

b) **Symbol**

A symbol may be called a conventional sign. The signs are events or things which in some way, direct our attention to the things signified by them. The signs have some sort of similarity with the things signified. The signs and the objects signified by them are related naturally or casually as shivering is taken as a sign of fever; or the signs for railways, rivers, on maps and the road signs, etc. The signs may also be conventional but symbols are purely conventional.

i) Agreed upon by a group of people: The vocal symbols produced by the human vocal organs and the visible marks of writing on a surface have been agreed upon by a group of people as to their arrangements and their meanings. Thus each member of a given language community uses these symbols in strict accordance with the convention hence they can understand each other. After the explanation of the key words in the definition

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quoted above, the meaning of the definition should be clear to you now.

ii) The basic material, of which all languages are made, are the audible movements of the human vocal organs, i.e. the human sounds. The minimum distinct sound is called a ‘Phoneme’. It is the smallest unit of human sound. The visible marks on paper or any other surface are the graphic representation of human sounds. This is called conventional orthography, i.e. the written form of a language. The language is marvelous because by combination and re-combination of a limited number of sounds and their visible marks in writing, man is capable of speaking about vastly greater and potentially definite totality of human experience—past, present and future. By dint of language, many speak about the whole big huge number of things that exist in the universe.

(B) The Role of Language in Human Society

The language plays a significant role in the human societies, without which social interaction would be impossible. Some characteristics of the role of language in society are as follows:

i) The language is a means for communication. In this capacity, it is a social tool without which social interaction will not be possible as effectively as it is now.

ii) Man’s understanding of nature depends on the language. We name, classify and explain objects of nature with the help of language.
iii) Man’s relationship with the past is possible through language. The written record of the past events help us to understand the past. Without language, our access to the past would not be as effective as it is possible with it today.

iv) Diffusion of knowledge, transmission of culture and social traditions is possible through language. Thus the national distinction and uniqueness is preserved, continued and passed on to the new generations through language. This transmission of cultural heritage helps maintain the national integrity and distinctive national features.

v) Accumulation of knowledge depends upon language. If there is no record of previous knowledge, it would be impossible to build on new knowledge and the human advancement will be halted.

vi) The knowledge of other cultures and societies is acquired through language. We read about other peoples from books, as tourists we mix up with them and learn about their faith, beliefs, and ideas through their language.

vii) Self expression; feelings, emotions and ideas are best expressed through the medium of language. In brief, in states of anger and excitement, for expression of the emotions of love and hatred, we use language.

viii) The phatic communion, i.e. informal exchange of ideas, talking about weather, etc. is done through language. The phatic communion is not serious talk, it is talk just for the sake of talking, but it is a human need, which is fulfilled through language.
ix) Without language, man would not have been capable of receiving Divine Message. The Holy Quran and all other revealed books, use the medium of language to convey the message of God to the mankind.

x) The personal expression: A poet, a philosopher, an orator or a political leader expresses himself in language as well as a scientist put forward his ideas and theories in language.

(C) The Specialised uses of Language

Over and above these general uses of the language, many people have professional need to know something about language from a specific point of view. Here are some examples:

i) The speech correctionist, since his job is to help people impediments in their use of language, carefully studies the functioning of the language.

ii) The psychologist who knows that the language is one of the important factors which differentiates human behaviour from that of animals, like rats and apes etc., needs to know about language.

iii) The literary artist, who must know his medium and its potentialities just as a painter, must know his pigments, brushes and clours.

iv) The Literary critic needs to know about the language for similar reasons.

v) The missionary who may have to learn some strange languages for which no ready made primers or dictionaries are available.

vi) The foreign language teacher, for instance of English teacher like yourself, needs to know about the nature of the language and the rules which govern its functions, so that the foreign language
teacher may successfully achieve his set goals. An insight into the working of the language will help in teaching of foreign language.

vii) The anthropologist needs to know about how language works because (a) the language is a part of what he calls ‘culture’ and (b) because in often confronted by practical problems of a linguistic nature.

viii) The linguist or the language-scholar studies language for his own sake. He wants to understand the functioning of the system of the language.

ix) Similarly the historian, the philosopier and the communication engineer needs to know about the working of the language.

2. GRAMMAR – TRANSLATION METHOD

This is the traditional approach to teaching of English and in spite of the fact that strong criticism has been levelled against this approach, it is still very popular with the teachers and is vastly used in our schools.

The Grammar Translation method started around the time of Erasmus (1466-1536). Its primary focus is on memorization of verb paradigms, grammar rules, and vocabulary. Application of this knowledge was directed on translation of literary texts–focusing of developing students’ appreciation of the target language’s literature as well as teaching the language. Activities utilized in today’s classrooms include: questions that follow a reading passage; translating literary passages from one language to another; memorizing grammar rules; memorizing native-language equivalents of target language vocabulary.

The focus of this method is on the written language. It makes little or no provision for practice in spoken language.
The basic principles of this method may be stated as follows:

1. Translation from the target language (English) into mother tongue (Urdu) and vice versa, is the best way to understand the linguistic patterns of English.

2. That in the process of interpreting English into the mother tongue, the sentence pattern of English is assimilated.

3. The linguistic facts of English explained in the mother tongue and the rules of grammar are rigorously taught. It is assumed that the learners will apply the rules thus taught and be able to produce the foreign language expression when confronted by a situation.

4. The structure of a foreign language is best learnt when compared and contrasted with that of the mother tongue.\(^1\)

In brief we can say that there are three key concepts in this semantic approach: the focus is on the understanding of the written language, that the best way to do so is through translation and the foreign language facts are taught by the rules of grammar which ensures the production of correct target language.

This method has its roots in the techniques used for teaching classical languages i.e. Latin and Greek in Europe during the middle ages and afterwards. Latin and ancient Greek were dead languages and the interest of the people in these languages was for the sake of their classical literature and religious writings. They read the great classical authors like Cicero and tried to imitate their styles. The Latin grammars believed in preserving the ‘chaste’ language of the celebrated ancient authors and prescribed the standard of corrections.

\(^1\) Thomson and wyatt the teaching of English in India.
Famous books on Latin Grammar written by Varro, Aclius Donatus and Priscian were outstanding examples of this approach. Donatus grammar was used right into the middle ages.

By the Middle Ages, it was realised that Latin was no longer the native language for the majority of its prospective users. Instead of describing the living facts of the language, the grammar books degenerated into a set of dry rules. The concept of correctness became more rigid and dominant. Grammar was defined as “the art of speaking and writing well”. Grammar and classical literature had become complementary subjects and were pursued in their own right for the cultivation of intellectual discipline, social manner and cultural accomplishments.

A similar attitude developed towards teaching and learning ancient Greek. The language of the best literature was held up as a model and a guide for the desired standard of speech and writing.

The effects of such an attitude towards language teaching on later thought, was considerable. The sixteenth century was the peak period of prestige for Latin and Greek studies. This caused a setback to the study and growth of native languages. They were called vernaculars (local languages) and considered to be base and inferior to Latin and Greek. Spanish and French were seen as examples, of much decayed languages. The popular adjectives for English, in the sixteenth century were such as bases, barbarous, rude, grass, vile and incoquent.¹

However, with the passage of time, this wave of interest in classical languages ebbed down and interest in the mother tongues developed. Grammars were written for the new languages, but the models of Latin and Greek grammars were followed. The best authors were studied as examples of “what a language was like”. Although the shift was from Latin and Greek
to the study of native languages, but the old tradition in the
methods of study lingered on.

When the English grammars were written in the
eighteenth century, the scholars steeped in Latinite and Greek
literary traditions, produced only “rules of correct usage”, hence
the grammar books which followed the old models are referred
to as “Prescriptive grammars” by modern scholars of linguistics,
because these grammars prescribed normative rules instead of
giving a description of the living facts of a language.

Similar standards were imposed on other languages like
Spanish, French and German. But at last the people realised
their mistake and the fallacy of these grammars was exposed.
Traditional grammars failed to fulfill their purpose because the
rules prescribed by them became more and more removed from
the current usage of the majority of speakers.

Towards the beginning of the present century, the old
approach was severely attacked and finally made humble before
the findings of a new discipline called Linguistics, which
appealed to the reason and were convincing. In the light of
these findings, new principles for learning languages were laid
down and a fresh approach emerged as a result. It was first
called Reformed Method, but later on it was popularly known as
Direct Method which we shall study in the next section of this
unit.

We have seen above that the basic tenets of the
grammar-translation method are:

i) Teaching rules of grammar to describe the target
language with the aim that the learner would
produce right patterns of language if once he
mastered the rules of grammar;
ii) Use of translation for semantic purposes, i.e. foreign language is best understood when translated into the mother tongue of the learner;

iii) It is by the process of translating that the sentence-patterns and other facts of a foreign language are easily assimilated by the learner.

The question of translation from one language to another is a complicated one. It is a specialised skill in its own right and deserves special study which is not possible here. However, a brief treatment may be desirable here in the context of grammar-translation method and as a tool for learning foreign languages.

The advocates of the grammar-translation method believe in the efficiency of translation as a technique of foreign language teaching on the following grounds:

A German scholar wrote: “It is not till one can translate the word that one has complete mastery over it, so that one not only understands it but can use it.”

Henry Sweet, a staunch advocate of the natural method, takes a lenient view of mother tongue if used sparingly, he remarks “……… and if the judicious use of mother tongue would help in this process (to establish an instantaneous association between thought and sound) in the initial, giving meaning of new words or arrangements of words and foreign expressions then there is no harm in it.”

Thomson and Wyatt, writing on “The vernacular in the teaching of English”, say! “There is, first the finding of vernacular equivalents for single words. This goes on throughout the course, because very often the best help we can give the pupil is to give him in his own language the equivalent

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1. Thomson and Wyatt. Teaching of English in India P. 23
of a foreign word”. There is next the translation of special sentences. Our object here may be either to explain grammatical structure or to convey the meaning of idiomatic expressions”.

“In both cases, translation is resorted to not for its own sake, but as a means to an end. The end being the more effective teaching and learning of the foreign languages”.

Probably such theoretical framework provides the basis on which the practitioners of grammar–translation method include translation of the foreign language into the mother tongue and out of the mother tongue into the foreign language, but one may argue against them and say that mere comprehension of the foreign text is no guarantee for learning other skills of that language and using it correctly and fluently.

Correctly and fluently: By translating foreign language individual sentence or a compact paragraph passive understanding may occur, but it can never ensure smooth and uninhibited fluency in speech. As a matter of fact, translation proves a hindrance in acquiring spontaneity and smooth natural flow of speech in the foreign language. A learner who has acquired foreign language via the translation and by parroting the rules of grammar, when confronted by a foreign language situation, is not thinking in that language, so he cannot speak fluently and with natural case. His style in both speech and writing is laborious and the result is a variety of language which may be approximation of English but not the language spoken and written like the native speakers.

The variety of English produced as a result of learning the rules of grammar and by translation has earned itself the name of pidgin English, which is a degregative epithet and conveys a severe disapproval on the part of the native speakers.
Grammar

While teaching English by Grammar-Translation Method, the general atmosphere in the classroom is permitted with the mother tongue. This reduces the contact frequency of the target language. In other words, the time spent in teaching the rules of grammar, and in translation exercises from and into the mother tongue, could be used in the learning the facts of English. Thus providing more chance to the learners to come into contact with the target language and the results are likely to be much better in terms of acquiring foreign language skills. The most widely known method is grammar-translation method which in basically an adaptation of techniques used to teach classical languages. Its corner stones are the teaching of rules of grammar and translation of sentences and passages into the target language. Texts for translation can, in fact, offer quite a rich semantic experience for language learning and up to a point the method ensures that the learners are clear about the meaning of the language they are learning. The learners also generally acquire a good reading knowledge of the target language and if they have learnt conscientiously, they may be accurate in the production of the foreign language. However, as the method focuses on the written word, they tend not to cultivate oral fluency and spontaneity. Moreover it is not necessarily true that the best way of acquiring facility in a foreign language is through translation. The emphasis on creating a framework in which rules can be applied can also lead to stilted and unnatural use of language both by teachers and learners. Because the mother tongue is used to give explanations of the grammar taught, the method is clearly unsuitable for groups of mixed nationalities and mother tongues.
ACTIVITIES

Self-Assessment Question — I

a) Encircle T or F in the following statements.

i) The grammar – translation method is a traditional approach to teaching English.

ii) The grammar – translation method is still used in most of the countries in the world.

iii) In Pakistan the English teachers use grammar-translation method because of the examination requirements.

b) Choose the right answer

i) The grammar-translation method is used by many teachers because:
   
   A. The don’t know any other method.
   B. They think other methods are not effective.
   C. The do not have fluent command over English.
   D. Teaching of English is geared to examination needs which values teaching grammar and translation.

ii) Teaching English by grammar-translation method produces such students:
   
   A. Who have command over all the four skills of the language.
   B. Who can speak English fluently.
   C. Who are comparatively better in reading skill.
   D. Who do not have command on spoken skill.

iii) Use of grammar-translation method must continue in our schools because:

   A. Our English teachers are trained on these lines.
   B. We do not need English, primarily as a spoken language.

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C. Our Curriculum obliges us to do so.
D. It is an effective method.

The Direct Method

As we have examined in the previous section, the grammar-translation method after a long period of dominance of the scene of foreign language teaching was eventually attacked by the forces of Reform Movement which emerged in the late nineteenth century. The method was finally humbled and replaced by a more rational and practical approach called the Direct Method.

The Reform Movement has an important place in the history of foreign language teaching. From 1882 onward, there has been a spate of publications on the subject. Beginning with pamphlets and articles, the new consciousness developed into writing substantial works like Henry Sweets ‘Practical study of Languages’ (1899). Professional associations and societies were formed to promote the new ideas, notably the International Phonetic Association (IPA), an association of French teachers constituted in 1886. The IPA popularised the principles which finally materialised into a form called the Direct Method.

The direct method originally came from Germany and was first called reform method. In the beginning of the present century, the Reform Method was given official approval in several European countries.

Since it was popularised by a German schoolmaster named Berlitz who, like Sauveur, had migrated to America and seeing the need of the people for learning modern European languages, opened many schools not only in America but in France, Germany and England as well. Berlitz’s network of schools began by teaching French and German in 1882 and English as a foreign language followed shortly afterwards. There Spanish, Italian, Russian, Dutch, Danish, Czech and Hungarian
had all been added by 1910 along with Swedish, Polish, Portuguese and Japanese. By 1910, twelve modern European languages were being taught in Berlitz schools. He employed the native speakers and used the direct method.

Berlitz gave very clear and straightforward instructions to the teachers. Later on, these directions became the basic principles of the Direct Method:

1) No translation under any circumstances.
2) A strong emphasis on oral work.
3) Avoidance of grammatical explanations.
4) Maximum use of question-answer techniques.

“Direct method would not have happened. When it did, without Berlitz very few people would have benefited from it”. (A.P.R. Howatl P. 204).

The Direct method in the early requires that all instruction be conducted in the target language with no recourse to translation.

Reading and writing are taught from the beginning; although speaking and listening skills are emphasized. Grammar is learned inductively. It has a balanced, four-skill emphasis. One of the earliest claims for an introductory “silent period” was presented by Hills (1929) and Place (1925). Teachers were cautioned that they should not expect unrealistic results from the Natural Method after only two years of study.

**PRINCIPLES OF THE DIRECT METHOD**

The Reform Movement, referred earlier, was founded on three basic principles:

1) The primacy of the speech.
ii) The connected text as the central point of teaching-learning process.

iii) Absolute priority of an oral methodology in the classroom.

The basic assumption in the direct method is that the primary function of language is the communication of ideas. Therefore, unlike the grammar-translation method which focuses on the written words, the direct method puts the emphasis on the spoken word and aims at achieving spoken fluency and spontaneity in the target language. The direct method has been defined by Henry Sweet as “to establish an instantaneous association between thought and sound”.

The ‘direct bond’ as the phrase has been used by many exponents of the method, means that the meanings of the words and sentences of the foreign language should not be taught through the mother tongue but a direct bond should be established between the word and the object and between the word and the action or quality and this can be done through various techniques.

The advocates of the direct method believe that the use of mother tongue should be totally excluded from the classroom and a monolingual atmosphere should prevail therein. All instructions to the learners should be given in English. Translation has no place in the direct method approach. English is taught as if it is the mother tongue of the learners and the use of their native language will be reduced to the bare minimum as a last resort. However, some writers on the subject do not follow this rigid line. For instance, Henry Sweet takes a permissive stand on this point and concludes …and if the judicious use of mother tongue would help in the process (i.e. the initial giving of the meaning) of new words or arrangements of words) then there is no harm in it”. 

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This view, on the use of mother tongue in teaching foreign languages, is held by most of the modern advocates of the direct method. In the opinion of the present writer, this may be described as a realistic attitude, Jesperson writes: ‘Translation ought to be used sparingly, and at all events, it is not a word or at the very most, a sentence now and then’. “The principle” says Kirkman, “is that a foreign word or word-groups should be associated with its meaning directly – in other words without the habitual intervention of the native speech”.

In short Grammar has no place at all in this method. As a matter of fact this approach has developed as a sharp reaction against grammar-based methods. In its essence the method is ‘a system of acquiring language by dent of listening and using it spontaneously in real life situations. The process of acquiring a new language is modeled on the pattern of acquiring mother tongue, it is evident that the child does not acquire his mother tongue by learning the rules of grammar, nor with the help of translation. He learns the first language in a natural way, i.e. by listening to the elder members of his speech community and then by repeating the learned expressions in proper contexts.

This is meant by ‘learning a language in a natural way’. However, a thorough knowledge of grammar is necessary for the teacher. What is rejected in this approach is the objectionable practice of giving the rules of grammar in a deductive manner and to force the learners to commit them to their memory. Summing up this point, we may say that grammar may be taught provided it subserves the main purpose of the method of giving the learner a better and a fuller knowledge of the language he is learning so that to enable him to use it more effectively. What is objectionable to the practitioners of the direct method is too much dependence on deductive grammar. If now and then inductive method of grammatical rules is used it may be in consonance with teaching of other subjects of the curriculum.
Theoretical Frame-Work of the Direct Method

The theorists of the direct method share a common belief that students learn to understand a language by listening to a great deal of it and that they learn to speak it by speaking it—associating speech with appropriate action. This, they observe was the way children learned their native language, and this is the way children who are transferred to a foreign environment acquire a second language apparently without great difficulty. The various oral and natural methods which developed during the nineteenth century can be grouped together as forms of the direct method, in the sense that they advocated learning by the direct association of foreign words and phrases with objects and actions without the use of native language by the teacher or the student. Speech precedes reading, but even in reading students are encouraged to forego this direct bond between the printed words and their understanding without passing through an intermediate stage of translation into the native language. The ultimate aim is to develop the ability to think in the language, whether conversing reading or writing”. The key concepts of the direct method can be summed up as follows:

1. In the latter part of the nineteenth century, two factors contributed to the formulation of this method.
   (a) General dissatisfaction with the grammar-translation method.
   (b) New interest in the modern European languages and the need to learn them as spoken languages.

2. A group of scholars and teachers openly attacked the assumptions of the current practices of the time and came up with a new approach which saw ‘speech’ as the first means of communication and
gave reading and writing a secondary position. Speech is considered more important because:

(a) The children learn mother tongue through speech.
(b) Speech is more universal than writing.

3. Translation is not only unnecessary for acquisition of a foreign language, but is positively a hindrance. Translation is harmful because it encourages to colour the thought patterns of foreign vocabulary with mother tongue. As a matter of fact; learning a foreign language means learning new and different thought pattern.

4. All material to be learnt is first presented orally at the primary stages.

5. No grammar rules are taught. Grammar is taught through situation and association.

6. The focus is on listening and oral practice. The students are required to repeat over and over again what the teacher says until the grammatical pattern becomes automatic.

7. Mother tongue is totally excluded.

8. The strong point of this method is that the students cultivate fluency and spontaneity.

9. One of its weak points is that this method does not impart grammatical awareness and leaves the learners helpless in the face of new situations.

10. The language material presented consists of everyday vocabulary and structure especially at the initial stages.
11. Correct pronunciation and intonation is taught by presenting correct models of speech.

**ACTIVITIES**

1. Teach a comprehension lesson to a section of class 10 by grammar–translation method. Then teach the same lesson to another section of class 10. Compare the results, which method, do you find to be more effective?

2. While teaching by the direct method which difficulties do you encounter? Can you overcome those difficulties?

3. What are the main advantages of this method?

4. It has been observed that: “The direct method demands highly competent teachers, willing to spend a great deal of time and energy on each lesson, for results which are not always worth the effort”. What is your idea about this remark?

5. How far are the exponents of the direct method justified in their claims: keeping in view the aims and objectives of teaching English in Pakistan evaluate the use of direct method in your classes?

**SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS II**

Q.1. Encircle or tick mark T or F in the following statements:

i. The direct method developed as a result of general dissatisfaction over the grammar – translation method.  
   T  F

ii. The reform movement recommended the use of direct method.  
   T  F

iii. The term direct method was first coined by the French phonetician Passy.  
   T  F

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iv. The direct method does not impart the grammatical consciousness and leaves the students helpless in new situations. T F

v. Without Sauveur direct method would not have happened. Without Berlitz very few people would have benefited from it. T F

Q.2 CHOOSE THE RIGHT ANSWER

i) The basic assumption in the direct method is that:
   a. The primary function of a language is communication.
   b. A foreign language is best learnt through abundant listening and initiating at the early stages.
   c. Rules of grammar and translation exercise prove a hindrance in the way of learning a language in a natural way.
   d. All the above

ii) The direct method lays emphasis on:
   a. Reading
   b. Speaking
   c. Writing
   d. Teaching literary texts.

iii) The direct method pays more attention to:
   a. Oral work at initial stages
   b. The reading skills at advanced levels
   c. Listening and speaking
   d. Spoken word in the initial stages and all the other skills also receive due attention.
4.1 Dr. West’s New Method (The Reading Method)

1. Historical Development

Dr. West’s New Method or the Reading Method, as it is popularly called, emerged from and experimental project undertaken by Dr. West in Bengal. The project itself was written up in a report called ‘Bilingualism’ (with special reference to Bengal). It was published by the Indian Bureau of Education in 1926 and provided the data for West’s Ph.D. degree awarded to him by Oxford University in 1927. The title of his doctoral thesis was ‘The Position of English in a National System of Education for Bengal.

Michael West went to India in 1912 and worked as Principal of the Teachers’ Training College in Dacca and as the Inspector of Schools for Chittagong and Calcutta. He was also the Honorary Reader in Education at Dacca University and published articles in the field of education. Both his experience as and educationist and his knowledge of the Bengali Educational system prepared him for the experiment in material development which he undertook in 1924-25.

The Bengal Project Report contains significant ideas pertaining to teaching of English as a foreign language especially the teaching of Reading, which later developed as Reading Method.

As a pilot experiment, West tried this idea out with a class of eight-year-old whose knowledge of English on the standard tests he used was virtually zero. The materials he used were locally produced for primers and elementary readers. Each new text was introduced by the teacher and it was he who decided which were the new words. He then glossed them and practiced them with the class. Comprehension questions were answered in Bengali.
The results of this first trial was disappointing so the procedures were changed. This time the students were encouraged to tell the teacher which were the difficult words they did not understand. But still there were great many difficulties and the progress was slow.

2. **West’s Important Principles for Improving Reading.**

West thought that there were two main ways in which the reading text could be improved so that to make them more understandable and interesting for the learners. The first was to simplify the vocabulary by replacing old-fashioned literary words by their more common modern equivalents. For example, West discovered words like plight, mode, isle, sought, and groom. He replaced them by more commonly used words like state, way, island, nothing, and servant. This principle which can be called lexical selection principle was to become a dominant one during the next twenty years. This principle also echoed the ideas of palmer who, working in Japan, had put forward similar ideas to make teaching of English easier for the Japanese students. West was trying to develop, ultimately ‘International English’ particularly in the form of informative texts. Later such a variety of English did develop which is now popularly called simple English and can be heard from the voice of America in its special programmes, and can be read in the form of simplified versions of literary pieces.

West’s second principle of reading ability could be called a lexical distribution principle, which is perhaps more important than the first one. This principle points out to the fact that:

“Not only were there too many new words overall, but they occurred too closely together in the current readers. Almost every sentence contained a new word with the result that both the teacher and the taught were frustrated and tired
of the frequency of new items with the result that none of them could be practiced, properly.”

In the light of these principles, West developed his own reading materials which were later known as New Method Readers by Michael West and became very popular. West compared his simplified materials with four readers in current use at both the Primary and First Reading Book levels.

In the New Method Readers which Michael West adopted or wrote himself, the overall number of new words dropped from an average of 420 to 236 in the First Reading book and from an average 450 to 208 in primers. In the New Readers, instead of meeting a new word in every sentence, the children would practice five or six sentences with each new word.

West's first experiment with the New Method Readers compared the children in class 2 of a severely disadvantaged school with one of the best schools in the province. On entry the disadvantaged children knew on the average 9.5 letters of the English alphabet in seventeen and a half weeks, they had gained the equivalent of two and a half years and were comparable to class IV children of the better school who were using the old materials. The second experiment was more impressive with a gain of two and a half years in only ten weeks. The starting point here was higher and all the children were literate in Bengali, which had not been the case in the first school. Research of this kind is full of uncontrolled variables of one kind or the other. Nevertheless, the main point was clear enough. The children made better progress in the reading with texts that did not introduce too many new words too quickly.

3. The Problem of New Words in the Reading Text:

We have already stated that two procedures were adopted to indicate the new vocabulary in the reading text. Both these procedures were abandoned in favour of a new technique
which was a clear, unambiguous indication of the new words, properly marked in the new words, properly marked in the text so that the children would be alerted and the teachers need would also be met.

A controlled vocabulary with each new item explicitly indicated on the printed page, provided the model for the New Method Reader Scheme which began to appear from Longmans in Calcutta from 1927 onwards. Later they were published for the world market in London along with other New Method series such as New Method Conversation (1933), New Method Composition 1938, etc. Harold Plamer contributed the New Method Grammar (1938) and also wrote a series of New Method English Practice books published in the same year.

After his departure from India, Michael West emerged as an international figure on the scene of English language teaching. He had collaborated with Harold Palmer, another World leader in English language teaching and champion of spoken language, but West was doubtful about the efficiency of spoken language on Palmerian lines. However, both these men were the founding fathers, in two different approaches, of the modern method of teaching English, Palmer in spoken language and West in the written.

4. The Concept of Basic English

BASIC ENGLISH stands for British American Scientific International Commercial English. Another idea with the idea of simplified texts to make reading as easy as possible, is the concept of Basic English which developed during thirties and caused bitter controversy as well as won support and favour.

As this concept is closely related to the method of reading, it is worthwhile that we, as English teachers, should have a background knowledge of this concept in order to better understand reading texts prepared on this principle.
Basic English is English made simple by limiting the number of its words to 850, and by cutting down the rules for using them to the smallest necessary number for the clear statement of ideas. And this is done without change in the normal order and behaviour of these words in everyday English. This is the first point to make clear. Basic English, though it has only 850 words, is still normal English. It is limited in its words and its rules, but it keeps to the regular forms of English. And though it is designed to give the learner as little trouble as possible, it is no more strange to the eyes of any reader than these lines, which are in fact in Basic English.

5. Reading Method

The reading method was prominent in the U.S. in 1928. The earlier method was similar to the traditional Grammar/Translation method and emphasized the transference of linguistic understanding to English.

Presently, the reading method focuses more on silent reading for comprehension purposes. At the present time, reading proficiency remains an important second language skill as contemporary researchers in L2 reading take an information-processing approach to instruction and stress the role of reading strategies in comprehension.

So far we have studied the development of reading method which emerged as a result of the efforts of Michael West who worked with the Bengali-speaking students of English language. But Dr. West was not the only person who developed the idea that reading skill plays an important role in learning English as a foreign language. In the United States, Coleman's Report, published in 1929, also came out with similar recommendations. The Coleman's report was publishid as a part of the Modern Foreign Language Study in the United States. The Report concluded that the majority of American students study
a foreign language for a period of only two years. Therefore, the report maintained that the only objective which could be considered attainable in such a short period was the development of reading ability.

As a result of Coleman’s recommendations, teachers began to look for the most effective ways of developing the reading skill so that the students who offered language courses of short durations should be made capable of continuing independent reading after their formal study of the foreign language had ended.

It was believed that the students should be trained to read in the foreign language with the aim of direct understanding of the text. No conscious effort to translate the material they were reading should be made.

The teacher formulated the following principles, to develop an effective reading skill:
1. The facility in reading could be achieved quickly and more easily if the students are first given training in: (A) Correct pronunciation; (B) Comprehension of simple spoken English; and (C) The use of simple speech-patterns by the learners.

2. Writing should be limited to such exercises which help the student to remember vocabulary and structures essential to the understanding of the text.

3. The student of grammar should be geared to the specific needs of the learners for whom quick recognition of certain verb forms, tenses, negatives, questions and other patterns of language are important.

4. The main focus is on developing the reading ability with understanding of the text though other skills, writing and speaking may receive less attention or may be neglected comparatively.
5. The reading skill is to be more effective so that, after the formal education of the student has stopped, he could continue his study of foreign language at his own and be able to improve his knowledge and skill through extensive reading.

In the reading method, instruction of the language begins with oral-phase, i.e. in the initial stages the learners are thoroughly trained in the sound-system of the language. This means the correct native pronunciation and the natural rise and fall in the tone when speaking complete sentences containing everyday use vocabulary. The students become habituated to listening and speaking simple phrases.

After the oral phase, the technique of reading the text aloud is used. Loud reading is done by the teacher himself or by one of the students in the class. Then questions and answers on the text follow.

The other techniques used are intensive and extensive reading. This constitutes the main part of the course. The intensive reading is done under the supervision of the teacher. It is analytic acquisition of vocabulary and a source of material for teaching grammar, as well as for training in reading complete sentences for comprehension. The student is not encouraged to translate, but to infer meaning of unknown words from the context.

In extensive reading the student reads entirely on his own many pages of connected text graded to his level of achievement. Special readers have been published which conformed to specific levels of word. Frequency of idioms counts and the student is guided by the teacher from level to level as his reading ability develops. In this way, he acquires a large passive or recognition vocabulary. His comprehension is tested by questions on the text and not by translation.
6. **Evaluation of the Reading Method**

1. It increases the ability, of the bright students in reading the foreign language texts, but it proves to be a burden on those who have reading difficulties.

2. The system of extensive reading gives the students an opportunity to progress at their own rate. Students within the same class can work with readers at different levels of difficulty.

3. The method arouses interest in the people who speak the language and a curiosity to know their culture and their way of life.

4. The system of extensive reading leads to satisfaction with quantity rather than quality. The number of pages read matter more than degree of comprehension achieved.

   The reading method for the most part produced students who were unable to comprehend and speak the language beyond the very simplest exchanges. After the World War-II, increasingly closer contacts between nations made it apparent that the reading skill alone is not enough as the end-product of a foreign language course as it does not meet the new needs.

7. **SUMMARY**

   The Reading Method may be called a rethinking of the subject which tends to correct the undue emphasis on the teaching of spoken English. This method focusses on the reading skill with the aim that if a student does not complete a language course, he can continue to improve his knowledge of the foreign language through the reading skill mastered during the year of his formal education.
This method gives each phase of the teaching of English its legitimate place in a complete system of teaching the language. No stage is considered to be only a preparatory stage to the subsequent stage. Speech is considered more important at the initial levels and it is made sound foundation to develop the reading skill. Grammar and translation do not receive much attention.

The interest in silent reading is built which paves the way for writing and finally the student makes progress to speak the language and to understand it when spoken. If a boy leaves the school earlier, he will carry away with him something of permanent value and utility if reading is made its objective. Reading should be silent and purposeful. The student should get meaning out of reading and be able to enjoy it. It should not be only oral reading. Purposeful, enjoyable, silent reading is the teacher’s chief concern.

The reading books should provide interesting reading matter using a specially controlled vocabulary so that to make it easy and the student should get pleasure from it. In order to realise this aim, simplified texts are prepared in which the range of vocabulary kept as small as possible and the new words are evenly spread over the pages. The new words are repeated so that to make them completely familiar to the learner.

The aim of silent reading is to get pleasure by reading interesting stories in English and to create desire for more and more reading. Thus, when a child can read an English story at a reasonable speed and can understand and enjoy it, he has attained some definite and permanent achievement in the language.

This method is more suited in those conditions where the only objective is a reading knowledge of English.
**ACTIVITIES**

1. Find out some simplified readers and give them to your class for silent rapid-reading exercise.
2. Find out some good test and simplify it, then make its photocopies and give them to your class for reading.
3. Make a list of the bridged and simplified versions of some literary works that you know about. If some of them are available in the school library, use them in your class as reading material, for pleasure and information.
4. What steps would you take to inculcate the habit of silent reading among your students?
5. How far would you agree with Dr. West's idea of emphasis on reading as a tool for teaching English?

**SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS-III**

Q.1 Tick mark T or F in the following statements:

i) West challenged the concept of filtering by pointing to educational wastage it entailed due to a high percentage of dropouts.  
   T  F

ii) West’s idea was that training in spoken English was useless for the majority of school leavers.  
    T  F

iii) West believed that reading skills could be used in the students’ later life.  
     T  F

iv) West’s important discovery was that in the current readers, too many new words occurred too closely which made comprehension difficult and uninteresting.  
    T  F
Q.2 **CHOOSE RIGHT ANSWERS**

(i) The aim of silent reading is:

a. To get pleasure from stories.
b. To create desire for more reading.
c. To learn English.
d. To develop the reading skill for future life.

(ii) The reading method won popularity because:

a. It was reaction against too much emphasis on spoken English.
b. It was a realistic approach.
c. The students enjoyed reading interesting stories.
d. Reading skill is more important than the other skills.

(iii) After the second world war, the reading method has lost much of its importance because:

a. Close contacts between nations have shown that reading alone is not enough.
b. People have little time for reading.
c. More reasonable methods have emerged.
d. Linguistics have severely attacked this method.

5. **Substitution Method**

The basis of this method is the *Model Sentence*. Some particular structure, a phrase or an idiom, is selected from the textbook and a sentence is made with it. Then, the sentence is practised by substituting certain items in the model sentence while keeping the main structure constant.

For example, if you wish to teach the phrase “there is”, then the model sentence would be some such a sentence: “There is a book on the table.” This sentence has three parts: ‘There is’ ‘book’ and ‘on the table’. The first term ‘There is’ is the
main structure, which the teacher wants the students to understand to learn and to make it a part of their active vocabulary so that they can use it spontaneously at the proper occasion.

5.1 The Model Sentence

The model sentence, "There is a book on the table" is orally practised and its meaning are made clear to the students.

Then the substitutions are made:

There is a pen on the table.
There is a piece of chalk on the table.
There is a watch on the table.
There is a knife on the chair.
There is a boy near the car.
There is a shop near the school.

Similarly:

There are some boys in the playground.
There are some taxis at the stand.
There are some books on the shelf.

And now:

Is there, are there, isn’t any, there is no, and there are not, there are no, etc, can be practised in the same manner.

Examples:

Is there a post office near here?
Is there a Cinema some where here?
Are there any apples in the basket?
There isn’t any tea in the teapot?
There is no sugar in the pot.
Simple Substitution

If the structure of the model sentence is such that there is provision for only one term to be substituted, this may be called simple substitution. For example:

He is a police man
He is a doctor

Compound Substitution

If more than one terms are substituted, this may be called compound substitution as we have seen in the earlier examples:

Instructions to Use the Method

It is important to remember while using substitution tables, as they are called, that meaning of the model sentences are very clear to the students. The various terms being substituted should be within the range of the vocabulary of the students. As the focus is on the main term, which is kept constant, no terms should be introduced in the substitutions which the students have not learnt already.

The success of this method depends on the thoroughness with which the model sentence is taught. The pronunciation, intonation and meaning of the model sentence must be completely mastered by the whole class before any advance is attempted. The speed is also important. The model sentence should be so well practised that it can be repeated at a speed equal to the normal speaking speed. This indeed is the test by which the teacher may know that the sentence has been really grasped and a new habit is being successfully formed. The model sentence should be practised to the point that it becomes automatic.
Advantages of the Model Sentence

One of the great benefits of this method is that it not only measures the formation of right speech habits but also eliminates the possibility of acquiring wrong speech habits. English taught by translation and grammar rules, which are mostly imperfectly understood, results in labouriously constructed sentences and the tendency is to translate literally. The language thus produced, lacks the idiom and the natural ease and fluency which is the mark of the native speakers. For example the following sentence is the product of literal translation from Urdu: His both feet were injured (Us key donon pauon zakhmi ho gai).

If the English idiom ‘both of has been practised through substitution drills in the following manner, the chances of students’ being led by mother tongues construction would have been minimised.

Both of his sons are doctors.
The books were so interesting that I brought both of them.
Both of the TV sets are equally good.
Both he and his wife are teachers.

By learning a large number of model sentences thoroughly, and by using these model sentences as frameworks for substitution tables, the students are reducing the chances of making mistakes to the minimum. The correct sentences with right pronunciation and intonation and with appropriate native idiom, are put at the tip of the students’ tongue which will spring out automatically at the proper moment.
EXAMPLES

Some examples of modal sentences and their substitution:

1. Has to, have to and had to,

   He has to get up at 5'0 clock in the morning.

   She has to prepare the breakfast.

   I have to go to the office at 8'0 clock.

   We have to finish the work before evening.

   They had to see the doctor.

   Ali had to go to the post office to collect the parcel.

2. Ought to:

   I ought to go to school.

   He ought to do his homework.

   She ought to send a telegram.

3. Neither – nor:

   He is neither a teacher nor a doctor. He is an advocate.

   He is neither my brother nor my pupil. He is my friend.

   He speaks neither French nor German. He speaks English.

4. Either – or:

   You can either sit there and watch TV or you can go out for a walk.

   He can either become a journalist or a teacher.
He can either buy a watch or a pair of sun glasses.
She can either take tea or coffee.

5. Model sentences can be given in the question forms as well.

**For example:**

Do you want the money?
Do you know his name?
Do they play foot-ball?

**Pattern Practice or Structural Drill**

The substitution method is also called pattern practice (or the Parson’s cat). The Parson's cat is a game which the English boys play in their homes and class-rooms. It is a very good device to teach sentence patterns and lexical items. You can play the game with your students in this way. You may begin with the following sentences:

The Parsons's cat -is an ANGRY cat. Then ask a student in the class to make another sentence about the cat by changing the word ANGRY. The student's sentence would be something like this:

The Parson's cat – is a black cat.

Another student may replace this word black and make sentence like the following:

The Parson's cat is a white cat.

Now the class has understood the game and would continue like this:

The Parson’s cat is:

- a clever cat.
- a funny cat
- a good cat.
If any student substitutes a word with which the sentence makes no sense, for example if he says: The Parson’s cat is a Hard cat. The teacher or the other students would protest and say ‘you can’t say that, it doesn't make sense.’

While the game is in progress, someone would introduce a variation which everybody else would initiate. The variations might be:

The Parson’s cat is a city cat
a country cat
a village cat

It is not necessary that you should begin the game with the phrase ‘The Parson’s cat – you may choose something else that will arouse the interest of the class. The important point in this game is that children like repeating a sentence which sounds rhythmical and is interesting, they avoid using one which sounds dull.

Another game with the same objective may be played with a model sentence like this:

I went to the market and what did I buy? I bought – some apples.

The substitutions for structural drill can be the following items:

I went to the market and what did I buy? – I bought some oranges/mangoes/grapes/pears, etc.

The model sentence may be changed to useful variations which can be introduced whenever you feel a change is needed. For example:

I am going to Karachi and what shall I do there?
I shall go to the sea-beach.
I shall do some shopping.
I shall visit the Tomb of Quaid-e-Azam.

I shall see my friends.

**The Substitution Table**

The substitution table is a useful device in the hands of English teachers. Different words can be substituted in each section of the given tabulated pattern and a large number of sentences in the required construction can be produced. A simple substitution table on the model ‘subject–verb’ would be as follows:

**Table 1: SUBSTITUTION FOR THE SUBJECT**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>Verb</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>He</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The boy</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>One of the girls</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>None of us</td>
<td>laughed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>They</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The women</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 2: SUBSTITUTION FOR THE VERB**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>Verb</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>He</td>
<td>Came in</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Went away</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>He</td>
<td>Sent a telegram</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Visited the zoo</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

When these two tables are combined into one, many sentences can be produced by using any subject with any verb.
Table 3

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>verb</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>He</td>
<td>laughed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The boy</td>
<td>came in</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>One of the girls</td>
<td>went away</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>None of us</td>
<td>sent a telegram</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>new</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>My</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>best</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>book</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>was lost</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

These simple substitution tables on the model of subject–verb can be elaborated by using adjectives before the subjects:

Table 5

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The little</td>
<td>on English Grammar</td>
<td>was stolen</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The best</td>
<td>from the library</td>
<td>was lost</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The red</td>
<td>book</td>
<td>is on the shelf</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Arabic</td>
<td>that my father gave me</td>
<td>is missing</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The big</td>
<td>you had written</td>
<td>was damaged</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

SUMMARY

The substitution method is a useful tool for teaching some particular structure, a phrase, an idiom or lexical items. The teacher selects a model sentence and then asks the students to substitute some items in the sentence while the structure under
focus remains constant. This method can be used at any level of instruction.

It is especially useful for:

2. Teaching a new use of construction already taught.
3. Drilling a correct usage where an incorrect form is likely to become a common error.
4. Teaching the correct use of English tenses which are troublesome for foreign learners.
5. To eliminate common errors by giving good practice in right construction.

The substitution method can be employed in the form of a game as, for example ‘The parson’s cat, which can be practised orally or in writing. Sentences can be written in tabular form. The teacher writes the constructions along with their variations on the blackboard and asks the students to make correct sentences.

**ACTIVITIES**

1. Think of some important structures and teach them with the help of substitution tables.
2. Add some more items in the following tables:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>My watch is</td>
<td>More expensive than</td>
<td>your watch</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>His watch is not</td>
<td>as beautiful as</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS-IV

Q.1 Tick mark T or F which you think in the following statements:

i. Substitution drill is an effective device for teaching English because the children enjoy repeating a sentence.  
   T  F

ii. The substitution method is more useful at the initial stages of teaching English.  
    T  F

iii. The success of the substitution method depends on the thoroughness with which the model sentence has been taught.  
    T  F

iv. The substitution technique is based on the theory of language that it is best learnt through grammar.  
    T  F

v. The substitution tables enable the student to produce a number of sentences from a few items given in the table.  
   T  F
6. ASTP and the Audiolingual Method:

This approach is based on the behaviorist belief that language learning is the acquisition of a set of correct language habits. The learner repeats patterns and phrases in the language laboratory until able to reproduce them spontaneously.

ASTP (Army Specialized Training Program) was an intensive, specialized approach to language instruction used in during the 1940’s. In the postwar years, the civilian version of ASTP and the audiolingual method featured memorization of dialogues, pattern drills, and emphasis on pronunciation. The audiolingual approach achieved some of its goals such as good pronunciation and formulaic speech, although it did not always result in communicative competence.

Audio–Lingual Method

This is the latest approach in foreign language teaching. It is also called aural–oral approach but, as the term was confusing and difficult to pronounce, Nelson Brook of Yale University, U.S.A, suggested the term Audio–Lingual for this method which has since then gained popularity and is now vastly used throughout the world.

Factors Contributing to the Development of Audio–Lingual Method

During twenties and thirties, there was a great interest in the United States, in research in human behaviour. The anthropologists were studying patterns of human behaviour in cultural context. These scholars viewed language as a learned activity in a given culture of a people. The language too was viewed as a set of habits established by reinforcement in the social context.
The fact that native language is first learned by the infant in the spoken form provided the basis for the theory that: The students acquire the foreign language more easily if it is presented to them in a spoken form first and then in the written form.

This theory led to the formulation of the cardinal principle of this method, i.e. listen, speak, read and write.

Listening should precede speaking and reading should precede writing. This is the central tenet of this method.

In the new approach, emphasis was laid on the ability to communicate in the foreign language by developing listening and speaking skills first as a foundation on which the skills of reading and writing would be built later.

The origins of the audio–lingual method may be found in the theories of the American scholars of linguistic sciences, cultural anthropologists and behaviour psychologists. In linguistics, this took the form of description approach which in simple terms means that language is *what people do say in their mother tongue*. This view of language is in sharp contrast with the view held by the traditional grammarians who maintained that a language is *what people* ought to say. As we have already elaborated this point in the grammar-translation method, grammars written on Latin and Greek models were *prescriptive* in the sense that they prescribed and presented standard of correctness in language use. The modern view of language is *descriptive*, i.e. linguistic science describes the language as it functions in day-to-day social interactions.

The following linguistic principles form the bedrock of the audio–lingual method:

1. Language is speech not writing
2. A language is a set of habits
3. Teach the language, not about the language
4. A language is what its native speakers say not what someone thinks they ought to say
5. Languages are different

Now we shall explain each one of these principles and see what bearing they have on techniques used by the audio-lingual teachers in the classroom.

**Language is Speech not Writing**

All languages first developed as speech. And we first learn our mother tongue in spoken form. The written representation of language comes at a later stage in learning the mother tongue. So, this is a natural order of learning a language. The proponents of audio-lingual method lay stress on learning to understand spoken language and to speak it at least some amount of the language before learning to read and write it. They maintain that the first contact of the learner with a new language must come through ‘speech’. This does not mean that the learner must learn the whole language by speech before learning to read it. What actually this principle implies is that any portion under study should be first mastered orally before presenting it in written form. This order of presentation of the teaching material (listening and speaking before reading and writing) has been accompanied by emphasis on correct pronunciation and intonation. The great advantage of this procedure is that the threat of spelling pronunciation is eliminated and the learner’s first contact with the foreign language material through speech ensures near-native accent.

Beginning the language with the written form has been criticised as a potential threat to the mastery of the phonetics (the sound system) of the new language. It is believed that unless the student first listens to the standard pronunciation, the orthographic symbols of the new language are highly
misleading and are the source of substandard pronunciation. The written form of English is a hindrance in the way of mastery of the right pronunciation and intonation because the student has already learnt the sound system of his mother tongue and he is likely to confuse the new sound system with the one he has already acquired. Moreover, the English spellings are a great mis-fortunate. In many cases their written form is different from their spoken form and this is the root-cause of wrong pronunciation. If once the student has learnt a wrong pronunciation and it has been fixed in his speech habit, it becomes difficult to uproot it and to substitute it by correct pronunciation and intonation. Therefore, in order to nip the evil in the bud and to block the source of pronunciation mistakes, the first contact of the learner with the new language must be based on oral approach. A time lag should be allowed between the oral presentation of the material and its graphic form so that the spoken form is well assimilated by the students and becomes fixed as a result.

Emphasis on spoken language has led to a radical change in the selection of material for teaching at early stage. In contrast to the traditional approaches, where the first units of teaching were letters and words in the audio-lingual method complete utterances with normal intonation are taught. The variety of language selected are colloquial forms of speech which would be used by the native speakers in their country of origin in ordinary life situations by a person of age and position similar to that of the learners.

In every-language, there is a difference between its every day spoken form and its literary or the written style.

In the audio-lingual method, the students are exposed to listen and repeat these utterances at normal native speed with the usual stresses, pauses and the rise and fall of tone of the native speaker.
The principle that ‘language is speech, not writing’ should not create the misunderstanding that the audio–lingual method neglects the other skills (reading and writing), this is not true. The order for learning of language skill is: listening, speaking, reading and writing. All the skills receive attention and are given due importance. Strong emphasis on listening and speaking, especially at the early stages, is due to the fact which has already been explained, i.e. the ultimate aim is to acquire a near-native command of the language which can only be achieved when the learners get a rigorous exercise and practice in listening and speaking on the model of the native speaker.

Teach the language and not about the language

This principle voices a revolt against the grammar-translation method. We have already discussed the point that in the traditional approach, the process of studying the structures of the language constituted explanation of grammar rules. Teaching the rules of grammar is synonymous to teaching about the language. While teaching structures and developing the ability to produce at the proper moment means the teaching of language itself.

Teaching the rules of grammar was followed by exercises consisting of individual sentences, segregated from the context. They aimed to test the students if they have grasped the rules. Little effort was made to make an oral use of the language thus learnt. Similarly, the translation exercises comprised of segregated sentences of imaginary kind. Such exercise may have taught the rules of grammar, but they did little to equip the students with language skills which they could use with ease and facility when faced with a real situation. In brief, we can say that in the past grammar and translation were taught in a way that these techniques became an end in themselves and the real aim of teaching the language was lost in the process. For the audio-lingual teacher grammar or any other technique is only a
means to an end. In principle teaching of grammar is avoided, but if deemed necessary at all, especially at advanced levels, then functional grammar is taught. That part of the language which is most useful is more stressed and is practised thoroughly so that it is internalised by the student and becomes a fixed habit.

**A language is what its native speakers say, not what someone thinks they ought to say**

The expressions which the audio-lingual teacher presents to the students to master for use at proper occasions are those which they would hear around them in the country where the language is spoken. The language of the textbooks is the model of language currently in use, a living reality of the day. In the traditional approaches, the language presented to the learners was artificial at it was specially structured to explain the points of grammar, and it was drawn from literary texts accepted as classics which usually belonged to the past eras. The current spoken language was neither presented in the classroom nor the learners had any opportunity to hear it from anywhere else, so the result was quite obvious.

As a matter of fact, the current variety of the language as used by the people in the day-to-day business and in social interactions for communication, was rejected as corrupt and debased language. The desired standard of correctness of the language were thought to be only those written by great scholars and men of letters of the past.

It is evident that such language proved to be of little practical use in the day-to-day experience of living with people of the foreign country.

In audio-lingual material selected for use in the classroom, those structures are preferred which are of high frequency, i.e. most commonly used. Contemporary colloquial
clichés, of conversation are taught in the form of dialogues. A careful attention is paid, however, to the social level of the language, the colloquial speech learned should be acceptable according to the emotional effects of the language. They are learning to use, whether it is formal or informal, respectfully or rude, friendly or hostile, subservient or gently teasing or severely offending, etc. At advanced levels, attention is paid to regional differences of pronunciation and expression as well.

Languages are different

The ancient scholars held the notion of a universal grammatical system which can serve as a framework for the organisation of the facts of all languages. This wrong concept led to the writing of grammar for modern European languages on the models of Latin and Greek languages. The structural linguistics attacked this view of language and analysed each language according to its unique structure and inter-relationship of its various system phonological, syntactical and semantic, etc. According to the findings of applied linguistics, the major difficulties for the learners lie in those areas where the foreign language differs more radically from their native tongue.

In the audio lingual approach, those areas of the foreign language are diagnosed which present specific difficulties for the learners and the teaching materials are so designed wherein the learners special attention is drawn to those problems. Special techniques are employed to achieve the best results in teaching. The materials emphasise and give special drilling in the major areas of contrast between the native tongue and the target language of the learner.

The most useful structures and those most likely to be confused are presented first with continual drilling and constantly reviewed to ensure mastery.
Traditional translation exercises are regarded by audio-lingualists as a dangerous activity at the early stages of foreign language learning because of the tendency of the students to look for exact equivalents of individual words and because of cultural differences in the mode of expressions due to the ignorance of which the students tend to make ridiculous mistakes.

The prolonged and detailed translation exercises are postponed to advanced stages when translation is taught as a specialised skill with its own techniques.

**Techniques of the audio-lingual method**

The audio-lingual method aims at teaching the language skills in the order of listen, speak, read, and write. Therefore, at the beginning stage there is more emphasis on spoken language as it is used in everyday social situation. As the students move on to the advanced levels, the other two skills, reading and writing receive increasing attention and literary forms of expression are presented to them. However, listening and speaking skills continue to be practised side by side and are not neglected at any stage.

At the starting levels of teaching, the material presented for learning consists of dialogues. These dialogues contain commonly used expressions and the fundamental structures of high frequency. The vocabulary content is reduced to the necessary minimum and the students are encouraged to concentrate on achieving the mastery of structures and not bother about the meanings of lexical items.

The student learns the dialogues by heart. First, they listen carefully to the teacher or a tape-record model until they can distinguish the sounds and intonation of the expression to be learnt. Then, they repeat the sentence over and again till they achieve the degree of accuracy and fluency. When in this
way one sentence has been grasped fully, they go on to the next sentences. This process is continued first in a chorus, then in smaller groups and finally individually. When all the phrases of a dialogue have been mastered completely, questions and answers are exchanged in the form of a dialogue. The roles are reversed so that each student gets chance to ask questions and to give answers.

The dialogue sentences which have been well practised and are now at the top of the tongue of the learners, are made a base for further learning. Adaptations are made with a more personal application to the students’ own situation. Then the teacher links the dialogue expressions to ‘pattern drills’ (a technique vastly used in audio-lingual method) based on the structures in the dialogue. Usually, this becomes the main teaching-learning activity.

Some teachers prefer to introduce pattern-drills on structures other than those practised in the dialogues. They maintain that dialogues should only be used to introduce common expressions to the students for natural conversations in everyday situations.

The pattern drills are first practised orally in chorus which is followed by small-group practice and finally the individual responses. When a student has achieved facility in a particular structure, to some degree, he is given some texts in which the structural pattern he has been working on, is presented in generalised forms. Writing is postponed till the student has acquired a small stock of useful expressions and has developed some confidence in using basic structures. Only then he will be encouraged to express himself on certain topics by first giving oral reports to the class and then writing them down in the form of short compositions which no matter may consist of a small paragraph of even a few lines. Actually this early attempt on writing is only a re-combination of what has already been learnt.
This type of composition is strictly controlled in vocabulary content so that the students’ chances of making mistakes are reduced.

The traditional notion of composition in which the students were required to write long essays with formal composition has been redefined as the ability to write some coherent sentences on simple topics which may be within the personal experience of the learner.

**Reading**

As the students advance in spoken language, more and more attention is paid to reading materials. Passages of literary quality are carefully chosen keeping in view the difficulty level of language and the cultural context of the native speakers.

Even when the students are mature enough to read compact paragraphs and to write short pieces of composition, practice in listening and speaking is not neglected. It continues side by side with the practice in other skills and thus the objective of harmonious development in all the four skills is taken care of.

**Listening Comprehension**

The teacher reads out the text and the students listen to it with book shut. Then the text is orally discussed, through questions and answers. If the text has not been comprehended well enough to generate discussion, the second or even the third reading may be necessary. Finally, the students are allowed to open the books or the handouts are distributed, to read the text silently. After the silent reading phase, the text is normally dealt with as a reading comprehension exercise.
Activities

1. If you have acquaintance with a native speaker of English, record a piece of English prose in his voice and play it before your class.

2. There are English lessons from B.B.C. Record some of the lessons and repeat them in your classes.
   Draw the attention of your students to the pronunciation of the native speaker.

3. Encourage your students to listen to B.B.C. and the V.O.A. at home.

4. Think of any other ways by which you can make your students listen to the native speakers of English.

SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS-V

Q.1 Tick mark T or F which you think is correct in the following statements:

i) Audio-lingual method is based on the principle that a foreign language is best learnt through imitation.  
   T F

ii) Audio-Lingual method admits teaching grammar.  
    T F

iii) Language-learning is a pattern of human behaviour in a cultural context.  
    T F

iv) During the World War-II, the U.S. government severely felt the need for the foreign languages to be taught with the aim of achieving a near-native command.  
    T F

v) A language is a set of habits.  
    T F
Q.2 Choose the right answer

1. The proponents of audio-lingual method stress on:
   A. The written language
   B. The spoken language
   C. Reading
   D. Writing and composition

2. One of the basic tenets of the audio-lingual method is that a language is:
   A. Best learnt by listening and speaking to the native speakers.
   B. Best learnt through listening and imitating
   C. Best learnt by abundant practice in listening and speaking
   D. Best learnt by all the three A, B, C.

3. Beginning to teach English with the written form poses a potential threat to:
   A. Mastery of the sound system of English
   B. Comprehension
   C. Spoken form
   D. Correct spellings.

4. If we switch over from traditional methods to the audio-lingual method:
   A. We shall have to modify our examination system accordingly.
   B. Our students will not adjust to the new method
   C. We shall have to conduct refresher courses for English teachers to train them on modern lines.
   D. We shall be doing a great service to the nation.

5. A language is:
   A. What the grammar – books prescribe
B. What the ancient scholars wrote in literary masterpieces.
C. What its native speakers say.
D. What someone recommends that the native speakers ought to speak.
7. Communication Approach

In the section you would learn about the communicative approach to foreign language teaching. This approach is also called the functional approach or the national approach. Some important concepts of this approach are the following:

- The language form
- The language function
- Communicative competence.

We shall soon explain these concepts

What is Communicative Approach

The key idea in this approach is that language is a tool for social communication and to acquire the ability to communicate in a foreign language. The learner must use that language in a real communicative situation.

The advocates of this approach take a functional view of language, i.e. as language functions in the society or in a given social situation. Therefore, it is the meaning (the function of the language) which is more important than its form. The message that is to be conveyed has preference over the grammatical pattern of the language. As social situations differ in their nature, the choice of language must vary accordingly. The choice of words and phrases are determined by the given social situation in which the communication is taking place. Many factors are involved in a social situation such as:

- Social status of the persons and their mutual relationship in social terms. For instance, whether the communication is taking place between two friends, or between the employer and an employee etc.

- Nature of the event being communicated. Whether it is an alarming event such as the report of a fire in a
house, felicitation on success in the examination, or the communication of a normal everyday life event.

- Getting information from a stranger, asking the way to the railway station or to a bus stop. Similarly giving information about places, time and public amenities etc.

- Introducing people at social gatherings ......

The key point in the communicative approach is that the most appropriate language should be used in every social situation so that the message is correctly conveyed and the speaker does not cause any annoyance to the listeners. Hence the emphasis is on the choice of the right words, the right intonation and the right gestures and facial expressions.

**Assumptions of the Communicative Approach**

- The ability to communicate in a language is best acquired by using that language in a real communicative situation.

- Communicative ability is usually acquired quite easily and rapidly if practised in actual life situations, grammatical accuracy on the other hand increases slowly and after gaining a lot of experience in the language.

- That a conscious understanding of grammar is a pre-requisite to acquiring communicative competence is a faulty notion. It may be helpful to some students but it cannot be true for all.
**Historical Back Ground of this Approach**

The communicative approach became prominent during the middle of the 1970s. Although there are some other factors which contributed to the development of this approach, the most immediate one was the expansion of the European Common Market.

During 1970s European Common Market had expanded and there was a growing need to bring the member countries closer together. As each country had its own separate language there arose the problem of effective communication. The council of European Common Market appointed a commission to study the problem and to find its solution. After examining the situation, the commission put forward the recommendations in practical terms for teaching the foreign language skills which were needed by the adults who wanted to be able to communicate successfully while visiting a foreign country and with foreign visitors who came to their home countries, and to be able to establish social relationships with those whom they come across. These goals were the first ideas of what came to be known as the central concept of communication competence.

**Communicative Competence**

Among other factors contributing to the development of this approach may be mentioned that the teaching by grammar–based traditional approaches does not produce the ability to communicate efficiently and effectively. The traditional approaches focused on the form of the language, i.e. the grammatical accuracy or linguistic accuracy and neglected the social dimension of the situation in which communication takes place. The learner is not made conscious of the fact that he should choose the language appropriate to the occasion. As a result of this neglect of the social as well as cultural aspect of the language and undue emphasis on the linguistic correctness,
the traditional methods, failed to produce graduates who could make effective communication in the given social situations. The communication approach is an attempt to correct this situation.

**Key Concepts in the Communicative Approach**

- *The Language form:* This means the grammatical patterns of the language, they are also referred to as linguistic patterns. Hence the terms grammatical or linguistic competence, i.e. the ability to produce language patterns which are grammatically correct. For instance, “Switch on light is grammatical form”. “Would you mind switching the light on, please”, and, “Switch on the light, will you”, are all different grammatical forms.

- *The Language Function:* This means the message which a grammatical pattern conveys i.e. the meanings of the language in a social situation. For instance, the above quoted sentences about switching on the light can be spoken in particular situations. The first sentence would be spoken by a senior person addressed to a person who is junior to him in position. For instance a bank manager can say this to his peon. The second sentence can be spoken to a stranger only with whom the speaker has no social relationship and a sort of formality exists between them. The third sentence can be addressed by a friend to friend between whom there is a degree of frankness. The point to note here is that each social situation call for an appropriate form of language. All language forms are not indiscriminately applicable to all situations.

In the communicate approach, language is chosen keeping the social situation in view. In other words
it is the function of the language which is more important and which determines the form.

*Communicative Competence*: This is a key concept in this approach. It means that the learner should be competent enough to communicate in the target language most effectively. He should be able to choose the language patterns most appropriate to the context and the situation keeping the social positions of the persons involved in the communication and the character of the event being communicated. This ability to use the language is referred to as communicative competence in the literature. As a matter of fact, to produce communicative competence in the learners is the cherished goal of this approach.

**What does Communicative Competence consist of?**

W. Little Wood, an expert of the Communicative Approach, identified four areas which should be recognised and developed:

(i) Communicative Competence builds on linguistic competence (grammatical competence). The learner should be able to use the grammatical patterns spontaneously. He should feel at ease in order to express the meanings he wants to convey.

(ii) The learner must be able to use the grammatical forms as the functions of the language.

(iii) The learner must be able to communicate as effectively and efficiently as possible by assessing how much the other participants in the conversation already know and understand.
The learner must have a full realisation of the social significance of the language he uses. He must learn to use generally acceptable forms and to avoid using offensive one.

Communicative Syllabus and Text-Books

Emerging from the work of council of European was a specification how much a learner needed to know in order to achieve a primary degree of communicative competence which will communicate his message effectively. Foreign language learners need opportunities to develop these skills by being exposed to situations where the emphasis is on using their available resources for communicating meanings as efficiently and economically as possible. Since these resources are limited’ this may often entail sacrificing grammatical accuracy in favour of immediate communicative effectiveness.

In the same way as for comprehension, then the learner needs to acquire not only a repertoire of linguistic items but also a repertoire of strategies for using them in concrete situations.

Who is the Most Efficient Communicator?

In his book ‘Communicative Language Teaching’ W. Little Wood makes a difference between those who can manipulate grammatical structures of a foreign language and those who are efficient communicators in it. He says:

“The most efficient communicator in a foreign language is not always the person who is best at manipulating its structure”. It is often the person who is almost skilled at processing the complete situation involving himself and his learner, taking account of what knowledge is already shared between them (e.g. from the situation or from the preceding conversation and selecting items). When the recommendations of the Council of Europe were translated into the form of syllabuses, the items in
these language courses were not lists of grammatical categories which the student should learn but rather, lists of things which the learner would be able to do in the target language when he had achieved a specified degree of communicative competence. For example the learner should be able to:
  
  – Ask the way to a bus stop or to a railway station.
  – Give directions for going to a bank or a post office
  – Introduce his friend at a party

**SUMMARY**

What we have discussed so far may be summed up as follows:

  – Communicative approach views language as a tool for cultural situations.
  – This approach attaches more importance to the ‘function’ of the language than to its form.
  – A general feeling prevailed that the traditional approaches did not produce communicative competence in the learners.
  – The approach emerged during 1970s as a result of the recommendations of the commission set up by the Council of Europe to meet the communicative needs of the member countries of the European Common Market and gained popularity.
Q.1  **SELF–ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS-VI**

Choose the right answer by encircling A, B, C.

1. The communicative approach emphasises:
   A. Mastery of grammatical forms
   B. Developing communicative competence
   C. Understanding social situation

2. The communicative approach emerged as a result of:
   A. The reaction against the grammar - based approaches.
   B. The need for the European Common Market Countries to come closer to one another.
   C. The feeling that the learner should be able to communicate effectively.

3. Communicative Competence means that:
   A. The learner should be able to express the meanings in the appropriate language.
   B. Grammatical Competence is unnecessary for effective communication.
   C. The learner must be able to use generally acceptable forms and to avoid using the offensive ones.

Q.2  **TICK F/T IN THE FOLLOWING STATEMENTS.**

1. The key component to acquire communicative competence is to allow the student to use the language for real communication.  
   T  F

2. A conscious understanding of grammar is a pre-requisite to acquiring communicative competence.  
   T  F
3. The two basic conditions for learning additional languages are the need to acquire the language and the opportunity to use it for real communicative purposes.

SOME EXAMPLES OF COMMUNICATIVE EXERCISES?

In a communicative classroom for beginners, the teacher might begin by passing out cards, each with a different name printed on it. The teacher then proceeds to model an exchange of introductions in the target language: “Guten Tag. Wie heissen Sie?”

Reply: “Ich heisse Wolfie,” for example. Using a combination of the target language and gestures, the teacher conveys the task at hand, and gets the students to introduce themselves and ask their classmates for information. They are responding in German to a question in German. They do not know the answers beforehand, as they are each holding cards with their new identities written on them; hence, there is an authentic exchange of information.

Later during the class, as a reinforcement listening exercise, the students might hear a recorded exchange between two German freshmen meeting each other for the first time at the gymnasium doors. Then the teacher might explain, in English, the differences among German greetings in various social situations. Finally, the teacher will explain some of the grammar points and structures used.

The following exercise is taken from a 1987 workshop on communicative foreign language teaching, given for Delaware language teachers by Karen Willetts and Lynn Thompson of the Center for Applied Linguistics. The exercise, called “Eavesdropping” is aimed at advanced students.
“Instructions to students.” Listen to a conversation somewhere in a public place and be prepared to answer, in the target language, some general questions about what was said.

1. Who was talking?
2. About how old were they?
3. Where were they when you eavesdropped?
4. What were they talking about?
5. What did they say?
6. Did they become aware that you were listening to them?

The exercise put students in a real-world listening situation where they must report information overheard. Most likely they have an opinion of the topic, and a class discussion could follow, in the target language, about their experiences and viewpoints.

Communicative exercises such as this motivate the students by treating topics of their choice, at an appropriately challenging level.

Another exercise taken from the same source is for beginning students of Spanish. In “Listening for the Gist,” students are placed in an everyday situation where they must listen to an authentic text.

“Objective.” Students listen to a passage to get general understanding of the topic or message.

“Directions.” Have students listen to the following announcement to decide what the speaker is promoting.

“Passage.” “Situacion ideal... Servicio de transporte al Aeropuerto Internacional... Cuarentay dos habitaciones de lujo, conaire acondicionado... Elegante restaurante...de fama internacional.”
(The announcement can be read by the teacher or played on tape.) Then ask students to circle the letter of the most appropriate answer on their copy, which consists of the following multiple-choice options:

a. a taxi service
b. a hotel
c. an airport
d. a restaurant

Because of the increased responsibility to participate, students may find they gain confidence in using the target language in general. Students are more responsible managers of their own learning.

**How do the Roles of the Teacher and Student Change in Communicative Language Teaching?**

Teachers in communicative classrooms will find themselves talking less and listening more—becoming active facilitators of their students’ learning. The teacher sets up the exercise, but because the students’ performance is the goal, the teacher must step back and observe, sometimes acting as referee or monitor. A classroom during a communicative activity is far from quiet, however. The students do most of the speaking, and frequently the scene of a classroom during a communicative exercise is active, with students leaving their seats to complete a task.

8. **NATURAL APPROACH/THE LANGUAGE ACQUISITION APPROACH**

This approach is called ‘Language Acquisition Theory’ because its proponents claim that their approach states how a language is acquired and that this approach is based on the research findings about language acquisition phenomena.
What is Natural Approach

The Natural Approach may be stated as, “acquiring a foreign language in a purely natural environment”. The natural environment means where no conscious effort for “learning” a language is made. The language is ‘picked up’ in a subconscious way during the process of communication. The subconscious way of acquiring a second language by the adults and by the children who have already acquired L1 (their first language; the mother tongue) is similar to acquiring their mother tongue which was not learnt by learning the rules of the language. The linguistic ability is developed by degrees, by communicating in the mother tongue. An important distinction is made between ‘acquiring’ a language and ‘learning’ a language. The traditional approaches employ the learning techniques in teaching a second language but the natural approach advocates the ‘acquisition’ of second language.

Language Acquisition

While acquiring their mother tongue’ the children are not conscious that they are acquiring a language. They are only aware that they are communicating. Their linguistic ability is being developed through communication in a natural way. It is a sub–conscious process. The linguistic competence and fluency are the results of language acquisition. The acquirer is not aware of the rules of grammar. He can produce correct language without knowing the rules of the language. He has a "feel" for correctness. When he bears an error, he doesn’t know exactly which rule has been violated but somehow he knows and feels that an error has been committed.

The key point in the natural approach may be stated as:

In order to acquire the ability to communicate in another language one must use that language in real communicative situations.
Language Learning

Language learning is ‘knowing about’ a language. It is having a ‘formal knowledge’ of the rules of language. Learning a language is a conscious process. It refers to ‘explicit’ knowledge of rules; being aware of the rules and being able to talk about them. This kind of knowledge is quite different from language acquisition which can be termed as sub-conscious and implicit.

The Difference Between Language Acquisition and Language Learning may be Summarized as Follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Acquisition</th>
<th>Learning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. It is similar to child’s</td>
<td>1. Formal knowledge of</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>acquisition of first language,</td>
<td>language.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>and is automatic.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. It is a subconscious process.</td>
<td>2. Conscious effort is made</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>to learn a language.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. It is ‘picking up’ a language</td>
<td>3. ‘Knowing about’ a language</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Implicit knowledge of the</td>
<td>4. Explicit knowledge of the</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>language</td>
<td>language</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The exponents of the natural approach have stated the basic hypotheses of their theory. Their first hypothesis is the ‘acquisition–learning hypothesis’ which we have stated above in a very simplified form as a key idea of this approach. Now we shall state the remaining of the hypothesis. A hypothesis may be said to an ‘intelligent guess’ about a phenomena. The hypotheses of the natural approach, which the authors of this theory claim to be supported by the research findings, may be understood as key concepts of this approach.
The Input Hypotheses

This hypothesis is of crucial importance. It states that we acquire language through listening and reading that is understandable and meaningful. The language we listen to or we read is termed as ‘input’. The emphasis is on the understandable. Language acquisition takes place through understandable input.

Listening comprehension and reading with understanding are of primary importance in language acquisition programme. The ability to speak (or to write) fluently will emerge on its own in due course of time.

Speaking fluency is not taught directly. It emerges after the acquirer has built competence through comprehending input.

The input hypothesis states that in order to make progress in the target language, the acquirer need to understand the input language that also includes structures which are the part of the next stage.

But how to do this? How can they understand language that uses structures which have not been acquired? The answer is:

Restricting their talk to ‘here and now’ and to what is in the child’s domain at the moment. Good teachers do this by adding visual aids and by using extra-linguistic context. Summing up this point we can say:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>The input hypothesis claims that we use meanings to help acquire the language.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The teacher should make sure that the acquirers understand what is being said or what they are reading.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The Concept of Care Taker Speech

Teacher, parents and of the adult members of the family talking to the children simplify their speech. This ‘simplification’ of language which is aimed at communication, is termed as caretaker speech. Children acquiring second language, if they get simplified input are assumed to acquire faster than those who do not.

Caretaker speech has the following interesting properties:

1. The caretaker uses simplified language with the desire to be understood. He modifies his language to communicate and not with an aim to teach.

2. The caretaker speech is simple in structures than the language which the adults use with each other. It tends to get more turned to the linguistic level of the child. Caretakers speech tends to get more complex as the child grows in linguistic maturity.

3. Caretaker speech is about here and now.

As very young children have no idea of time and space, adults do not talk to them about events which are taking place in spatial or chronological distance. Caretaker speech is about here and now. As the children grow in linguistic competence the input becomes more displaced in time and space.

Caretakers “teach” language by altering their speech to children’s level so that they would be understood. In other words they are providing input that is understandable.

Simplified–speech or the ‘Caretaker speech’ should be made available to adult foreign language learners as it has the same effect on them as it does on the children acquiring their first language.
Main Point of the Input Hypothesis

1. Relates to acquisition, not learning.
2. We acquire language by understanding it.
3. We can acquire language which is a little beyond our current level of competence with the help of context.
4. Spoken fluency emerges gradually and it is not taught directly.
5. When the caretakers talk to acquirers so that they understand the message, the input contains the grammatical structures which the acquirer is ready to acquire.

Stating very briefly the natural approach to second language acquisition occurs in only one way by understanding messages. We acquire language when we obtain comprehensible input. This means that acquisition is primarily based on what we hear and understand, not what we say.

ACTIVITIES

1. Think of some real communicative situations in the classroom. Practise very simple dialogues with a class of beginners and see the results in terms of language acquisition. Do your results verify the claims of the Language Acquisition Theory?

Example: Ask a student to shut the door/to open the window/to bring some article to you’ etc. Practise a simple dialogue.

What is your name? Saeed/I am Saeed/My name is Saeed.
Ali, is Saeed your brother? No he isn’t. He is my friend. Saeed, is Ali your friend? Yes/Yes, he is/Yes, Ali is my friend.
Note:
The communication situations should not be artificially created, they should be real situations and dialogues should be made accordingly.

SELF-ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS-VII

Q.1 Language learning is:
A. Knowing about the rules of a language
B. Picking up a language in natural way.
C. Similar to child’s acquisition of mother tongue

2. Language acquisition
A. A subconscious process
B. Learning a language in a natural environment
C. To develop linguistic competence.

3. The major aim of natural approach is:
A. Mastery of spoken language
B. To develop communication competence
C. Emphasis on the function of language.

4. The input hypothesis states that:
A. Our formal knowledge of a second language is responsible for fluency.
B. Learning has only monitor function.
C. Children acquire a language through listening which they understand:

5. The caretaker uses simplified language because:
A. He wants to teach the listener.
B. He wants his language to be tuned to the linguistic level of the child.
C. He wants to be understood.

TRUE FALSE QUESTION

Q.2 Circle T or F which you think is correct in the following:

1. The basic idea in the national approach is that children acquire language through communication.  
   T F

2. The language acquisition approach maintains that language acquisition is an explicit process.  
   T F

3. In order to acquire the ability to communicate in a second language one must use that language in real communicative situations.  
   T F

4. The hypothesis of natural order states that all acquirers acquire the grammatical structures in the same order.  
   T F

5. The production of utterances in a foreign language is the result of acquisition system.  
   T F
9. Answer to Self Assessment Questions

**Self Assessment Questions — I**
(a) i) T  ii) T  iii) T
(b) i) D  ii) D  iii) B

**Self Assessment Questions — II**
Q1. i) T  ii) T  iii) T  iv) T  v) T
Q2. i) a  ii) b  iii) c

**Self Assessment Questions — III**
Q1. i) T  ii) T  iii) T  iv) T
Q2. i) d  ii) d  iii) a

**Self Assessment Questions — IV**
Q1. i) T  ii) T  iii) T  iv) T  v) T

**Self Assessment Questions — V**
Q1. i) T  ii) F  iii) T  iv) T  v) T
Q2. i) b  ii) a, c  iii) d  iv) c

**Self Assessment Questions — VI**
Q1. i) B  ii) B, C  iii) A, C
Q2. i) T  ii) F  iii) T

**Self Assessment Questions — VI**
Q1. i) A  ii) A  iii) B  iv) C  v) C
Q2. i) T  ii) F  iii) T  iv) F  v) T
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FOUR LANGUAGE SKILLS
AN OVERVIEW

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INTRODUCTION

This unit is obviously for the teachers of English. Our English teachers are not speakers of English, and though their level of English is adequate to teach, they should also be in touch with the modern teaching methods.

In this unit, an attempt has been made to share ideas and views about language learning and teaching.

In this unit, you will find a basic introduction of the four language skill i.e listening, speaking, reading and writing. The teachers will be asked to make some extra efforts to teach student these skills and help them to actually learn them and gain some proficiency in the English language. It is not suggested that teachers should discard all their own teaching methods if they bring some good to the students. They should keep on practicing them, but it is always good to keep on adding new techniques. It is in this unit that you will find information as to how one can improve the old teaching techniques, and with a little imagination and hardwork a teacher can work wonders with an old prescribed English textbook.

All the four language learning skills are inter-related and can never be taught in isolation. The proficiency in the English language can only be attained if all these four skills are integrated and taught with equal emphasis.
OBJECTIVES

After going through this unit the students will be able to:

- Assess the importance of the four language skills in learning a foreign language.
- Distinguish between the four language learning skills i.e. listening, speaking, reading and writing.
- Describe how our existing English textbooks can be effectively exploited.
- Exploit existing learning material with new teaching methods.
- Know about the three common stages; controlled, guided and free practice and their usefulness in learning each language skill.
- Realize the fact that speaking and listening skills are equally important in learning a new language.
- Distinguish between intensive and extensive reading.
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1. **Understanding the Four Language Skills**

In recent years, teaching of English has undergone many changes. Since years our students are forced to study English literature in their schools and colleges. This is time when serious consideration should be given to the Teaching of English as a foreign/second language.

There is a noticeable change all over the world in the field of teaching languages. What we need today is a practical command in English language, so as to be able to function, perform or communicate in a foreign language environment. With this expansion in language needs, a change in the nature of courses have come across. These modern language courses are now written and designed keeping in view the needs of the variety of learners. These courses are more closely related to the need of the learners all over the world. Our students need to be proficient in English language so that they may be able to pursue their higher education and academic and professional careers. The most common LET terms we come across today in respect of language teaching and learning are:-

a) Functional English (FE)

b) English for Specific Purpose (ESP)

c) Teaching of English as a Foreign language (TEFL)

d) Teaching of English to Students of Other Languages (TESOL)

What is the Functional English

The functional English means teaching English through those situations which are commonly used in day-to-day life. It fulfills the purposes for which people learn to speak or write. It provides the learners guidelines to communicate accurately the kind of English they need is practical or Functional. In other
words, the functional English equips the learners to perform common tasks, such as:

- Greeting people
- Asking advice or information
- Expressing surprise, happiness, grief
- Anger or disappointment
- Agreeing or dis-agreeing, etc.

Why do we need to learn the functional English?  
Who needs to learn the functional English?

As a grown up adult, one is expected to use the mother tongue effectively in one’s educational or professional life. But he finds himself handicapped in expressing his ideas and feelings when he suddenly finds himself plunged into a foreign environment and this frustrates him. He realises his incompetence in communicating. It is now a matter of urgency for him to learn enough English so that he could at least communicate his basic views. It is here that the “Functional English” comes to rescue him. This functional English provides him knowledge and skills he needs to solve his communication problems.

In English Language Teaching (ELT) methodology, it is therefore necessary to teach the four integrated language skills of speaking–listening–reading–and writing in order to gain certain level of proficiency.

Students want to learn a language to use it, they do not want to learn about the language. Learning a language means acquiring a skill, or rather several skills.
These skills may be mentioned as follows:

i) The skill of expressing oneself fluently and accurately in speech. (Speaking)

ii) The skill of understanding what it heard, spoken at normal speed. (listening)

iii) The skill of expressing oneself accurately in writing. (Writing)

iv) The skill of understanding what is read. (reading)

Each of these four skills are learned through practice. One cannot be simply able to speak, listen, read and write by learning rules. All these processes need practice.

**Productive and Receptive Skills**

According to H.G. Widdowson, we use listening and speaking in ORAL COMMUNICATION and reading and writing in WRITTEN COMMUNICATION. The sender of a message uses the spoken or written form in order to communicate his ideas. The receiver of the message utilizes the listening or reading skills in order to interpret the message. We can, therefore, group these four skills in two large groups:

i) Speaking Are Active

ii) Writing Are Productive — Skills

iii) Listening Are Passive

iv) Reading Are Receptive — Skills
The former two productive skills require:

1. The correct use of vocabulary items, i.e. the right word in the right place.
2. The ability to recall words spontaneously.
3. Grammatical accuracy.
4. Fluency in producing correct rhythm, stress and intonation.

The correct spelling and sequenced sentences

The latter two receptive skills require:

1. The ability to recognize vocabulary items.
2. Acquaintance with the main grammatical patterns.
3. Skills of assimilating rapidly what is said or read.

Widdowson believes that these four integrated skills can never exist in isolation, i.e. in order to achieve a considerable “COMUNICATIVE COMPETENCE” or spoken or written fluency, all four skills should be given an equal consideration. At the same time, Widdowson says that while conversing normally, the speaker does not conscious of the language rules but is only concerned that whatever is said or spoken is understood by the listener.

Let us understand more clearly as why speaking and writing are called the active or productive skills, and why listening and reading are known to be the passive or receptive skills.
2. Speaking & Writing as Active/Productive Skills

Speaking, as we all know, is “an act of communication performed in a face to face interaction. It is not an isolated activity but is more of a reciprocal activity. “When we are talking or speaking or saying, we do not only use our vocal organs, it also involves our gestures, facial expressions and body movements. At the same time, a lot of visuals are also associated with this act of speaking.” Speaking is productive skill because a speaker needs a listener.

Writing, as a physical activity, is productive in the same way. As in speaking the sounds are perceived by the ear, similarly in writing the movements of the arm and fingers produce letters which are perceived by the eye. Writing is not simply producing letters randomly, but a productive writing is that which manifests the correct graphological and grammatical system of the language. While writing a writer is not just producing English sentences, but is consciously arranging them in a sequence to create a discourse. In writing too you need a reader as in speaking you need a listener. A writer is persuading his reader that whatever he is writing has a purpose which is worthwhile.

Listening & Reading as Passive/Receptive Skills

When we say that we understand a piece of spoken language, we mean that we are recognising the phonological and grammatical system of the language. We understand the meaning of the sentences as well as their significance in the spoken discourse or interaction. Every word or sentence spoken, has a communicative function to perform. Listening, therefore, is the receptive counterpart of speaking because it is the activity of recognizing signals conveyed through speaking.

Speaking is the ability to recognize sentences and their meaning. We can also say that it is an ability to recognize how these sentences function to form a coherent discourse. In reading, it is essential that a reader is quick enough to grasp the
written message, in other words he should be a good decoder. Reading requires the mastery of the mechanics of reading.

These mechanics are:

1. Letter/sound correspondence.
2. Spelling/sound correspondence.
3. Spelling/meaning correspondence.

In this way reading is more of a receptive skill.

The most idealistic goal in learning a new language is acquiring an adequate proficiency.

The highest level of proficiency in the speaking–skills is when one acquires a native speakers ability to process meaningful sounds.

The highest level of proficiency in writing skill is the ability to express and communicate in the written form of the language.

Realistically, for a foreign language learners it is a difficult task to achieve the native speakers proficiency in all these four skills. As an evidence, we have our own teaching system. Over emphasis on the learning and teaching of linguistic rules inhibit the development in linguistic skill ability. The question, therefore, arise is: How we should teach these skills, and – how to help the learners to understand the usage as well as the use of the language.

**SELF-ASSESSMENT QUESTION**

Do you think, we should teach our students functional English. If so, what they would need instead of studying literacy works. Give your own ideas.
TRAINING IN LISTENING

Let us understand each skill separately. All these years it has been assumed that listening competence will come naturally while learning a foreign language. Teachers have only given importance to the teaching of reading, writing and little on speaking, but have ignored that training of listening. All those students going to western countries for higher education or exchange tours and those holiday makers or travellers visiting foreign countries suffer a shock when they find out that though they speak English reasonably well, cannot understand the native accent in normal conversation. Students face difficulties in following lectures, understanding seminars or participating in group discussion. As we will all agree that our teachers teach us English or speak in English in an unnaturally slow pace and style, making every effort to pronounce each and every word as clearly as possible. This is not the kind of English we hear when we interact in an English language environment. Native English speakers do not speak with a slow speed, give unnecessary pauses and stresses. Their way of speaking is natural and is more of a colloquial or informal style.

Some years back there was a tradition of being stylish while speaking on radio or giving lectures. These days the style is more ordinary, conversational and informal. Teachers giving lectures or new-readers reading news on radio/T.V. have adopted this new informal style of speaking. Most of our students have difficulty following this rapid flow of speech.

Listening, they say is an internal process, and one doesn't know what occurs in a listener’s mind when he is listening to something. But one thing is certain that the listener is actively engaged all the time in constructing the message of the speaker. When we listen to something, our first reaction is whether we are hearing an organised sound (language, music) or simply random sounds. It is here, that we can differentiate between HEARING and LISTENING. Hearing is simply the
recognition of sounds, whether they are organised and meaningful or disorganised. We hear all sorts of noise around us without paying a conscious attention. But listening is giving conscious giving attention to whatever is being said.

Once we understand the sounds, we impose some kind of structure on those sounds and arrange them into words and sentences. And then we select what is useful and important for us and store that particular message in our memories.

Our students can become good listeners when they have knowledge of phonology or sound system of the language. Also, the knowledge of the topic or word between the speaker and the listener. We do not expect our students to understand a topic or some situation which is completely foreign or new to them. While we are writing, we are conscious that it should be clear and precise, because we are addressing an absent reader. But while speaking, we tend to become repetitious. At times it is an advantage for that learner who has missed out something for the first time; he may have a second opportunity. A listener should cope with these repetitions and also other things such as speaker’s pauses, unfinished utterances, tones, etc...A good listening exercise should incorporate these aspects of spoken language, otherwise the task will appear artificial. One other thing which is important in a listening task is to give environmental clues. A typical example of this is announcements at public places, such as airports, railway stations, etc. This trains a listener to pick out the relevant message. Ideally speaking, we should expose our learners from informal conversational English to the more formal varieties used during lectures, public speaking and broadcasts.

When we are listening to something in our own language or in a foreign language, we do it because:

* We want to find out some information about a person or an event.
* We listen to something for our own pleasure or interest.
* We listen to serious lectures, seminars or discussions or important texts read aloud, in order to understand it.

The following exercises are meant for teachers, which they can keep in mind teaching their students listening comprehension. Teachers are advised to take out passages and dialogues or poems from the prescribed textbooks and devise listening exercises on them. Here once again a teacher’s imagination and dedication is required.

When you travel by train or by air in a foreign country you hear the announcements, repeating the same information you already know. Now if one doesn’t understand the spoken language and have difficulty in following the native flow of speech, it will be a great hindrance. So it is better to give students listening practice in hearing various announcements. Play the audio tape for the students and see how far they can understand this airport announcement.

**Activities**

(i) May I have your attention please. The 2.30 plane to Karachi PK-175 will now depart at 4.45. Passengers are requested to stay in the lounge. Sorry for the inconvenience. Now that you have listened to the announcements, look at the sentences below and complete the blanks:

may I have your ____________ The ________plane to _______ will depart at ______. _______ are requested to stay in the ____________ for the ____________

(ii) Let us practice listening to a dialogue:

Ali: Hello, Karim!
Karim: Oh Hello, Ali!
Ali: I’m going to see the film “Silsila” why don’t you come along?
Karim: Sorry! I am not feeling well.
Ali: Oh, really! What’s wrong?
Karim: Indigestion.
Ali: Well, rest now. I’ll give you a ring tomorrow.
Karim: Fine, see you then. Bye...Bye.

Now that you have listened to the dialogue, tick the right answers.

1. (a) Ali is going to see the film.
   (b) Karim is going to see the film.

2. (a) Ali is not feeling well.
   (b) Karim is not feeling well.

3. (a) Ali will ring Bell.
   (b) Karim will ring him.

4. (a) He has got indigestion.
   (b) He has got insomnia.

One of a very useful and practical listening exercises can be to listen to the news. We listen to the news on the radio or T.V. because we have an interest to know what is going online the country and around the world.

Let us listen to this piece of news:

“Australia handed England their third consecutive defeat in the one day world series competition. Mike Gatting, the English captain won the toss, and decided to bat. Australian captain Allan Border scored 61 runs with the partnership of Geoff Marsh.”

Now that you have listened to this piece of news (once or twice) on your tape recorder, can you tick the correct answer?

1. (a) It’s a sport news.
   (b) It’s an economics news

2. (a) Allan Border is the England team’s captain.
   (b) Allan Border is the Australian captain.

3. (a) Mike Gatting scored 61 runs.
(b) Allan Border scored 61 runs.

4. (a) Australia won the match.
     (b) England won the match.

5. (a) It was a test match.
     (b) It was a one-day match.

Teachers should devise listening exercises from the prescribed English textbook. Record a poem, play once or twice and give students a handout or the same poem with words erased, ask student to make use of the memory and insert the correct words. This will encourage them to listen attentively to the recorded poem. One should always introduce these study skills from beginners level and then proceed on to more serious tasks. Our English students need a slow and gradual climb, so before we start tackling longer, serious and more difficult texts, we should give our students listening practice in lighter topics. This sort of listening comprehension practice will help the students to understand lectures (rendered in English) better and also improve their note-taking skill.

As teachers, we should always explain reasons for listening, so that a student can form an idea about the task he is going to do and moreover he will know what he is expected to do. While teaching lower classes, *listening* and *dictation* exercises will help improve student’s spellings. Another kind of exercise is *listening* and *blank filling* which will help students to gain speed and accuracy. They are made to listen to the recorded text and at the same time keep on filling the missing word on a similar written text.

* Few general principles in teaching listening comprehension are:
  1. Listening comprehension (LC) lessons must have definite goals, carefully stated. These goals should fit into the overall curriculum, and both teacher and students should be clear about their objectives.
2. Listening comprehension lessons should be constructed carefully through step by step planning. The student should know exactly what the task is and he is given directions as to “what to listen for, where to listen, when to listen, and how to listen.”

3. LC lesson’s structure should demand active student participation. Most active student participation involves a written response to the listening material, and that immediate feedback on performance helps keep interest and motivation at high levels.

4. It is advisable to give the students the writing assignment before they listen to the material. (It serves the same function as the “before” question in the reading class).

5. Listening comprehension lessons should stress conscious memory work. One of the goals of listening is to strengthen the student’s immediate recall in order to increase their memory spans. “Listening is receiving, receiving requires thinking, and thinking requires memory: there is no way to separate listening, thinking, remembering.”

6. Listening comprehension lessons should “teach and not test”. By this it means that the purpose of checking the students answers should be viewed only as feedback, as a way of letting the students find out how they did and how they are progressing. There should be no pass/fail attitude associated with the correction of the exercises.

Presentation of the listening exercises should be in the following way:

1. Selection of the teaching point.
2. Focussing of students attention.

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3. Listening and completion of the task.

Listening material can be of various kinds; it can be dialogues, narrations, description, discussions, announcements, etc. If the teachers make some extra efforts and arrange the class timings more suitable, they can practise listening skill by choosing from the same English textbooks.

**SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTION**

1. Do you think that teaching of listening skill is greatly neglected in our English teaching system? What improvements do you suggest for the inclusion of the listening skill in our English syllabus?
4. Speaking

A person learning a foreign language needs speaking for the communicative purpose. To acquire a language, we need to master all the four skills. It is observed by researchers that the most important skill which a learner requires is the oral skill or the speaking skill. In our teaching situation, English teaching is more textbook oriented. An English teacher faces a lot of constraints of syllabus completion, the size of the classroom, number of students, and the hours available for teaching, therefore it is not easy to devote all the time to practise speaking skill. Those who are interested to supplement the textbook material with certain new teaching techniques, cannot make innovations due to all these constraints.

A learner needs oral skill or speaking skill in order to perform social functions. Oral communication is a two way process between the speaker and the listener. The speaker has to “Encode” the message while the listener has to “Decode” the message. The main goal in teaching the productive skill of speaking is oral fluency.

According to Don Byrne, “it is the ability to express oneself intelligibly, reasonably, accurately and without hesitation”. To attain this goal, a foreign language learner has to start from merely imitating the models from the teacher and steadily becoming competent enough to express in the language he is learning.

Learning to talk in foreign language is often considered as the most difficult aspect of language learning. A teacher faces a hard task to help the students with their speech problems. Speaking skill is taught in many different ways. Teachers either stick to the conventional methods of teaching or invent their own individual styles.
The most widely practiced stages of teaching speaking as well as other skills of reading, writing and listening are:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>OBJECTIVES</th>
<th>PRESENTATION</th>
<th>PRACTICE</th>
<th>TRANSFER</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

1. Objectives—means telling students explicitly what they are going to learn and what is the optimum level of understanding they have to reach.

2. Presentation—means how a teacher is going to present a new language item, structure or rule. He hopes to make his presentation through:
   - Pictures
   - Translation—role play – dialogues
   - Discussions – songs & games etc.

   The most common and useful presentation while teaching speaking is considered to be through a dialogue. Presenting a key structure in this framework will actually mean placing the language can be effectively done through a dialogue.

3. Practice: Having presented new structure or rule, the Teacher must now go on to practise it. Practice needs a lot of drilling.

   John Hay–craft believes that, “much more time should be spent on practice than on presentation. In this practice stage a teacher gives controlled and guided practice, providing students with a lot of clues/hints.

4. Transfer stage is where the teacher relaxes the control altogether and leaves students free. Students are actually tested to give free expression.
These four stages, objectives—presentation—practice and transfer are the teacher’s tools. In fact these are the stages of a teacher’s most mediocre lesson plan. We have to see now that how much opportunity a student gets to practise these language items. Practice can take many different forms. In the practice stage, teacher can give a choral (chorus) repetition of the structure or give the following most commonly practised exercises:

i) Controlled practice
ii) Guided practice
iii) Free practice.

These three kinds of exercises ensure the steady growth of students ability to learn a language.

Let us now understand more clearly as

- What these controlled, guided and free exercises are?
- How do they help learners?
- What actually is taught under them and how?

**Controlled Practice**

This is the stage where learners are given intensive practice in the new structure. Their production of the new language item is very carefully controlled, so that the form and usage of that particular item is fully grasped by the learners.

See the following example of a controlled exercise, and you will notice the use of mechanical drilling. The teacher wants to teach WH questions to high school level students. It is advisable that the teacher should tell the objectives of the exercises so that the students should know about what they are
expected to learn. The teacher should state the objectives by saying; with this exercise you should be able to:

**Practise:** WH questions like what, where, when, why.

**Understand:** their use, as when and where to use them.

After telling the objectives, the teacher should give a presentation. Suppose she/he presents WH questions through a dialogue. The dialogue presentation would be as follows:

Miss Zarina: I want to see Mr. Rehman, please.
Receptionist: What’s your name?
Ms. Zarina: Miss Zarina Qureshi.
Receptionist: Where do you come from, Miss?
Ms. Zarina: I’m from the news bureau.
Receptionist: What do you do?
Ms. Zarina: I am a newspaper reporter.
Receptionist: One moment please.

Write on the blackboard the WH questions from the dialogue:

(a) What’s your name?
(b) Where do you come from?
(c) What do you do?

Select one kind of WH questions at one time. Give students controlled practice in form of a *chain drill*.

This will be as under. Teacher to student 1: I am Farzana, – What’s your name?
Student 1: I am Aziz. (To student 2) What's your name?
Student 2: I am Haider. (To student3) What's your name?
Student 3: I am Javed. (To student4) What's your name?
Student 4: I am Mahmood. (To student 5) What's your name?

Student 5: I am ………………………

And so this sort of repetition is called a chain drill, where you must have noticed that they are just imitating the model sentence given by the teacher and therefore the chance of making errors is reduced. Similarly practise two other WH questions.

Where do you come from?
What do you do?

Let me give you another example of controlled exercise. This is also in form of a chain drill:
Teacher to student 1: I am from Karachi, Where do you come from?
Student 1 : I am from Pindi, (to student 2) where do you come from?
Student 2: I am from Quetta, (to student 3) where do you?
Student 3: ……………………………………….

Guided Practice

Making the use of same presentation, the same WH structure, we can move on towards giving to the students Guided Exercises. The teacher should at this stage slightly release the control and guide students to ask and answer questions themselves using the clues or hints given by the teacher.

In Guided Practice students have some opportunity for personal expression. After the controlled practice, they have built up enough confidence to use the structures without too much hesitation. Here the drilling should be less mechanical and
more meaningful. The teacher displays five or more than five flash cards.

The cards will somewhat look like this?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rosi</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pakistan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Karachi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nurse</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jinnah Hospital</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Card No. 1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rupa</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Indian</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bombay</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Actress</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Card No. 2

Now show to the students one card.
Tell them - Suppose I am Rosi - ask me questions.

Student 1: What is your name'?
Teacher: My name is Rosi.

Student 2: Where do you come from'?
Teacher: I come from Karachi.

Student 3: What do you do?
Teacher: I am a Nurse.

Student 4: Where do you work?
Teacher: I work at the Jinnah Hospital.

**Free Practice:** Now it’s time to let students manage for themselves. In free practice the involvement from the teacher is
very less. She does not intervene much, does not correct errors but let the students free to express and say whatever they want. Remember that the teacher gives them the structures on which they are working or practising. As in controlled or guided practice, the drill work offers a very little choice. In free practice students are free to give a variety of responses. We can therefore say that free practice is more “personalised. A good example of free practice can be to provide maps, travel guides or hotel guides to the students. The students will ask each other questions like:

Where does river Indus flow?
What is on the north side of Peshawar?
What is the most interesting historical sight of Lahore?
Where can I eat the famous chappli kabab etc... etc... etc.

Another kind of free exercise can be to work in pairs of two students. Ask one student to interview another in front of the whole class. This sort of activity will appear like this:-

Student 1: What’s your name?
Student 2: I am Faheem Ahmed.
Student 1: What do you do?
Student 2: I am a T.V. technician.
Student 1: Where do you come from?
Student 2: I come from Peshawar.

At this stage the teacher writes down few other WH question on the black board and guides the students to use those also.

For example:

Where do you live in Peshawar?
What do you do in the evening?
You will notice that students are taking interest in knowing about each other as well as in practising these structures. One other thing, you as a teacher will notice that with such a prolonged controlled and guided practice in these two WH structures, the students are now able to fluently use the WH questions and can even make their own. Encourage the students to make as many WH questions (starting with where and what) as possible and ask for responses. In this activity you should involve the entire class. Students should go on asking each other questions in a way similar to chain drill. This kind of activity will appear like this:

1. Where are you sitting now?
2. I'm sitting in the class room.
3. What are you doing now?
4. I'm listening to you.
5. What will you do in the afternoon?
6. I will eat my lunch,
7. Where will you eat your lunch?
8. I will eat my lunch at my home.

As we are already aware of the fact that learning a foreign language in a class room is an artificial situation, nevertheless if a teacher tries to make the examples and exercises real and close to life, students will achieve a considerable success in learning a language. Controlled and guided oral work is necessary at early stages, when it is necessary and of utmost importance that the students grasp the pattern or structure, pronunciation and usage thoroughly. Their errors need to be corrected, they need encouragement and guidance and then they are finally on their way to give free expressions.
Self-Assessment Question

What are the four common stages of teaching language skills. Describe their usefulness in learning a new language.

5. Reading

When the writers write, they begin writing with some purpose(s), therefore they choose and use their words, sentences and paragraphs to fulfill the purpose(s). Similarly, the readers goal is, to understand and absorb. But in the second language learning most learners cannot be made effective readers unless they are trained. To do this, teachers need a programme which can deal with methodology, opportunities for practice, and appropriate facilities to help the learners to acquire better reading techniques. Most reading material is written to achieve one or more purposes. The main purposes in a writer’s mind are:

1. To present information
2. To interpret information
3. To interpret human experience
4. To move the emotions
5. To stir the senses
6. To provide entertainment

Understanding a written text means extracting the required information from it as efficiently as possible. For example, we apply different reading strategies when looking at a notice board searching for some specific information, and when carefully reading an article of special interest in a scientific journal.

In the first case a reader will quickly reject the irrelevant information and find what interests him. In the second case he
has to read in detail and cannot afford to skim the article, or to be more simple cannot skip paragraphs or pages.

In our every day life, we come across many types of reading material:

- Novels, short stories, other literary texts like diaries, biographies, etc.
- Plays, poems, letters, telegrams, notes, etc.
- Articles, editorials, classified ads, weather forecasts, radio/T. V. programme, etc...
- Summaries, accounts, reports, reviews, business correspondence.
- Handbooks, guide books, recipes, catalogues, travel brochures, puzzles, problems, etc...
- Instructions, directions, notices, rules and regulations, posters, signs, menus, price lists, tickets, etc.
- Comic strips, cartoons, legends, maps, diagrams
- Time tables, directions, dictionaries etc.

We read all these things

(a) for pleasure, and
(b) for information.

Some of us read just casually even while reading serious journals or reports, and some of us read seriously even while reading classified ads or cartoons. These sorts of reading activities can be broadly divided into following two categories:

(a) The Intensive reading
(b) The Extensive reading.

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Extensive reading: Reading longer texts, usually for one's own pleasure. This reading needs fluency. It is a sort of an outside reading.

Intensive reading: Reading shorter texts to extract specific information. This kind of reading needs accuracy for detail.

Reading is an active skill which involves guessing, predicting, checking or asking oneself questions. It would be better if the teacher links the reading skill with the other three skills of writing, listening and speaking.

Reading and writing can be linked together when summarising, note taking or replying to letters, etc......

Reading and listening can be practised together when comparing recorded and written news-bulletins, using recorded information to solve a written problem, etc......

Reading and speaking can be practised by discussions, debates, etc......

Some people think that reading cannot be taught but only learnt, but all of us will agree that the teacher’s job is to tell students many different ways to attacking a text. A notable linguist Brum fit states his ideas that there are two approaches of reading:

Reading for accuracy (intensive)

Reading for fluency (extensive)

Both these approaches obviously need different classroom procedures. Intensive reading needs close guidance of teacher. The aim of intensive reading is to arrive at a profound and detailed understanding of the text.

The extensive reading is mostly done out of class. The class time is too short to achieve fluency, one has to read a great deal which can be only done in the spare time. People
read in different ways using different strategies and skills. But, when a reader is a foreign language learner then he needs slow, careful and laborious reading strategies in order to extract the maximum information from it.

Therefore, let us once again revise what intensive and extensive reading are:

**Intensive reading:** This kind of reading aims at reading shorter texts, which needs accuracy for detail.

**Extensive reading:** This kind of reading emphasises less on gaining accuracy and more on gaining fluency, since extensive reading is usually done outside the classroom, and for the reader's own pleasure, an extensive reader is at liberty to pick up a book of his own interest read the book at his own pace, whenever he feels and gain as much exposure as he wants in a language.

Whenever you pick up a book on “Teaching Reading Skills”, you will come across such terms:

- Skimming
- Scanning
- Predicting
- Anticipation
- Silent reading
- Reading in chunks
- Guessing the meaning of unfamiliar words

All these techniques train you in acquiring fluency in reading as well as accuracy in reading. Let us see what these terms explain.
SKIMMING: It means reading a text quickly in order to get the gist of the text. The reader is just concerned with the main idea and leaves the other minor or supporting details. Skimming is a useful reading technique especially in extensive reading. It is useful when a reader does not have much time to go through the whole text in detail. So, skimming enables us to read just the relevant parts in a book which might interest us.

SCANNING: It means reading a text quickly in order to look for specific piece of information. This reading skill is very useful in our daily life when we are looking for a telephone number in a telephone directory or searching for the meaning of some unfamiliar word in a dictionary. Therefore, instead of going through the whole directory or dictionary we just settle for the specific areas where we can find that particular information.

PREVIEWING: This gives us the first impression about a book. We can have fair idea about the book by looking at

- the title
- the blurb or back titles,
- reviews,
- the foreword or preface,
- the contents page, and
- the index.

PREDICTING: This is a kind of guessing game. The reader is utilising his previous knowledge of language and subject, and is looking forward to reading what he predicts will be in the book.

ANTICIPATION: Anticipation in reading means guessing about the text in a global level or at an overall level. Anticipation means the reader is constantly anticipating what the next line or page would bring. The difference between the anticipation and prediction is that anticipation is global at the entire book level, while prediction is local or at a sentence level.
SILENT READING: As we know that reading is a cognitive activity. The imagination of a reader is all the time playing an active role where he is thinking, rethinking, giving pauses, referring back, sometimes even skipping certain lines or pages. Silent reading is a readers private activity and unlike reading aloud when the reader is deprived of this privilege.

READING IN CHUNKS: Williams says that "the reader is not simply a passive object, fed with letters, words and sentences, but is actively working on the text and is able to arrive at understanding without looking at every word...” This reading technique once again enables us to avoid unnecessary concern about individual letter or word which can slow down our reading speed, instead, we look for the general idea or message of the book or the writer. Giving too much importance on individual word and its meaning, a reader is likely to miss the overall message or meaning of the text.

GUESSING THE MEANING OF UNFAMILIAR WORDS: As mentioned in reading in chunks, a competent reader is the one who does not stop over a particular word and look up for meaning in the dictionary but is able to guess the meaning of that unfamiliar word with the help of the context.. Suppose your task is to teach a novel to your B.A students. You can actually start a discussion on the author of the book and the book itself, so that your students will form an idea about the book and of course their interest is also aroused.

Give your students an opportunity to give their suggestions. You can ask “preview questions” like:

- What is the text about?
- Who is it for?
- Who’s the writer?
- When was it written?
- Other books by same author.

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Your students will probably guess the answers by looking at the layout of the book, the front and the back cover, a look at the contents or the preface etc… After this preliminary discussion, you can teach one or two chapters at a time. Ask your students to come prepared by reading it. Let them discuss their findings in the next period about:

The setting

The year–season

Characters

Any other thing which they find interesting.

Encourage your students to write down all they are learning through discussions and criticism. So at the end every single student will have a complete work on that particular novel and while preparing for they can refer to their class notes. So, you must have realised that we are actually practising predicting, skinmming and scanning teachiniques.

**Self Assessment Question:**

Do you think it is useful for your students to spend some time on “extensive reading?” Do you think it helps students to gain fluency? Give your ideas.

6. **Writing**

As you are already told, writing is a productive/active skill like speaking. Why, because you need a reader to decode the message which you as a writer are encoding through writing. In writing, a writer is translating his or her thoughts into language. Since there is no direct contact or interaction between the reader and the writer, a writer has to be very explicit in his ideas and expressions. Writer has only words to play with and by arranging and linking together these words and sentences writer is able to communicate successfully with readers. Besides
words, a writer makes use of other graphological devices, such as punctuation, capitalisation, underlining, etc.. etc... All these writing devices play a role to get the written message across the reader. While speaking, a speaker faces a listener and therefore he not only uses words but through expressions and gestures he is communicating with his listener. But in writing, there is only a paper and a pen which a writer has in his control and so he has to ensure that whatever he’s writing is understood without any further help. We all will agree that writing is an individual activity or a solitary activity and the writer undergoes a lot of mental exercise in revising and rewriting the sentences, until he is sure that his absent reader is getting the right message. Incomplete or ungrammatical sentences are not tolerated in writing. Since we learn English as a foreign language, our students need to be treated with patience and a teacher should guide the learners from the very beginning in developing writing skills. We can help the students by telling them all the minor as well as major mechanics of writing.

When we write anything, whether it is a personal or business letter, an application, an examination paper, a report, a shopping list—anything, we need a different strategy, a different method to write. To write clearly is a difficult thing because most of us just never stop to think or ponder, but continue with writing as the ideas pour into our heads. This, sometimes leads to inconsistency, disorder and ambiguity and the readers are unable to follow what is written. Of course, I do not mean here that your students should be trained as “professional” writers or novelists, but it is very necessary that a good student should be properly guided and taught to write effectively.

The most important thing, therefore, is that before we start to write we should organise our ideas and order our thoughts. Once having decided on what to say, say it neatly, clearly, simply, coherently and consistently. Neatness is
particularly important when one is writing a job application of filling a form. Neatness is also of importance in writing examination papers. Because neatness will make a better impression on a perspective employer or on examiner. Clarity is also very important. Try to write short sentences, without too many subordinate clauses. Long sentences will appear heavy and too tricky, so avoid this by cutting long sentences into short by using punctuation. To give you an example we will see this example:

“China is exporting increased quantities of non-traditional goods like engineering products, machinery, components equipment, electronic goods etc...for which There is a growing demand among the non-aligned countries, and which China offers not only at a competitive price, but on comparatively easier financial terms and with facilitates of after sales service.”

It would be better to say:

“China is exporting increased quantities of non-traditional goods like engineering products, machinery, components, equipment, electronic goods, etc.. There is a growing demand for such goods among the non-aligned countries”.

You must have noticed that one long sentence has been cut into three and made simple and clearer. Simple writing is much easier to read and to understand. It is better to avoid long words. Long words interrupt the flow of thought and common readers will face difficulty to understand them, until they refer to dictionary very often. Different words can very easily be substituted with easy words, which will not alter the meaning of the sentence. Examples of difficult words are:

Abbreviated/short
Necessitate/need
Multifaceted/many sided
One can excuse professional writers, because they know that they are doing, but teaching students to use jargons frequently will be a mistake. Jargons are technical words and are of mixed language origin. *Punctuation* is very important. Without it words would follow each other in an endless stream and the meaning would be lost. Punctuation makes the meaning clear. An average student surely knows the use of a full stop, comma, semicolon, colon, question mark, exclamation mark, inverted commas, brackets, hyphen, dash etc...etc... What is noticeable is that in our English periods, teachers do not treat the problem of punctuations separately, i.e. no adequate time and teaching is given on the teaching of punctuation. This is a very important writing device which needs lot of work and practice. Our learners should be taught that their writings should have *coherency* and *consistency*.

Coherence means a writing which makes sense, is easy to follow and understand. A coherent writing is one where words and sentences are placed in a correct place and are in a right order. A coherent piece of writing is devoid of any ambiguity or obscurity, that which does not create any sort of understanding in the minds of the readers.

**How can we help our learners to write simple, creative expression?** First of all, we should give our learners an opportunity to look at the various written formats. This wide exposure to various models will provide them with an insight to many different and appropriate writing models and will also give them a taste of variety. Too much exposure to any particular format, for example dialogue or narrative prose, will hinder their learning any other form. At the same time our learners should be made to realise that each and every written piece of work has a definite communicative purpose and is addressed to a specific reader.
Donn Byrnn in his book “Teaching writing skills” says that a foreign language learner will learn a new language more easily if all the activities whether they are related to speaking, reading, listening or writing are more realistic and are based on a realistic context or situation. He means to say that we as teachers should provide our students a contextual or real-life frame work. This will make writing tasks more purposeful. It is advisable that to provoke interest among the students, we should give them activities which should integrate all the four skills. One of the most useful activity of this sort is giving an advertisement for a job to a student. Of course, a student will read it, which involves reading, talk about it or discuss in pairs/groups which involves speaking or listening, and then decide to apply for it, which involves writing.

Thus the writing activities given to the student should not lack reality. Tasks to write letters and notes are much more relevant to learner’s needs. Ask them to write formal letters or reports, but once again give them a life-like situation in which they can feel at ease. Slowly and gradually we can motivate our learners towards creative writing, such as writing imaginative stories. Motivate them to provide an end to the story or write description about any particular person or a landscape or any other thing.

The most common drawbacks in our students writings are incorrect punctuations or complete absence of punctuation as well as incorrect use of linking devices, such as co-ordinators, conjunctions, sequence or time markers etc… etc… We should devise such kinds of exercises which will familiarise the students with these cohesive devices, sentence linking and sequencing devices. Select few common conjunctions or coordinators at one time and give them activities of combining sentences with these devices. For example:

*It was raining, Rahim went out as usual, (but)*

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Many other activities of such kind, practising all the cohesive devices will force a student to think about the meaningful relationship between the sentences and clauses.

Given students short texts or letters with these cohesive devices erased and ask them to provide the correct device.

A good and effective writing programme should:

(a) reinforce the language learnt orally,

(b) include a large variety of resources of the written language, such as linking and rhetorical devices, and

(c) gradually give independence to a learner from a much controlled practice towards writing free expressions.

Whenever we as teachers ask our students to write, we should allow them freedom to write about their own ideas, experiences and interests. Very often, our students just write believing that they should write what the teacher wants. Teachers should encourage their students to be imaginative and make them believe that each one is an interesting person with interesting experiences, thoughts & ideas that are important and worthwhile to share. Another thing the teacher should explain to their students is that they should not think that when a writing assignment is given to them, all the ideas they need just, jump magically in their minds. Sometimes, they do have few ideas but it is possible to be blank and have nothing to say. To boost up their capabilities and stimulate their minds, a teacher should do some ‘pre-writing’ activities with them. If, for instance you give them a topic “Advantages of College Life”, ask the class some questions like:

Why did they join college?

What interests them most in college?
How did they feel on their first day?
When was their first day?
What are the good and bad points?
So on and so forth.

Eliciting answers from the entire class will provide them enough material, which each student will go back to while writing, and improve upon them.

Another useful pre-writing activity is listening the main ideas. For example:

More freedom in college.
More work in college.
More fun in college............

Then, if the teacher has enough time, he can take one main idea and then ask students to give ideas to support it. For example:

More freedom in college.
To select courses.
To bunk classes.
To make future plans etc........

Once students are engaged in a free writing activity, tell them not to worry about the grammar, punctuations, spellings, organization etc... Try not to stop and do not decide if their ideas are good or not. Just put the ideas as they come into the minds. The teacher can help them later on to decide which ideas include, where to begin or end the paragraph etc... The language experts have given a name to activities as “Brainstorming” activities, that means a student is forced to think and write as naturally as the ideas are pouring into their minds.
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TECHNIQUES OF TEACHING ENGLISH

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INTRODUCTION

Teaching of English occupies an important place in the curriculum of our schools and colleges. Our contact with this language, through a historical revolution, is more than a century old. Throughout Pakistan, English is taught and learnt as a second language as well as a compulsory subject from class one to B.A. level in all schools and colleges. However, it is a compulsory subject from class one onward in English medium schools. Its international, diplomatic and academic place is conspicuous and goes without saying. You have already studied in detail the importance of teaching English in Unit One. In this Unit we shall study and discuss some of the useful techniques, and methods of teaching English.

In teaching any language, it is very important for both the teacher and the taught what they hope and intend to achieve. In teaching a foreign language, it is well known that there are four general aims: to teach reading comprehension, to teach speaking, to teach writing and to teach listening with comprehension. Teaching grammar, pronunciation, and vocabulary remain ingredients in each. It should always be the teacher's general concern to get the pupils language abilities into action. To teach effectively and achieve the objectives in maximum, the first and foremost concern of the teacher should be to select and adopt the most suitable method. Some very useful principles of language teaching are discusses in this unit.
OBJECTIVES

After reading this unit intensively, you are expected to be able to:

- Understand and use the various principles of teaching English as a second language.
- Comprehend and make use of various techniques of teaching English.
- Make your teaching more effective.
- Involve the students more effectively in teaching learning situation.
- Know and appreciate the techniques of programmed learning and language laboratory.
- Appreciate and enjoy the teaching of English.
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1. **General Principles of Teaching English as a Second Language**

The most immediate problem for the language teacher is to determine the methods and techniques useful in the classroom. The choice of the specific teaching techniques depends on the nature of the language, preparation and experience of the teacher and background and environment of the learners. Some general principles of teaching English as a foreign language are discussed in the following pages.

The teaching of English as a foreign language involves some crucial activities like imitation of the forms of the foreign language as uttered by the teacher, spoken and written, drills and tests which will evaluate and determine the progress of the students in acquiring the new idioms of English. The objectives of the teacher, at the early stage, are to encourage the students to reproduce the sounds and forms of English both spoken and written in the way they are guided to. The teaching techniques involve language drill, discussion of the relationship between forms and constructions in the foreign language with those of the native language and the presentation of models of spoken and written English which are to be imitated, repeated, learned, memorised or followed by the students in their efforts to acquire knowledge.

Lado has enumerated 17 principles of teaching a foreign language. The summary is as follows: (13:50-55)

1. *Speech before writing*: Teach listening and speaking first, reading and writing next.
2. *Basic sentence*: Have the students memorised basic conversational sentences as accurately as possible.
3. *Pattern as habits*: Establish the patterns as habits through pattern practice. (Only words, sentences
and rules of grammar; do not constitute knowing the language.)

4. **Sound system for use**: Teach the sound system structurally for use by demonstration, imitation, props, contrasts and practice.

5. **Vocabulary control**: Keep the vocabulary load minimum while the students are mastering the sound system and the grammatical patterns.

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

7. **Writing as representation of speech**: Teach reading and writing as manipulation of graphic representation language units and patterns that the students already know.

8. **Graded patterns**: Teach the patterns in cumulatively graded steps:
   a. Begin with sentences, not words, and order the sequence of materials on the basis of sentence pattern.
   b. Introduce the sub-sentence, such as parts of speech, structure words and modification structures, in connection with full sentence patterns.
   c. Add each new element or pattern to previous ones.
   d. Adapt the learning difficulty to the capacity of the students.
   e. Keep to a minimum the patterns that are introduced in the dialogues before they appear in graded steps.
9. **Language practice and translation**: Translation is not a substitute for language practice.

10. **Authentic language standards**: Teach the language as it is, not as it ought to be.

11. **Practice**: The student must be engaged in practice most of the learning time.

12. **Shaping the responses**: When a response is not in the repertory of the student, shape it through partial experience and props.

13. **Speed and style**: Practice should end in linguistically acceptable and psychologically full experience.

14. **Immediate reinforcement**: Let the student know immediately when his response has been successful.

15. **Attitude towards target Culture**: Except in case of enmity or war, impart an attitude of identification with or sympathetic understanding of the people who seek and learn the second language, rather than merely a utilitarian attitude towards the language or a disinterested or negative attitude towards the people or the language.

16. **Content**: Teach the meaning of the content of the second language as it has developed in the culture where the language is spoken natively.

17. **Learning the crucial outcome**: Teach primarily to produce learning rather than to please or entertain. Lado believes that while these principles remain constant in all language teaching, specific conditions and variables must be considered when programming any teaching. According to him, the chief conditions and variables that must be considered are related to the; (1) student (2) the
materials and equipment (3) the teacher and (4) the setting.

The teachers of foreign languages must be concerned primarily with building, in their students, an automatic control over the several sub-systems of the foreign language. This automatic control of the language without pre-mediation which is another way of saying that as teachers we seek to develop in our students a new set of linguistic habits which can be summoned at will in addition to the entire set of linguistic habits belonging to the native language. Learning the language is fundamentally an acquisition of skill and habit so that the process of utterances in the language becomes automatic.

It is further stressed that the basic methodology for teaching a foreign language is founded ultimately upon a few fundamental but immensely significant principles connecting the nature of the language itself and the language learning process.

Another expert, Anderson, has also pointed out some principles governing the natural learning of a foreign language. He believes that these are essential for effective teaching language situation. These are as follows: (1: 49-54)

1. The eye plays an important part in learning a foreign language. The student’s eyes are glued on the teacher as he speaks the new language. The teacher plays an important role before the eyes of the learners. In seeing the models, associating sound with objects, and in observing visual aids, eye is a good gate of knowledge and a good teacher makes full use of it.

2. The second principle of governing the learning of the language is the creation of what may be called the climate of sound. The best way to create the new climate for a teacher is to speak himself the foreign language.
3. The third principle according is to translate as much as possible, the new language into action. Love of action is universal with the learners.

According to R.A. Close, teachers and students of English should adhere to the following basic principles: (6:22-25)

1. Both teacher and students should observe what is said and written by speakers and writers of authentic and acceptable English.

2. They should forget oversimplified rules of thumb as soon as these have served their early practical purpose.

3. They should seek the essential factors beneath the incidental ones.

4. The teachers should resist the temptation of explaining in the abstract too early.

5. The teachers should present their students with typical and vivid examples.

6. If the learner suggests some way, teacher must accommodate it.
2. **General Techniques of Teaching English**

Some general techniques are summarised as below:

1. Use the students and yourself (your clothing, the things you carry) to teach appropriate vocabulary before using pictures or other materials.
2. Start with known environment of the students.
3. Use dialogue wherever possible and keep building on the same dialogue situation where possible.
4. Plan as many different oral practice activities for each lesson as can be done briskly and with reasonable accuracy.
5. Vary the type of student-participation for the different parts of your lesson. Use chain drills, but break the chain after five or six students. First call on students in order, then at random and then anyone who can.
6. Give model sentences or expressions for two or three times then ask the students to have a drill.
7. Call an able student before the weaker ones.
8. Use students native language judiciously to ensure comprehension.
9. Encourage the students to prepare relevant material.
10. Simplify and adapt stories which you can tell your students.
11. Create a cultural island in your class-room. Do it by having pictures, maps, bulletin boards, proverbs and labels in English.
12. Utilise the community resources and bring the people in the community into your programme. It provides stimulation and creates interest in the students.
13 Utilise the incidental happenings in the school or the immediate community to teach or review items.

14 Give your students the feeling and the assurance that English is an international vehicle of communication and its learning is useful for them.

15 Provide opportunities for students to act as listeners as well as speakers.

16 Use authentic language at normal speed.

17 Spur your students to greater effort.

18 Summarise what has been done at various times during the lesson. Make sure through questions, charts, diagrams and as a last resort through translation, that students understand what they are repeating.

19 Teach, don't test. It does not mean not to give tests and examinations, but testing is to help teaching.

20 Tailor your course to your students. Their interests, their environment, their abilities should be kept constantly in mind as you plan the content and activities of your lesson.

In this section, some basic principles and teaching techniques of English as a second language have been discussed. Before going ahead, let us recall back and catch hold of some important points.
Self Assessment Questions

1. Enumerate some basic principles of teaching English as a second language.

2. What is the nature of learning a language.

3. What should be the main objective of the teacher of English on the preliminary stages.

4. Which general techniques of teaching should be adopted by a teacher of English.

5. What kind of atmosphere is needed to teach English as a foreign language.

ACTIVITIES

1. Observe the attitude of a child who is trying to imitate the human sounds and write down your observations.

2. Interview an experienced teacher of English and ask him what techniques does he use to make his teaching effective.
3. Specific Techniques of Teaching English

Some specific techniques are discussed in the following pages. The discussion includes programmed instruction, language laboratory, asking question, dramatization, dialogue and modular approach.

Programmed Learning

Under the influence of behaviorist psychology, the idea of programmed instruction has been steadily gaining ground. In developed countries especially, a number of institutions have conducted complete language courses using programmed material allowing students to proceed at their own speed. It is presumed that at least certain programmed courses permit the lower aptitude students to overcome their handicaps. The techniques of preparing programmes is highly scientific and sophisticated. The programmed instruction helps the learner to find out by himself where he has gone wrong and then tells how he should pick up the thread.

The programmed learning is a learning by means of material that breaks the task into minimal steps, requiring an active response for each step and providing an immediate check on the correctness of the responses. The teaching machines are the part and parcel of this instruction. These machines are mechanical devices that present the frames of a learning programme one at a time, require response and then show the correct answer. There are varieties of teaching machines ranging from simple boxes to computer-based devices.

It is pointed out that the appearance of programmed materials for foreign languages show the application of principles of immediate reinforcement and a breaking of the subject into graduated steps. The material for study is divided into tiny steps. The learner begins at the easiest step and moves through progressively more difficult materials.
There are two major criticisms that are directed to this programming. One is the limitation of the theory which cannot tell us very much about what is going on in the pupils mind and the other is that the programmes do not allow different pupils to work through programmes in different ways according to the difficulty they experience. It is usually said that programmes for language are not as successful as in other areas of curriculum. The perfect synchronisation of sound track and teaching machine which would permit the student to work at his own speed, has not yet been devised. In spite of its shortcomings, this method of teaching has its merits. It can successfully be used partly in teaching vocabulary, structure and pattern practice of language.

**Language Laboratory**

The language laboratory is one of the new and very effective, but at the same time are expensive methods of teaching any language. The knowledge of its principles and basic philosophy may be helpful in the improvement and development of other methods of language teaching.

The language laboratory is an effective way of learning in terms of the repetition and over learning of the behaviour patterns that are to become habitual. The essential components of a laboratory are these: tape recorders, ear phones, microphone and the positions at which the students are to listen to a master voice, to repeat what they hear and at times to record their responses for review and correction. The language laboratory, in all its technical variety, is an attempt to harness a term of tape-recorders for class use. The term is loosely used to cover a wide range of installations the simplest of which is the extension of a single tape recorder by means of a junction-box with which a number of stethoscope-heads are connected. Hilton categorises the teaching materials into the tape recorders and other machines and mentions four of them (12:26-36):  

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1. Listening material in the tape recorder.
2. Audio-visual aids in the laboratory.
3. Audio-lingual exercises with the help of mechanical devices.

**Audio–Textual Work**

Lado defines language laboratory as a special room for practice with sound equipment (13: 174-175). The tape recorder used does not constitute a laboratory but what constitute a laboratory is a special room with necessary equipment set aside for practice by the students. It can provide good models of speech of the target language for imitation and manipulation by the students.

Oliva dilates upon this topic and mentions five basic types of language laboratories from the simplest to the most complex types: (14: 183-200)

1. Listening room in which the tape recorders play for groups of students. The students listen and respond as a group.
2. The listening laboratories. This type of installation consists of individual student booths. At each booth there is a head phone.
3. An Audio active laboratory. It is sometimes called the listen-respond laboratory. It is divided into individual booths. At each booth, there is a set of head phones, a microphone and an amplifier plus the volume control and the channel selector.
4. The listen-respond record laboratory. It adds another dimension. It permits students to make recording of their responses.
5. The Deluxe Laboratory. It has all the features of listen-respond-record laboratory plus facilities for visual aids as well.

The language laboratory method is highly effective, but it is expensive; moreover it does not replace the teacher. The teacher is all the more important in it. In Pakistan, it is not still in vogue. Some very good institutions have, however installed the language laboratories and made a very good use of the same.

**Questioning and Answering**

Asking questions is a very useful technique to involve the students in teaching learning process. This keeps the students active in the process and the pace of comprehension increases.

You can write on the board, the comprehension questions for the students to find answers, while they read the text book or hear it read. This helps them to concentrate on finding an answer rather than centering their attention on vocabulary of structure. As a result, their rate of reading increases. This technique also discourages the word-by-word or translation approach that many students have been trained to use. You may sometimes wish to ask the comprehension questions after, instead of before, the students read the textbook. The gifted teacher will skillfully interweave both approaches. In addition to asking specific comprehension questions, you may wish to ask the students to close their books and tell you what the paragraph they have just read is about. Comprehension questions may be ranked from easy to difficult as follows:

1. Questions answerable by Yes or No, True or False.
   Example: Did Rubi eat a banana? (Yes, she did, or No, she didn't.)

3. Why or How questions requiring the student to pull together several ideas from the passage.

4. Inference questions. These require the student to understand what the test implies. Example: How do you think the parents of the bride felt?

5. Questions that require the student to make a value judgment or form an opinion. Example: Do you think she should have scolded him?

Choose the type of question to fit the level of both your class and the individual student. For example, if the level of the class is low but you have a few exceptional students, don't ask the quicker ones a question with an easy yes or no answer.

Make sure the students understand the questions you ask them; they may have particular difficulty with the first and second words. To help them with this problem, you may, after asking the question, ask them which question they have heard.

After you are sure that the students understand the question, have them answer it.

Note: Initial question words Is, Was, and Does are often confused; Wh-questions are more easily understood. Other questions (Did he go home, or did he go to the store?) often baffle the students. You may, to begin with, simplify the questions as follows—Did he go home or did he go to the store?

To give the students a more difficult task, you may ask them to make up a question beginning with a particular question word:

The boy ate banana-ice cream.
Teacher: Make a question beginning with What kind.
Student: What kind of ice cream did the boy eat?

This exercise gives the student practice in the use of past tense did and present tense eat. This is a challenging task for the student because it makes him think. All too often the teacher does the thinking for the students.

Because forming questions is a particularly difficult task for the students, the following procedure is recommended: First, read the passage and check comprehension, use the question patterns already illustrated. Secondly, go over the passage phrase by phrase, and ask the students to make up questions, using the same questions that you previously asked them.

If a student has difficulty in formulating a question, you may want to use this forward build-up-method:

The girl ate a banana.
Who ate banana?
What was eaten?

You may also make a diagram of the question on the board using arrows, deletion marks, etc. to show how it was constructed from the original sentence.

Another technique is to write a sentence on the board and have the students create as many questions as they can, think of, using the question words you give them. (Don't forget tag questions: He ate a mango, didn't he? and either… or questions: (Did he go home or to the mosque?) When the students have had practice with these responses, the final step is to release control and have them try to make up any questions they want. The teacher may call on students to answer these questions; or the student making up a question may call on someone to answer it; or the student form pairs and ask each other questions. Sometimes you may wish not to require answers at all.
You will find that this technique dramatically improves comprehension. The various techniques of asking comprehension questions require the students to think carefully about what the author or speaker is saying. It entails writing a series of questions on the board and asking the students to select the questions what may be answered.

**Drama and Dialogue**

Using drama as teaching device is creative activity and it fulfils the normal function of all creative activity; it provides a medium through which the individual can express his ideas has reactions to the impressions he receives and by expressing them, learn to evaluate them. By this process, vague impressions are brought into sharp focus, puzzling impressions are understood, fragmentary ones are completed and alarming ones are faced so that fear is overcome. This use of the creative arts makes us examine what we are thinking and feeling. Imaginative observation is stimulated and our understanding of ourselves and the world around us is extended and deepened.

So, because it is one of the creative arts, drama in teaching begins, not with somebody’s text, but with the student self-expression through the acting of his own experiences. Dramatisation is a valuable device in teaching language patterns and in increasing fluency. Many points of language structure and grammar can be made clear and become an experience of the child which he might never forget. For example, ask Aslam to give the book to Naz. Put the sentence on the board Aslam gave the book to Naz. Then ask ”who gave the book”? Who received the book? What Naz received? etc.

Now, when we use the expression in relation to a direct object, “the receiver of the action,” it means much more than an empty group of words that some students have merely parroted.
A similar technique can be utilised in teaching indirect objects. Example: Riaz gave the pen. Has Riaz given a pen to Naz or any other student? Restructuring it, using the other words it can become a reinforcement that has real meaning.

Another use of dramatisation is having students take the parts of different characters in a story, with students assigned to read what the characters say and another student reading the narrative parts.

Since modern language teaching employs a serious of dialogues as the core of the program, why not make maximum use of these in the classroom, especially when there is a lack in oral fluency which stifles many students from making real progress in the language arts. The main purpose is to allow enough practice in English language patterns using the vocabulary needed so as to increase the verbal and listening fluency as well as reading comprehension.

The first using dialogue as teaching technique is very useful in teaching foreign languages. The teacher uses a “Stop” position of the hands, somewhat like a traffic policeman, when the group is to listen during the aural stimulus. When he wished the class to respond orally, a “come on” gesture is used. Very little practice will produce excellent results. When “this technique” is used to build speech accuracy, it becomes a “solid” experience.

When a new student appears in the class, the use of a dialogue brings very good results. Each member of the class introduces himself to the new student, allowing him to introduce himself last. This way he is accepted and feels a part of the group at the same time he is learning the way for introducing himself properly. Sometimes the first student in each group will be asked to introduce the next student in his group or row. Appointing a student to act as host or hostess for the new
student to see that he finds his way to his next class. It is always appreciated.

Dramatisation may be used to teach “the thing to do” in social situations, such as greeting callers at home. Dramatisation of social situations from a script or as role playing gives experience appreciated by most pre-adolescents who are struggling to establish easy social relationships in the correct way. An example of a dramatisation of this type follows:

Yesterday Rubi answered the door-bell. It was Mrs. Akram, a friend of family.

“Is your mother at home Rubi?” she asked.

“Yes, she is, Mother! Mrs Akram’s here.”

Her mother came hurrying in and invited Mrs. Akram to come in. "And next, time, don’t yell, leading a guest outside the door”. Later Rubi answered the doorbell again. There stood a man whom she had never seen before.

“Is your mother at home, young girl?” he asked, smiling.

“Yes. Come in and sit down and I'll call her.”

After the man had left, Rubi’s mother scolded her: “Don’t ever invite a stranger to come into the house. Let him wait outside while you get your father or me.”

“But you didn’t like it when I left Mrs. Akram standing at the door! How was I to know that to do?”

“Maybe we’d better make a clear cut rule about this,” her mother suggested.

In order to make perfectly clear the content of this role-playing sketch, the teacher must explain in depth what has been acted out. This, of course, is taught after fluency has reached a level whereby general understanding is not too difficult.
Modular Approach

A new strategy for arranging learning experiences in education has been receiving much attention. This strategy, learning-modules-has become a part of almost all programmes at all levels “Unipacs,” and “Learning activity packages” are among the large assortment of titles used for this strategy. No one title has gained universal acceptance; however, “learning module” often is considered the generic name for this strategy.

A learning module is a self-contained package dealing with one specific matter unit. It can be used in any setting convenient to the learners and may be completed at the learner’s own pace. It may be used individually or in small learning groups. It is structured so the learners can identify the objectives he wants to achieve, select the appropriate material, follow a learning sequence by selecting from a variety of methods of presentation and evaluate his own accomplishments.

The learning modules provide a strategy for the teachers and the learners to mutually share the responsibility for learning. The teacher becomes a facilitator of learning rather than the traditional dispenser of knowledge. He has more time to help the learner identify educational needs and select appropriate strategies for meeting these needs. Thus the learner accepts responsibility for his share of the learning process.

Although learning modules will differ, each can be expected to have similar elements. The specific learners and/or the subject matter will dictate the elements and their sequence in the module. All learning modules should have the following elements.

i) A title or topic designation.

ii) A list of major concepts to be learned.

iii) The rationale for studying the module.
iv) A pre-assessment activity.

v) Objectives stated in behavioral terms.


vii) A detailed learning sequence.

viii) Suggested depth or quest activities.

ix) A post-assessment activity.

The learning modules need to be subjected to critical appraisal in the following seven areas:

(i) Objectives

(ii) Subject matter

(iii) Design characteristics

(iv) Learning activities

(v) Adaptability

(vi) Validity

(vii) Evaluation

The following questions can serve as a guide for the appraisal of both structures and content of a learning module:
Objectives

The modules must have clearly stated objectives for the learner. The learner should know precisely what he will learn by completing the module:

1. Are Objectives stated for the learner in behavioral terms?
2. For whom is the module developed - adults, sixth graders, slow learners, gifted students, etc?
3. Are the objectives reasonable and attainable?

Subject Matter

The selection and arrangement of the subject matter are critical if the learners is to achieve his objectives:

i) Is the subject matter consistent with the objectives?
ii) Is the subject matter divided into single units for the learner?
iii) Is the subject matter organised into a logical sequence?
iv) Is the subject matter suitable for the entry level and competency of the identified learner?
v) Is the subject matter objectively presented and representative of all sides of an issue?
vi) Is the source of the subject matter documented?
vii) Is the subject matter clear, concise and pertinent?
Design Characteristics

Although a module may take on a variety of forms, it should have certain general design characteristics:

i) Is the module self-contained? That is, are all the materials at hand or readily available to the learner?

ii) Are there instructions for the leader/teacher?

iii) Is the subject matter organised in small steps?

iv) Is the material appropriate for the time specifications indicated?

v) Are the concepts to be learned identified?

vi) Is the rationale for the learner to study the module presented clearly?

vii) Is the over-all design appropriate for the content?

Learning Activities

The main element of the module is the learning activities in which the learner engages:

i) Is the learner actively involved in the learning activities?

ii) Does the learner receive immediate feedback?

iii) Are alternative modes of learning available to the learner?

iv) Are supplemental or quest activities available or recommended?
**Adaptability**

The module should take into account individual differences in learners and facilitators:

i) Does the module take into account varying attitudes and capabilities of the learners?

ii) Is the module adaptable to differences in available time?

iii) Is the module adaptable to a variety of physical facilities?

iv) Is the module adaptable to variation in the size of the learning group?

v) Are differences in leader/teacher competencies considered?

**Validity**

The subject matter and process used should be able to accomplish what the module aims to do:

i) Is the subject matter accurate and based on research data?

ii) Has the module been field tested for effectiveness as a learning activity?

**Evaluation**

To be truly accountable, the module must provide a means of evaluation:

i) Are pre-assessment and post-assessment activities available to determine the learner’s achievement of his objectives?

ii) Is there an opportunity for the learner to provide feedback on the teaching/learning process?
Learning modules are potentially a vital strategy for helping learners meet their educational needs. The criteria proposed will aid teachers to more carefully select learning modules or to develop their own modules.

Example: Every study unit of distance learning system is an example of learning module.

4. Classroom Dynamics

In many classrooms students are not ready to engage in learning activities, or some or some aren’t. As teachers, we often find ourselves trying to figure out which students to teach to, how to get the uninvolved students more involved, and how to get the class as a whole interested in what we want them to do or learn.

There are some specific things we can do in classrooms to get them to be more active, to improve their dynamics. It is important to realise that the ingredients of classrooms are content, activity, and interaction.

The content refers to what we want the students to know or be able to do. The example of content are not hard to come up with. They include everything that is the substance of learning: the alphabet, the comparison-contrast, essay, the answers to the reading comprehension questions etc. There are some teachers who believe that content “teaches itself,” that if the content is interesting, students who are exposed to it' will learn it.

The next important element, in language classrooms is activity, or what we do in the classroom to establish the knowledge or behaviour in or for our students. There are, of course, many kinds of classroom activities: lectures, group discussion, questions and answers, sentence completion exercises, small group problem solving, writing journals and so
on. Often we tend to think that the best way to improve our teaching is to find new and interesting activities for the students to do, and often it is true. The activities we choose or create for our classrooms can have a lot to do with what and how the students learn.

One of the reasons that classrooms work better or worse is because of the third element of classroom behaviour or dynamics. Dynamics refers to the way that interaction takes place between teachers and students and between individual students and groups of students. Many teachers are not quite aware of what some of the basic elements of classroom dynamics or interaction are. Even great teachers, who may already be using some of these elements well may not know what they are and may not be able to adjust them to fit differing classroom needs.

**Some Techniques to Improve Classroom Dynamics**

As stated by Karl Kahnke, the following techniques can be helpful in improving the classroom situation:

(a) **Space**

- Let the students sit at an equal distance from each other. It gives the teacher an equal access and helps him in communication.

- Let there be a minimum distance between the teacher and the taught. It helps in establishing the communication channel. Moving away or increasing the distance breaks and widens the communication channel.

- Some times when students are at work, remaining behind the students decreases the authoritative role of the teacher.
(b) Eye Contact

- Establishing eye contact opens a communication channel and helps to select the student for a turn.
- Breaking eye contact during student turn and seeing other sides can disturb the students communication throughout the class.
- Scanning the class regularly can keep the students engaged and provide important feedback to the teacher.

(c) Voice

- Changes in voice quality can be used to indicate different functions such as giving directions, giving expansion examples and supplying feedback.

INTER ACTION TECHNIQUES

a) Directing questions to specific and distributing the turns around the room increases the level of attentions on the part of the students and increases the students participation.

b) Use names to direct the questions.

c) Ask other students to confirm or comment on students response, for example:

i) Ahmad, do you agree what Anwar said?

ii) Seema, what do you think about what Jamila said?

These kind of activities broaden classroom interaction and increase the opportunities of individual efforts and opinions.
c) If there is a variety of answers, ask the same questions to a number of students.

SUMMARY

An efficient teacher chooses the effective technique of teaching according to the need and situation. The best method is that which is most helpful in achieving the goals set forth for teaching. While selecting a technique, it should be kept in view that language learning requires a great deal of practice. The learning rules and hearing about language is not learning a language. Learning a second language requires, imitating, practicing, memorising, listening, reading, writing and speaking. While teaching, the teachers must have favourable attitude towards the target language and the learners should continuously be encouraged to enhance their achievement. Every possible effort should be made to utilise the available indigenous resources.

In teaching foreign language, programmed instruction is a very useful method. The students can learn according to their own speed and immediate reinforcement is provided by mechanical devices. It can be uses partially according to the resources available. The language laboratory is no doubt a very effective method, but it is an expensive and not available in most of the schools in Pakistan.

Some modern techniques of teaching English include questioning and answering, dramatisation and dialogue, modular approach and students active involvement in teaching learning situation. These techniques are at the disposal of the teacher and the teacher is not bound to stick to only one of them. He should carefully select one where it is most effective. His approach may be combined and comprehensive.
Self Assessment Questions

1) Why should a teacher involve the students in teaching learning process and which technique is most useful in this connection?

2) What are the main mechanical devices used in language laboratory and how the same are used?

3) What is programmed learning? What are its merits?

4) How a language teacher can use the technique of dramatisation in enhancing the pace of learning?

5) How dialogues can be arranged in the process of teaching English? Give examples.

ACTIVITIES

(1) Visit any institution which has set up language lab. Record your observation regarding the working of the lab.

(2) Write a dialogue between a teacher and a learner of English wherein the learner asks to explain the use of “a” and “an” and the teacher explains it with examples.
5. Bibliography


National Curriculum Committee (1976): *English Curriculum for Secondary Classes*, Islamabad,


Unit – 6

TEACHING LITERATURE

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INTRODUCTION

It has been recognized now that students fail to develop reading skill of the ordinary English prose intelligently unless they are taught to do so. Reading, therefore, is not something which is acquired simply by recognizing the letters and the words printed or written on a given surface. It involves sophisticated skills which in turn involve the intelligence, the memory, the emotions and other psychological factors. These new insights into the nature of reading process have made the linguists to come to the conclusion that prose reading is itself a skill which can be taught.

In the following unit, you will be given some theoretical knowledge about the art of reading prose. This will be followed by practical suggestions and questions meant to test your knowledge. The theoretical knowledge will be communicated to you in a graded manner so that you find it easy to understand the unit as a whole.

The second part of the unit will deal with the teaching of English pronunciation. This will be presented in simple manner, which means that only the most important aspects of this branch of language-studies will be introduced to you. For further reading, you may take the help of the attached bibliography.
OBJECTIVES
The objectives of this unit are as follows:

- To enable teachers to understand the importance of teaching (a) prose, (b) the art of reading, and (c) basic pronunciation skills of English.
- To enable teachers to familiarize themselves with new techniques for acquiring the above mentioned skills.
- To provide a graded course for teachers who will be called upon to apply their theoretical knowledge to practical classroom situations while communication these skills to their pupils.
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1. READING PROSE

Reading Prose Preliminaum

(a) History: The most ancient literary texts are in poetry, not in prose. However, it would be wrong to assume that poetry was always more important than prose. Poetry was preserved because it was sung, memorised and formed the major entertainment of a linguistic community. Prose was used for very important purposes, such as buying and selling, seeking justice, making war and peace and recording events of everyday life. Poetry was recognised as literature because it was to imaginative writing whereas prose was often practical. However, the stories told for children and adults were also in prose and, by the eighteenth century, imaginative literature started being produced in prose.

(b) Complexity of prose: When prose, like poetry, was also used as a vehicle for communicating deep and imaginative truths, it became complex. It was not only necessary to understand what the surface or literal meaning of the words was, but also to understand in what deeper of metaphorical sense the words were being used. This brings us to the major objectives of teaching learners how to read prose.

The Objectives of Teaching Prose

Gaining Information

The main objective is to enable the learner to recognise the letters and words he sees. This is based on the elementary skill of literacy. The printed words are a symbol. This means that they stand for something concrete or abstract known to human beings. Consider the following words.
CAT

This can be written in different ways: cat or CAT, but if we have understood which letter stand for which sound, we shall pronounce it as “Kact”. Then our mind will tell us that this sound itself is a symbol, i.e. it stands for an animal with which we are familiar. In other words, the main activity in reading is the conversation of the visual (written) symbols into sound (or phonological) symbols and ultimately into meaning. Once we can do this, we can understand the surface or literal (denotative) meaning of what is written. For instance, if we knew basic English and we found the following visual symbols before as:

**THIS IS A DOG.**

We could easily convert this into spoken words or phonological symbols. Then, we would understand that we are being given the information that the object which is being pointed out is an animal which we call the dog. If we have understood this, we have fulfilled the first objective of reading purpose which is:

“To gain information through written words”

**GAINING INSIGHT**

The meaning of a word are not only literal or denotative, but also metaphorical or connotative, and because we live in societies in which dogs are associated with some negative behaviour traits, the connotative meaning of ‘dog’ are servile, object, lacking in self-respect and toady.

This is the second objective of teaching prose, i.e. to give the reader an insight into the imaginative meaning of text.
BROADENING THE MIND

Literature does not only convey information, it also conveys values. If the literary text is read with deep interest and attention, it takes us to a world in which the values, the standards of judging what is right and wrong, good and bad, are quite different from that of the reader or very similar. If they are different, he may be forced to think whether his values are correct or not. If they are the same, he will feel that he is right and that he should adhere to his values.

A good example of forcing the reader to examine his understanding of life is furnished by Jonathan Swift in his essay entitled ‘A modest proposal’. Swift suggests that poor peoples' children should be eaten to relieve their parents of the responsibility of bringing them up. This is what the surface text says. But this is not the real meaning. It can be understood by reversing what has been said. Such a text is known as an IRONICAL one. Irony is a technique for saying something which generally means the opposite of what it appears to mean. So when we understand the text fully, we come to the conclusion that Swift means that poor peoples' children are eaten away by the rich in the sense that they do not pay enough money to their parents to enable them to support them.

Once a pupil has started understanding such devices are irony, metaphor and symbols, he has mastered the art of understanding literary prose. And such prose may take him more aware of life’s problems, may make him examine his own attitudes and values in a fresh manner and may make him understand people who are different from him. This is the main purpose of reading literature—it enriches our life.

OBTAINING PLEASURE

Once the habit of intelligent reading has developed, it will be possible to enjoy reading. Good writers pack a lot of meaning
in their writing. They convey meaning through the devices named above and many others. Many readers do not read intelligently and miss the clues provided by the writer to fully appreciate his work. It is very important for teachers to realize that the written text will never become a meaningful experience for their pupils unless they start understanding all that is packed into it. In order to make this convenient, it will be advisable to start from easy texts. Many pupils will start enjoying reading and some will go on to live a life in which intellectual and emotional pleasure based on reading will form an important part.

**CLASSROOM ACTIVITY–I**

The teacher should give Aesop’s Fables to the class and allow his pupils to read it silently. Then he should check whether:

(a) The literal meaning of the words has been understood.

(b) The literal meaning of fable has been understood.

At this stage he should point out that the fable may have an aim, i.e. to instruct the reader into some moral idea or tell him how to behave. Thus, he should make his pupils understand that even very simple stories work on two levels of meaning.

i. The surface level of the story (i.e. what happened).

   and

ii. The deeper level of theme (i.e. what is the writer trying to say in a general way about life through a particular story).

For example it may be pointed that in the story of the “fox and the grapes”, the writer is saying that when somebody cannot obtain something he says that it is not worth getting. The class may be told that
“THE GRAPES ARE SOUR”

It is not only a literal expression but also a metaphorical one. To understand what it means metaphorically is to begin to understand the symbolic aspect of prose.

READING

Reading has already been defined as giving meaning to visible symbols.

In 1957 the “the second report of the national committee on reading” said that any conception of reading that fails to include reflection, critical evaluation, and the classification of meaning is inadequate. In 1963, R. Morris called reading which involved these factors “responsive” reading. Modern linguists and teachers, therefore, stress the process of deductive thinking in order to reach new conclusions. In other words, the emphasis has shifted to using the information and insights provided for furthering understanding of life. Reading can, therefore, be seen as an activity which fulfills the reader’s need. If he is a driver, it will give him information about the roads and what to do. If he is a doctor, he will learn which medicines to give to his patients, and if he is a scholar he will gain new information, discover more about the world and gain pleasure from his reading. This new approach is worth emphasizing.

CLASSROOM ACTIVITY –II

The teacher may make his pupils interested in reading as follows:

1. Ask their students why they should read.

2. Tell them in which way it will help them in practical day-to-day living.
3. Introduce them to the pleasure of a good story and tell them that the enjoyment of this pleasure comes from reading.

**Self Assessment questions-1**

1. Are the following statements TRUE or FALSE.

   a) Everybody can learn how to read any kind of prose as intelligently as anyone else.  
      T  F

   b) If ‘A’ has an I.Q of 90 and B has I.Q of 120 the chances are that B will be able to read prose more intelligently than A if other factors are equal.  
      T  F

   c) Prose can give you useful information about a given society.  
      T  F

   d) The metaphorical meaning of a word is what it actually means.  
      T  F

   e) The connotative meaning of a word is its literal meaning.  
      T  F

**UNDERSTANDING PROSE LITERATURE**

The highest achievement in reading prose is probably the comprehension of sophisticated literature. It has been mentioned already that novels, short stories and other prose work may have more than one level of meaning. It has also been mentioned that the following devices may be used in prose:

   i. Words may be used in a metaphorical sense.

   ii. Irony may be used.

   iii. Symbols may be used.

   iv. The narrator may not be the same as the author.

   v. The narrative may not be logical or may not be in sequence.
Item (I) and (II) have been explained in the beginning so the remaining once will be explained here.

iii. Symbols: A symbol is something which means more than itself. For example take the national flag. It is merely cloth, but it stands for national life, honor and unity. Thus it is symbol. In literature symbols are used to convey meaning. In William Golding's novel *Lord of the flies*, the conch is a symbol of civilized democratic values. Likewise in E. M. Forster’s novel *A passage to India*, there are many symbols which should be interpreted by every reader independently.

iv. The narrator is the person who tells the story. Sometimes he is not the author but a person who is very different from the author. For example in E. M. Forster’s story entitled “*The story of a panic*”. The narrator is an English man who is very different from forster. The narrator thinks that children should be treated harshly and given no freedom whereas forster believed that they should be given a lot of freedom. Finally narrator is afraid of passion of love whereas forster believe that love and physical passion are good. Thus while the narrator narrates the story he expose himself. The story criticises the English character whereas the narrator merely finds faults with the Italian.

This example has been given because this story was grossly misunderstood by an Italian lady who protested that forster had made fun of the Italians. She had made the mistake of not understanding that the story was a ironical and the narrator did not reflect the attitude of the writer. To avoid such mistakes the teacher must teach his pupils the difference between the narrator and the author.

In the twentieth century, many writers have written novels and short stories in which the events are not arranged in an orderly sequence. Things which happen in the end are placed in the beginning and so on. Sometimes senses are cut in half.
and the grammar may be unusual. Such texts should not be taught to students unless they have been given introductory lectures on James Joyce, Virginia Woolf and other modernists. The teacher may, however, inform his students about the possibility of coming across such texts. The meaning of such texts is difficult to find because it depends on non-visual information and on what is left out rather than what is written. After some practice, the students will be in a position to react imaginatively to sophisticated prose.

Classroom Activity –3

(a) Give O. Henry’s short story “The Last leaf” to the class for reading. In this story an old painter paints a leaf outside a sick girl’s window to prevent her from thinking that she would die when the last leaf falls. The girl recovers but the painter dies. The class should be asked to discuss why the story has such a powerful impact on the reader.

(b) Read and explain E. M. Forster’s short story “The machine stops” in the class.

In this story human beings live under the earth and every aspect of life is controlled by a machine. In the end the machine fails and everybody dies except those few people who have managed to escape to the surface of the earth.

The theme of the story is that over-development of science can destroy human civilization.

Self Assessment Question-2

1. Are the following statements true or false?
   a. A symbol is the same as a metaphor. T F
   b. Irony is when there is hard criticism. T F
   c. When we read we require only what can be seen to understand every thing. T F
2. Techniques for Teaching Pronunciation

Introduction

The way in which the speakers of a given language create sounds in order to communicate meaning is known as the pronunciation of that language. It is obvious from this definition that the way speakers stress a word (i.e. in the beginning, middle or end) is included in pronunciation. Intonation, i.e. the rise and fall of the voice, is also included since that too conveys meaning.

Key Definition

Language is the production of sounds by one or more speaker. These sounds can be roughly classified as VOWELS and CONSONANTS. The branch of knowledge which deals with sounds in all their functions in a language is known as PHONOLOGY. The study of the production of sounds, the description of these sounds and how the sounds are represented through symbols is known as PHONETICS.

The branch of phonetics which deals with the production of sounds is known as ARTICULATORY PHONETICS. (Articulation means speaking).

The branch of phonetics which deals with the reception (or listening) of the sound is known as AUDITORY PHONETICS. (Auditory means something to do with hearing).

The sound itself is called a PHONEME. But a phoneme is a theoretical unit of sound. For example, there is the sound of ‘s’ in English. It is found in the following words:

SCHOOL: ASK: GAS: SUCK: MISS: SUN:

We say that these words use the phoneme of the ‘s’ sound. However, we cannot speak the phoneme alone. Every time we actually pronounce it, we either put a vowel before or
The phonetic symbols

As you must have noticed, English spelling does not represents its pronunciation. Bernard Shaw, a famous dramatist, once remarked that GHOTI could be pronounced as FISH. This is possible if the value of the letters is taken as it is in the following words:

ROUGH  GH          represents the ‘f’ sound here
WOMEN   O           represents the ‘I’ sound here
STATION TI         represents the ‘sh’ sound here

Therefore, Ghoti can represent the pronunciation of FISH in English. Therefore, in order to teach the pronunciation of English, you must acquaint your pupils with the International phonetic alphabet. This is a convenient system of symbols where every phoneme is represented by one symbol. Thus, if we are using the ‘s’ sounds, we shall not use ‘c’ but only one agreed upon symbol which is ‘s’. Then, when we are representing the pronunciation of a word, we can write down only the symbols given in the IPA (International Phonic Alphabet) and there will be no confusion about the pronunciation.

Here is the IPA adopted from one of A.C Gimson’s book on the subject:
International Phonetic Alphabets:

VOWELS

i  bean  i  pit  ci  Boy
a  barn  e  pet  ai  Buy
   ẅi  By
9  born  æ  pat  ẅ  No
   ^  Putt
u  boon  b  pot  au  Now
3  burn  μ  put  ið  Peer
   θ  another  Σθ  Pair
   μθ  Poor

CONSONANTS

P  pin
b  bin
t  tin
k  come
g  gum
ts  chain
dz  jane
f  fine
v  vine
Q  think
1. **Vowels:** there are sounds which are produced by the air coming from the lungs and escaping from the mouth without being stopped by the teeth, the tongue or by any other organ in the mouth or the nasal passage.

2. **Diphthongs:** these are combination of two vowels spoken so rapidly that they represent one sound.

3. **Consonants:** these are produced by stopping of friction of the air coming from the lungs with any part of the vocal organs or the nasal passage.

**How to Teach Pronunciation:** The chart given before should be displayed in the classroom. There is no need to memorise it without understanding it. The pupils should be told how helpful this chart is in finding out the pronunciation of a word. For instance, we want to find out the pronunciation of the word CHAOS. Now suppose we do not know whether ‘CH’ is pronounced as in CHINA or with a ’K’ sound. Also, we are unsure whether ‘a’ is pronounced as in FATHER or in FAT. Let us
now open dictionary of pronunciation. The dictionary gives the pronunciation as follows:
\[ / k \text{ei o s} / \]

Now we are sure that ‘ch’ here represents the K phoneme and the vowels are to be pronounced in the same way as they are used in the words given in the chart.

**Classroom activity–4**

(i) Make the pupils note that Pakistanis tend to make certain mistakes when they pronounce certain sounds. For instance, in ROADS we tend to use a single lengthened vowel sound. The sound which English speakers take out is a diphthong. It is written phonetically as follows:
\[ /r \text{ð} \mu \text{d}/ \]
you should pronounce ROAD, LOAD, TOAD AND MODE with this diphthong and not a vowel. However, this may not be easy and you should only understand the difference without affecting to speak like native speaker of English.

(ii) Make the students represent simple words in IPA

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Word</th>
<th>IPA</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CAT</td>
<td>/k a t/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PUT</td>
<td>/p \mu t/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GOOD</td>
<td>/G \mu d/</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(iii) Write down words in the International phonetic script and ask your students to identify them:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Phonetic</th>
<th>English</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| |b \wedge t| = but
| |Tsin| = chin
| |sc:p| = sheep

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**How to teach pronunciation:** Once the pupils have understood how to find out the pronunciation of a given word from a dictionary of pronunciation using the IPA, the teacher may teach them some basic features of English pronunciation. For basic learners only those features may be taught which are often confused by Pakistani speakers. For instance, the following two rules may be taught:

(a) The ‘R’ dropping rules: According to this, ‘R’ is not pronounced except when it occurs before a vowel sound.

Take the following words:

- CAR
- RAT
- CART
- BAR

These can be written in IPA as follows:

| Ka: |
| Raet |
| ka:t |
| Ba: |

You will notice that ‘R’ has been pronounced only in Rat. Here it occurs before a VOWEL, so it should be pronounced. However, it has been left out in CAR which is pronounced /Ka:/ because here it is in the end. It has also been left out in CART (pronounced /Kat) because a consonant comes after it.
Pakistani speakers tend to pronounce ‘R’ wherever it occurs. However, it should be pointed out that only English man from the middle class or those who have been educated in public schools and universities drop ‘R’ since the pronunciation of these educated Englishman is known as RP (received pronunciation ) and is regarded as standard English. It may be useful for your students to know that they drop ‘R’.

It should also be noted that Americans and many people in Scotland and other parts of Britain do pronounce ‘R’ wherever it is written. Infact this rule about dropping the ‘R’ came in to existence at about the end of the seventeenth century. Americans pronounce it because they follow the old rule which educated Englishmen abandoned.

(b) The allophone of P,T,K sounds: when /p/t/ and /k/ sounds are used in the beginning of the word, they are aspirated. This means that a little bit of air goes out of the mouth when they are pronounced. You can also understand it by imagining that a little bit of ‘h’ sound is added to these sounds. However, when they are not used in the beginning of a word, this ‘h’ sound is not added. For example:

PAT        KING        TEN
Are pronounced /phact/    /khing/    /then/

The little ‘h’ on top of P,K and T shows that they are aspirated. Now P,T and K when used in the beginning of the word, are pronounced slightly differently than when they are pronounced in other positions: they are called ALLOPHONES of each other.

If you pronounce these all allophones in the same way, your meaning will be clear, but your pronunciation will seem foreign.
Since Pakistanis do not aspirate these sounds, it may be useful to tell them that other speakers of English do. However, there is no need to force Pakistani speakers to aspirate these sounds artificially. If this is done they will develop a highly artificial way of speaking.

**Classroom Activity—5**

(i) Pronounce:

(a) Mary
(b) Robin
(c) Carrot
(d) Boar
(e) War
(f) Bare

Point out to your pupils that ‘R’ is pronounced only in MARY and that is because there is a vowel after it. Also point out that it is not pronounced in BARE; here the ‘e’ is not pronounced and so it appears that ‘R’ is in the end.

(ii) Bring a cassette of sentences spoken by a British and an American educated speaker and point out to your pupils how ‘R’ is dropped by the former but not by the latter.

(iii) Using the same cassette, point out how P, T and K sounds are aspirated by both.
Stress

A Word Stress

First of all let us look at what we mean by *word stress*.

1. A syllable can carry *primary* stress, that is to stay strong stress. The syllable is longer, louder and said with mote breath effort.

2. A syllable can be *unstressed*. In other words it is said very quickly, lightly and with very little breath effort.

3. A syllable can carry *secondary* stress. This syllable is said with more breath effort than 2 but less than 1

*Marking* if you look into a good dictionary you will find that the stress pattern of a word is marked. The primary stress is marked with a high upright stroke, before the syllable, the secondary stress is marked with a low upright stroke, before the syllable.

B Sentence stress

In a normal English sentences certain words are stress and certain words are unstressed.

Normally stressed are *content* words – the words that are essential for conveying the message. These are nouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs (most) and demonstratives.

Normally unstressed are the form words, the grammatical or structure words that result in a correct grammatical utterance even though these words are not essential to the communication of a message.

For example – in the following sentence:

*Saira* has ‘gone to the *baker’s*,

*Saira*, *gone*, *bakers* are the content words and are therefore stressed. (The utterance as it stands communicate the
message and would be readily understood – compare, for example, the language of telegrams that tends to use only content words --- ARRIVING MONDAY. NEED CAR.)

*Has, to, the,* are form words not essential to the communication of the message and so are unstressed.

**Activity**

Mark the stressed words in the following sentences by placing an upright stroke before the stressed syllable.

1. I saw your brother yesterday.
2. Can I carry your suitcase?
3. Would you like a glass of milk?
4. Have you heard about usman? He’s going to New York tomorrow. He’s flying on the concorde.
5. I must be going. My wife’s waiting for me at the corner of the street.

**C   Teaching Stress**

As with other aspects of pronunciation teaching, the first stage is pure *imitation*, repetition of the teacher’s model in chorus and individually. Should there be difficulty with, say, ‘Good morning’ when it is repeated in its entirety, then the teacher can isolate the stressed syllable ---MORN ---, get that repeated a few times and then put the phrase together again for further repetition. So the process can be summarized as follows:

1. Repeat whole phrase.
2. Isolate and repeat stressed syllable only.
3. Repeat whole phrase.

The teacher may also wish to indicate the position of the stressed syllable in some way. It is here that he has several
options open, dependent on the two most valuable aids to pronunciation teaching—the *blackboard* and the use of *gesture*.

1 **Gestures**

The teacher may do any of the following to indicate the stress pattern:

(a) thump the air when saying the stressed syllable
(b) make a downward stroke of the hand – marking the ‘beat’ like a conductor
(c) punch the palm of his other hand
(d) clap his hands
(e) bang his hand against something – e.g. the desk or the blackboard.

(Note: the danger of (c), (d), and (e), however, are that the additional sound may distract from the sounds of phrase. A *silent gesture* of some type is probably preferable.)

2 **The Blackboard**

This is probably the most valuable aid for making pronunciation points visible to the class. The teacher can exploit the blackboard at both the initial non-text stage, when the written form of the language has not yet been introduced, and at the text stage. What he actually puts on the blackboard may vary.

*Non-text stage*

Without writing the word or phrase, the teacher can indicate the stress pattern by using symbols. There are several possibilities and it does not really matter which the teacher chooses provided that he is consistent.
(Taking ‘Good morning’ as an example)

(a) — | —
(b) □ □ □
(c) o O o

**Text stage**

(a) The above symbols (especially a and b) could be written above or below the phrase.

```
Good morning
```

(b) The stressed syllable could be underlined.

```
Good morning
```

(c) The stressed syllable could be written in capital letters (though this is probably inadvisable in the case of learners who have a different script for the mother tongue and who have not yet mastered the Roman letters)

```
Good MORning
```

(d) The stressed syllable could be written in a different coloured chalk.

However, once the written form has been introduced, there is a danger that the learner on seeing two words may separate the words when he says them, making a very slight pause between ‘Good’ and ‘morning’. If this happens, though if it has been presented and practised orally first this should not occur, then the teacher can draw attention to the ‘continuity’ of
the phrase and show how words are linked by drawing linking circles.

Activity

Choose one technique from *Gestures* and practice on your colleagues (or if you are reading this alone at home do it in front of a mirror) with the phrases listed below. Then choose one blackboard technique from non-text stage and one from *text stage* and practise ‘writing’ (preferably on a blackboard or if you are at home on a piece of paper) the stress patterns of the following phrases:

1. Good evening.
2. Good afternoon.
3. Excuse me.
4. Cheerio.
5. I’d love to.

Of course, whether using gesture and/or symbols on the blackboard, the teacher is going to have to give the spoken model several times. How is he going to say it? A technique of *slight exaggeration* is probably advisable, as students’ imitations always tend to fall short of the model. In the case of stress, this would entail *over-emphasizing* the stressed syllable(s), but the teacher must be careful not to pause either before or after the stressed syllable. ‘Good morning’ must still sound like a natural friendly greeting.
D. **Sound Linking**

‘One of the problems of English pronunciation is the way words run into one another. Without good sound linking and good stress, words become unmanageable chunks, and fluency is obstructed.’

The problem is exaggerated when the two words that run together end and begin respectively with the same constant. E.g. ‘I’m more than an hour late.’

**Activity**

Practise saying the following:

1. He isn’t tall.
2. She’s sorry.
3. We’ve varied the programme.
4. We’re running in the same race tomorrow.
5. She’s singing well.
6. Fred doesn’t like tea.
7. I’d decided before I met maria.
8. She’ll leave it to the last minute.

This can be used with students as a ‘listen and repeat’ exercise.

Students may find problems with linking /r/, pronounced before vowels. For example of exercises to deal with this and other linking problems, see Ann Baker, *ship or sheep* and Colin Mortimer, *Link-up*. 
Intonation

A Functions of intonation

Basically there are two functions of intonation:

1 It indicates grammatical meaning, in much the same way as punctuation does in the written language. For example:

(a) He lives in London.

A full stop in the written language indicates that this is a statement. A falling intonation pattern indicates the same in the spoken form.

(b) He lives in London?

A question mark in the written language indicates that this is a question. A rising intonation pattern indicates the same in the spoken form.

(c) Do you come from London?

Is the normal question form. There are clues to the meaning, such as the use of do, that show this, even if the intonation pattern is not produced correctly. BUT...

(d) You come from London?

Is a perfectly acceptable way of asking the question in the spoken language. The clue do is no longer there. It is one of those words that have a weak form, and here it has become so weak that it has disappeared altogether. The intonation pattern would be the only clue left to suggest a statement or a question. In fact, because the intonation pattern gives the meaning, the do is redundant. It is not necessary, so it can be omitted.

We hope that these examples have clearly demonstrated the importance of intonation as a means of conveying meaning and as such that it should be part of a
teaching programme and not the optional luxury that it often is.

Stress and intonation can also change meaning. Look at the following:

(a) I want to see your son ‘Ajmal. (The son is called Ajmal.)

(b) I want to see your son,/ Ajmal. (The speaker is talking to Hamid, who has a son, whose name we do not know.)

(a) My brother who lives in London/ has just got married. (I have more than one brother. It is the one who lives in London...)

(b) My ‘brother,/ who lives in London/ has just got married. (I have only one brother and he has just got married.)

(a) Farzana said her mother/ had gone to the market. (Farzana’s words are being reported. It is her mother who has gone to the market.)

(b) Farzana, said her mother/ had gone to the market. (Here it is Farzana’s mother who is talking and farzana is the one who had gone to the market.)

(a) My brother was born in England. I was ‘two.

(b) My brother was born in England. ‘I was too. (Here, of course, the contrasting written forms of two and too reveal the meaning, but in spoken language the differing stress and intonation patterns provide the only indication.)

(a) He lives in Gujrat ‘where? (i.e. in which part of Gujrat.)
(b) He lives in Gujrat ‘where? (I’m sorry I didn’t catch the name of the town. Could you repeat it?)

2. Intonation can also indicate the speaker’s attitude.

Look at the following examples:

(a) Really? May be an expression of great surprise, or of mild puzzlement, or merely a polite conversation-oiler, depending on the intonation pattern.

(b) What’s your name? may show a great interest and desire to be friendly to the other person, or may simply be a request for information (made by a government official or policeman, for example). Again the intonation pattern would indicate which.

In some cases both grammatical meaning and attitude are conveyed by the intonation pattern alone.

Example: (I’d like a drink)

(a) You would?

(simply a conversation-oiler, that has the additional function of asking for confirmation of the statement.)

(b) ‘You would.

(Here annoyance and criticism is conveyed. The implication is one of: ‘well, that’s just typical of you. You always want a drink.’)

From the above examples it should be clear that the attitudinal function of intonation is a complex area. It is made even more complex by the fact that standardization and classification is difficult, though not impossible, to accomplish, as the expression of feelings and attitudes are connected to the individual personality. And when teaching foreign learners there is an additional culturally-bound factor. It is near impossible to
make an introverted student produce an exclamation of great surprise, when may be he would not do such a thing in his mother tongue. Therefore we suggest that basically the practising teacher should concentrate on the use of intonation to convey grammatical meaning, perhaps limiting the attitudinal function to listening and recognizing at lower levels, and including only a limited amount of production at more advanced levels. The basic question that now needs to be answered is, *which pattern for which type of utterance?*

There are four possible tune movements – two of them simple (moving in one direction only) and two of them compound (moving in two directions).

Simple  
- falling (moving downwards)  
- rising (moving upwards)

Compound  
- falling than rising  
- rising than falling.

**B  Teaching intonation**

Again the use of gesture and the blackboard will help the teacher indicate the rising or falling pattern.

**1. Gesture**

A sweep of the arm from high to low will indicate the falling tune (vice-versa for the rise). Note, however, that the teacher should produce this gesture backwards – from right to left – as this will be the right way round – from left to right – for his students. However, this gesture can be somewhat vague, and gesturing from right to left while you mentally ‘see’ the utterance from left to right is difficult and does need a lot of practice. So it is possibly easier and more effective to use the blackboard. The gesture, however, can be useful since the teacher can
indicate the rising or falling tune as he conducts a choral structure drill.

2 The blackboard

The non-text stage

(i) The teacher draws two parallel lines on the blackboard; the top line represents a high pitch; the bottom line represents a low pitch. Then an arrow is drawn to indicate the direction of the intonation pattern. E.g. (for 'Good morning.‘)

(ii) It is also possible to indicate both stress and information at the same time.

   e.g. (for who is it?)

(Note: once the convention of the lines and symbols has been established the lines can be dispensed with and only the symbols used.)

The text stage

Once the learners are able to read English (even if they were able to before, initial pronunciation work in a class of non-beginners should be oral only) the teacher can use a sign system over the text, either on the blackboard or on a stenciled handout with exercises for pronunciation work.
Self Assessment Question – 3

(i) Are the following statements true or false?

a) A vowel is produced by closing the lips. T F
b) A diphthong is a long vowel. T F
c) Intonation is the accent of a speaker. T F
d) Words can not be divided into syllables. T F
e) A phoneme is a unit of meaning. T F

(ii) Transcribe the following words phonetically:
   a. Am
   b. Could
   c. Had
   d. Were
   e. Does
   f. Is
   g. Shall
   h. Was
   j. Must
   k. Them

(iii) Write these words in ordinary English:
   a. /Se:/
   b. /J Σ ə
   c. Q i n
   d. S ^ M
   e. /Ka:/

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SUMMARY

This unit has been divided into two major sections. In the first section, you have been taught why it is important to teach how to read prose as well as some techniques for teaching it. You were told that reading is an important activity which may be improved through good teaching. You have also been told that good writers pack in a lot of meaning in their writing and you should be able to understand some basic concepts like metaphor, symbol, irony and the use of the narrator to be able to read intelligently. Once you learn to read intelligently, you will not only gain more information from writing but also learn more about life, behavior and human values. This will give you pleasure and make you more understanding the complexity of life.

The second part of the unit was devoted to the teaching of pronunciation. In this you were given some definitions and introduced to the international phonetic alphabet chart. The symbols given in this chart can help you to understand how English words are pronounced. You were introduced to stress and intonation in English.

If you master this unit, you will be able to introduce your students to the study of prose and English pronunciation. However, this unit is merely the first step towards mastering these subjects. If you want to study these subjects in more details, you should read the books given in the bibliography.

Answers to Self Assessment Questions:

Self Assessment Questions — 1

a. F  
b. T  
c. T  
d. F  
e. F  

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Self Assessment Questions — 2
a. F
b. F
c. F

Self Assessment Questions — 3
(i)  a. F
b. F
c. F
d. F
e. F

(ii) a. /ac m/
b. /k vd/
c. /h ea d/
d. /w3:/
e. /d  2/
f. /I z/
g. /s ac l/
h. /w ð 2/
i. /m  st/
j. /j e m/

(iii) a. She
b. These
b. Thin
c. Sum
d. Car
NOTES


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THE APPRECIATION OF ENGLISH POETRY

Written By:
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Revised By:
Mrs. Razia Waseem
INTRODUCTION

This unit shall enable the teachers to teach English poetry to students at the high school level. With this in mind, the unit has been designed to enable the teachers to understand certain critical concepts without mastering which, they can neither understand poetry themselves nor teach it. This may be called the academic aspect of the unit. There is, however, another aspect of it which may be even more useful than the purely academic one: this is the pedagogical aspect. In this the emphasis is on the techniques of imparting instructions to the students. If the teachers, after acquiring the necessary knowledge, make efforts to make their teaching enjoyable, clear and comprehensible, they will go a long way to becoming effective teachers of poetry. Unfortunately, the emphasis has been on acquiring knowledge and not on enjoying the experience of reading good poetry. Efforts has been mad here to reverse this pattern. The teachers has been invited to change their concepts about poetry and work towards making their teaching enjoyable. Exercises and examples have been provided in the text to make the unit more effective. In the end, there is a bibliography which will be of help for those want to pursue the study of poetry further.
OBJECTIVES

After studying this unit, you are expected to be able to:

- To know and apply the techniques for enabling pupils to appreciate English poetry;
- To be familiar with the basic concepts necessary to understand and appreciate English poetry;
- To learn and enjoy the experience of reading English poetry;
- To master the techniques and skills of teaching English poetry,
- To learn to teach the English poetry in its true sense and spirit.
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THE SIGNIFICANCE OF POETRY IN HUMAN LIFE

The poetry is the oldest form of literature in existence. In India, the epics of Ramayana and Mahabharata; in the middle east the epic of Gilgamesh; the Icelandic Sagas and the folk songs of almost all the ancient civilizations are forms of poetry. The novel rose much later when the middle class started becoming predominant, and the short story as we know it today, was also a late development.

This being so, it would appear that there is deep natural impulse toward poetic expression in human beings. Evidence that this is so, comes from the fondness of illiterate people for folk songs and urban dwellers for popular songs from films, etc.

In ancient civilisation, poetry was a part of day to day experience. The poets helped to preserve the traditions of the tribe by giving its young man the pride in its identity. They provided entertainment by telling stories and catering to the love for rhythmic incantation which is part of reciting verse. These functions were taken over by prose in more complicated, urban cultures. However, the poetry is still significant. Its significance does not lie in the fact that it can preserve the traditional values of a sub-group. On the other hand, it is important because it can make us transcend (i.e. rise above), narrow groups and develop an awareness of mankind as a fraternity.

Poetry also help us to widen our imagination and this enable us to understand other cultures, other sub-groups and people. All this should not make us less aware of the fact that the poetry can give us emotional and intellectual pleasure and this is, in fact, its real significance in human life. For those who can enjoy this kind of pleasure, can find the kind of happiness which is denied to those who drive pleasure from, say, gambling.
It is this last aspect of the poetry which must be emphasized by anyone who proposes to teach it to uninitiated pupils.

The Objective of Teaching Poetry:

(a) To help the students to become capable of deriving pleasure from English poetry.
(b) To make the students aware of the principles which will facilitate their enjoyment of poetry.
(c) To enable the students to develop their critical faculties so that they can distinguish between good and bad poetry.

Poetry is not an easy form of literature. Hence its teaching is also complicated. The students at all levels regard it as headache instead in enjoyment. The teachers foremost task is to make them get interested in reading poetry without the fear of explaining it or being tested about it.

a) How can the teacher make poetry interesting for the learners? The teacher can present poetry as music. Music is produced by various devices such as rhyme scheme (using the words with similar sounds at the end of the line). Example of rhyme scheme is given below:

Baba...

Baa baa black sheep
Have you any wool
Yes sir, yes sir, three bags full.

The jingle is produced by the rhyming of ‘wool’ with ‘full’. The sounds are, so to speak, parallel. And because they are so, they may be denoted by the letter ‘b’. So, one can say, the rhyme scheme here is (a,b,b).
This is an example of parallelism being used to create a musical effects at the simplest level.

**Classroom practice**

The students can be made to sing songs, nursery rhymes and poems which tell a story (narrative verse) to make them enjoy poetry. The following poems fulfils the purpose:

What is this life if, full of **care**,  
We have no time to stand and **stare**?  
No time to stand beneath the **bows**  
And state as long as sheep or **cows**:

Etc.
Here is another example
Monday’s child is fair of **face**,  
Tuesday’s child is full of **grace**,  
Wednesday’s child is full of **cool**,  
Thursday’s child has far to **go**,  
Friday’s child is loving and **giving**,  
Saturday’s child works hard for a **living**,  
And the child is that is born on the Sabbath **Day**  
Is bonny and blithe and good and **gay**.

When the students have started enjoying simple rhyme for its own sake, they may be told that there are three other devices which are used to created verbal music out of similar sounds.

These devices are:
(a) CONSONANCE
(b) ASSONANCE
(c) ALLITERATION

Now take them one by one:

Consonance is said to occur when the final consonantal groupings of words are the same. For instance, in end/blend and wall/hall the final consonant in the first case are ‘n’ and ‘d’ and they occurs in both the words. In ‘wall’ and ‘hall’ the all sound is common.

Assonance is said to occur when the words have vowel sounds in common. For instance, in same/late the common vowel sound is ‘a’ (rendered as ‘al’ in phonemic transcription). This creates a certain chiming, an internal music and is used as a poetic device.

Alliteration is the device of using the same initial sounds in a number of words in sequence. This creates a certain rough parallelism of sounds and contributes to the jingling effect.

For examples the dry day made a dull beginning

**Classroom Practice**

As this form of parallelism is enjoyed by children and unsophisticated learners, it would be best to sing such lines as the following in chorus:

The fair breeze blew, the white foam flew,
The furrow followed free;
We were the fist that ever burst
Into that silent sea

(S.T. Coleridge: The Ancient Mariner)
The repetition of the ‘f’ sound in ‘furrow followed free’ is enjoyed in chorus more than it is in silent reading. The young people also enjoy the rather tricky alliteration of the following nonsense jingle:

She picked the sea shell on the sea shore.

They can be made to play this game so as to feel that the appreciation of poetry can be fun.

The teacher can make an exercise like the following in which the learners are asked to find words that alliterate with the words in the above line. Here is an example:

Here lies Sam Shay.
Smoked six packs a day.
He started smoking when he was one.
Now he’s one dead son-of-a__________gun__________

Here lies Sam Shay.
Smoked six packs a day.
He started smoking when he was two.
Now there’s nothing he can______________

Dad (yelling):
Turn that thing off!
Mom:
It’s time to study.
Child:
I’d rather watch my favorite TV show
With my best buddy;
I sneak down after homework
And turn the set on low.
But when he sees me watching it,
My mother yells out...
Mom (yelling):

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No!

**Dad:**
If you don’t turn it off,
I’ll hang it from a tree!

**Child:**
I rather doubt he’ll do it,
‘Cause he watches more than me.
He watches sports all weekend,
And weekday evenings too,
While munching chips and penuts--
The room looks like a zoo.
So if he ever got the nerve
To hang it from a tree,
He’d spend a lot of time up there--
Watching it with me.

Next the teachers can get the learners interested in writing their own poems. This activity will give them practice in the poetic devices as alliteration as well as rhyming etc.

**How to write poems about feelings**
[by Bruce Lansky from the internet]

Some of the most memorable poems ever written are about feelings. Here is a good way to get your students thinking about poems that discuss feelings:

1. Ask your students to name as many feelings as they can. To get them started write “sad,” “mad,” “happy,” and a few others on the board. As your students think of more feelings, add them to the list.
2. Ask the students to choose one feeling from the list.
3. Have the student write down their answers to one of the following questions:
Here lies Sam Shay.
Smoked six packs a day.
He started smoking when he was **three**.
Now he’s buried beneath a__________

Here lies Sam Shay.
Smoked six packs a day.
He started smoking when he was **four**.
Now he is knocking on heaven’s__________

Here lies Sam Shay.
Smoked six packs a day.
He started smoking when he was **five**.
Now the poor guy ain’t__________

If the teacher looks carefully for the missing word are provided in the sentences; such as knocking. Even the children can come up with the word knocking at the **door**, that rhymes with four.

Besides filling in the blanks for the alliteration, the poetry can be enjoyed through dramatization. This activity does not take much preparation. Here is a simple example of a poem with three voices: the son, the father and the mother. Three volunteers can take up acting the three parts.

**[Adapted from the poem by Bruce Lansky in poetry party, taken from the internet]**

The teacher can also dramatize a poem in the class. It will create interest in the learners and make poetry come alive. Here is an example. There are 3 characters in the poem,
the son, the father and the mother. He wants to watch the TV. But his parents do not allow him to do so.

**Summary:** A child debates watching TV with his parents.

**Presentation suggestions:** Have the students read or perform the poems in front of the class.

**Props:** A TV would be a great prop but if one is not available the poems can be performed without it with a simple cardboard acting as TV.

**Delivery:** The lines of the poem need to be read with poetic rhythm.

Mom
Turn off the TV!
Child:
My father gets quite mad at me;
My mother gets upset—
When they catch me watching
Our new television set.
-when do I feel [insert feeling]?
-why do I feel [insert feeling]?
-how does it feel to be [insert feeling]?

Their answers to the above questions will become the poem, although you may encourage them to revise and polish their poems as needed. What will make these poems work best is if they tell a story or if the reader can learn something about the writer from the poem. Often it’s easier to write about feelings in free verse—so tell your students they don’t need to worry about rhythm and rhyme patterns.
Here’s an example:

I feel **miserable** when...

I have a big math test coming up so I have to study instead of watching my favorite TV show
My mother doesn’t believe I have a fever, so I can’t stay home and miss a big math test I didn’t study for
My teacher doesn’t believe I have a fever and refuses to send me to the school nurse until the math test
I get a “d” on the math test

Here’s another example that answers two questions: “when do I feel happy?” and “what is it like to feel happy?” (Notice that this poem is a good way to stimulate metaphorical thinking.)
When Santa brings me the toy I wanted most for Christmas
I’m so **happy** I feel like:
Singing at the top of my lungs
Jumping in a mud puddle (too bad it’s December and the puddle is covered with ice)
raiding the cookie jar and eating all the cookies

playing with my new toy all day and not letting my bratty little brother touch it for a single second (which, as I recall, is why my parents took away my favorite Christmas toy last year and hid it from me for one whole week)

- Finally, ask them to find words that alliterate with the words expressing a feeling such as mad. They may first suggest words such as lad, had, bad, pad etc.
SECTION 2: POETRY AS MUSIC

(PARALLELISM: RHYTHM etc.)

The English words, as has already been noted, can be divided into syllables. There are words of one syllable such as AND, BUT, CAT, CUT, RUT, RAT; words of two syllable as TALKING, WALKING, BARKING; and words of three, four and more syllable when we speak we tend to stress one or more than one syllable. However, all syllables are not equally stressed. This fact forms the basis of the metre (any rhythm) of English poetry. For instance take TAKING. It can be divided into two syllables, TA and KING. The first syllable is generally
stressed so we can put an account on it TA. The word will be written as TAKING. Sometimes, to show that the second syllable is unstressed we mark it as follows: TAKING.

Once stressed and unstressed syllables follow each other in a given pattern, this pattern is called the metre. The rise and fall of voice according to meaning and the metre is called the rhythm. Obviously the effect of metre and rhythm is based on some sound pattern repeating themselves. The rise and or stress in one line, it may be said, parallel the same features in another line. Thus the effect of metre and rhythm is musical and, as in the case of rhyme, this music is based on parallelism of sounds.

**Classroom practice:**

The young people should not be taught the formal aspects of prosody in the beginning. There is no point in breaking up the poem into syllables and asking them to find out whether its metre is iambic pentameter or trochaic tetrameter. This will reduce the poem to the level of a mathematical formula and it will lose whatever hold it may have on the imagination of the reader.

It would be advisable to make the pupils listen to poetry being recited. For instance:

A down the glen rode armed men  
Their trampling sounded near er.  
The rise and fall of the voice should be exaggerated and may be accompanied by thumping the table. Then, when several such poems have been recited in chorus, they may be scanned as follows:

A down the glen rode armed men  
Their trampling sounded nearer
The lines are divided into eight syllables each. The first line follows the regular pattern of their being an unstressed syllable followed by a stressed one. The second line has a stressed syllable followed by an unstressed one.

In the above line the stressed part of the complete word adown in only DOWN. The other part A remains without stress i.e. we do not put any force on it. You will find that in English all words have either more or less stress. Mostly words like a, the, an, are unstressed. Many words have more than one syllable e.g. TRAMPLING. You can see that this will be divided into two parts, i.e. TRAMP and LING. These are its two syllables and the dictionary tells us that the first syllable is stressed under ordinary conditions, i.e. Tramp ‘ling’.

Here is another example of the iambic foot:

The curfew tells the knell of parting day
The lowing herd winds slowly over the tea,
The plowman homeward plods his weary way,
And leaves the world to darkness and to me.

(Gray: Elegy written in a country churchyard)

The foot used in iambic. Each line divides into ten syllables. In other words we can divide the feet as follows:

The cur tells the knell of part ing day
1 2 3 4 5

This shows that five iambic feet have been used in the metre. The poem may be said to be in IAMBIC PENTAMETER. Now if two feet has been used, it would have been in DIAMETER; THREE—TRIMETER; FOUR—TETRAMETER; SIX—HEXAMETER and so on.
This is the formal metre of the poem. Once we read it, we do not always stress words as required by the metre. We make pauses and the stress some words more than others: this creates another pattern which we can call RHYTHEM. The rhythm of the stanza given above has been discussed in detail by Robin Skelton. There is, however, no need to go into these details.

(1) Trochee: In this stressed syllable follow an unstressed one i.e.

An example of the trochaic foot is:

Earth, receive an honoured guest

William yeats is laid to rest. (I have scanned William as follows: will I am)

The metres given are used more than the once which follow:

Anapacst two unstressed syllables followed by one unstressed syllable.

Dactyl one stressed syllable followed by two unstressed ones.

Spondee two stressed syllables

Pyrrhic two unstressed syllables.

Amphibrach once unstressed syllable followed by a stressed one which is in turn followed by an unstressed one.

Let us take some examples of some of these feet:

And the/wheel's kick/and the/winds song/

And the/white sails/shaking/.

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And a/gray mist/on the/sea’s face/and the/gray
dawn/breaking/.

Here john Masefield uses pyrrhics and spondees in order to
reproduce ‘the relentless, forceful surging of wave on wave’
Shelley uses anapests to give swiftness and emphasize the last
word in his poem “The cloud”:

Like a child/from the womb/, like a ghost/from the tomb
I arise/and unbuild/it again.

The use of metre and rhythm, it is obvious from these
examples, is not for musical or ornamental purposes alone.
Good poets use these devices, as they use rhyme, to help them
to create some special effect or add to the significance of the
poem. One of such uses is onomatopocia: the production of the
sound of something or some action through the rhythm and the
arrangement of sounds. For instance, the sound produced by
the hoofs of a galloping horse is created in the following lines:

O young Lochinivar has come out of the west
And through all the wide border his steed was the best.

Another famous example of onomatopocia is:

Faster than fairies faster than witches
Bridges and houses, hedges and ditches
And charging along like troops in a battle
All through the meadows, the horses and cattle.

The rhythm here echoes the sound of a train running fast.

**Teaching practice:**

Take a poem which is in the course and let the students
listen to its rhythm. Then scan the poem and see if you can
explain why the poet has chosen that metre.
Classroom practice:

Several such examples should be found to make the pupils appreciate not only onomatopoeia, the music of rhythm. In the beginning, poems should be recited or, better still, sung in chorus. There is no need, however, to make the student commit poems to memory. That merely creates an aversion on poetry. It may be helpful, however, to bring records or cassettes of poems read out by accomplished readers like Dylan Thomas and Richard Burton. Once the student have started enjoying the rhythm, they may be taught what has been written in the last few pages. The emphasis should be on the pleasure one can derive from poetry rather than the acquisition of information and analytical skills.

Self Assessment Exercise No 1

Determine whether the following statements are false or true:

a. A dactyl consists of two unstressed syllables.  True  False
b. Museum has four syllables.  True  False
c. Onomatopoeia occurs when the first sound in a line of a poem are the same.  True  False
d. Rhythm and meter are not the same.  True  False
e. A tetrameter has five feet.  True  False

THEME:

The theme is defined as the idea, perception, or impression that a work of literature conveys. It is obvious from this definition that the theme of a work of literature is not its summary or plot. It is the idea, the view about life or the world, which the writer wants to convey. Thus the theme should be stated in a few words whereas a summary is much longer.
It is fallacy to assume that if the idea is good, the poem will be a good poem. It is not the worth of the idea but how it is presented that makes for poetic significance. Similarly, one may or may not agree with the idea but that should not affect one’s appreciation of the poem.

In the above paragraph, the word ‘good’ has been used as if there were a general agreement as to what it means. But good and bad refer to values which differ from age to age and from society to society. Thus, we cannot condemn or approve action and attitudes if they are different from our unless they are against the few basic human values which do not change.

**Teaching practice:**

Take one poem from the course and one from anywhere else and try to find out the theme of each. If you have a class, you can play a game by exchanging poems.

**Classroom practice:**

It is not easy to teach young people how to find out the theme of a poem. It would be helpful to start with simple ballads and narrative poems. Once they learn to listen attentively to poems and to appreciate the story, the instructor should draw their attention to the poet’s idea.

To develop listening skills the ballads of robin hood and other poems narrating a story are most suited.

Once listening skills have been developed, the following poem—or other like it—may be distributed to the class for silent reading:
The Black Panther

There is a panther aged within my breast;
But what his name, there is no breast shall know
Save mine, nor what it is that drives him so,
Backward and forward, in relentless quest –
That silent rage, baffled but unsurpassed,
The soft pad of these stealthy feet that go
Over my body’s prison to and fro,
Trying the walls forever without rest.
All day I feed him with by living heart;
But when the night puts forth her dreams and stars
The inexorable frenzy reawakes:
His wrath is hurled upon the trembling bars
The eternal passion stretches me apart
And I lie silent—but my body shakes.

(John Hall Wheelock)

The poet has expressed a general idea through a particular experience. The idea is that suppressed anger torments a man. He has made this explicit in the last two lines:

The eternal passion stretches me apart,
And I lie silent—but my body shakes.

But earlier, he has used the symbol of the panther, caged in a cell, to denote anger. We conclude from this that the reader must be aware of certain poetic techniques in order to discover the theme of complex poems. These techniques may be roughly classified under the following headings:
a. Use of figurative language
b. Diction
c. Imagery
d. Tone
e. Symbolism

The next four sections will be devoted to these techniques.

**Self Assessment Exercise No, 2**

1. What is the name of the following poems?

   My mother groan’d, my father wept,
   Into the dangerous world I leapt;
   Helpless naked, piping loud,
   Like a fiend hid in a cloud,
   Struggling in my father’s hands,
   Striving against my swaddling—bands,
   Bound and weary, I thought best
   To sulk upon my mother’s breast.

   (William Blake)

**Section 3**

**The use of figurative language:**

Words may have more than one meaning. The specific, literal meaning of the word dog, for instance, is an animal belonging to the canine family. Scientifically speaking, the animal is a living being and is neither good nor bad. The literal meaning, or denotative meaning as it is called, has no moral or cultural meaning in addition to precise one. However, dogs are considered servile, low and faithful. Thus human societies have
seen certain qualities in the animal and have come to look down upon it or like it. These human values have given a connotative meaning of the word. You are comparing his negative qualities to those associated with dogs.

The literal language, we can conclude, is a language used precisely or denotatively. The figurative language, in the other hand, is language used in the connotative sense. The figurative therefore, uses comparison and contrast to help the reader to understand what is meant. The figurative language includes metaphors, similes, synecdoche, hyperbole, etc. it is not necessary to define all of them nor should they made into bogeys, like rules of grammar, and imposed on the learners.

They are meant to be comprehended by the teacher and gradually introduced to the students among reading of poetry.

**Simile:** At the simplest level, a simile is a figure of speech in which the poet compares one thing with another one. For instance, if the poet says, 'he was as brave as a tiger', this is a simile someone (he) is being compared in bravery to a tiger.

**Metaphor:** In a metaphor there is comparison between two things, but it is not linked by terms such as ‘as’ or ‘like’. For instance, in the above example, if the poet had said, ‘he was a tiger’ this would have been a metaphor. The man would have been compared with a tiger but not directly. Instead, he would have been called a tiger. Now, obviously this would not have meant that the man was actually a four footed animal. All it would have meant was that his bravery was like that of tiger. This implied comparison is the method of metaphor.

In the poem “The Black Panther”, the emotion of anger has been compared to a panther. Thus the technique used is that of a metaphor and once the reader understands that, it is easy to understand the theme.
**Teaching practice:**

Take any poem from the course and find out how many words and phrases have been used figuratively.

**Other examples**

Let us now take another poem in which a simile has been used to create the poetic effect. It is called “country night” and reads as follows:

She lived in terror of the country night;
As soon as afternoon began to fade
She went about the house, lit every light,
Bolted the doors, and drew every window-shade.
The house was like a ship that slowly listed,
The night was water, and it seemed to her
It rose relentlessly and unresisted,
Invitable, black and sinister.
The little liquid noises that she heard
Were friendly and familiar things by day:
Tree and insects, flower and grass and bird,
Nothing at all to frighten her this way—
But still the night rose higher, till it found
Her tense and quivering and almost drowned

(Selma Robinson)

A critic has the following comment to offer on the use of the simile in this poem:

In the second stanza of “country night”, Selma robin states;

“The house was like a ship that slowly listed.” Through this comparison the reader can share the women’s fear-caused sensation. The house takes on the qualities of a ship on a rolling sea. The woman is mentally and physically so upset that the
The denotative meaning of lion is brave. True False
b. The connotative meaning of donkey is stupid True False
c. Shelley has used a simile in the following lines:
That orbed maiden with white fire laden,
whom mortals call the moon. True False
d. Coleridge has used a metaphor in the last two lines of the following quotation:
Day after day, day after day,
We stuck, nor breath, nor motion;
As idle as a painted ship
Upon a painted ocean. True False
e. Here is a metaphor about a face:
her pale face was the lantern
by which they read in life’s dark book
(R.S. Thomas) True False

Wheel, house, sea, boy, horse, wind and car are concrete nouns which refer to tangible objects. We cannot see or touch fear, anger, love and hatred which are, therefore, abstractions. Concrete nouns, because they do refer to objects, evoke the picture (images) of these objects in our minds. This brings us to the most important aspects of poetry—that it contains images
which can help us to understand its meaning. The study of these images can be called the imagery of the poem.

**Diction:** The poetry is a form of art which uses words instead of colours and other material. But poets do not simply communicate simple thoughts, they want to communicate complex experiences. This is a very difficult task and requires genius. If we want to enjoy poetry, we must learn to understand the various ways in which words are used to recreate an experience. It has already been said that words have denotative and connotative meanings. It should also be clear that all nouns may be classified either as abstract noun—things which cannot be touched, smelled, tasted, heard and seen—or as concrete nouns words that label things observable through the senses.

**Imagery:** Robin Skelton gives images lists such as this one:

- Brown wood
- Sharp corners
- Head bump
- Soft carpet
- Warm
- Very still
- Big shoes

He says that this refers to a small child’s memory of standing under a table and seeing his father pass by. Some images appeal to the vision, this imagery is called visual imagery: imagery appealing to the touch is tactile imagery, to the ear, aural imagery; to the nose, Olfactory and so on. Take the following example:
The Five

‘We’re sorry, you’ll have to get out of here’
The five figures came closer
And he felt terribly alone,
Not sun nor warm vinyl comforted him.
There was nowhere else to go.
Their empty shoes scuffed the new pile.
He heard the rustle and stifling chafe
Of five conservative grey suits
With quiet ties knocking white-ulcered chests
With each step……a dull tatco.
He let go of the moist arm. A paper, his own
Threaded between his chair and the table
It scraped his ankle…..knife sharp,
He pressed his elbow to his ribs
To stop the cold drops from reaching his belt
They took their seats,
They knew their place,
He saw that they were done with him.
Complete dismissal, concave cheeks.
And one that chewed his nails.
A swiss cigar, and eyes like guillotines.
The tobacco: air numbed his sense,
Black vinyl almost bubbled in a sun
Made not by winter. The smell of warm and then,
One of them spat...the sound of nail on tin......

And his fear was lost in the stench.

Here the imagery in the first stanza is mostly visual: one can see the five figures, the sun and the vinyl. In the second stanza the imagery is auditory: we can hear the shoes scuffing’ the new pile’, the rustle and other sounds. In the third stanza the images relate to the sense of touch—passed, scraped, stop—and is an example of tactile imagery. In the last stanza, once again, the imagery is predominantly olfactory: one can smell the tobacco, the spit, etc.

**Classroom practice:**

Images are the concrete details which express the meaning of the poem. In teaching young people how to appreciate poetry, the teacher should begin with a simple list of concrete words such as skelton has given. He should then impress upon the learners that each word calls the image of something to their minds. Once they have grasped this fact, he can tell them that poems contains a series of images and their meaning can be understood if we pay attention to the imagery. There is no need, at this stage at least, to introduce terms like visual, tactile or auditory imagery. This can be done later.

**Teaching practice:**

Teach the poem “Ibadan” on your own without reading the given explanation. Ask anyone else to see how much you have understood.

**Example:**

The following poem is a good example of the importance of imagery in understanding poetry:
Ibadan, ibadan
Running splash of rust
And gold—flung and scattered
Among seven hills like broken
China in the sun

(J.P. Clark)

Here the poet wants to give us the sense of movement combined with decay in a new town. He has not done it through words but through imagery. Let us consider these images as they occur in the poem.

‘Running splash’: both words give us the sense of speed, suddenness and refer to the fast tempo of a rising city. Then we get the images of ‘rust’ and ‘gold’. Both are colours, but whereas rust is the colour of decay, gold is attractive and lustrous. Symbolically, rust refers to decay, death and corruption whereas gold stands for wealth. The images, therefore, make us aware of there being decay cheek by jowl with wealth in this great city. Then we find that the town is scattered on seven hills like broken china. Now china is beautiful and shining but if it is not broken, the image reinforces the idea of decay and corruption which we had formed earlier. The image of the seven hills is an allusion to some great cities of the of the past which we are built on seven hills. This is a new city and has been created by wealth, by man’s greed and exploitation of labour. This being so it contains people whose way of life has been destroyed, who have been brought from their lands as labourers in order to work as wage-slaves and who are, so to speak, decaying. Since there is much wealth, there is also greed and corruption. Along with beauty, there is ugliness in the city. All this and the theme (that great cities built by modern capital

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also contains the seeds of their decay) are conveyed through the imagery.

Sometimes, a poem has a central, organizing image. The image used in the following poem is of this kind:

**SNOWDROP**

Now is the globe shrunk tight
Round the mouse’s dulled wintering heart
Weasel and crow, as if moulded in brass
Move through an outer darkness
Not in their right minds
With the other deaths. She, too, pursues her ends,
Breetal as the stars of this month,
Her pale lead heavy as metal.

(Ted Hughes)

The poet transforms the snow drop into something hard and heavy. The snowdrop is a flower, but Hughes uses the imagery associated with metals and heavy things. Thus, instead of the conventional idea of the flower as dainty and beautiful, we get a new idea: that of the flower as an assertion of plant life amidst animal life.

The “snowdrop” is a difficult poem and may not be suited for beginners. The teacher should read out poems with which the students are familiar with special emphasis on imagery. One good example would be keats’s “Ode to Autumn” in which the images of ripe crops, making cider out of ripe apples and other images of mellowness are of significance.

Sometimes the poet makes images express emotions or ideas he does not want to put in words. In the following poem
the poet, Daud Kamal, has expressed the helplessness of human beings through the image of buffaloes helplessly whirling in the water in a flood.

Floods

How does one forgive
The treachery of
blind rivers and
Water-buffaloes
Dissolving in the mud?
Their hut was
forty years old
They had
three wooden
boxes of dowry
And a sackful
Of expensive rice
At the army relief-camp
The bride-to-be
Covers her head
While her parents
Look the other way.

(From Recognitions).

Self Assessment Exercise No, 4

Tick the concrete nouns and encircle the abstract ones given below:

a. Grass; Bravery; Love; cheese; brick; wisdom; score; cleverness.

b. How many kinds of imagery is used in poems?
c. What is an image?

d. Make a drawing of the picture presented by the following lines of browning:

   The grey sea and the long black land;
   And the yellow half-moon large and low
   And the startled little waves that leap
   In fiery singlet from their sleep,...

e. Take any poem in the secondary school course (ix-x) and write a note on its imagery.

Symbolism: Symbolism is the technique of using symbols in order to express meaning. Unfortunately the term has been used rather loosely and somewhat protentiously by many critics. A symbol is simply some object, event or character which means more than it does in the literal sense. In Wheelock’s poem “The black panther” the panther is not really there. It is a metaphor. A symbol, on the other hand, is actually there but, like the metaphor, it means something else. Take Blake’s poem “the tiger” for instance:

   Tiger! Tiger! burning bright
   In the forests of the night
   What immortal hand or eye
   Could frame the fearful symmetry?
   In this poem the tiger stands for brute force. The concrete flesh and blood of the animal is, therefore, made to symbolize an abstract force. The tiger is a symbol.

   Good poets use symbols to express meaning which are not adequately expressed in words. Symbols should not be used to make poems deliberately difficult. Such a use is pretentious. They may, however, be legitimately used to make poems (and other works of literature) richer and more meaningful.
**Tone:** when someone speaks to us we can find out whether he is angry, pleased, loving, hating or proud. His emotional attitude is revealed in the way he speaks. This is the tone. In poems, too, the speaker has a certain tone. This can be discovered by paying attention to the rhythm, rhyme, imagery and symbolism. If the narrator is sad, the rhythm may be slow; if happy, it may be tripping and fast and so on. The tone in the following poem is nostalgic and regretful:

Sunday too my father got up early
And put his clothes on in the blue black cold,
Then with cracked hands that ached
from labor in the weekday weather made
Banked fires blaze. No one ever thanked him.
I’d wake and hear the cold splintering, breaking.
When the rooms were warm, he’d call,
And slowly I would rise and dress,
Fearing the chronic angers of that house,
Speaking indifferently to him,
Who had driven out the cold
And polished my good shoes as well.
What did I know, what did I know
Of love’s austere and lonely offices?

(Robert Hayden)

So words are gentle in sound, other are harsh; some are mellifluous, other are grating; some are sharp, other flat. And tone is dependent, among other things, on the kind of words used in the poems. For instance, the words used in Tennyson’s “the Lotus Eaters” are gentle, mellifluous and smooth:

The lotus blooms below the barren peak:
The lotus blows by every winding creak:
All day the wind breathes low with mellower tone:

Through every hollow cave and alley lone

Round and round the spicy downs the yellow lotus dust is blown.

The gentle, indolent, flowing tone of these lines is not the product of words alone. The rhyme, the rhythm, alliteration, assonance and onomatopoeia have all contributed to creating this effect. As a classroom exercise, the teacher can give a detailed analysis of a poem in ix-x class course with reference to all these factors in relation to the tone.

The nature of student assignment in poetry.

What type of assignment can a teacher set on poetry? This is a difficult area. However, we have said that poetry should be read for enjoyment as well for learning about language and the content of a poem.

For the purposes of enjoyment and familiarization with the poetic works, we suggest you ask the willing students to read it aloud in the classroom. They may also bring a poem of their choice and in their mother tongue. If they read a poem in English about a village scene, they may be asked to bring a poem on a similar topic in their own language. Such presentation in the class give confidence to the students, lessening their fear of literature and it makes them look at their mother tongue literature with a new respect.

For more languages work on poems lets take an example.

**The vanishing village**

Scarcely a street, too few houses

To merit the title, just a way between
The one tavern and the one shop
That leads nowhere and fails at the top
Of the short hill, eaten away
By long erosion of the green tide
Of grass creeping perpetually nearer
This last outpost of time past.

- The teacher can ask to underline the similar sounds at the end of each line. In doing so the students will become conscious of the sound alliteration about which they have already studied.

- Next the teacher may ask them to draw a picture of this village. It will be transfer of information and will help the teacher judge the student’s comprehension.

- Ask them which senses are used by the poet in this poem. For example, the reader uses the sense of **sight**. We notice the green colour of the grass.

- The teacher can ask them what feelings are expressed in the poem. The students can be asked to look at the words and pick out any words which suggest any kind of emotions. For example ‘erosion’ is eating away in other words, finishing away. So it is not a happy feeling. Then too few houses also suggest loneliness.

- The most common poetic devices used by the poets is imagery. So is there any imagery? Out post of time; ‘out-posts’ in American history of colonizing the Americas. Out posts being the last settlement of either the gold diggers or the new settlers or the cantonments. So this dying village is also compared to one such settlement which may or may not survive in future.
Section 5
CONCLUSION

Anyone who intends to teach poetry to beginners must never forget that his principles tasks is to make his students learn to enjoy good poetry. This is an extremely difficult thing to do since most people have been brought up to associate the learning of a poem with pain rather than pleasure. The teachers make their students memorize poems and analyse them in the class. These are harmful activities if the student does not enjoy them. If, however, the teacher gradually teaches his students to take pleasure in reading poetry he can make them read a lot without harming them. For this the teacher will have to read a lot of poetry himself and also learn to understand it. This unit has been written with a view to introducing poetry to the teacher of young people. It must be supplemented by more reading some of which is being suggested here. If this unit increases the teachers appreciation of English poetry in particular and literature in general, it will have been successful.

Section 6
SUMMARY

In the foregoing pages you have been given some knowledge of the concepts without which poetry cannot be fully appreciated. You have been told that good poems have a meaning which is conveyed through words, rhyme, rhythm, tone, imagery and symbolism. All these concepts have been defined and examples have been given so that you know how they function in poetry. Poems have been analysed so that you know how critical analysis is done and how your appreciation of the artistic excellence of good poetry can be increased. The text progresses from the easy to the difficult and the emphasis has always been on how you will teach poetry to your students. After the end of important sections, you have been given self-assessment exercises. The answers have been provided in the
end, but you must not see them till you have first assessed yourself. In the end, a glossary has also been provided so that you may have ready definitions of concepts which will be of use to you when reading poetry. It is hoped that you will be encouraged to read further, with this in mind, the names of some very useful books have been suggested in the bibliography.

Answers to Self-Assessment Questions

**Self-Assessment Questions — 1**

a) False  b) False  c) False  d) True  e) False

**Self-Assessment Questions — 2**

Pleas do your self

**Self-Assessment Questions — 3**

a) False  b) True  c) False  d) False  e) True

**Self-Assessment Questions — 4**

(a) Pleas do your self

(b) Visual, Tactile, olfactory and auditory

(c) Words which either being a picture before a mind or appeal to the other senses.

(d) Make a picture

(e) The answer will depend on the poem chosen.
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TEACHING COMPOSITION

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INTRODUCTION

Writing composition is a skill which comes with training and practice. Due to excess of subjects being taught in our schools, the time devoted to composition work is quite negligible. The result is that our students can neither express themselves in written English nor in spoken language.

This unit has particularly been written keeping in view the needs of Pakistani English Teachers with respect to the teaching of composition.

OBJECTIVES

After reading this unit you should be able to:

1. Enumerate some basic rules and principles for writing correct English;
2. Tell the qualities of a good piece of English writing;
3. Describe different stages of writing composition;
4. Mention some of the problems encountered in teaching English composition;
5. Guide your students to write summaries and also compose paragraphs and essays;
6. Demonstrate the skill of correcting composition;
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TOWARDS GOOD COMPOSITION: SOME SUGGESTIONS

The earliest verses revealed to the Holy Prophet (May peace and blessing of Allah be upon him“!) contain the verse “He has taught you through the pen”! It points to the fact that for the preservation and acquisition of knowledge, writing has great importance. It in our context assumes all the more importance as the only test of the amount of knowledge accrued is through writing. A well worded answer in the examination, even if containing little related material, may fetch good marks. However, despite the importance that this system gives to writing, it remains a comparatively neglected field.

1.1 The fully packed classroom, making the composition correction a difficult task for the teacher, restrain him from taking it up seriously, with the result that despite the fact that great efforts are needed to be put in, the work remains neglected. With little guidance and almost no correction by the teacher, the students have little practice of writing. The uncorrected mistakes have a negative effect which generally worsens the situation.

1.2 The first essential in this regard is that the teachers must be congnisant of the problems and be familiar with the types of difficulties they are likely to face and aware of the methods of tackling these problems. The teacher must know the mistakes that the students usually commit and having mastered the relevant rules, be in a position to deal with them effectively.

1.3 The large classes, presenting an almost impossible task of composition correction, is no doubt a problem but solution is not hard to find, composition has to be taught systematically beginning with the first stage of copying leading the students on to reproduction, controlled and guided writing and finally free composition. Simple exercises in the beginning, involving very little correction work, if taken up seriously, will help to over
come the mistakes from the very beginning, helping the students to write correctly. Thus, a planned programme from these earlier classes, minimizing students’ error will not involve so much correction work in the later classes and will free the students’ writing of numerous errors which due to uncorrected composition, the students are likely to commit. Similarly suitable methods for the correction of written work, if followed systematically, may ensure correction of composition and at the same time eliminate students’ errors. Self-correction, peer correction, mass correction etc. are some of the methods which might help in easing the teacher’s work and making his task not so formidable as apprehended.

1.4 The most essential thing, however, is that the teacher trainees themselves should be well versed the basic rules of grammar, the art of hand writing improvement and the ins and outs of writing skill. A teacher who is deficient in these, is likely to aggravate the problem of his students. Secondly, the teacher must have a plan, chalked out for each class at each stage. Systematically tackling correction work will ensure better writing, eliminating the blunders that the students usually commit thus resulting in error-free composition.

2. PROBLEMS IN TEACHING ENGLISH COMPOSITION IN PAKISTAN

Acquisition of any foreign language is a task not easy to accomplish, writing, which aims at exactness, requires greater accuracy, while in speaking one might mumble and so pass unnoticed. The mistakes in writing cannot go unnoticed. Hence writing requires greater efforts to eliminate them.

2.1 Faults and failures in composition are due both to the teacher and the student, the students have too little exposure to English to attain the mastery and hence they err or commit blunders. But the teachers too may be efficient in knowledge.
Moreover they may not be trained at all or if trained it may be only superficially. It is because the teacher training programme does not place due emphasis on the writing skills or the techniques of composition correction. Classroom conditions further augment the problem. The teachers are either themselves not fully conversant with the rules of English grammar or else do not make well-directed efforts to drive these home to the students, especially in the earlier classes i.e. VI to X. The foundation, being weak, the students continue to stumble (commit mistakes) in the later classes.

2.2 Composition has not been given due importance because of the following two major reasons:

(a) The teacher takes it lightly and does not spare sufficient time for guidance of students and correction of written work.

(b) The large classes pose a problem and the teacher confronted with more than 200 exercise books, to be corrected daily, considers the task too difficult to be tackled. So he just gives it up. In fact correction of written work is the biggest problem of a teacher of English. This, no doubt is mainly due to large classes but also results from the fact that the teacher does not employ proper methods (which will be mentioned).

2.3 In the addition, students also are allergic to written work. They may read five pages but are reluctant to write five sentences and when there is little practice, the errors persist and are perpetuated. The situation further worsens when the composition is not corrected, uncorrected writing consolidates students’ habits, which are difficult to eradicate at a later stage.

2.4 The poor hand writing also increases the problem. The students sometimes try to hide their mistakes (specially of spelling) by writing in an illegible manner, thus making the
detection of the errors difficult and at the same time ruling out the possibility of correction, thereby starting the vicious circle hiding the faults, ruling out the possibility of correction and thus encouraging the commission of similar faults.

2.5 SUMMARY

The problems obstacles in teaching a good English Composition are.

a) Poor teaching of grammatical rules in the earlier classes.

b) Inadequacy of time devoted by the teacher for this purpose.

c) Incompetence of the teacher to teach, the lack of proper training of teacher.

d) Uncorrected written work due to large classes.

e) Indifference of students to composition work.

f) Poor Hand writing.
3. QUALITIES OF A GOOD PIECE OF WRITING

Let us begin with the ABC of writing:

3.1 A Stands for accuracy. Thus an essential characteristics of good writing is correctness which means:

a) The tense used should be correct. We cannot say “Did he went yesterday” or “He is to Lahore tomorrow.” Similarly it will be incorrect if following Urdu construction both the clauses contain future tense in a sentence such as. “If he will work hard, he will succeed in the examination.” In English we have simple present in the first part and future in the second part of the sentence.

b) The preposition use should be correct. The sentence “He put in his clothes, put out his work and went away”, will not make any sense. It should be, “He put on his clothes, put off his work and went away.”

c) The idiom used should be correct. To weep over spilt milk would be wrong as the correct idiom is to cry over spilt milk. Similarly literal translation of Urdu idiom has to be avoided e.g. "His heart became garden and garden.”

d) The word used should be apt (proper). Sometimes with a view to impressing others or parading our scholarship we use big, bombastic words even though they may not fit in to the context and may render the whole passage meaningless. Here is an example:

“The colloquial gentleman, parading as a policeman, jumbled into the room which horrified those present and he himself was befuddled”. What an impressive sentence, one might say! But is it? It is merely a jumble of
words, collected thoughtlessly and indiscriminately, some brought in because of slight similarity in sound or form with the correct words e.g. ‘colloquial, is mistaken for loquacious’, ‘parading’ could be ‘masquerading’ and ‘jumbled’ should be ‘stumbled’ and so on. Aptness also means right choice of words which convey the exact meaning e.g., ‘He seriously apologized’ and ‘He sincerely apologized’ are fairly close in meaning but there is a shade of difference between the two. Therefore, the word which exactly describes the sentiment would be considered apt.

3.2 ‘B’ of writing means brevity. It is more difficult to be brief and concise than write at length. A compressed but worded passage would be beautiful as well as expressive. Let us look at this:

(a) “Reading is very important in education. For proper teaching of reading, sensory motor training is essential. Moreover provision of proper reading material is necessary. The books should be written systematically and contain properly structured sentences. Study of these books and proper training, as mentioned, may help in making the students read fluently and this should be our main aim.”

(b) The four-sentence paragraph can be compressed in just one sentence, which, if framed properly, will be more expressive than the original. The ideas may be expressed as under:

“Reading, being of great importance in educational process, requires sensory-motor training and access to such reading material as having well structured sentences and this
may ensure fluent reading, which should be aimed at!”

3.3 ‘C’ stands for clarity. A good piece of prose should make the meaning clear and not add to confusion e.g. “The seminar could not be attended by Mr. A, for not being granted permission by the principal, the sickness being the reason.” It appears to be a good sentence but does not clarify the point whether the sick person was the principal of Mr. A. Hence it is a vague sentence and the like of it should be avoided.

3.4 A good piece of composition should have proper beginning and proper ending. Abruptly plunging into the topic and leaving it as abruptly does not make it a good piece.

3.5 There should be proper sequencing and logical development of thought. Each idea has to be put into a separate paragraph.

3.6 Good handwriting beautifies a composition., makes it worth reading and enhances its charm. Hence due attention need to be paid to this as well.

3.7 To sum up Essay will be written poorly if there is a lack of relevant material, poverty of thought, and scarcity of proper arrangement of ideas. Composition can improve if these defects are avoided.

Qualities of good piece of writing are:

(a) It is accurate using appropriate and correct words.
(b) It is brief.
(c) It is clear.
(d) It begins and ends properly.
(e) It is logical.
(f) It is written in good handwriting.

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4. BASIC PRINCIPLES AND RULES

While writing students commit serious mistakes as they are not fully aware of conversant with the rules. Hence the knowledge of these is the first pre-requisite for good writing and this also means that the teacher, too, have mastery over these so that he can impart this knowledge to his students. The writing of correct English requires familiarity with grammatical rules, but in this brief section it would not be possible to take up all the rules and only some of these can be discussed.

4.1 Use of ‘An’

An is used before a word beginning with a vowel (or having vowel sound) e.g. apple, elephant, idea, orange, umpire, exception: But we say a University, a European, because u, e have ‘Y’ sound. Similarly it is ‘an hour’, ‘an heir’ for here ‘h’ is not sounded.

4.2 Use of ‘The’

(a) ‘The’ is used to particularize a thing as The book which was presented to me.

(b) It is also used when we are referring not to a particular (say animal) but to the whole class such as: The dog is a faithful animal.

(c) It is used before proper nouns of rivers, mountains, ships, such as: The Indus, The Himalayas, The Babar.

(d) It is also used with superlatives e.g. the most popular teacher.

(e) It is used before the name of important books, such as The Holy Quran, The Bible.
4.3 Tenses:

Rules regarding present, past and future tenses are so elementary that these need not be repeated here. But some of the errors generally committed may be taken up.

a) The past tense in the principal clause is always followed by past tense in the subordinate clause e.g.:
I failed in the examination because I did not work (had not worked) hard.

b) The present tense can be used in the subordinate clause when it contains a universal truth.
“The teacher said that the sun sets in the West.”

c) The present or future tense in the principal clause may be followed by any tense in the subordinate clause:
“He works hard so that he may succeed” or “He works hard and he will succeed.”

d) A common mistake originating from literal translation of Urdu sentence pattern occurs in such future tense:

“اگر وہ کام کے لئے کامیاب ہوگا”

Imitating Urdu construction of the sentence it is generally translated as:
“He will succeed if he will work hard.” Such a construction is not permissible in English. The
correct is “He will succeed if he works hard.” (Simple present in one and future in other clause).

4.4 Verb in the plural is required when two nouns (in singular) refer to two different things or persons and are joined by ‘and’ such as:

The superintendent and the principal were present in the hall. (When the superintendent and the principal are two different persons). But when the principal is also performing the duties of the superintendent the verb will be singular.

(a) If ‘each’ or ‘every’ is added to singular nouns, they take singular verbs. e.g:

(i) Every one of the guilty students was punished.

(ii) Each boy was given a book.

(b) Words which are plural in form but singular in meaning take on singular verb:

The sad news of my friend’s death was a shock to me.

(c) When two singular words are joined by ‘nor’ or ‘or’ they take a singular verb:

(i) Neither he nor I am to be blamed.

(ii) Either the Managing Director or the Secretary is at fault.

4.5 Incorrect rendering of active voice into passive voice is also commonly committed mistake:

Rahim did the work in two days.

The work had been done by Rahim in two days.
4.6 Direct and indirect narration also create problems for some students. The first is that they mix up the two i.e. sentences in indirect narration are followed by those in direct e.g. “They Principal said that many boys were absent and so they are fined.” Some other mistakes will be illustrated.

He said: “I will try to complete the task in two days.”

While rendering this and other sentences it may be seen that the verb in the reported speech should agree with the reporting verb.

The other difficulty is in interrogative sentences e.g. He said “Are you leaving for Lahore?” In rendering such a sentence into indirect form a number of changes have to be effected and it is here that the student err. This sentence would be: He asked me whether I was leaving for Lahore.

4.7 Summary

(a) Use ‘An’ before words beginning with a vowel or giving vowel sounds.

(b) Use ‘The’ to particularize before proper nouns, with superlatives and before important books.

(c) Always put past-tense in the subordinate clause when it is in the principal clause.

(d) Bring plural verb when two nouns refer to two different things.

(e) Use singular verb for words which are plural in form but singular in meaning.

(f) Do not mix up direct and indirect narrations.
4.8 ACTIVITY – I

Send receipt of Umbrella, inkpot, pen and pencil sent to you by your friend. Tell him that you were in need of these and that you would make use of these properly.

4.9 ACTIVITY – II

A

From where did you buy this bicycle?

Yes, I think so. The usual rate is Rs. 1000/-

No, I think of buying a motor cycle. Isn’t that better than a bicycle?

I bought it from the market for Rs. 800/-. Isn’t it cheap

Are you also interested in buying one?

Certainly, but is more costly and every body can’t afford it.

Now tell what A and B said in indirect narration.

4.10. Self Assessment Questions-I

(Fill in the blanks, where necessary).

1. ________________ apple a day keeps the doctor away.

2. ______ honest officer is considered a coward these days.

3. He behaved with ________ generosity, I did not expect.

4. He is ______ M.A. from ________Punjab University.
5. In _______ desert it is difficult to find _______ water.

6. _________gold is _______ heaviest of _____metals.

7. He took up civics in Inter as he (considers_______ed) it easy subject.

8. Mathematics _______ interesting subject.

9. My sister as well as her son ______________ injured.

10. Neither you nor I _____________ guilty.

11. My friend and helper ______________ dead.

12. If he (works, will work), he will ______________ earn good amount of money.

13. Every one of the students ______________ fined.

14. Neither Azhar nor Hamid __________ any claim on this property.

15. The cabinet _____________ unanimous in this decision.

16. The police (has, have) rounded up the criminals.

17. The news of his success (was, were) given wide publicity.

18. He said _________________ he (is, was) painting a picture.

19. The teacher said that virtue (is, was) its own reward.

20. He will work hard that he _______________ pass.

21. He _____________ his mother give him ten rupees.
22. The holy man said, “May God bless you.” (change into indirect.

23. He said, “Why are you angry with me.” (change into indirect).

24. When I (get, got) off the lift, I (fall, fell) and (break, broke) my ankle:

25. I would gladly do it if I ______________ asked to do so.

5. WRITING SKILL

Of four skills i.e., listening, reading, speaking and writing, the last assumes greater importance, especially when our speaking and writing system is made entirely dependent on written answers to the questions set in the paper. What is said, is important but more so is ‘how it is said’. In other words good or poor expression considerably affects evaluation which therefore is determined by the quality of writing. Hence greater attention needs to be paid to this important communication skill but unfortunately this is not being done because of a number of reasons.

Reading through students’ written work is a laborious task, which the teacher, usually prone to lethargy, avoids. The student, too, does, not readily accept the written assignments as these are time consuming and more demanding. Then there are over crowded classrooms which offer an excuse to the lazy teacher to avoid correction work, considering it an impossible task. But solution to the problems of large classes is not hard to find, as will be stated in the later part of this chapter. However, before jumping on to the solution let us discuss what writing is and how this skill can be developed systematically.
“Writing is not simply orthographic (in spelling form) symbolization of sound but something more than this. It is purposeful selection and organisation of experience …… Good writing is not merely piecing together of language elements in some artificial patch work but is accurate, idiomatic, and graceful. “There are four major areas involved in the writing process. These areas are as under.

I. Prewriting
A. This is the name given to the first step in a writing situation.
B. It includes all preliminary work to be done by the teacher and student.
   1. audio-visual presentations (movie; filmstrip; tv/radio/CDs)
   2. list-making, diary or journal writing (vocabulary, sentence structure)
   3. random outlines
   4. oral exchange of ideas
   5. field trips
   6. reading of literary examples, samples
C. It is useful to clarify assignments, provide needed vocabulary, stimulate students.

II. Writing the First Draft
A. This is the name given to the second step in the writing situation.
B. It includes the first formal composing activity.
   1. sentence format
   2. paragraph format
C. It is useful to provide an opportunity for students to get material down on paper in a preliminary format.

D. It is characterized by a variety of errors.
   1. sentence, structure, punctuation, usage
   2. spelling, extraneous details
   3. unimportant ideas
   4. lack of uniform point of view
   5. lack of style
   6. inadequate audience appeal
   7. incomplete development

III. Revising

A. This is the name given to the third step in a writing situation.

B. It includes the activities during which the first draft is changed.
   1. rearranging words, phrases, sentences, order of paragraphs
   2. selecting most appropriate vocabulary
   3. striving for style and audience appeal
   4. adding or eliminating details or ideas

C. It is useful to provide an opportunity for correction of the preliminary manuscript and for interaction between the writer and “an audience”,
   1. Correcting may be done by different people.
      a. by the student/writer
      b. by the teacher
      c. by other students in "peer response groups" or in "peer pairs"
2. Correcting may be done using a variety of techniques.
   a. reading the manuscript silently
   b. reading the manuscript aloud
   c. using a checklist, handbook, guide sheet, outline
IV. Editing

A. This is the name given to the fourth step in a writing situation.

B. It includes the “polishing” activities designed to prepare the manuscript for the final typing/writing process.
   1. correcting mechanical errors missed in revising steps
   2. preparing the final copy according to specifications.

C. It is useful to provide an opportunity to eliminate all errors from the final product

A Good Piece of Writing Involves the Following

It isn't enough to make sure that you have an introduction at the start, a conclusion at the end, and the other stuff in between. So what do you need?

1. You do need a solid introduction. It will probably contain something about how you have interpreted the question, and it is often a good idea to state a thesis (an argument) which you are going to illustrate or explore in the body of the essay -although you may prefer to save the ‘findings’ of your exploration to the end, in which case you have to introduce the question carefully at the start.

2. And you need a tight, powerful conclusion which is the logical consequence of everything that has gone before. The good essay has developed a number of related strands which the conclusion ties together. It may also contain an extra, surprising thing which you saved to throw in at the end with a flourish.

3. So what happens in between? Well...
   You need to organise your material so that it flows from one area, sub-section or argument to the next in a logical order. Each part should
build upon, or at least reasonably follow on from, the previous parts, and the whole thing should be pulling the reader, clearly and inescapably, to your triumphant conclusion.

The box on the right shows unimaginative kinds of essay structure, which are likely to get low marks. But what can you do instead?

One good approach is to look through your notes and identify a handful of themes within the discussion, and to structure your essay around consideration of those. You should order the analysis of each theme so that the essay builds up towards the conclusion.

**Don't Know how to Start?**

If you've got some notes but you don't know how to start the next stage, get a nice big clean sheet of paper and write down phrases which summarise all of your thoughts about the subject, the different questions and ideas you've had in your mind, and the areas and problems that have been covered in your reading. Then look for similarities, and related concerns, and group them together in whatever way makes sense to you. After that, see if you can number these areas into an order in which you will weave your way through the material. And voila! You've accidentally created an essay structure. Now just check it, tweak it a bit to make it more coherent, and you're ready to go.

More analysis = more marks

You will often need to describe something before you give an analysis of it. Only include as much description as is needed for the analysis to make sense. The analysis is what you will get the marks for. Of course, a muddled, illogical and unsubstantiated analysis can still leave you with no marks. We'll
be looking for a clear, coherent and consistent analysis, supported by evidence.

Don't just repeat what some books (or your lecture notes) say - we want your analysis. However, you should also show your awareness of other people's analyses! Don't wander off the subject. Answer the question, and only the question. And keep checking that you are remaining on track throughout the essay. If there's something interesting that you want to include, but which is of dubious relevance to the main argument or theme of the essay, put it in a footnote. Don't rush. You might remember that you 'did all right' last time you stayed up all night on caffeine, the day before the deadline, to research and write an essay. But this most likely means that you would have done much better if you had started reading and researching, and then writing, days or weeks before that. It is always obvious to your tutors when an essay is rushed. Don't cheat. Plagiarism - using other people's works and ideas without acknowledging where you got them from - is regarded as an enormous sin, the penalties for which are actually worse than just getting zero for the essay. Just say no. Or more specifically, make sure that you have got perfect references:

Proper planning and systematic work is required for writing skill. It many require the students to go through the following stages:

(a) Copying or transcription

This stage starting with the sixth class may continue up to seventh class. At this stage the student merely copies from the printed page even without understanding. Though a very mechanical stage, it still aims at teaching certain aspects of the language. It teaches spelling, reinforces sentence structure and acts as an aid to retention. Thus it is a meaningful activity.
(b) **Dictation**

Dictation serves triple purpose. It is a useful exercise which reinforces the relationship between sound and symbol and at the same time it is a good test of the student’s memory. But most of all it tests and teaches spelling and punctuation. Hence it is a good preliminary exercise. Dictation can also take the form of spot dictation in which the teacher reads out complete sentences but repeals a word or a few words, which the students are expected to write. Thus he will be concentrating on the spelling of difficult words, which he wants his students to memorize.

(c) **Exercise**

Which words would you repeat/emphasize in the following passage for spot dictation:

“Dictation is a language activity which differs from other activities because it involves listening and the ability to transform what is heard into the written form. However, such a dictation should be based on language with which the students are already familiar. It is best regarded as a reinforcement activity which may from time to time be used as an alternation to some other activity.”

5.3 In short, though even at this stage no originality is involved it still is one stage higher than mere copying, where the text was in front of him and he was just pulling it down as it was. Here at this stage he is writing from memory which means that his spellings are being tested and if he has not mastered them he is likely to commit mistakes. Similarly whatever little bit he learnt about punctuation at the first stage is also being tested and reinforced. Does he put a full stop after completion of a sentence and began the next sentence with a capital letter? It, however, is too early stage to test the use of commas. Thus though no originality is expected and no manipulative skills are
involved the student has taken a step forward—he is improving his spellings and is learning about sentence structure.

5.4 Controlled Writing

By the time the student reaches the second half of VII class or VIII class he should be considered fit to take up manipulative exercises where the student will be required to demonstrate his familiarity with sentence construction but he still will be operating within a fixed frame work. He may effect changes in the given sentences, make some additions in it or put these into a different forms. Various exercises can be prescribed, beginning with simple exercises, such as combining sentences with appropriate conjunctions, filling in the blanks, making substitutions or re-arranging jumbled sentences:

(a) Sentence combination
   He went on a journey.
   He went early in the morning
   He went to Karachi
   He went _____________ to _____________.

(b) Filling in the blanks
   Ahmad came _______ school early _______ the morning.
   He will study _________ 3 O’clock and then go back ________ his home, where his father would be waiting –him.

(c) Re-arranging jumbled sentences:
   He had very little time. He put off his clothes. Then he got on to his bicycle and started for the office. He got up late.
   He hurriedly took a bath. So he wanted to get ready soon.
   Properly arranged sentences would be:
He got up late. He had very little time so he wanted to get ready soon. He put off his clothes. He hurriedly took a bath. Then he got on to his bicycle and started for the office.

5.5 A slightly different form of such an exercise but more interesting is writing a strip story. In such exercise a story (say of ten sentences) is written down but each sentence is written on a separate strip of paper. These ten strips are distributed to ten students who are asked to work together and put these sentences in order so that it makes a readable story.

**Story:**

Here are ten sentences which may be shuffled and distributed among the students:

1. The husband, who was a poor clerk, wanted to please his wife.
2. He managed to get an invitation to dinner.
3. The wife instead of being pleased, got upset.
4. She did not have any jewellery, so borrowed it from a friend.
5. She enjoyed the feast but lost the borrowed necklace.
6. A new necklace was purchased by borrowing money from friend.
7. Both the husband and wife worked hard to repay.
8. She now was an old women with wrinkles on the face.
9. By chance she met the friend from whom she had got the necklace.
10. The friend, listening to her story, said. "But mine was imitation."

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5.6  **Substitution**

Good substitution tables can present interesting exercises. Begin with simple labels where the substitution are almost mechanical and then go on to tables where thinking and knowledge of grammatical rules is required: Here is a table which can generate 450 sentences:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>if</th>
<th>be Mr. Ahmad your uncle that man</th>
<th>has been made appointed chosen as</th>
<th>Manager Chief Clerk Deputy Manager</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>he</td>
<td>would have done the job well, improved the business, changed a lot of things, got a big salary, been successful.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5.7  Here is another table, to be tackled at a slightly advanced stage.

| Two of our old students | went to Logas England Islamabad | last year last week, two days ago, three months ago, |
He

She

They Went there to Inspect a new factory, study at the University

Who Which See Mr. Mahmood

See their friend Yousif visit her sister-in-law

Work in the Ministry of Foreign Affairs a big office

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teaches makes</th>
<th>Many different subjects</th>
<th>produces</th>
<th>Many kinds of tyres clothes electrical equipment batteries.</th>
<th>He She They</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

| travelled by | sea train air on lorry bus | because he she they | did not have a car, could not afford an air ticket. could not go there by train. knew the ships were all full. wanted to get there quickly. did not want to pay too much. |

353
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Their</th>
<th>Here</th>
<th>His</th>
<th>friends</th>
<th>brothers</th>
<th>sister</th>
<th>met</th>
<th>them</th>
<th>her</th>
<th>at the</th>
<th>airport</th>
<th>docks</th>
<th>Bus station</th>
<th>railway</th>
<th>station</th>
<th>and</th>
<th>took</th>
<th>her</th>
<th>him</th>
<th>them</th>
<th>to</th>
<th>the</th>
<th>his</th>
<th>a</th>
<th>their</th>
<th>her</th>
<th>house.</th>
<th>factory.</th>
<th>hotel</th>
<th>office</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
5.8 Cloze Test

It is a kind of test and also an exercise in correct writing. Take any paragraph and delete every seventh or eighth word which may be a verb, noun, article, etc. Substitution may not be very easy and will depend on comprehending the sense of the passage. For example take the following paragraph:

A cloze test is a simple ______ to produce. You merely take a ______ any paragraph, and ______ start counting words _______ seventh word should be removed and ______ technique required the testee to replace _______ original words or provide acceptable equivalents _______ is no magic number and you may strike out every _______ sixth or ninth word as _______ see fit, remembering that the smaller the number, the harder the test. The _______ of course, must establish the identity _______ the necessary word by a variety _______ contextual clues. Usually placement indicates whether _______ missing word is a noun, verb, _______ adverb, preposition, or article, and the _______ agreement will show whether it’s singular _______ plural. A word is deemed correct _______ it makes sense even if it _______ not a synonym for the missing.

Missing words: test, age, every, this, the, mine, seventh, you, testee, of, of, the, adjective, or, it, is, word.

5.9 Sentence adoption

This may include such exercises as expanding the sentences to include new information, rearranging or contracting them, taking up jumbled sentences, changing into active/passive voice or into direct/indirect narration. Similarly sentences may be recombind effecting some changes in the vocabulary.
(a) We went very late to school (add the reaction for being late).

(b) He was happy to know because ……………………

(c) Now he was a rich man. Even his enemies were at the airport. He was a poor man so he wanted to try his luck elsewhere. He was received by all the mohallah people. He was returning from Dubai (re-arrange).

Correct order would be:

1. He was poor so he wanted to try his luck elsewhere.
2. But now he was a rich man.
3. He was returning from Dubai.
4. He was received by all the Mohallah people.
5. Even his enemies were at the airport.

5.10 Guided-Writing

The next step, which is an extension of the previous stage, would be giving the student freedom of selecting words and also effecting changes in the structural pattern more than in the previous stage. Various types of exercises can be taken up. Some of these are mentioned below:

(a) Ouesto–Comp: A number of questions are so framed that answer to these (if correct and properly worded) would make a readable paragraph. For example:

i. When does Ahmad get up in the morning?

ii. Does he take bath?

iii. What else does he do before going to the school?
iv. When does he start from home?

v. How far is the school from his home?

vi. How much time does it take to reach there?

vii. Does he reach the school before the school bell goes?

By answering the given questions, the following paragraph will be composed:

Ahmad gets up at 6 O’ clock in the morning. He takes a bath. Then he takes his break–fast and gets ready for the school. He starts for his school at 7 O’ clock A.M. The school is at a distance of two miles from his home. It takes about 40 minutes to reach the school. So he reaches there before the school bell goes.

(b) Picto–Com

Another form of paragraph writing, but requiring slightly more on the part of the student, is picto-comp. Here instead of questions, a picture is presented after studying which the student is required to answer a number of questions, which may require knowledge of vocabulary beyond that contained in the questions e.g. the question may be “what is the boy, sitting on the bank of the stream, doing?” The answer might be, “He is holding a fishing rod in his hand and hopes to catch fish from the stream.” Now while the word’ stream’ has been given, the expectation is that the student knows what a fishing rod or a fishing tackle is. The answers to all the questions will result in composing a paragraph. So it will be a useful exercise. Let us take up an exercise.
The Homecoming:

The Logan family was waiting for Susan at the airport. She finally arrived at 7:00 P.M. and was greeted with effectionate hugs and kisses. Susan hugged her sister, Amy, while her brother Larry smiled happily. Her uncle Stephen stood in the doorway with a wide grin on his face. With pleased expressions on their faces, Susan’s mother and her sister, Lucky, stood by watching her hugging Amy. Her young cousin Alfred peered curiously from his position in front of Larry, wondering what all the excitement was about. It was truly a happy occasion.

Exercise–I

Copy the sentences above and change the verbs into present tense.

Exercise–II

Describe Larry.

5.11 Exercise–III

Which of the following expressions might be heard during this scene at the airport:

(a) It’s good to be home.
(b) Where have you been?
(c) Did you enjoy the train ride?
(d) How wonderful to see you?
(e) We certainly missed you.
(f) When are you leaving?
(g) Welcome home It’s been a long time.
(h) How are you?
Do you want anything?

How long is it?

5.12 Summary

The following points about writing skill deserve special attention:

(a) Students should be inducted into this skill in a systematic manner by making them pass through five stages of copying, reproduction, controlled writing, guided writing and free composition.

(b) Copying teaches spelling, introduces to sentence structure and to punctuation.

(c) Reproduction is writing out what has been learnt or memorized. Dictation and spot dictation are included in it.

(d) Controlled writing would require students familiarly with sentence construction. Some of the forms would be sentence combination, re-arrangement, filling in blanks, writing strip stories, substitutions, cloze procedure and sentence adoption.

(e) Guided writing involves some original composition and may be in the form of questo-comp, picto-comp, telegrams, precis writing etc.

(f) Free composition: even at this stage the students may first be given a model and then compose freely.

Exercise

1. Develop into a paragraph: Regularity in taking exercise is essential for young men .........
2. you would like to stop your friend from smoking. Write a letter to him giving arguments for not smoking.

3. write the first paragraph of an essay on: “Be it ever so humble, there is no place like home”.

6. COMPOSITION CORRECTIONS

Errors and Syntactic Growth

Most errors (that is, those that are not repeated and are not the result of unfocused attention) are signs of syntactic and linguistic growth. Writers do not intentionally create constructions that are incorrect. Rather, they are aiming at correctness but have not yet learned the correct way of communicating the concept they have in mind.

Most errors in a given piece of writing are repeated errors. The error is repeated because the writer hasn’t mastered the appropriate skill or technique. If the repeated error is identified and then explained to the writer, the writer should be able to eliminate the error entirely from his or her style of writing.

One important factor impinging upon the standard of English is absence or correction of written work. The teacher shuns composition work and the student, too, either has no composition work assigned or it goes uncorrected as the teacher professes the excuse of large classes. Uncorrected mistakes perpetuate and consolidate students habits, which are very difficult to eradicate at a later stage.

6.1 In any scheme suggested for correction work the actual situation existing in the field has to be taken into consideration. It is customary to accuse the teacher of neglect but the situation, he is placed in, is that he is surrounded by hundreds of students, resulting in enormous correction work involved, visualizing which he takes to the easy path of assigning no
written work and therefore no correction work. But this is tantamount to professional dishonesty and hence the teacher instead of closing his eyes to the situation, must tackle the problem by devising proper methods as would be required in the prevailing situation.

6.2 One of the solution is that instead of thumbing through hundreds of pages, the teacher may give short assignments of guided and controlled composition. These will be easy to mark and will neither be time consuming not involve labourious correction process. Moreover besides individual correction mass correction method could also be employed i.e. the teacher may announce the correct word in the class (say in a fill-in-the blank type of exercise) and the students on the basis of this may be asked to evaluate their answers and correct the wrong responses. Self-correction and peer correction (as will be explained later) are also possible and these will help in lightening the burden of the teacher.

6.3 Before proceeding further with the question of correction work, let us first study why and how errors arise. Errors usually considered synonymous with mistakes, result from lack of knowledge, say of rules of grammar, while mistakes stem from carelessness e.g. a student may carelessly leave out “not” in such a sentence, “He is – an ungrateful person though he seems to have forgotten what you did for him”. A little omission will completely change the sense but if the, student is in the habit of going over his written work he himself will be able to correct such a mistake. The same sentence could have been written by the student in this way.” He is not an ungrateful person though he seems to have forgot which you did for him”. This is an error committed due to non familiarity with the rules. These two sentences illustrate the difference between the mistakes and errors – the former unintentional and the later resulting from ignorance. Mistakes arise from slips and omissions but errors arise because of:
(a) Interlingual interference i.e interference of mother tongue of LI (language I). Sometimes students copy Urdu (LI) construction of sentence, such as. “He will go to Lahore and will bring a new cycle. “Will” in both the clauses is the usual construction in Urdu but is not permissible in English. Similarly English idiom may be entirely different from the Urdu idiom and hence literal ‘translation will be incorrect e.g. Urdu idiom”. “but in English idiom there is no reference to the snake. It is “To lock the stable door after the mare has been stolen;.. What an apparent different difference between the two! But this is how it stands.

(b) Intralingual interference i.e. resulting from the learners imperfect mastery of the rules and conventions of English and this is the usual error as the students neglect the rules, say of past tense, to be followed by the past tense etc.

(c) Spelling mistakes are very often committed as the students do not look up the spellings of those words they are in doubt about in the dictionary.

7. CORRECTION METHODS

7.1 Self-correction: The students should be trained to study critically their own compositions. Such a process will help in not only dotting the “I’s” and crossing “T’s” (i.e. finding out mistakes due to carelessness), but the students on critical examination may be able to spot out some other errors also say of spelling or tense and be able to correct them.

7.2 Mass correction: The teacher can anticipate certain common errors that the students are likely to commit for a particular type of composition, say of précis or story writing and
may take these up with whole class. Such a discussion will provide guidance and minimize students’ mistakes.

Discussion can also take place after the composition has been written and this may help students to find out their errors and so correct them before submitting their compositions to the teacher thus making his task lighter.

7.3 Peer correction: the errors are sometimes so deeply ingrained that these may not be detected by the student himself, but a friend might be able to point these out. So let a friend read through the script and underline what he considers to be wrong and in case of any doubt regarding the errors pointed out, these can be referred to the teacher. However, this will simplify the task of the teacher.

7.4 In case of such exercises as filling in the blanks or selecting one correct word out of the 2/3 given (multiple choice), the teacher needs not read the exercise books.

He may simply announce the correct answer and ask the students to evaluate their work and let the teacher know about it.

7.5 The last method would, of course, be correction by the teacher, but even here some simplification is possible.

The teacher instead of correcting all the errors with red ink too much appearance of which is demoralizing for the students, may follow a system of symbols, some of which are given below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Symbol</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sp</td>
<td>for spelling</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T</td>
<td>Tense</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P</td>
<td>Punctuation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prep</td>
<td>Preposition</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Example

P  Tokyo  Where those who lost their home towns.

SP  Live is more **terrible** than strange. The people **led** their lives as if they were sea weed which has lost its roots.

W  They have no place to go back. They are only hungry but also homeless.

A  They are **the** brave people

Such a procedure will not only reduce the teacher’s work but will also make the student think about his errors and so avoid them in future.

7.6 Summary

(a) Correction could be in the form of:
    Self correction, peer correction, mass correction.

(b) Self correction would require the student to critically examine his composition.

(c) Mass correction would require general discussion of common mistakes.
(d) Peer correction would involve soliciting help of class fellows.
(e) In the teacher correction the method of symbols may be followed.

8. LETTER WRITING

The letter writing is a hobby, it is an interesting pastime, it also is a necessity. Letters bring people closer to each other. They help in clarification of misunderstanding and are expression of strongly felt sentiments. They are also necessitated because of business matters, official concern or for submission of request.

Letter usually are of four types:

(a) Friendly, personal or private letters.
(b) Official letters.
(c) Business letters.
(d) Social letters.

8.1 Personal/Private Letters

Letters addressed to friends and relatives fall into this category. These usually have five parts:

Heading: The heading is written in the upper right-hand corner of a friendly letter. It includes your address and the date. Although you should always include the date in your heading, you may omit your address if you prefer.

Salutation: This is sometimes called the Greeting. It begins with the word Dear, followed by the name of the person who will receive the letter. The salutation in a friendly letter is followed by a comma. (,) Skip, two lines after the heading and then write the salutation (or greeting at the left-hand margin of your paper). Salutation in a business letter is followed by a colon (:)

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Body: The body is the main part of your letter. This is the place where you will share information and ideas with the person to whom you are writing. Think about the person you are writing. What interesting, fun, and exciting experiences have you had, recently. Which would they enjoy hearing about? Be sure to start your letter with a sentence that really makes your friend interested in seeing what the rest of your letter has to say. Remember to answer any questions you may have been asked when your friend last wrote to you; and show a genuine interest in them, by asking one or two question about what is happening in their life.

Remember to start a new paragraph each time you begin to write about a new idea or subject. Indent the first line of each new paragraph unless you are using block format. Leave a one line space between paragraphs. Proofread your letter and make any corrections or changes you need and then you are ready for the closing.

Closing: Skip two lines after the body of your letter, and in the meddle of your paper, begin writing your closing. It will be written in two lines. In the first line, choose a phrase like: Your friend, or Sincerely or Lover,. Be sure to capitalize the first word. On the next line, and again, starting in the middle, add your signature. In most cases, the person you are writing will known you well, so you will only write your first name.

For example:
My dear Asad,

Thanks you for your nice letter of the 4th March, 2006. I was really glad to learn that you have been awarded a scholarship for pursuing higher studies in the states. This is in recognition of your talent. May you acquit yourself as creditably in the foreign university as you have done here.

I Insha Allah! Will meet you at the airport on the 18th March, when you take off of Michigan.

Closing
Or
Subscription

Yours affectionately,

(Muhammad Imran)

Business letter Introduction

Business letters have five main sections. These sections are called:

- **Heading**: The heading is written in the upper right-hand corner of a business letter, unless you choose the Block-format, in which case, each section lines up against the left margin, it includes your address and the date.

- **Inside address**: The inside address is written against the left margin, and includes the name of the business, their street address, and their city, state and zip code. Do
not skip any lines between the heading and the inside address, unless you are using the Block-format. Skip two lines after the heading and then write the salutation (or greeting) at the left-hand margin of your paper.

- **Salutation:** This is sometimes called the greeting. It begins with the word Dear, followed by the name of the person who will receive the letter, or if you do not know the name you may use Sir or Madam. The salutation in a business letter is followed by a colon(:)

- **Body:** The body is the main part of your letter. This is the place where you will share information and ideas with the person to whom you are writing. Think about the person you are writing. What interesting fun and exciting experiences have you had, recently which would they enjoy hearing about? Be sure to start your letter with a sentence that really makes your friend interested in seeing what the rest of your letter has to say. Remember to answer any question you may have been asked when your friend last wrote to you, and show a genuine interest in them, by asking one or two questions about what is happening in their life.

Remember to start a new paragraph each time you begin to write about a new idea or subject. Each paragraph should be indented, unless you are using the Block-format. In the Block-format your paragraphs will not be indented, but will be against the left margin. Leave one line space between paragraphs. Proofread your letter and make any corrections or changes you need and then you are ready for the

- **Closing:** Skip two lines after the body of your letter, and in the middle of your paper, begin writing your closing. It will be written in two lines. In the first line, choose a phrase like your friend, or sincerely, or love. Be sure to
Sample Business Letter

707N. 6th street
seward, NE 68434
January 15, 2006

Mr. Donald Brighton
Fulbright College, Dean of students
1962 N. Chase Ave.
Suite 17
Canton, NJ 77234

Dear Mr. Brighton:

I am writing to request an information packet about enrolling at Fulbright College. I will be graduating in May of 2006. Fulbright is one of the colleges my family and I are interested in learning more about.

When visiting your website, I noticed that a complete student enrollment and information packet is available. I am specifically interested in courses that pertain to education majors, on-campus dormitory living, and costs. Thank you for any information you can send, that might help my family and myself learn more about your fine school.

Sincerely,

(Leave 4 spaces here, for your personal signature.)

Shahid Khan

Applications are also official letters. The designation of the officer addressed is written in the middle of the page. It is followed by “sir”. The closing sentence may be:
“Hoping that my request will elicit favorable response” or ‘I hope that my request will be sympathetically considered’. The subscription, as in official letter is “yours obediently”. (it may be noted that in all these cases there is no apostrophe on yours)

8.5 To sum up salutation for different forms of letters are as under

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Persons addressed</th>
<th>salutation</th>
<th>Subscriptions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Relatives:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| a) Older          | My dear father  
                    My dear brother | Your affectionately, |
| b) younger Friend | My dear Jehangir  
                    My dear Salem  
                    My dear Tariq | Brother, nephew, son  
                      Yours sincerely,  
                      Yours truly, |
| c) Acquaintances  | My dear Mr. Arif | Yours truly, |
| d) Strangers      | Dear sir  
                    Dear Arshad | Yours truly, |
| e) Business letters | Dear sir  
                        Dear sirs | Yours Faithfully  
                          Yours truly, |
| f) Letters to public servants | Sir | Yours faithfully, |
| g) Application | Sir | Yours Respectfully, |
| h) Editors etc. | Sir | Yours truly, yours etc, |
9. STORY WRITING

The most fascinating piece of literature, which captivates even a little child and continues to exercise its charm over the young is the story. The students may be asked to write stories on some given theme or topic e.g. “Union is Strength”. There are some popular stories which have been repeated time and again e.g. “The Greedy Dog”, “The Thirsty Crow”, etc. The students are familiar with these and may have simply reproduced these in their own words. Here the student is not required to do any great mental exercise. The story is already known to him. All he has to do is put it down in his own words.

9.1 In the next stage of story writing an outline of the story may be provided and the student is required to develop it into a story, e.g:

A man out of job knocks at many doors — hungry and penniless — intends to commit suicide — on way to the river — notices flames in house — rings up the fire brigade — the fire is put out — gets the job.

Here the students has first to do a little mental exercise i.e. make a plot of the story and then start writing out the story.

9.2 Yet another form of the story writing might be that the student is given a topic and is asked to make a story. The topic might be: “The midnight adventure”. In such a case he will do well to write outline of the story after forming a clear idea of the plot and of the main characters. The following steps may be followed:

a) Prepare an outline of the story with a clear idea of the plot and of the main characters round whom it is to be spun.

b) Avoid bringing in unnecessary details.

c) Follow the order as fixed in the outline.
d) Connect the points in a smooth and natural way so that the end product is a readable story.

e) Make the beginning and the end striking and interesting. An element of surprise in the end may enhance the interest.

10. PARAGRAPH WRITING

Paragraph is a short piece of composition, complete in itself but containing one idea only. It usually extends to about fifteen/twenty lines. This is a first step to writing an essay, which contains a number of paragraphs and therefore all the possible ideas that the student may think of.

10.1 The language of the paragraph should be simple and clear. The sentences, should be simple and short instead of being complex and complicated. Being a short composition it cannot afford to contain long illustrations or long elaborations of views and ideas. Proper beginning, suitable ending, as in the case of essay, is essential. Cohesion i.e. joining sentences together to form, grammatical units and coherence i.e. organizing sentences to form “such units” are essentially required. Unnecessary details and irrelevant stuff should not be packed into it. The main idea should be developed logically and should conclude properly, not giving an impression of putting the stop abruptly. In fact, proper beginning, logical development of the idea, without unnecessary details, and a suitable ending, are the characteristics of good paragraph.

10.2 Exercise: Dictate a paragraph sentence by sentence. After one sentence ask the students what they think the next sentence might contain. Then decide it.
11. ESSAY WRITING

11.1 Essay literally means an attempt. In the usual sense it is an attempt at collection and arrangement of material and expression of ideas about any particular topic in an orderly and logical manner. In fact it is an extension of paragraph writing but is a more elaborate exercise and longer. It, according to Dr. Johnson, is a loose sally of the mind, but this definition applies more to an essay by a literary scholar than to that of a student, who is required to tackle it in a more systematic manner for which the following steps are suggested:

a) Collect (think about) sufficient material about topic.
b) Apply the process of shifting and sorting. Retain the most relevant, important and interesting points, and putting the points in a logical order.
c) Think out a good beginning so that the essay can be made interesting.
d) Develop the ideas into paragraphs, each containing one idea.
e) The concluding paragraph should either sum up the whole matter or end the essay in an interesting manner.

11.2 Essay usually falls into three categories:

a) Descriptive essays: Wherein description of some place, person, action etc. is given e.g. “Life in a Village”, “A Pakistani Fair, giving all the details that he can think of.
b) Narrative essays: This means narrating or telling, say about an incident, happening etc. e.g. “A Picnic”, “A House on Fire”. These too are not difficult to write as these do not require a lot of
thinking. The narration should be made as interesting as possible.

c) Reflective essay: These consist of reflections (thinking) on social, political and domestic affairs e.g. “The Dowry System”, “Drug Trafficking”. These are not so easy to write and cannot be taken up at the school stage.

12. SUMMARY

The written work though extremely important in a system where evaluation hinges on it suffers from neglect, for which both the teachers and students are responsible. The former having little related training, being deficient in basic knowledge and overawed by larger classes, making correction work too stupendous a task to be tackled. The student allergic to writing shuns it specially when the overworked teacher, does not make it obligatory for him. On the other hand poor teaching of grammatical rules in the earlier classes, little correction by the teachers, and so the situation goes from bad to worse.

Improvement of written work requires systematically handling the problem, the aim being producing a good piece of writing, which should have the qualities of accuracy, brevity and clarity, correct grammatical structures, proper choice of words – which are apt and appropriate, avoidance of redundancy, correctness of idiom, logical sequencing of thoughts, are some of the characteristics of good piece of writing.

Initiation of students to the basic rules of grammar in the earlier classes, will help in minimizing the mistakes which in the absence of such an instruction, they are likely to commit. Awareness about the usage of definite and indefinite article and command over the use of tenses will lead to correctness of writing. Avoiding literal translation and Urdu pattern of sentences is essential. Rendering of active voice into passive
voice and direct narration into indirect narration needs practice and mastery of the relevant rules.

**Writing Skills:**

Writing is a purposeful selection of experiences in a accurate, idiomatic and graceful manner, it can be learnt by subjecting the students to go through five stages beginning with copying, which through apparently unchallenging and mechanical way to teach preliminary rules of punctuation. Reproduction, which is the next stage is less mechanical requiring the student to write from memory. This implies testing spelling and punctuation rules etc.

Controlled writing done through multifarious exercises including sentence combinations, filling in the blanks, rearranging jumbled sentences, cloze tests, strip story and sentence adaptation, will make the student manipulate grammatical structures within a fixed frame work.

Guided writing, also operative within a framework gradually becoming less loose, may prescribe such exercises as quest-com., picto-com, developing a topic sentence into a paragraph. In these some guidance is provided but the students originality is also required to be exercised. This will lead on to the final stage of free composition where the student is completely on his own and finally plunges into the limitless sea of free expression.

Errors committed because of lack of knowledge and inadequate practice usually arise from interlingual and intralingual interference, i.e. mother tongue influence on the sentence pattern or imperfect mastery of rules adversely affect the writing. therefore, for ensuring error free writing guidance in the form of correction of composition is essential. Systematically proceeding from simple exercise, requiring generalized or mass correction, as possible in reproduction and controlled writing
stages, will lighten the teacher’s work and also provide guidance at an early stage, eliminating the possibility of perpetuation the mistakes.

**Correction:**

Various methods for correction work could be employed e.g. self correction, wherein student by going over his own composition may spot out some omissions or errors. Mass correction could be done by the teacher by discussing common. Mistakes could also be identified on scrutinising by the class fellows making peer correction possible. And finally corrections have to be done by the teachers, who to lighten their work and also to make the students concentrate on their mistakes, may, instead of spending a long time on correction of all the mistakes, follow a system of symbols and thus point these out to the students, who may then correct them.

**Letter writing:**

Letters may be friendly, private, official, business or social, Private letters being with the address of the writer, while the official and business letters may mention the designation of the person addressed. The salutation in the case of private letters may be ‘My dear–’which in business and official letters may be ‘Dear sir’ or ‘Sir’. The main body of the letter in case of all categories will contain the main message/ideas to be communicated to the addressee. The style of writing is friendly in case of private letters while in the case of applications and official letters it is formal and respectful. Business letters have to be coached in courteous language. The third part of the letter i.e. the subscription varies in all the categories. In private letters it is ‘yours affectionately’ or ‘yours sincerely’ while in business letters it will be ‘yours truly’ or ‘yours faithfully’. Official letters usually end with ‘your obediently’.
Story:

The most fascinating piece of literature, relished alike by the children and the grown up, is the story. Therefore, asking the students to write stories will be enjoyable experience for them. Beginning with well known stories we may proceed to stories with outlines and then to stories with no outlines but to be written on particular themes. In such a case after mentally making out the plot and fitting a few characters in it, an outline may be drawn and the main points may be pointed smoothly, making the beginning and the ending as striking as possible.

Paragraph:

It is a well knit short piece of composition usually containing one idea. With proper beginning, logical development of the idea (without unnecessary details) and a suitable ending, a good paragraph may be written.

Essay writing:

Defined as a loose sally of mind by Dr. Johnson, it, is in fact, an orderly composition in which the idea is developed in logical sequence and is spread over properly organized paragraphs, the concluding paragraph usually summing up the whole. Essays are descriptive, narrative and reflective – the first two containing description or narrating an incident etc. while the final category consists of profound ideas collected about topic after proper deliberation. Orderly arrangement of ideas, putting these in a clear form and bringing the topic to a logical close, will be required for a good essay.

The final word for teacher trainees is that they should be fully conversant with the grammatical rules, be prepared to provide guidance to the students, willingly and readily take up correction work, follow a systematic plan for teaching written work by proceeding from the easy to the difficult, devote proper time for composition and do it in all seriousness. Then surely writing skill of the students will improve and will not suffer from the neglect that is in evidence today.
SELF-ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS—II

Tick the following as true or false.

(A)

1. The main cause of deterioration in English is that the students do not write. T. F
2. The problems in written work arising due to overcrowded classes. T. F
3. Interalingual interference is the interference due to mother tongue. T. F
4. Subscription means how to address the addressee. T. F.

(B) Answer the following

1) Composition in Pakistan is neglected field because:
   (a)
   (b)
   (c)

2. If there is past tense in the principal cause, there should be ...... tense in the subordinate clause.

3. The hostilities between the two countries seized after the intervention of the U.N (correct the wrong word).

4. Complete the idioms:
   a) To harp on the same ............
   b) To ............... to one’s heels.
   c) To ............... on one’s own legs.
   d) To cut the ............... 

5. the ABC of a writing is:
   A. .....................
   B. .....................
   C. .....................
6. A book you gave me, has been lost. (correct it)
7. If you .................. to Lahore you will meet Rahim. (fill in the blank).
8. Writing is not simply .................... symbolization of sound but something more than this. (fill in the blank)
9. Good writing is ...................... idiomatic and graceful.
10. Notation is noting down the spelling of the word.
11. Transcription means:
   a) Translating.
   b) Describing.
   c) Copying.
12. Calligraphy concern:
   a) Geography.
   b) Handwriting.
   c) Concise writing.
   d) Picture composition
13. Reproduction is
   a) Just copying.
   b) Original writing
   c) Rewriting memorised passage.
   d) Producing good literature.
14. In spot dictation the teacher reads out complete sentence but ..................
15. Controlled writing is the stage of writing:
   a) first.
   b) Second.
   c) Third.

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16. Strip story is a part of longer story. T. F.
17. Substitution are the last words with which a letter ends. F.
18. For cloze test take a paragraph and delete every .......... word. T.
19. In a questo-comp a number of pictures are so arranged that a readable paragraph can be written. (T/F) F.
20. You wan to sell your car; prepare a three-line advertisement giving all the necessary information. T.
21. Properly comprehending the passage and putting ............. all the main considerations for writing a good précis. T.
22. Topic sentence is the key sentence in a paragraph. T. F.
23. Errors and mistakes are synonymous. T. F.
24. Interlingual interference results from ............. T.
25. Peer correction means the best correction. T. F.
26. Used for correction of writing:
   a) Sp ___
   b) pl ----
   c) // ___
   d) T ___
27. There are four kinds of letters:
   a) Private T.
   b) Official F.
   c) Business F.
   d) ..................?
28. Official letters should begin with Sir’, and end with ............. F.
29. Dr. Johnson said that an essay is ............ of the ............
30. Essays usually fall into the three categories:
   a) 
   b) 
   c) 

14. **Answer to Self-Assessment Questions**

4.11. **Answers to Self-Assessment Questions - I**

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<td>An</td>
<td>2.</td>
<td>An</td>
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<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>a</td>
<td>4.</td>
<td>an, the</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>the, no preposition in the second blank.</td>
<td>6.</td>
<td>1st and 3rd blanks, no preposition; 2nd blank the</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.</td>
<td>Considered (past tense to be followed by past tense).</td>
<td>8.</td>
<td>Is, an;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9.</td>
<td>were (two persons) were injured;</td>
<td>10.</td>
<td>Am</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11.</td>
<td>is (reference) is to one person;</td>
<td>12.</td>
<td>Works</td>
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<td>13.</td>
<td>Was</td>
<td>14.</td>
<td>Has</td>
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<td>Was</td>
<td>16.</td>
<td>Have</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17.</td>
<td>Was</td>
<td>18.</td>
<td>that was</td>
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<tr>
<td>19.</td>
<td>is</td>
<td>20.</td>
<td>may</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21.</td>
<td>requested</td>
<td>22.</td>
<td>The holy man prayed that God might bless him (the addressee).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23.</td>
<td>He asked why I was angry with him.</td>
<td>24.</td>
<td>got, fell, broke</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25.</td>
<td>were</td>
<td></td>
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Self Assessment Question — II

A. Correction work.
   1. F
   2. F
   3. F
   4. F

B. (1) (a) Teacher’s incompetence.
   (b) Overcrowded classes
   (c) Student’s allergy to written work.

2. Past
3. Ceased
4. (a) String
   (b) Take
   (c) Stand
   (d) Gordian
5. (a) Accuracy
   (b) Brevity
   (c) Clarity
6. The book
7. Go
8. Orthographic
9. Accurate
10. F
11. C
12. B
13. C
14. Repeats a word or a few words
15. Third
16. F
17. F
18. Seventh
20. The ideas consisely
21. T
22. F
23. Learners imperfect mastery of rules
24. F
25. Sp – spelling
   pl – plural
   // – New paragraph
   T – Tense
26. D – Social
27. F
28. Yours obediently
29. (a) Loose sally, mind.
30. (a) Descriptive
    (b) Narrative
    (c) Reflective
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PREPARATION AND USE OF INSTRUCTIONAL MATERIAL

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INTRODUCTION

Teaching is both an art and a science. Being an art it requires skillfulness on the part of the teacher. He should be able to innovate techniques which are interesting enough to attract the attention of the students for sometime. The students get usually tired of the monotony of the classroom activities, and consequently they do not take interest in the classwork.

This unit has specially been written to help the teacher devise new methods and techniques for attracting students attention. Many useful as well as innovative ways of using different audio-visual material have also been given in detail.

OBJECTIVES

After going through this unit, you are expected to be able:

- To make the lessons interesting.
- To use black board, bulletin board, flash cards etc with better understanding.
- To create life in classroom activities by using different audio-visual material.
- To prepare some low-cost audio-visual material with the help of students.
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1. PREPARATION AND USE OF INSTRUCTIONAL AIDS

1.1 Instructional aids may be defined as all the illustrative material which is used during the teaching-learning process. It may include visual aids such as pictures, drawings and real objects, audio aids such as radio, tape-recorder, a linguaphone, etc. Another term for instructional aids is audio-visual aids which though more commonly used, is old-fashioned.

Instructional aids are employed to take the place of first-hand experience which cannot be provided in the classroom due to many reasons.

1.2 Historical Background

Comenious was the first educator who introduced and advocated the use of visual aids in teaching during sixteenth century. He was the exponent of “sense realism” which means, when all the senses are engaged in learning, learning becomes more clear and long-lasting. Comenious made rich contribution to educational theory. Many of his principles and practices are in common use even to day. In his book “Great Didactic” published in 1632, he recommends attractive classrooms, maximum sense-appeal and illustrated textbooks. His principles of ‘sense-appeal’ and good textbooks led to the production of textbooks with pictures and diagrams. He introduced and recommended use of pictures, charts and models in teaching which is quite a significant contribution.

In his famous book “Orbic Pictus” he presented ideas which are still effective in teaching of foreign languages. “Orbic Pictus” was the first illustrated book. Its subject is the teaching of Latin to foreign learners. The pictures given in this book are not only interesting but they also employed three other important principles for effective language learning: (a) The foreign language should be taught as a living language. (b) The
vocabulary should consist of every-day words and expressions to make the child acquainted with natural phenomena, daily life and occupations. (c) The text in the foreign language and its translation in the vernacular were placed side by side.

This old-age method has only recently come into vogue again.

In his book “Janva Linguarum Resarvata” “The Gate of Language Unlocked”, Comenious outlined the ideas and theories about teaching a foreign language. The important key principle of his procedures is that of environmental vocabulary, which means the learner must see the objects, persons, and activities immediately around him. He laid emphasis on the visual experiences. His theories pertaining to the teaching of foreign languages were rediscovered by the exponents of the direct method, nearly three hundred years after his death and were put into practice.

Some of his ideas that apply to audio-visual techniques are the following:

1. Education should be adapted to the age and capacity of the child.
2. A graded series of textbooks and illustrative material are absolute essentials for effective teaching.
3. Fatigue should be avoided.
4. Class instruction is preferable to individual teaching.
5. All subjects should be illustrated pictorially, if possible.
6. Actual objects and things should be studied first.
7. Examples should come before rule.
8. The minds of the pupils should be prepared for new subject matter.

9. A pleasant atmosphere should prevail in the classroom.

1.3 Audio-visual Aids and Learnings:

The use of instructional materials increased the effectiveness of learning because they help the students to understand the ideas more clearly and easier to assimilate them. They make learning meaningful and interesting. Through the appeal to eye and ear, they provide a systematic improvement of knowledge and skills, as well as exert favourable influence on attitudes and appreciations. These objectives can only be best achieved if the most appropriate materials for given learning situation are selected and the students are prepared in advance.

The foreign language learning in a classroom situation is very much different from learning the same language in a natural environment. In a classroom situation, a host of factors in language learning process are absent. We are forced to do without a good deal of stimuli which operate in the natural conditions. Therefore, any audio-visual aid is a substitute for a real experience. Although nothing can replace the first-hand experience of real objects and situations, the use of instructional materials is an attempt to reduce the gap between the verbalism of the classroom and the real life situations.

The effective learning is dependent upon accurate concept formation. Sensory experiences serve as the basis of all understandings which the learners acquire in classroom situations. First-hand sensory experiences form the sound foundation for all learning. In a foreign language learning process where the first-hand experiences of many objects and
situations are not available, the audio-visual materials are a contrivance to replace them.

Unless the learner can associate the spoken or written word with some past or present perceptual experience, the resulting concept will, probably be vague, meaningless and transient. When the instructional material is presented in a manner which enables the learner to associate it with something already in his experience, more rapid acquisition and longer retention in learning can be hoped.

The visual sense is very effective and plays an important role in the learning process. It provides the child with most of his sensory experiences. "Some psychologists estimate that at least 90 percent of one’s impressions are derived through the eye. Meanings gained through other senses also are often thought of in visual terms"\(^1\).

The excessive reliance on verbal explanations in foreign language teaching results in a superficial learning of a multitude of vague and meaningless facts. This is a narrow concept of teaching which is ineffective and short lived.

The general objective of audio-visual teaching aids is to make learning more meaningful. All learning constitutes building fresh, vital and accurate concepts. The teacher should try to involve as many sense areas of the child as possible. He should bring him into complete involvement in the learning process so that several of his senses are brought to ear on the problem.

1.4 **The specific objectives of audio-visual materials**

1. Focussing pupil interest and attention: the oral presentation of a lesson is not sufficient because pupils have different backgrounds as a result of which new learning fails to form clear concepts common to all. The use of a picture, a drawing or a sketch will not only assist in focussing attention or

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\(^1\) A Synthesis of Teaching Methods. P. 284.
the subject but will stimulate the learner for further reading, discussion and research as it may bring new aspects of the object or the situation under focus. Hence the use of audio-visual aids helps building up cohesive concepts and stimulates for their interest.

2. Relating abstractions to concreteness: The learner’s imagination is not developed enough to make correct mental pictures of the concepts which he has been learning about. He cannot imagine things clearly. Through verbal explanation he may form blurred vague and sometimes faulty mental images. Therefore, it is necessary for the teacher to relate the general concept to actual reality. This is possible through some kind of visual material. For example, the concept of an English home will be very vague in the mind of a Pakistani child. If a picture of an English home and an English family is shown, the concept would become very clear.

Where word explanations are often inadequate or time-consuming, a model, a picture or a sketch would make the concept clear and quickly understandable. Therefore, teachers must make every effort to relate learning to real-life situations and to show the pupil that all learning is related to the whole experience of living. This objectives can be best achieved by bringing the instructional materials into the classrooms.

3. The use of audio-visual materials in teaching makes the oral presentation glow with new meanings and more universal understanding. Modern scientific advancement has placed a multitude of gadgets at the disposal of the teachers. These devices can be used as vehicles and methods of teaching. A good teacher who has the sense of his responsibility, must always ask himself the question: “How can I make my teaching more meaningful, interesting and enjoy so that its results are long-lasting.”
1.5 **Summary**

Audio-visual aids are a substitute for first-hand and actual experience. With their help, the teacher tries to create an environment in the classroom which is close to real-life situations. As the audio-visual aids enliven the learning atmosphere, they can accomplish most effectively, the objectives of foreign language learning.

The proper use of audio-visual aids:

1. Reduces the danger of verbalism.
2. Increases better understanding and helps in building up clearer and richer concepts.
3. Arouses further interest among the learners.
4. Helps to focus attention on the lesson and stimulates the learners thinking.
5. Encourages pupil participation.
6. Provides for thinking and planning.
7. Trains the learner in efficient work and study habits.
8. Inculcates favourable attitudes and appreciation of beauty.
9. Brings about variety in the lessons which may otherwise turn into dull and dry activity and become ineffective.

1.6 **ACTIVITIES**

Prepare a list of objects which can be used as instructional aids for teaching of English to class nine.
1.7 **Self-Assessment Questions:-1**

I. Tick (✓) True and False

1. The other name of Instructional aids is aural-oral aids
   True False

2. Instructional aids were first introduced by Comenious.
   True False

3. Learning becomes clear and long-lasting when all the senses are engaged in the process.
   True False

4. It is estimate that about 75 percent of one’s impressions are derived through the eye.
   True False

5. Audio-visual aids cannot be a substitute for first hand experiences.
   True False

II. Give brief history of the use of instructional aids in classroom.

III. What are the uses of instructional aids in Education?
2. THE BLACKBOARD

2.1 The blackboard is the most universal visual aid to all teachers. It is so common that it is taken for granted and most often over looked. But it is a visual aid of great importance. Generally the blackboard is used as a means of writing questions, new vocabulary and a few notes which the teacher wants the pupils to copy. It is only because most of the teachers work on the assumption that blackboard is a space for writing. In the early stages of teaching English, when the lessons are mainly oral, many teachers do not use the blackboard because they want to stick to oral practice. But the blackboard is there to be used in any way we can, writing is only one way. It is just as useful a space to draw on. Many points that a teacher wishes to make clear or wants to reinforce can be illustrated by simple drawings which can be done both by the teacher and the pupils. Let us take a few examples.

2.2 Vocabulary: Sometimes it is not possible to bring the real objects into the classroom e.g. a horse, a motorcar or an aeroplane. The object can be illustrated on the blackboard. It is a good practice for the pupils to draw on the blackboard, saying at the same time "This is a horse/cow/a motor car/an apple etc. "While one student is drawing an object, the teacher can ask questions: What is Ali drawing? What is this? The pupils can give answers as: This is a horse. That is the head, and this is the tail. It has four legs etc. For drill and practice in oral revision of vocabulary as well as for asking and answering questions, drawings on the blackboard provide a ready means and plenty of materials. For example the following simple drawings provide material for practice of such questions: What is this? What is that? What is Ali drawing? What are you doing Ali? How many chairs/trees/birds/people/houses etc are there?
The use of coloured chalks is a good method of teaching the names of colours. Draw a green line etc. Draw the sun, draw an apple, draw a bird. What colour is it? Is it red? Yes it is No, it isn’t. It is green. It is orange colour etc.

2.3 **Preposition:** Suppose you have already taught the meanings of certain prepositions such as in, on, under, through etc., You can reinforce your teaching by means of simple drawing on the blackboard like the following examples.

2.4 **Comparative forms of adjectives:** The meanings and the use of the degrees of adjectives can be taught most effectively through blackboard drawings. For example, by drawing lines that are longer and shorter, thicker and thinner, boxes, books, buckets, cups, that are bigger and smaller, roads, gates, windows wider and narrower. From among the drawings the pupils can point out which is the longest, the shortest, the fattest, the most expensive, the most comfortable, etc.
2.5 **Possessive:** Some pupils draw on the blackboard simple objects such as: a watch, a house, a motor car, a book, etc. These drawings give the opportunity for practicing such sentences. This is my watch. That is his house. Is this your car? Which is your book? Is that Ali’s chair? No, it is Ahmad’s That one is Ali’s etc.

2.6 **Tenses:** While teaching a difficult tense as the Present Perfect, for example, the meaning can be made clear with the help of drawings, such as these:

```
What has he done?
He has broken the bottle.
He has robbed the bank
```

Note: Some teachers may object to the use of drawings. They would say that they cannot draw, they have never tried their hand on drawings and if they draw the ridiculous result of their drawing will make the class burst into laughter that will spoil the lesson. But this is only a lame excuse.

A little private practice with pencil and paper is all that is needed. Once you have learnt this usefull skill you can draw many objects for oral practice and you can hold the attention
and interest of your pupils. They will take delight in copying you daring out of school hours. Here are some useful drawings for you to learn.

Watch children in various positions in order to get the arms and legs right:

Practise these useful items:

A box:

A tent:

A wheel:

A bird:

Another bird:
A line of boxes, or ‘houses’ or a ‘train’:

A book:

A line of men:

Birds:

2.7 **Other use of Blackboard:** The main use of blackboard is for the production of written or graphics materials that can be seen by the entire class. The blackboard has the following advantages over any other visual device:

1. It is always available.
2. It is visible to the whole class.
3. New material can be presented immediately with the help of the blackboard.
4. The written material can be erased and new material can be written.
5. There is nothing to go wrong with it. It is always in proper order only it has to be polished again when the paint has become thin.
6. It can be used both by the teacher and the pupils.
2.8 The teacher uses the blackboard for three main purposes:

1. Teaching  
2. Testing  
3. Assigning work

1. Some more activities that can be practised on the blackboard.

![Time lines representing past simple and past continuous](image1)

2. Diagram showing use of some prepositions of place

![Diagram showing use of some prepositions of place](image2)

3. The fact that writing on the board can quickly be removed or changed is a great asset when teaching grammar. By rubbing out part of a word or sentence, you can demonstrate how he is becomes he’s, that is becomes that’s and how complete words may be omitted (see figure-A)
Rubbing out letters and words (the x indicates parts to be erased)

4. Coloured chalks or pens can highlight significant aspects of grammar and may help students remember them, e.g. the use of *a* and *an*, sentence patterns etc. (figure B)

If your board is magnetic, you can demonstrate features of word order by moving the words on the board. However, if your board is not magnetic, it is possible to use the board ledge for this. Write the words on flashcards and they can be moved first by you and then by the students (see figures C & D)

Use of coloured chalks/pens (differences in type indicate different colours)
5. PRESENTING AND PRACTISING VOCABULARY

Explaining New Words

The most obvious use of the board in explaining new vocabulary is for quick sketches of object nouns, e.g. animals, flowers, vegetables etc. Your sketches should be simple, clear and unambiguous. Usually you can predict which words will be unfamiliar to most of the class. Then you can select those you wish to present by sketches on the board. With experience, this technique can also be used for unexpected problems with vocabulary.

If one student in the class knows the meaning of a word and the others do not, you can give this student the opportunity to draw the (Word order in questions, using a magnetized board. The first two examples have already been done) object on the board (if it is relatively straightforward to draw) or to explain it to the class.

Figure C (word order in questions, using a magnetized board)
6. REPRESENTING AREAS OF VOCABULARY

The board can be used to help the students remember families of words rather than odd, isolated words.

a) You may divide the board so that important words to be remembered (active vocabulary) are in one section and less important words (passive vocabulary) are in another section. (see Figure C)

![Figure D](image_url)

Figure D  Adverb word order, using cards placed on the board ledge

Make sure the students copy down the active vocabulary list and try to include these words in future lessons. Remember, though, that the division into active and passive lists is your decision. There is no guarantee that the students will find the words in the active vocabulary section the most relevant to them—their individual interests and motivation will probably determine which words they remember. However, the technique of presenting active and passive vocabulary sections on the board is helpful if the tests you set later in the course include only the active vocabulary. At last the students know which words they will be tested on.
7. Sometimes vocabulary can be presented on the board in series or sequences, e.g. days of the week, months of the year, names of festivals and national holidays etc. A tidy, logical presentation on the board should encourage students to copy a similar arrangement into their books. After initial practice, you can erase all but the first letters of the words and check if the students can remember them by pointing at random to the list (see Figure F)

Figure (E) Vocabulary connected with occupations—‘active’ and ‘passive’ lists

REMEMBER
What do you do?
I’m a milkman.

milkman  teacher
coalman  grocer
policeman  builder
fireman  butcher
baker
manager
waiter

bookie
traffic warden
profession
job
occupation

Figure (F) Checking the name of the months
8. A sketch can be used to group vocabulary items and so aid memory, e.g. a picture of a room (for furniture vocabulary), a drawing of a person (for parts of the body), a drawing of a person bicycle (for parts of a bike). With the drawing of person, you can teach words like leg, head, arm etc. at elementary level and, with the same drawing, teach words like elbow, wrist, nostril etc. at an advanced level. In Figure G the teacher is checking

(Figure G) students draw and label parts of the body on the board)

learning by asking students to come out to the board and draw a body, labeling the parts as they go along.

With advanced classes, a more abstract representation of an area of vocabulary is often helpful, and can bring to light important differences in meaning and use of certain words in the student’s mother tongue and English. Using a tree diagram the class can build up an area of vocabulary in as much detail as they wish. Figure H shows an area of vocabulary connected with transport. Other areas which lend themselves to this kind of presentation include occupations, housing, types of communication, agriculture and industry.
Figure (H)  Diagram of an area of vocabulary connected with transport (being completed in class)

9.

Figure (I)  Sketches drawn by students to build up a picture composition
10. Other discussions can be problem-solving activities. Figure J sets the scene for this situation:

Three people are lost in the jungle and one is hurt. They decide that one of them should go and try to get help. He can carry only four things with him. Decide which of the following he should take: a gun, a plastic bag, a tent, a compass, a piece of string, biscuits, chocolate, fresh water, matches, rope, a sleeping bag, a torch, a knife.

(Figure J) Stimulus for problem-solving discussion

2.8.1 Teaching

1. Reproduction of original materials and exercises not found in the textbook or which the teacher cannot get in printed form. Such materials can be written on the blackboard from where the pupils can copy or can read and do the required exercise. Care must be taken not to duplicate the material by writing on the blackboard which is available to the students in printed form.

2. Writing of new vocabulary, a phrase or a sentence for explaining. This is important for teaching correct spellings, meanings and grammatical forms.
3. Meanings of new words and phrases form an important part of comprehension lesson. The blackboard is the most effective device for concentrating attention on the new vocabulary.

Each new word that occurs in the text given for comprehension and intensive reading should be written down by the teacher or by the pupils on the blackboard and then explained and illustrated. Each new word is pronounced after the teacher by the class and the individual pupils. After its meaning and correct pronunciation have been ensured, it is used in sentences.

2.8.2. **Testing:** In order to save time, the teacher can write the test questions on the blackboard, before the pupils enter the classroom.

2.8.3. **Assigning work:** Exercise for home work can be written on the blackboard. Then it will be read aloud and explained by the teacher. New items will be rapidly checked and it will be ensured whether the class has understood what is required.

2.8.4. **Involvement of pupils in the lesson:** The blackboard is a good means for the teacher to involve the class in the lesson by asking them for several types of writing activities such as: new vocabulary, questions, answers, sentences and drawings, etc. Care should be taken that each student in the class gets the chance for blackboard writing.

2.9 **Summary:**

Summing up we may say that blackboard can be used effectively for:

1. Pictorial representation such as drawings, sketches, diagrams, etc.
2. Drawings of objects for pupils to label them in English.
3. Vocabulary—new words, phrases, idioms, spellings and illustrative sentences.
4. Explanation of a point in grammar.
5. Home work assignments.
7. Outlines of maps.
8. Test questions.

2.10 **Optimum Use of the Blackboard**

As already pointed out, since the blackboard is taken for granted, its potentialities are not fully exploited as a visual aid. The importance of eye in learning has already been stated. To ensure the most effective use of blackboard, the following points should be taken care of:

1. The blackboard should never be overcrowded. Important points should be written neatly and in proper arrangement. It should be made interesting and attractive, not dull and confusing.

2. Blackboard writing should be clear, neat and orderly. The Teacher should set an example for clear writing. Illegible writing, crude observations, inconsistencies in style should be avoided and spellings should be written very carefully.

3. Blackboard equipment, like chalk and duster, should be in their proper places before the class is started.
4. The use of coloured chalk is effective for stressing key words, unusual spelling and points of grammar.

5. No errors should be left uncorrected on the blackboard as the visual impressions are very strong.

6. The blackboard should be fixed at the most suitable place so that it is visible to each student. It should receive proper light but no sunglare.

7. The material on the board should be visible to all the pupils in the class. This requires not only neat and clear writing but bold script as well.

8. Pupils with weak eye-sight should be seated at a proper distance so that they are not hindered from seeing the blackboard written.

9. Professional ethics demands that you should rub off the blackboard writing before leaving the classroom so that your colleague may find it clean for his use.

2.11 Psychological Value of the Blackboard

2.11.1 Besides its usefulness as a teaching aid, the use of blackboard also satisfies some psychological needs of the pupils. It offers several pleasure aspects to them. Among other things:

1. It provides a place where pupils can do written work which is seen by their classmates hence a spirit of healthy competition is generated.

2. It provides the students an opportunity to show their skills in erective activities such as drawing, writing original sentences or pieces of composition.

3. It affords the physical activity of going up to the blackboard and writing in front of the class which
cures shyness and encourages the individual pupils to face the group. More over, going to the blackboard provides a moment of relaxation and recreation.

4. The class evaluates the written work of individual students. Thus it affords the class training in critical judgment.

2.11.2 **Summary:** The blackboard is one of the most effective visual aids. It must be used skillfully to obtain maximum benefits. Its importance is mainly due to the fact that the sense of vision is stronger than other senses in most children. It is universally available to the teachers.

2.11.3 **Activity:** Try to explain the following concepts by making simple drawings on the blackboard:

1. Sitting at the table
2. Besides
3. Flying over the tree

2.11.4 **Self-Assessment Questions-II**

I. Tick true and false statements:

1. The teacher uses the blackboard for two main reasons.  
   True  False
2. The main use of the blackboard is for displaying picture.  
   True  False
3. Blackboard is the most universal visual aid available to all teachers.  
   True  False

II. Explain the use of blackboard for teaching vocabulary, tenses and prepositions.

III. What are the main uses of the blackboard for a teacher.
3. THE BULLETIN BOARD

3.1 A bulletin board is a space like the blackboard provided in the classroom. Most bulletin boards are built near the black board. The teacher and the pupils put up pictures, drawings, charts, newspaper and magazine clippings (cuttings) etc. on the bulletin board. Current events board is a good example of a bulletin board.

Unfortunately in our schools, we don’t have the tradition of having the bulletin boards in the classrooms which may be specifically used for teaching of English. As a matter of fact, they are a wonderful device for motivation, for teaching and for maintaining interest. If you don’t have the bulletin boards in your classrooms, you must try to have by convincing your headmaster of its pedagogic value.

3.2 The bulletin board can be used for the display of a number of items related to the teaching of English. For Example, the following items can be put on display:

3.2.1 The announcements which you want to make to your class. For example, the dates of tests, reports to be presented by certain members of the class, etc.; booklets giving information and showing pictures about U.K. and the British people; travel brochures charts prepared by the pupils and the teachers: diagrams, maps, news cuttings, pictures, notices, photographs, pieces of compositions and reports written by the pupils and a host of other instructional materials can be exhibited on the bulletin board. News items covering important material and world news can also be included. Some items would be changed daily while others may remain there for a suitable period of time.

The space of the bulletin board should be used in a neat and orderly manner so that the material put on display should prove to be real teaching device. Everything should be arranged properly. It should not consist of a disconnected jumble of
pictures, cuttings, news items, etc. The material displayed should be related to the day-to-day classwork, and should aim at specific purpose.

3.2.2 The news items, in more advanced classes, should deal with important political and economic developments in the native country, and in the world. Cuttings from the newspapers and magazines can be contributed by the pupils. English magazines like, The Newsweek, Time, National Geographic, etc. furnish a good source for clippings of pictures of mountains, rivers, seas, scenes of natural beauty, ancient and modern buildings and big industrial plants as well as of wild life. The arrangement of material is very important, pictures and clippings should be placed neatly. Proper spacing should be done between different items. Every item should be properly spaced and should not be confused with other items. If one theme is being treated, for example, Christmas in England’, or ‘Winter in Azad Kashmir’, a neatly lettered caption should be placed at the top of each theme.

3.3 Planning of bulletin board is a useful activity and a teaching technique of immense value. It requires a careful thinking. The following points should be taken care of:

1. The collection of material will consist of many items including newspaper and magazine cuttings from Friday and Sunday editions of Weeklies and Monthlies, both national and foreign.

2. Each item should be neatly trimmed. If it is a picture it should be mounted on a piece of card board or a thick paper.

3. Neatly lettered titles and brief descriptions should be given where necessary.

4. If in clipping the captions are missing, they should be supplied.
5. Colour should be used to make the bulletin board look attractive.

6. All the material should be arranged in a neat, orderly and attractive manner and the general tone of the bulletin board should be dignified.

7. The students should be encouraged to look at the bulletin board. This can be done by relating the material to classwork.

8. Display should be changed at regular intervals.

9. A committee of students should be formed which be the incharge of the bulletin board. This committee should be changed each month so that in turn other students may get the chance of this responsibility.
4. **THE FLANNEL BOARD**

The flannel board consists of a piece of flannel or velvet stretched over a piece of heavy card board or plywood. The advantage of the flannel material is that any picture, clipping, cut-out or light flat object will adhere to the surface with a slight pressure of the hand. The illustrative materials are as easily removed as they are attached.

The flannel is especially useful in elementary classes for teaching alphabet-reading, word-recognition, spellings, vocabulary, etc.

Cut-outs can be used to represent animals, articles of clothing, pieces of furniture, household articles and such like things. These objects can be attached and detached by the pupil who names the object and manipulates it.

The flannel board enables the teacher to illustrate a story from the reader by putting up pictures as the story develops.

The magic of this visual aid enlivens interests and the children are soon able to illustrate their own stories in a unique way.

Flannel board has been found useful for the teaching of a foreign language on television because the idea is very similar to the metal boards with magnetized objects commonly used in TV teaching. You should prepare a flannel board and use it in your classes.

**THE MAGNET BOARD**

It is a new device which works on the same principles as the flannel board. It consists of a smooth metal-like plastic rectangle which can be suspended on the wall or stood up on a table. Flat figures and cut-outs representing various objects can be stepped in the board. The objects stick to the board as it has magnetic properties. As the surface is quite smooth the cut-outs
can be moved around easily. The cut-outs may be of animals, of different types of vehicles, buildings, etc. This device is very useful for teaching alphabet, vocabulary and spelling at the early stage of foreign language teaching.

**FLAT PICTURES**

The term ‘picture’ includes every type of pictorial representation. The simple kind consists of illustrations clipped from magazines and newspapers or made by the teacher and the students. Then there are photographs, colour prints, line drawings, picture cards, etc. Pictures are a very good teaching device, moreover they provide an interesting activity for the students. They enjoy cutting from the newspapers and magazines and arranging them for displays in the classroom.

The posters may also be included in pictures. They are usually larger in size and more colorful. Because of its large size, a poster is difficult to handle. However, it can be pinned on the wall or on the blackboard. If it occupies a permanent place on the wall it can be referred to whenever the occasion arises.

In this connection we are only dealing with still pictures. Another kind of pictures is the motion pictures which are displayed with the help of film projector. The still pictures are most effective to concentrate on the scene such as natural scenery, buildings, landscapes, objects, etc.

During display, the size of the picture should be large enough for the whole class to see all the points clearly. If a picture is small in size, it may be mounted and passed round the class. If the picture is to be displayed on the wall or on the bulletin board it should be labelled in capital letters written neatly.
6.2 How to use pictures:

For the most effective use of pictures, the following points should be kept in mind:

1. Pictures used in the classroom should be limited in number, well-selected and pertinent. They should be related to the lessons and be prepared or selected with specific teaching aims in view.

2. **Preparation:** The class should be motivated for seeing the picture, the students should be put in a receptive mood before the picture is displayed, and it should have a clear cut aim. The mere presentation of a picture will not arouse any interest, the student’s attention should be invited to observe the picture carefully and they must be told what to observe and what to remember.

3. **Presentation:** Very few pictures are self-explanatory. It is the teacher’s duty to point out the important features of the picture. He should clarify, stress, emphasise and explain the points that he wants to bring home to the students. This is important because children’s experiences are in adequate and they are likely to interpret the picture in the light of their past experiences.

4. **Application:** The information obtained from the picture should be applied. If the picture is used for a comprehension lesson, the new words and phrases should be used in original sentences, in dictation and in short composition.

5. **Size of the picture:** A picture shown to the class must be large enough so that it can be seen large enough so that it can be seen by everyone. Smaller pictures, illustrations, clippings and view cards
should be used for individual inspection. Such material should not be passed around the class while the teacher is talking because the students will miss important points of the teachers talk. This may be done when there is silence and students have no other engagement.

6.3 Textbook Illustrations:

The textbooks and supplementary reading materials contain illustrations. They serve a useful purpose and help the students in understanding and appreciating the topic. The teacher should direct the attention of the pupils to the meanings of these pictures and relate them to the text. Unless the teacher directs the attention of the learners to these pictures, the students fail to understand their full significance.

The illustrations in the textbook are generally small in size. They can be enlarged on a big piece of paper and can be displayed to the class. As a matter of fact the textbook illustrations can be used as a motivating device and before reading the text, the subject matter can be discussed by focusing on the picture.

6.4 Summary

The flat pictures are inexpensive and easily available. They can be obtained from magazines, newspapers and many other sources. They may be either in colour or in black and white. Their unique value lies in the possibility for detailed analysis and discussion. They train the observation ability of the students. Their effectiveness depends on their wise selection, i.e. their relevance to the lesson and skillful teaching procedures.
6.5 The value of wall-pictures:

The wall-pictures are distinct from pictures in the book, view-cards, newspaper or magazine clippings which the teacher uses in his day-to-day lessons. The wall-pictures consist of pictures, painting, drawings, enlarged photographs of important persons, scenes of natural beauty, historical buildings etc. which remain unchanged on the wall of the classroom.

A wall-picture is intended to give the pupils a detailed view of a scene or scenes different from that or his immediate environment. Typical subject of wall-pictures may be an English house or a home, a street, a village, a farm, the seaside, a bus stop or a market place. Just as in the natural process of learning his mother tongue, the child fixes sound symbols in his mind through association with objects, actions and qualities, and so by looking at the picture he is enabled to associate the new words with the objects in the pictures. If the pictures are life-like and in bright colours, it would be easier for the child to get long-lasting associative impressions.

The wall-pictures should represent the background of the country whose language the children are learning. In your case, as you are teaching English, you must select pictures which represent scenes from English social life for instance a street in London, an English railway station, historical buildings in England, and English literary figures, etc. Pictures representing scenes of life in Pakistan or spots of scenic beauty may also be put up on the walls but the labels should be written in English.

One important point is the size and clarity of the wall-pictures. They should be large enough so that the students can clearly see all the points, moreover they should be hung at a reasonable height within the eyesight of the students.

The wall-picture brings a new environment into the classroom which the teacher should utilise for the purpose of providing linguistic experience. The wall-pictures, like other
pictures and as a matter of fact like all other contrived materials, are limited because of their absence of appeal to any other sense except that of sight. Therefore, imagination must be called into play and it is the teacher’s duty to draw attention to all those points which should be comprehended from the picture.

By employing all well-selected wall-pictures in teaching English in your classes, you will have access to a number of activities. The main aim is to supply essential linguistic material and to make the language learning environment look like the real environment. Once this has been achieved. English may be learnt as children learn their native tongue. The picture must deal with the usual, everyday, familiar experiences.

The good wall-picture, in the hands of a skilful teacher who knows how to exploit the potentialities of this useful teaching aid, can provide more variety, rich experience and interest. The wall-pictures are considered as classroom equipment and provide a congenial background for learning English. They provide opportunity for the absorption of language which is the only true means of learning a language native of foreign.
7. FLAT MATERIALS

7.1 There are a number of very simple and inexpensive but effective visual materials which you can prepare yourself and use in your every day lessons. These include flash cards, spelling charts and a clock dial.

7.2 Flash Cards: The flash card is a piece of cardboard, about 18 x 6 inches, on which you may write a word, a sentence, a phrase or a simple outline drawing. These should be written in bold capital letters in neat and clear hand so that the students sitting at the back of the class may also see it clearly. The script writing style should not be used as it is difficult to read; only capital letters should be used.

When you are teaching vocabulary, you can use both the sides of the flash card. The foreign word on one side and its meaning in the local language on the other. First the mother tongue word is displayed and its English equivalent is elicited from the students then the foreign word is shown. The grammatical structures can also be treated in the same manner.

7.3 Flash Card Exercises: A variety of exercises can be given by means of flash cards. For example:

1. Vocabulary. As has been explained above the Urdu word on one side and the English word on the other.
2. Verb forms. Completion of sentences (I am going to ____________)
3. Teaching prepositions. (We believe _________ one God).
4. Adjectives (Ali is ____________ than Ahmad.)
5. Adverbs. He was walking ____________

Brevity is the essence of flash cards. A sentence of five words should be the limit. Pictures, with very simple outline
 sketches can be used. Some of the suggested subjects are the following.

1. Animals; 2. Fruits;
3. Pieces of furniture; 4. Articles of clothing;
5. Means of transportation;

The flash cards can be displayed by the teacher, but it is preferable to ask the students to display for the sake of pupil participation.

7.4 The spelling charts: These can be displayed by the teacher or by the students. Here also the significance of clarity and neatness is to be kept in mind. The spellings should be written in bold capital letters. The charts can be put on the bulletin board. If it is a daily exercise, they can be flashed or put on the blackboard.

7.5 A clock dial is a useful device for teaching time. It is not difficult to make.
8. DRAMATIZATION AND ROLE PLAYING

8.1 Dramatization is the most effective activity for practising a foreign language. As we know, the language is mostly a social affair. It is a social tool and an important binding element in society; it can hardly exist in solitude.

Dramatization a scene or a story makes language learning a group activity. The learners see language in social action. They listen sentences, phrases, and words use in their proper context hence the meanings are best understood. This method is psychologically sound for it connects action with the word and there is no intermediate stage of translation. The students who participate in dramatization, think in the foreign language hence their speaking becomes automatic.

Besides being a useful teaching device, dramatization is an interesting and entertaining activity. It brings liveliness and pleasure to the classroom. It provides for much pupil participation which has a high educational value. It affords an opportunity to the students for spontaneous self expression which is one of the accepted aims of foreign language learning.

By dramatization we mean enacting simple actions, words and sentences accompanied by proper actions. The other term which is very close to dramatization in content---is ‘Role playing’. For example, one student pretends to be a doctor and the other a patient. The simple dialogue which takes place between them is an example of dramatization or role playing. The two students are playing different roles. A scene for daily life is being dramatized.

8.2 Simple dramatization can be started from the first day of foreign language teaching. “Good morning, how are you?” “I’m quite well, thank you” can be taught and then pairs of students can practise the phrases. By dramatizing, you can create a life-like situation in the classroom.
In the beginning, memorized dialogues will be dramatized, and as soon as the learners advance, spontaneous conversation can be tried. In the beginning, the conversation may be guided by the teacher. Words and expressions would be supplied orally or written on the blackboard. The themes of conversations should be limited to the range of the vocabulary and the grammatical structures which the class has learned.

The essential factors which make the dramatization a life-like activity, are the expressive gestures of the actors and the use of props. This would make the conversation look natural. Simple objects like a wrist watch, a pair of sun-glasses, a pen or articles of clothing can be made the topic of dramatization.

Each conversation should have a definite purpose and specific linguistic aims. It should not be too long. It should provide for the participation of as many pupils as possible. Since in most daily activities a limited number of persons is involved, this means that there will have to be repetition. This is no disadvantage. It will produce a spirit of healthy competition and the dramatic ability of the performers will be brought out.

8.3 **Subjects for dramatization:** The subjects for dramatization should be related to the stories, scenes and subjects covered in the textbooks. However, some general subjects which lend themselves particularly well to dramatization, may be listed as follows:

1. **The Family at the dining table:**

   The mother serves the food. The father and two or three children are engaged in conversation while eating. The teacher’s desk can be covered with a table cloth and made into a dining table. Conversation can be something like the following:

   A Father: Can I have some more curry please?
Mother: Yes you may, but you have already taken enough curry. Leave some appetite for the sweet dish.

B Father: Would you please pass me the salt?

Mother: Yes, here it is.

Mother: Fatima dear, you are not eating! What's the matter?

Fatima: Mummy! You have put too much chillies in the curry. It is too hot for me.

Mother: O’ dear have some fried potatoes, they have no chillies in them.

Fatima: No, mother! I don’t like potatoes, etc.

2. Visit to a doctor or a dentist.

3. Shopping: Shopkeeper, Customers, in succession. Conversation provides for many variations in names of material, process, colours, weights, etc.

4. At a green–grocer’s shop.

5. At a fruit seller’s shop.

6. At a tea-shop some friends engage in simple conversation over a cup of tea, etc.

8.4 Activity: Prepare a list of ‘roles’ which can be useful for teaching English to class–seven.

8.5 Self-Assessment Questions–III

1. Fill in the blanks with appropriate words:

1. Planning of bulletin board is a teaching __________ of immense value.
2. The __________ board is a new device and works on the same principles as the flannel board.

3. When a child looks at a picture he ______ it in his own way.

4. Dramatization is an interesting and ______ activity.

5. The essential features of dramatization are the ______________

2. Compare the flannel board and the magnet board as instructional devices.

3. Write a note on the uses of flat pictures for teaching English.
9. AUDIO MATERIALS AND TECHNIQUES

9.1 Importance of listening: According to the fourfold aims of teaching English as a foreign language, the various phases are listening, speaking, reading and writing. In learning a foreign language, the importance of listening is very great because first of all every language is made of sounds. Listening may seem on the surface, to be a very simple, passive and receptive process but actually it is not so. Listening is an important skill. It requires attention, concentration and application if it is to be effective. Hearing a language spoken every day does not necessarily lead to correct pronunciation and accurate speech. The students must be trained to listen carefully. Listening is a skill which must be developed by the teacher.

9.2 The following are some ways of doing so:

1. The atmosphere in the classroom should be conducive to listening. When the class is doing a listening comprehension exercise, there should be calm and quiet in the class.

2. The specific aim of listening should be set up and the students should be told about it. Whether it is the pronunciation of certain words or the tones of the sentences, etc.

3. Encourage the students to ask questions about anything they do not understand.

4. Before doing a listening exercise, prepare the class for this activity by recalling familiar facts and drawing their attention to what they are going to hear and what is to be particularly noted.

5. The material selected for listening exercise should be suited to the age, interests and mental level of
the students. It should be within the range of their comprehension.

6. Point out the importance of stress, gestures, facial expressions, inflection and emotion, as well as the rising or falling tones and how the meanings may be effected by these features.

7. Ask the students to summarise and reproduce what they have heard.

8. Train the pupils to listen critically. The spoken word conveys more meanings than the printed word.

9.3 Audio-visual techniques are based on the generally accepted fact that the senses reinforce each other in the process of learning. As language is primarily sound, the audial appeal should be used first. When the child has grasped a fairly correct pronunciation, only then he may be exposed to the written word.

Starting with listening is also justified on the grounds that the child learns his mother tongue through listening. The child learns his native language by hearing the same words again and again and repeating them until he masters them. One important factor about the child's learning his mother tongue is the time. During his talking hours he is surrounded by the linguistic environment of his mother tongue. Putting briefly we can summarise that learning the native language is characterised by:

1. Audial appeal for a plenty of time.
2. Unlimited daily practice in practical situation.
4. The natural order of learning the language listening speaking, reading and writing.
9.4  **Limitations of the classroom:** The constant flow of speech which surrounds the child from infancy onward cannot be initiated in the artificial atmosphere of teaching of a second language in a classroom situation. The two important factors lacking in the artificial situation are *time and context*. However, this lack can be made up by the skillful teacher by using the child’s mother tongue for reference and comparison and by arranging the learning experiences in a manner that the learner has many opportunities in listening.

Now we should deal with some audio devices which provide listening experience.

9.5  **The Phonograph Records:** More commonly they are called gramophone records. They may be used for different purposes of listening:

1. Listening to the music of the foreign country.
2. New vocabulary for the sake of pronunciation.
3. A dialogue to be memorized.
4. Appreciation of literary selections in the foreign language.
5. Listening comprehension: A prose selection is played and then questions are asked to see if the pupil have understood what was spoken.
6. Dictation: The selected prose is played three times.
   a) to give general idea of the content,
   b) the actual dictation at a slower speed, and
   c) the normal speed for checking the written exercise.

9.6  **Advantages of Records:** Records possess a number of distinct advantages.

1. A record can be stopped at any point for questions, comments, clarification and discussion.
2. It can be replayed any number of times.

3. It can be played at any time desired, thus it can be introduced when it is most effective.

4. The teacher can prehear it and evaluate it. It is very important for the teacher in planning his lessons.

5. The gramophone record serves the ear as the picture serves the eyes.

While selecting gramophone records, they should be judged on the following criteria:

1. Spoken language should be clear and distinct.

2. It should be suitable to the class in which you are going to play it. Its level of vocabulary and the meanings of its content should be within the range of understanding of the class.

3. The speed of the spoken language should be normal.

4. Correctness and authenticity of the language used is important. It should be standard English.

5. It should be appropriate to the linguistic aims which the teacher has in mind.

Now a days it is fashionable to teach English through songs and a great variety of records are available from various sources. Their instructional value cannot be denied, however, on moral ground, such a practice may not be desirable in our schools.
10. THE TAPE RECORDER

10.1 The tape recorder is a valuable aid for the oral and listening comprehension of the foreign language class. The tape recorder supports the oral memory as a book supports visual memory. By recording the materials which he teaches, the teacher provides the student with a permanent reference to refresh his memory as needed.

The taped word gives correct pronunciation of the sounds, the sentence, rhythm, and of intonation by living example. It repeats the native speaker’s way of using the language. Speaking English with near-native fluency is a highly desireable aim of teaching English. But there are many situations in which the English teacher, though very competent, lack oral fluency. This lack can be removed by using the taped material in the class.

10.2 Providing a lot of listening experience to the children is necessary in view of the fact that now-a-days there is much stress on spoken English and correct pronunciation is considered to be of paramount importance.

The teacher who lacks fluency in English can obtain tapes which have been prepared by experts and can present a good model of pronunciation.

10.3 The specific advantages of the tape recorder are the following:

1. The tape can be used again and again. Thus it saves the teacher’s time and energy.

2. Voices other than the voice of the teacher can be brought into the classroom. The student can thus hear male and female voices, young old, voices of the native and Pakistani speakers of English. He hears a varity of pronunciations.
3. The tape provides a permanent reference for English sounds. It is like the standard test or reference work in its relation to the visual aspect of English.

4. It makes listening available to the student in the absence of the teacher.

The tape recorder is one of the most valuable devices that can be used in achieving the listening and speaking aim of language learning.

10.4 *Technical Advantages of the Tape*:

1. Recording is permanent.

2. Recording can be erased and the tape can be used again and again.

3. Tapes are economical.

4. Tapes occupy less space.

5. It is easy to identify sequences.

Mere listening is not enough. Its activity can be of various kinds. For instance:

- Listening to music for pleasure and entertainment.

- Listening to a play where the attention is riveted on the story and the listener would not be able to reproduce the entire action.

- Half attentive listening one gives to long-winded talk on radio or television.

The listening required from a student of English language is quite different from the above kinds of listening. The student must listen to the recorded material to remember, to recognize and to be able to reproduce. You as a teacher must associate some type of activity with students listening. For instance:
1. The student must repeat the material he hears.

2. Do silent reading from the printed-page as he listens to the same recorded text.

3. Give answers orally to the questions asked from him on the tape.

4. Write answers to the questions asked.

5. Look at the picture, the diagram or the map which the tape describes. He should locate objects in the picture and identify them as the tape mentions them.

   By using the above techniques, the listening activity can be made purposeful. It would prove effective and achieve the aims of listening. If no such activities are associated, idle listening would not produce the desired results.

10.5 *What material should be tape-recorded?* The materials to be taped must be related to the course of study. The recording on the tape should relate to the contents of the textbook which is the basis of the daily lessons.

   The taped material should be compared to the photo copied material like the exercises which the teacher prepares to supplement the material of the textbook. The photocopy makes a visual appeal, the tape makes an audial appeal.

10.6 *Dialogues:* Conversational practice in a foreign language course for beginners is very important. The teacher points to or touches the objects, names them, dramatizes situations and describes them, gives directions to follow. The students listen and watch the teacher. Then they repeat, answer and follow the teacher’s instructions.

   This type of aural-oral approach is live, interesting and stimulating. Such dialogues can be recorded so that the
students can take them home and listen to them. Thus the tape performs the usual function of permanent record.

10.7 Reading: The tape can be utilized for reading. It is used in comprehension lessons that the teacher gives a model reading of a paragraph which is repeated by individual students and followed by silent-reading.

If the reading passage is taped, the model is available to remind the students of correct pronunciation and intonation. The silent reading without first listening to a model reading is liable to result in poor reading habits. The reader may dawdle, stumble over the pronunciation of new vocabulary and may not be able to group words for making sense. Hence a model reading is necessary and the tape makes the model reading available for repeated contacts.

10.8 Listening Comprehension: The listening comprehension skill is very important. Its aim is to prepare the student to grasp the meaning of the spoken English as he listens to it. The listening comprehension exercise is also used as a testing device. Usually the student hears the spoken or taped text twice. Then he hears questions based on the text which he is to answer in writing. This exercise lends itself very well to tape recording. The advantages of the use of tape for this exercise are quite obvious.

The ultimate objective of training in listening comprehension is to develop this skill so that the learners can use it outside the classroom. In the beginning the student may find it difficult to understand what he hears. But gradually as he has more and more practice in listening, he would be able to grasp the meaning of the audially–presented material.

Speed is important in listening with understanding. Complete comprehension means grasping meaning at a normal speed. Over-articulation and showing down should be avoided while recording a selection for listening comprehension.
10.9 *Tape Preparation:* Ready-made tapes may be available at places like the British Council or the American Cultural Centres, but the teacher can prepare tapes specially designed to meet his specific needs. The following points should be kept in mind:

1. **Content:**
   a) Clear directions should be given on the tape regarding the exercises. The name of the book, the relevant page, the exercise etc. should be mentioned clearly. If the tape gives practice in sentence structure, the type of practice should be announced. The student should be told what he is to do.
   b) English should be used exclusively. Grammatical or linguistic explanations should be given in English.
   c) Tapes for the beginners should closely relate to the text book or the content of the course.
   d) Special tapes may be prepared to give added practice of remedial drill as needed.

2. **Timing of the Spoken Material:**
   a) In the classroom the teachers speak slowly so that the student may understand. Difficult words and foreign sounds are over-articulated. This tendency is undesirable in general and should be avoided particularly in taped material since it is available for numerous repetitions. The teacher should speak at normal conversational speed. Repeated listening will automatically result in complete comprehension.
b) Phrase grouping is necessary for comprehension. Each phrase group should be pronounced at normal speed and followed by a pause of enough length to allow the students to repeat it. As the competence of the students increases the space between pauses can be reduced.

c) In a question answer exercise on the tape, enough space should be allowed for the students answers.

As the primary aim of the tape is to develop fluency and accuracy, the tape should also give the correct answer after the students response. This will enable the student to verify his answer on the spot.

10.10 Activity: Prepare a list of radio programmes on Teaching of English broadcast by B. B. C. and Voice of America.

10.11 Self-Assessment Questions–IV

1. Complete the following sentences with suitable words:

1. Before using any audio-material specific _______ of listening should be set up.

2. Material should be suitable to the _______ interests and mental level of the students.

3. Records possess a number of _________ advantages.

4. The taped word gives correct _______ of sounds.

5. The taped material must be related to the _________.

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II. Discuss advantages and disadvantages of audio-
Material as instructional devices.

III. Discuss the use of a tape-recorder.
11. PROJECTION OF PICTURES

11.1 For ordinary purposes and to save time, it is better to use large pictures or line drawings needed on card board or hard paper. However, a lot of material is in colour which cannot be reproduced. For example, photographs of important persons, coloured reproductions of famous paintings and maps, etc. The best way to show material of this nature is to project it on screen by an opaque projector.

The opaque projector is a simple but very effective machine for the above mentioned purpose. If you have this machine in your school, you would be well-advised to use it in your lessons. In case you have not been provided with one by the school authorities, you must convince the headmaster of its effectiveness as a teaching tool who should make arrangements to supply one for the school.

The opaque projector can project on to the screen or a wall with clean and smooth surface. It will project photographs, halftones, line drawings illustrations, hand written notes, charts, sketches and maps. Any material in a book or a magazine can be inserted in the projector which the class can see projected on to the screen or on any other smooth surface. You can even show postal stamps of the country whose language you are teaching coins, medals or any other opaque objects.

Handling the opaque projector is a very simple matter. The only important point about it is that the room must be darkened and the light used for the lamp of the projector has to be stronger.

11.2 Other Uses of Opaque Projector: One special use of this machine is the correction of compositions and other written work of the class. You can take an uncorrected piece of composition or a home work exercise and insert it in the machine. It is thus made visible to the entire class for group correction, directed reading or critical evaluation. In this way
you can save much time and labour of copying on the blackboard. The clarity is also greater.

If the teacher has already corrected pieces of written work and feels that the corrections made are of common interest to the whole class, the corrected composition can be flashed on to the screen and the attention of the class can be directed to important points. Reading of material printed abroad (in the country whose language you are teaching) is valuable. But the foreign language texts are not available in sufficient quantity and sometimes it is not easy to duplicate them. By using the opaque projector a single copy of a newspaper or a page from a foreign magazine or a book becomes available for group study. In this way you are saved from the trouble of mimeographing. Moreover, the mimeographed sheet does not reproduce the exact appearance of the foreign publication and thus a significant cultural characteristic is missed. For example, the front page of the Sunday Times or the Daily Mail is very much different from the front page of the News. The differences in appearance account for cultural differences between the United Kingdom and Pakistan. A lesson with a newspaper will then become more than a mere exercise in reading comprehension. It will involve appreciation of journalistic style, newspaper arrangement and differences in treatment of news, etc. In other words, cultural as well as linguistic aims will be achieved.

Since the opaque projector works best only in a room completely darkened, the lesson must be so planned that during the projection only oral activities are involved as writing requires light.

11.3 Teaching Procedure: You may show the picture of a scene in the foreign country which should remain on the screen for a short while for the class to look at it carefully. During this you would point out what is to be noted. Then you would ask
questions and the pupils would reply and make comments. A series of pictures may be used. Then the normal light in the room may be restored and the discussion can be continued. After this, reading – material will follow and finally exercises, based on the pictures, would end the lesson.

11.4 Advantages the Opaque Projector: It is a very useful teaching advice. What a pity matters schools do not provide such a simple and inexpensive machine to the teachers. If the teachers are lucky to have been provided with one, they should know about the following advantages of this teaching tool and use it in their classes:

1. It is portable. The teacher can easily carry it to the class where he wants to use it.
2. It is inexpensive.
3. Once bought it can be used for a long time as it contains no moveable parts which may get out of order.
4. It is equally useful at all educational levels. It can be used as effectively in a high school as at a primary school level.
5. It covers the widest possible range and can project any non transparent material.
6. Small objects and pictures, which would, in the absence of this machine, have to be passed round the class, can be shown for group instructions.

11.5 Examples of material that can be taught by the Opaque Projector

The range of materials which can be taught with the help of this device is practically unlimited. Here are some examples:
1. Coloured reproductions of famous paintings clipped from books or magazines, or mounted on cardboards.
2. Post cards, picture-cards of a foreign country.
3. Postal stamps, coins, railway tickets, etc.
4. Small maps in books.
5. Photographs of famous people in books and magazines.
6. Pages from newspapers printed in U.K.
7. Questions papers of the previous examinations.
8. Flags of various countries, etc. etc.

12. SLIDES

The slides are a very good teaching device used for various purposes, but they are more suitable for teaching cultural matters, that is for showing the students what is life like in a foreign country whose language they are learning.

The slides come in different sizes, the most common size is 2 x 2 inches. The teacher can make his own slides but it is not necessary because excellent material is available in the market or it can be obtained from the cultural mission of the country concerned. British Council can help English teachers in this regard.

When you are showing the slides, you may give the talk in English. New and difficult expressions should be translated into Urdu. A useful procedure is to have the students prepared a lecture. Each one gets a slide or a number of slides to study. Then a short description about each slide is written. The teacher checks the notes making necessary corrections and hears the pupil give his talk. When the students are prepared to give their talks, the teacher begins the lesson by projecting the slides on
the screen. Each student proceeds to speak as his particular slide appears on the screen.

13. FILM STRIPS

The film strip is a projected still picture in a sequence. It consists of a series of illustrations printed on 35mm film. The pictures may be in single frames or in double frames. The single frame strip is most commonly used. If the film strip is accompanied by sound it is called slide film. The film strip has the following advantages over the ordinary film or even over the motion pictures:

1. It retains unity.
2. It is enriched and clarified by accompanying comments and discussion in the class.
3. It can be moved forward or backward with ease.
4. It is very simple to operate.
5. It is inexpensive and easy to handle.

13.1 *The film strip is a very useful teaching device.* In order to get the maximum benefit from it, you should observe the following suggestions:

1. See the film before showing it to the class and judge its suitability from teaching point of view and its relevance to the lesson.
2. Before starting the film, you should give an introduction for motivating the students for what to expect and what to look for.
3. Don’t confine yourself to captions or to the manual of the film. Let the presentation of the material be free and spontaneous.
4. Encourage your pupils to comment on the film freely.

5. The strip should be shown at the beginning of the lesson so that at the end you are left with enough time for question-answer session.

6. You should have guiding questions ready before the show and oral or written exercises at the end of the show.

13.2 In selecting the film strips the following points should be kept in view:

1. Is the subject matter appropriate to the lesson?
2. Are the pictures in proper sequence?
3. Is the vocabulary used in the strip according to the level of the class?
4. Are the pictures clear and interesting?
5. Do they lend themselves to expanded oral discussion?

The film strip projector, which is needed to show strips, is a simple machine which can be handled even by a student and it is not expensive.

13.3 Before ending the subject of still pictures and moving on to the motion pictures, let us state briefly what subjects can be taught with the help of still pictures.

Any subject that involves concrete objects, animals, or human beings can readily be enlivened and verified by the use of pictures whether they are still pictures in the form of slides, film strips, or a motion picture. In the elementary grades still pictures are most effective. In advanced classes, film strips and motion pictures will be found more useful.
The following topics can be best taught in beginner’s classes with pictures:

1. Animals: dog, cat, cow, horse, donkey, sheep, jackal, fox, lion, elephant, etc. Along with the names of the domestic and wild animals, you can teach colour and qualities of the animals such as: Dog: It is a, clever animal. Cat: This cat is black. Cow: Cow gives milk. Lion: It is a strong animal.

2. Flowers: names of the well-known flowers and their colours. Rose: It's, colour is red or pink, etc. Sunflower, Jasamine, etc.

3. Fruits: names of common fruits known to the children such as: Apple: It is sweet. Orange: It’s colour is yellow. Mango grapes, guava, pears and banana, etc.

4. Parts of human body. Head: This is my head. Hands I have two hands. This is my hand. Ears: I have two ears, etc.

5. Seasons and weather; pictures of rain; snow in winter, sun in summer, blowing wind, etc.

6. Nature: mountains, valleys, rivers, sea, forest, plains, growing crops, etc.

7. Members of family: father, mother, son, daughter, brother, sister, grandmother, grandfather, etc. Their ages, activities etc., can also be taught through pictures. For example: He is Ali’s father. He is a doctor. He is 40 years old.

8. Family at dining table: dishes, foods, spoons, and forks, salt, sugar, tea. Conversation at a dining table such as: “Please pass the salt to me.” “Can I
have some more curry please.” “Thank you Mummy”, etc.

9. Family at home: In the evening father reading the newspaper. Saeed doing homework; baby playing with toys, mother preparing dinner in the kitchen.

10. Rooms of the house: Sitting-room, bed-room, the bath, the kitchen, drawing-room. Articles of furniture: table, chairs, carpet, etc.

11. Household articles with more details.

12. Articles of clothing: a shirt, trousers, jacket, a rain coat, cap, a pair of shoes, a sweater.

13. Vocations: a policeman, a bus driver, a dentist, a shopkeeper, a greengrocer.

14. Means of transportation: train, railway line, a bus, a taxi, a motor car, an aeroplane, a tonga and a ricksha.


16. Travel: buying ticket on the bus, baggage, etc.

THE MOTION PICTURE

14.1 The motion pictures are a popular device for teaching many subjects including the foreign languages. In foreign language teaching the film serves the double purpose: it is used as cultural material as well as for linguistic purposes.

14.2 Advantages of the motion pictures: The first and the foremost fact is that every body likes to see the movies. They are interesting and eminently effective. They can be used for entertainment, for education, for information, for instruction and for influencing thinking.
From the point of view of foreign language teaching, the motion pictures have the following advantages:

1. They hold the attention of the students. Sitting in the darkened room looking at the bright light on the screen, each student is compelled to pay full attention to the movements and quick succession of pictures on the screen. There is the double impact of sight and sound.

2. Movement, sound and colour heighten the reality. Especially in presenting life in a foreign country nothing can be more effective and interesting than a good film.

3. The motion picture widely extends the mental horizon of the student. No book or article however fascinatingly written can portray the scenes of life in a foreign country with the vivacity of a film.

4. The motion picture provides the opportunity to listen to the native speakers in the context of situation. The pupils see the language being used in the real life situation words and sentences spoken with gestures and facial expressions. They see the language as a social reality, a practical social tool being used in the social interaction.

5. It provides a common experience for all the students, bright as well as the dullest can see the picture and get something out of it.

14.3 Disadvantages of the motion picture: Like other audio-visual devices, the motion picture too has its drawbacks:

1. All films are not equally instructional. A film must be chosen in terms of its effectiveness in a given situation. Whether you have cultural background in
mind or you want to show the landscape, the industries, the historical remains etc. you must choose the film with a view to your specific objectives.

2. The film can be helpful in certain aspects of language teaching but you can never depend on it for the bulk of linguistic training.

3. The films must be graded. For beginners, only those should be shown in which the language is simple, clear and slowly spoken. The extent of the vocabulary will have to be considered.

4. Motion pictures are expensive and there are administrative and technical difficulties.

14.4 To get the optimum results you should keep the following points in mind:

1. You should know about the films which are available and at what places.

2. When you are showing a film best physical conditions should prevail. Seating arrangement should be satisfactory so that every student may be able to see the pictures and to hear the dialogues.

3. The class should be prepared for the show. This involves motivating the pupils, discussing the background, anticipating vocabulary difficulties, indicating what is to be looked for and preparing questions for discussion.

4. There should be a follow-up of the show. Group discussion, oral or written summaries and testing are the follow-up experiences which contribute towards the instructional goals.
The foreign language film: A variety of instructional films aiming to teach English as a foreign language are available at the offices of British Council and American cultural centres and libraries. These films can be borrowed and used in your classes.

14.5 Activity: Prepare lists of motion pictures on education and select pictures which can be used for teaching English.

14.6 Self-Assessment Questions–V

I. Tick (√) true and false statements:

1. The opaque projector can project any written material.  
   True False

2. The most common size of slides is 3 x 3 inches.  
   True False

3. Before showing a film, the student should not be told about the content.  
   True False

4. The motion picture helps in extending the mental horizon of the students.  
   True False

II. What is an opaque projector? How can it be used for teaching English effectively?

III. Compare the use of film strips and motion pictures as devices of instruction.
15. Answer to Self Assessment Questions

Self Assessment Questions — I

Self Assessment Questions — II
1. F  2. F  3. T

Self Assessment Questions — III
4. Entertaining  5. Expressive gestures

Self Assessment Questions — IV
4. Pronunciation  5. Course of

Self Assessment Questions — V
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LESSON PLANNING

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INTRODUCTION

Everyday we prepare lessons which are to be delivered in the class, but most of us give very little thought to the process and procedure adopted for this purpose. Apparently our aim always pertains to effective teaching. Just communicating information is not enough for being effective. It needs planning both for collecting information and conceiving the ways and means for delivering it.

It helps us in overcoming the instructional problems of both the teacher and the taught. This unit has been written for teaching our students how to plan a language lesson. We hope that it will prove useful for them and motivate them to plan their daily lessons.

OBJECTIVES

After reading this unit you will be able to:

- Explain the various steps involved in planning a lesson.
- Plan various language skill lesson, in such a way that there is maximum language learning, and active communication among your students.
- Use a wider range of teaching techniques.
- Adopt better evaluation process for motivating students.
- Cope with problems of large classes, and lack of equipment.
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1. **BACKGROUND INFORMATION BEFORE LESSON PLANNING**

Before you plan your lesson there is some essential background information which you should have about your students. The information is:

- Who are your students?
- How old are they?
- What is their level of proficiency in English?
- What is the syllabus?
- Which is the textbook used?

This background information helps you select teaching materials and teaching strategy. You should prepare a cover sheet as given below to accompany the lesson plan(s).

### 1.1 **cover sheet**

The lesson plan should be evaluated in terms of the following information:

Teacher: ______________________________

Regular class teacher: ___________________

Supervisor: ____________________________

School: ____________ class:____________

Section: _______________________________

Age level of class: ______________________

Size of the class: ______________________

Composition of the class: ________________

Other relevant factors: __________________
2. STEPS IN LESSON PLANNING

Here are the steps you may follow in the preparation of a lesson plan. The first step for you is to provide certain information at the top of every lesson, i.e., the teacher’s name, the intended date of presentation, the estimated time of the lesson and the teaching point. You should state the teaching point briefly and should specify the general topic of the lesson, for example, the use of present perfect tense.

2.1 Justification

In this section of the lesson plan you deal with the justification and elaboration of the teaching unit. Where appropriate, relate the teaching point to any relevant preceding lesson and to the unit of instructions in which it occurs. You should also provide precise information on the following:

i. **Pre-assessment activity**: What activity or activities you will carry out to determine that the class really needs a lesson on this particular teaching point? The activity might involve common errors frequently made.

ii. **Relationship to the current unit**: How have you picked this unit? How does it fit in the plan and the unit of instruction you wish to present to the students. Why have you decided to teach it at this point?

iii. **Pre-entry performance**: What, if anything, was covered in previous lesson (s) that you want to review or apply in the course of this lesson.

iv. **Performance objectives**: State very precisely the behaviors you except the students to be able to perform as a result of this lesson. For example if you want the student to discriminate between /i/ and /i:/ sounds, your performance objectives for this teaching point will be something like this:
- The student will be able to discriminate aurally and orally between /i/ and /i:/ sounds.

The students will be able to discriminate that above two sounds in the following pairs (minimal pairs) of words:

<table>
<thead>
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<td>meet</td>
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The students will be able to discriminate the /i/ and /i:/ in the following:

- Do you think he will live/leave?
- He beat/bit his sister.
- Do not sit in the heat.
- He hid the kit under the seat.
- He got rid of the book he did not want to read.

v. **Criterion level:** You as teacher can decide in advance that the lesson will be considered successfully completed, if x percent of the students can perform the objectives in x percent of the time. You should aim for 80-100%. You may set the criterion for the whole class, groups of students or individuals.

vi. **Materials:** This includes the textbook, if any, handouts, the use of blackboard, audio-visual aids, etc.
2.2 Procedures

The section of procedures is the core of the lesson plan. In this section you specify the procedures or activities, that the students will engage in order to accomplish the objectives of the lesson. There are no hard and fast rules for numbers of steps for the procedures. The actual number of steps depends on the teacher and the objectives you have set in developing student’s activities. You should be very careful in the sequencing so that all exercises are relevant and meaningful to the fullest extent.

The first step of the procedure should be an introductory activity and the final step should be a concluding activity. The concluding activity should at least be in the form of informal testing of the criterion level established earlier.

This is the general framework within which you should plan activities that will be interesting and profitable for your students.

The final items on the lesson plan should specify the following:

- The assignment related to the lesson.
- What alternate activity or activities have been prepared if a change of plan is felt necessary?
- Comments or self-evaluation; in this activity you should note whether or not the lesson was successful. What you would do to improve if you have to reteach it.

The above steps outlined for the lesson plan may seem to you to be time-consuming and lengthy. This process can be facilitated by using copies of lesson plan forms. You will be able to save time by filling in the columns specific to each lesson plan.
Here is an example of how this form looks like. A sample lesson plan following this format is also provided for your guidance at the beginning of sample lesson section:

The lesson plan

Teacher’s name:________________________________

Date of presentation:____________________________

Estimated time of lesson:__________________________

Teaching point:__________________________________

Pre-assessment activity:___________________________

Relationship to current unit:_______________________

Pre-entry performance:___________________________

Performance objectives:___________________________

Criterion level:________________________________

Materials:______________________________________

Procedures (student’s activities)

Step-I:
Introduction
(Time: )

Step n. (concluding activity that permits informal testing of criterion level established above.)
(Time: )

Assignment (optional):
Alternate plans:
Comments/self-evaluation: (fill out after lesson is taught.)
However, you should bear in mind that the lesson plan should not be considered a fixed style and guide. Instead, you should view it as flexible and subject to change if circumstances call for such decision.

- The lesson plan should be flexible.
- If circumstances need change, changes should be made.

2.3 Self assessment questions

i. Why is cover sheet information necessary for a teacher?

ii. What are the advantages of using a set format of lesson plan?

iii. Write the specific information you would need for the justification of a teaching point in a lesson plan.

2.4 Activity

Using the lesson plan format given in the unit write a lesson plan for teaching simple present tense.
3. CLASSROOM SKILLS USEFUL FOR LESSON PLANNING

In this section of the unit we shall consider the four significant areas of classroom interaction that should be aware of in planning your lessons and analyzing your teaching. The four areas are the social climate, the variety in learning activities, the opportunity of students participation, and the need for feedback and correction. Finally, based on the four areas we will suggest self-evaluation.

3.1 Social climate

Social climate (which refers to the social backgrounds of the students, their intimacy or relationship with one another and with the teacher in the classroom environment) of the classroom promotes communication among the students and between the teacher and the students. This fact has been widely accepted in the language teaching. You will be interested to learn that in a research conducted at the university of California at Los Angles (UCLA) the English language teacher chose social climate as the most important among eleven factors related to teaching (Bailey, 1976).

As a teacher what you say is so significant that it outweights the effects of materials, methods and education facilities.

3.2 How can you promote social climate in the classroom

Here are some of the things you can do for a good social climate:

i. Learn students name, no matter how large the class is.
Students profiles, learning the student’s names can be facilitated by knowing something about each student in the class. You may find it useful to get this information in the form of an information sheet. The data from this sheet can be used to make class profile.

**Student profile**

Full name: ______________________________

Father’s name: __________________________

Father’s profession: ______________________

Subjects taken: __________________________

Favourite subject at school: ______________

Favourite game: __________________________

Favourite hobby: __________________________

Favourite food: __________________________

**Class introductory activity:** The information about students names can be made an introductory activity during the first class meeting at the beginning of school year. This will help getting the students acquainted with each other as well as with the teacher.

For conducting this activity, you will need cards which you can easily get by cutting the backs of used greeting cards. As a language teacher you should try to have a scrap box. Many language practice exercise can be done by using odds and evens from the scrap box. Give a card to each student and ask him/her to print his/her name on
the card. Collect the cards from the students and redistribute them to different students. Tell the students that they have to locate the persons whose card they have. In the process of locating the persons, they have to talk to more than one person. When the student has had time to identify and interview one another, call one student to the front of the class to introduce the student whose card he/she has finished. The student introduced introduces another and the process continues, until all have been introduced. This activity not only helps the teacher and the students to match the names with the faces, but also gives the teacher a chance to hear each student speaking during the first class period. It is observed that normally students find it easier to speak about someone else for a few minutes than to talk about themselves.

iv. **Language activity:** The social climate of a class can also be enhanced by a language activity in which the whole class is involved. For example, choose an interesting story and divide it into as many sentences as there are students in the class. Let each student in the class write his sentences on a card and distribute them randomly. Give each student two or three minutes to memorise his/her card. Collect the cards and tell the students to arrange themselves into a logical story.

v. **Physical arrangement of class:** The physical arrangement of the class greatly influences the social climate of a class. You may not be in a position to do much. Where possible, have the desks arranged in such a way that at least small group interaction can take place. Ensure that the classroom is clean, airy, and well lighted.
3.3 **Teacher’s behavior:**

Finally to have your students interested in your teaching, you should project an enthusiastic and positive image. You should smile and provide chances for laughter in the class. Remember that teacher’s behavior also helps create a pleasant learning environment. So smile and do not look grim.

3.4 **Self assessment question**

1. Why is social climate more important than textbook, syllabus or method used.

3.5 **Activity**

Plan a question answer game using “why” and “because”. Have two teams. One team has a question on a card and the other team has the answer. Give a time limit for pairing of the right question answer. Question answer should be called out a loud. If the pairs are not made within time, they do not score any point.
4. VARIETY IN LEARNING ACTIVITIES

It may be interesting to know that research show that good language teachers use a variety of activities in language lesson. A well selected variety of activities help you in the following way:

- Prevent boredom
- Minimize class control problems
- Encourage student achievement

Planning of a lesson, places a great responsibility on you as a teacher. You have to be very careful in considering what type of activities to do. The choice of activities should be such that it enables your students to understand, practice, and internalize the teaching point.

Let us lists the varieties that can be introduced in the language learning activities.

4.1 Learning activities

a. Listening: Listen to other people speaking, tape recording, radio broadcast, video recordings of lectures, television programmes, guest speaker. Student generated listening materials, recording of students oral reports, dialogues, stories, poems etc.

b. Speaking: Reading a passage aloud, dialogue, introduction, interviews, excuse and apologies. Role playing, praise, telephone, picture discussion, identify hidden items from their description, book reports of stories, book-sale (students tells about the book he/she read, any one who wants to buy it puts up his/her hand to have the book for reading. Student succeeds in selling his book. Through his ‘book talk’ he persuades others to buy the book, so this is book-sale).
c. Reading: textbooks, newspapers, magazines, travel brochures, catalogues, letters, comic, reading one another's composition to find any error, silent reading, loud reading, following directions.

d. Writing: Controlled writing, guided writing, letter writing, pen friends, writing own biography (autobiography in paragraphs), poems, radio-dramas, letters to editors, jokes, keeping a journal, class newspaper, class projects, e.g. Pakistan, Rawal Dam, Quaid-i-Azam.

4.2 Audio-visual (AV) aids

Now-a-days a great deal of variety of topics can be introduced through the use of audio-visual aids like video-tapes, audio-recording, film-strips, motion-films, overhead projectors, sound and slide programmes. All these audio-visual aids make the teacher's job easier, but at the same time it is very complicated and challenging because as a teacher, you have to learn to coordinate and operate the machines alongwith the teaching of your lesson. However, with a little practice and careful planning the use of such aids add variety and interest to your lesson. You should also make sure that AV aids work with the lesson and not against it. You may not have all these AV aids. You should utilize easily available equipment to help your students learn the material.

4.3 Blackboard drawings

Even if you do not have audio-visual aids or pictures, you can very successfully use the blackboard to draw simple clear pictures to carry your message.

For example, ‘stick figures’ are a very easy means of illustrating a teaching point or building up an action story. The proportion of stick figure should be as follows:
Body-----twice as long as the head
Legs-----three times as long as the head

When drawing bent figures shorten the parts accordingly.

In planning your lesson remember to:

- Consider several ways of making the lesson interesting and stimulating.
- Carefully sequence activities from easy to difficult.

4.4 **Activity**

Keeping in mind your learning situation, suggest some activities for encouraging variety in the skills of speaking and reading.
5. OPPORTUNITIES FOR STUDENT PARTICIPATION

As language teachers you are aware of the fact that active use of the language is crucial to good language learning. But some of you are often faced with large classes. In such classes how can you involve all the students in the use of language? Traditionally chorus repetition has been used for getting all the students speak at once. Repetition does not really give chance for use of the language.

An answer to large classes is to involve maximum students and reduce the “teacher talk” in the lesson. Careful planning on your part as a teacher can change the pattern of teacher dominated activities to teacher/student communication.

5.1 How can we plan opportunities for student participation?
A simple way is:

- Get the students involved in classroom

  Call Roll - Promote inter-action, a sense of team work, learning of names.
  Return corrected work
  Develop bulletin board
  Read announcements

- In a large class you should have students’ names written on cards. Flip through the cards and call names. This will help in fair distribution of turns for students.
- Chain drill to cut down “teacher talk”.

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Example:

Teacher: Kamal, what time did you get up?
Kamal: I got up at six o’clock in the morning.
Teacher: Very good! Find out what time does Jamal get up?

This arrangement will be followed by Kamal asking another student. This activity involves the use of language, rising intonation, rephrasing the other students response (using the correct pronoun, singular/plural and reporting of the information).

The chain drill format can be applied to grammar lesson for increasing students participation.

- Turning students questions back to the class.

Example:

That’s a good question. Who can answer it?

The answer may be given orally or a student may be called to write the answer on the board.

a. Pair work: Future tense can be practiced by asking what the partner plans to do that evening or weekend. Past tense can be used by writing story using the verbs already learnt. A story may be read to the whole class and they may be asked to write it in their own words.

b. Small group: The role of the teacher for small group is to assist when help is needed, to keep the students working on the task by offering encouragements, settling disputes and to observe the students use of the language. Normally, in groups, teachers do not interfere.
Therefore, give clean directions at the beginning of the task. If there is a follow-up, let the group choose a spokesman.

c. Competitions: Team competitions can be used for a number of lesson plans, from basic spelling games to questions answers. As teacher you should define the rules of the game for maximum participation.

All of the teaching strategies discussed above are ways of increasing the opportunities for student participation.

Remember:

- Students need practice in using the language as well as the formal instruction.
- For students who do not speak English at home, the English class is the only opportunity to use the language.

5.2 **Self-assessment questions**

1. How can you minimize the teacher’s talk time?
2. How can you increase student participation through games?

5.3 **Activity**

Prepare a list of activities which can be used for maximizing student’s participation in language learning.
6. LESSON PLAN FOR READING TEXT

Teaching point: To teach text lesson

Back nestling: (Sample and reading passage is given in appendix).

Pre-entry assessment: Students will be asked to analyse the word “Nestling”.

Relationship to current unit: Students understand bird nestling. They can relate it to baby nestling which is the topic of present lesson.

Criterion level: Students will be able to do 80% of the exercises in class.

Materials: Picture of an African woman carrying a baby on her back. Pictures of other rural woman with babies.

Performance objectives:

a. Students will be able to understand the meaning of nestling.

b. Students will be able to generate a discussion on how babies are cared in villages and cities of Pakistan.

c. Students will be able to do the following:
   - Comprehension of the passage
   - Pronunciation exercises of silent sounds (Nestling).
   - Spelling game in groups
   - Writing a paragraph on how babies are taken care of in Pakistan.
6.1 Procedures

Step-I:

Show the picture of an African mother carrying a baby and ask the class:

a. Look at the picture. What do you think it is about? Which part of the world do you think this woman is from? Alright, you now know that the woman is from Africa and she is carrying a baby on her back. You know a bit about the picture.

b. Before we start reading, let’s see how babies are carried in our country, in villages and in cities?

c. Before we open our books can any one tell me what nestling means?

Step-II:

Tell the class to read the passage silently for five minutes and in pairs to find out difficult words and list only those words which they cannot understand. (Good students to help others.) The passage is given in Appendix.

Step-III:

Ask the students to give difficult words and explain the meanings.

Step-IV:

Talking about the text in details ask the following questions:
In line four what does the author mean by:
“Meanwhile the baby stays in close contact”.
The line ten from the top, what can be meant by:
“Need freedom and the chance to use their limbs”
The 2rd line in second paragraph, what does the writer mean by?
“Be able to observe and explore the environment”.
Near the bottom of the 2nd part, why does he use the word “moreover”?
The sentence beginning, “many women”, what does the word ‘however’ tell us?

Step-V:

Ask one student from each group to read aloud one paragraph. When the students have read the first paragraph, do the following exercises:

1. Listen to the paragraph and pick out a word that means that it is a practice of the people.
   “The custom has advantage for both mother and child”.

2. Listen to this short piece and pick out a phrase which shows that security is broken.
   “Meanwhile, the baby stays in close contact with his mother and feels warm and safe. This sense of security may suddenly be broken, when the child can no longer be carried.”

3. Listen to this short piece and pick out a word that shows that the child liked the sounds, a word that the child made the place untidy.
“Immediately the child started examining them one-by-one. Then he started banging the pots and boxes with the spoons. The different sounds fascinate him. But mammananee did not like the noise or the mess.”

**Step-VI:**

Can anyone tell in your own words what the passage about?

6.2 **Pronunciation Exercises**

**Step-VII:**

Let’s look at these two words and their spellings:
Nestle, Nestling

Now let’s say them ‘T’ is not stressed. ‘T’ is silent. Let’s see other words with silent ‘T’.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nestle</th>
<th>Listen</th>
<th>Fasten</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Hustle</td>
<td>Listening</td>
<td>Fastening</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bustle</td>
<td>Listened</td>
<td>Fastener</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Let us practice saying words which start with ‘T’ or end with ‘T’ and the ‘T’ is not silent.

Write words with ‘T’ in the beginning/end on the blackboard:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Trap</th>
<th>Trot</th>
<th>Transmit</th>
<th>Different</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Trade</td>
<td>Float</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tremendous</td>
<td>Boat</td>
<td>Event</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Travel</td>
<td>Difficult</td>
<td>Consistent</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Now let’s say word with Th. ‘Th’ sound is different from ‘T’ sound above. It is ‘Th’. Demonstrate how to make the sound:

This
The
That

Mother
Father
Weather

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Divide the class into three groups and let each group say the different ‘T’ sounds as you point to these words on the blackboard.

Give practice in “Th’ sound in pairs. Go round and check.

6.3 Assignments
Write answers to questions in step ‘I-B’.

6.4 Alternate plan
Write a paragraph on how babies are carried in Pakistan.
7. LESSON PLAN FOR GRAMMAR (TENSES)

Teaching point: Review of tenses.

Pre-entry assessment: Analysis of verb forms.

Relationship to current unit: The verb forms knowledge is used to review the various tenses.

Pre-entry performance: Students can narrate events taking place at different times.

Criterion level: Students will be able to do 90% of the work in class, 10% can be done as homework.

Materials: Blackboard, charts showing actions of daily life activities. Chart of Quaid-i-Azam’s life.

Performance objectives: Students will be able to demonstrate the use of different tenses from daily activity chart. Students will be able to tell about their activities. Students will be able to tell about the events in Quaid-i-Azam’s life.

7.1 Procedures

Introduction: Before we start today’s work, I want you to watch me and then tell me what I am doing?

Step-I:

(Cleaning the blackboard)

What am I doing? You are cleaning the blackboard.

What did I do? You cleaned the blackboard.

(Reading a book)

What am I doing? You are reading a book.

What have I done? You have read a book.

What have I been doing? You have been reading a book.
(Writing on the blackboard)

What did I do? You wrote on the blackboard.
What have I done now? You have written on the blackboard.

**Step-II:**
Split the class into three groups. Give to the group leader of

- **group-I:** Jan’s daily activities chart.
- **Group-II:** Stick figure pictorial chart.
- **Group-III:** Quaid-Azam’s life chart/or scroll of Quaid’s life.

**Step-III:**
Tell the group spokesman to work in their groups and write the answers to the questions card of the activity assigned to their group. The answers should be written on paper by each member.

**Step-IV:**
Give answers card to each group leader and tell him to check the response in his/her group. One correct answer scores 1 point. Count the score of the whole group.

**Step-V:**
Call the group leaders exchange the group activity cards and proceed in the same way as first activity. A group should work through the all answer cards.

**Step-VI:**
Call the group leaders to the front and let them tell their scores. The group with the highest score is the winner.
7.2 **Assignments**

Let the students complete a table.

1. **Showing contrast between**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Time</th>
<th>Specification</th>
<th>A habitual action</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Present</td>
<td>I am writing a letter now.</td>
<td>I write my parents once a week.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Past</td>
<td>I wrote a letter yesterday.</td>
<td>I used to write my grandmother every weekend.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2. **Show the chart of Jan’s activities. These are the activities Jan does. Write a paragraph about them.**

   **Jan’s activities**

3. **These are the things Jan did yesterday. Write a narrative about them.**

   **Jan’s daily activities**

   **Chart-I**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Time</th>
<th>Activity</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>6.30 am</td>
<td>Gets up</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.00 am</td>
<td>Eats breakfast</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.45 am</td>
<td>Goes to university</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9.00 am</td>
<td>Attends math class</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

   **Chart-II**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Time</th>
<th>Activity</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>12.15 pm</td>
<td>Talks to friends</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12.30 pm</td>
<td>Eats lunch</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>02.30 pm</td>
<td>Studies in library</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>04.30 pm</td>
<td>Goes to work</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Questions for the charts:

a. Present: What does Jan do everyday at 7 o’ clock?
   Ans. (Jan eats breakfast at 7 o’ clock.)

b. Present Progressive
   It is 6.30 a.m. What is Jan doing now?
   (Jan is getting up).

c. Past: What did Jan do yesterday at 7.45 a.m?
   (Jan went to the university).
d. Present Perfect: It is 6.35 a.m. What has Jan just done? (Jan has just got up).
It is 2.30 p.m. What has Jan already done? (Jan has gone to study at the library). What hadn’t he done yet? (He has not gone to work).

e. Future progressive: What will Jan be doing at 2.30 pm tomorrow? (Jan will be going to the library).

4. QUAIID-I-AZAM
Quaid-i-azam Muhammad Ali Jinnah
(The group leader should unroll the scroll slowly to create suspense).

Questions:

a. Present perfect progressive: It is 1892: For how long has Quaid-i-Azam live in karachi?

b. Past perfect progressive: 1. In 1894: For how long had Quaid-i-Azam been attending the Lincoln’s Inn?
2. In 1896: For how long had Quaid-i-Azam been living in London before he came to Bombay?
3. In 1930: For how long had Quaid-i-Azam been living in Bombay before he returned to London?
4. In 1948: For how long had Quaid-i-Azam been in Ziarat before he passed away?
7.3 **Alternate plan**

To understand the distinction between present and simple past give the following sentences to the students and tell them to complete by using the appropriate tense:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Time</th>
<th>Situation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>8 am</td>
<td>I haven’t eaten breakfast this morning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9 am</td>
<td>(It is still morning)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10 am</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11 am</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
01 pm  I did not eat breakfast
02 pm  (It is no longer morning)
February 01  Have you paid your income tax?
February 15  (There is still time)
March 01
March 15
April 01
April 15  Income tax returns to be paid
April 16  Did you pay your income tax?
May 01
May 15
8. LESSON PLAN FOR PARAGRAPH WRITING

Time 90 minutes: (45 minutes discussion + 45 minutes writing)

Teaching point: How to write paragraphs—writing to be done through different forms.

pre-assessment writings: Analysis of daily journal notes.

Relationship to current unit: The daily journal notes or diaries are a good source for paragraph writing.

Pre-entry performance: Students write the account of daily activities in the daily journal.

Performance objectives:

a. To help students to be able to write good English.

b. To link sentences, using connecting words.

c. To organise information logically and clearly.

d. To help them write paragraphs with model passage.

e. To help them write paragraphs with the help of topic sentences given.

Criterion level: Most students will be able to write one paragraph each.

Materials: Blackboard, cyclostyled papers with model paragraph and topic sentences given.
Procedures

Step-I:

a. Show students examples of the following:
   - One sentence
   - Two sentences
   - One paragraph
   - One composition with 3-4 paras.

   Ask the students questions about what they see on the blackboard. Through the response develop the “paragraph” and announce that the lesson will be dealing with different ways of developing paragraphs.

Step-II:

a. Read the following five sentences. Write them in proper order in the form of a paragraph. Let the students guide in arranging the sentences in a paragraph.

   1. I was given some cotton for my ears.
   2. We were told to fasten our seat belts
   3. First I was directed to my seat by the air hostess.
   4. We were given instructions on what to do in case of emergency.
   5. We were welcomed by the pilot and his crew through a message on microphone.

b. The paragraph development by the students will look like this:

   First I was directed to my seat by the air hostess. We were welcomed by the pilot and his crew through a message on microphone. I was given some cotton for my ears. We were given instructions on what to do in case of emergency.
Write this passage on the blackboard and tell the students the nature of the assignment.

c. Here is another exercise for developing paragraphs.

Directions:

Add three more sentences that develop the topic sentence:

1. once I visited a village which was located________________

2. The people of the village had their own distinct customs.

Discuss the above two examples used for developing the paragraph. Ask the following questions:

- Which is the opening sentence of the para?
- Which sentences support the first sentence?
- Which is the concluding sentence?
- What title can be given to this para?

Review the process of paragraph development. Let the students form pairs. Ask them to tell each other about someone whom they know. They should speak about the person and then write the para. After having written the para, they should review it again and make corrections.

Are your students poor at writing? Try the following:

- Plan lesson carefully—students should speak, read and then write.
- Grade each step—give shorter, simpler tasks until they improve.
- Give practice in planning, organising and expressing information.
o Give model paragraph and compositions.
o Practice relevant structures before they write them.
o Keep a record of common mistakes. Focus on one in a lesson.
o Insist on correction. Test them later.
o Make them write in class. Vary the topics.
o Do writing as group work. (The good students help the poor).

8.2 Assignments
1. Write a short paragraph about someone you know.
2. You think you have seen a man who is wanted by the police. Write for the police a short description of the man saying when and where you saw the man.
   Begin: The man I saw was coming out of etc. place, time, date, description of clothes, brief case, etc. Appearance, manner, possible intentions.

8.3 Alternate plan
1. Study this paragraph:
   Hussain’s new house is off Jinnah street. He moved there because it is quieter. It is next door to a hospital and has a large garden at the back. His wife likes it because it has a modern kitchen.

2. Now write about your friend’s house using the similar sentences.
   Sadiq/flat/park/road/moved/cheaper/cinema/small/garden/front/friends/near/town.
9. LESSON PLAN FOR COMPOSITION

Time 90 minutes: 45 minutes for discussion, (45 minutes for writing).

Teaching point: Writing a composition on “My country”.

Pre-assessment writing: Analysis of paragraph writing.

Relationship to current unit: Paragraph will help in the writing of composition.

Pre-entry performance: Students home written paragraphs.
- To be able to plan an outline for composition.
- To discuss the composition in the light of the outline.
- To give students an opportunity to communicate ideas and facts from their experience.
- To help students develop an understanding of paragraphing as each point on the outline represents a potential subject for a new paragraph.

Criterion level: The students will be able to write a few paragraphs.

Material: Map of country, blackboard, and tourist brochures.
9.1 **Procedures**

**Step-I:**
The outline discussion: Write the outline on the blackboard.

*My Country*
- Location on the continent map, bordering areas, geographical set up and weather.
- Historical background.
- Our people, culture and religion.
- Our products and our crops.

1. Call on the students to repeat information on the above points. Call even on those who usually remain silent.
2. Encourage the class to participate and correct the information given by their classmates.
3. Write on the blackboard, grammar structures and vocabulary that students may need.
4. Make the students use the correct form and invite class to correct any mistakes.
5. Illustrate kinds of language items that require guidance from geographical aspect. Make use of the map.

**Point-I:** **Location on the continent, and geographical set up:**

Name of the continent: Asia
Bordering Countries: East-India
North-Afghanistan
West-Afghanistan
North-China
East-China
West-Iran
South-Arabian sea
Point-2: **Historical background:**
Quaid-i-Azam Muhammad Ali Jinnah – Founder
Muslim league, Allama Iqbal
First Governor General.
Provinces –Punjab, Baluchistan, Sindh, NWFP,
Towns/cities
Capitals: Islamabad, Karachi, Quetta, Lahore, Peshawar.

Point-3: **Our people, culture and religion:**
People Muslim majority

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Four provinces</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Punjab</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Punjabi</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

70% rural population farmers
Folk dresses, folk dances, folk songs
Religion: Islam.
Mosques (Badshahi Mosque, Faisal Mosque)

Point-4: **Our corps, products and industry:**
Agriculture –main crops: wheat, maize, cotton, rice
Products –regional handicrafts
Industry –cotton, sports, leather, textile, cement, fertilizers, electronics, heavy industry, etc.

Step-II:
- a. Tell the students to write the composition.
- b. Emphasize on legible, organised paragraphs.
- c. Tell students that paragraph I and II can be combined, but would be best if taken separately.
- d. Emphasize on margins, bolds, paragraphs, etc.

9.2 **Assignments**
1. Tell students to write the composition on “My Country”.
2. Prepare a class project on "Pakistan" in groups. Let each group write separately on the following:
   - Geographical location of Pakistan
   - People of Pakistan
   - Culture of Pakistan
   - Products of Pakistan

9.3 **Alternate plan**
Write on “Islamabad”.
10. LESSON PLAN FOR LETTER WRITING

Teaching Point: Writing a letter both formal and friendly.

Pre-assessment activity: Analysis of a note written by students to the parents for attending “Parents Day”.

Relationship to current unit: Invitation letter is a good starting point to introduce the different types of Letters, the levels of formality, that is of adapting one’s Language according to the relationship between the addresser and addressee.

Pre-entry performance: Students have written a formal note for parents day

Performance Objectives:
- a. To distinguish between a formal letter and a letter which is halfway between the friendly and the formal in style.
- b. To compare the formats of the two letters.
- c. To compare the vocabulary of the two letters.
- d. To discuss the body of a letter.
- e. To write a letter to your principal to give you a letter of reference.

Criterion level: All the students will be able to write a formal letter.

Materials: Blackboard, two types of letters (on blackboard or cyclostyled copy), envelope with a clear and correct address/code, etc., envelope with incomplete address.
10.1 **Procedures**

Step-I:

Show the two types of letters

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Formal letter</th>
<th>Friendly letter</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>This is to inform you that the Minister of education will be visiting your school on Monday 20(^{th}) may, at 2.00 pm (1) Would you therefore make arrangements for him to see all the classes at work, and afterwards for him to address the staff and students separately. (2) Please confirm receipt of this letter, giving an outline plan of your suggested arrangements. (3).</td>
<td>I thought I’d better let you know that I am bringing the Minister along to your place next month, Monday, 20(^{th}) to be exact. (1) it’s just the usual sort of thing. He wants to see a few classes and then give a pep talk to one and all. (2) The official letter is following, but I thought I’d warn you in advance. (3).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Formal reply</th>
<th>Friendly reply</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>This is to confirm that we have received your letter of 10(^{th}) April, informing us of the Minister of education’s proposed visit to this school. (1). We will be happy to receive the Minister and show him the work we are doing here. (2) I suggest that he may visit classes between 2.00 pm and 2.45 pm following by a</td>
<td>Thanks for yours lines about the Minister’s visit. (1) I expect you’ve already seen our official reply. (2). If not, we’ve arranged for him to make a quick round of afternoon classes. He’s seen so many before that he won’t be all that interested and the last hour’s reserved for his talk, which I guess is the real reason for his visit anyways.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
short informal tea-break with staff members. (3) He could address pupils and staff between 3.00 pm and 4.00 pm. (4)

I trust that these arrangements will meet with the minister's approval. (5)

b. Let the students study the two letters.

c. Ask students questions to elicit contrasts in the form of vocabulary, subject matter, etc. for both formal and informal letter.

d. Write down two headings on the blackboard: under formal place words that are formal in nature and informal ones under informal:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Formal</th>
<th>Informal</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>inform you</td>
<td>to bring along</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>address</td>
<td>your place</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>meet with</td>
<td>to be exact</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>approval</td>
<td>usual sort of thing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>confirm</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

e. Build up lists of formal and informal words and phrases.

f. Ask the students to pick contracted verb forms from the informal letter, e.g. I'd, it's, you've, it'll. Do some grammatical work of contracted verb forms.

g. Discuss some grammatical structures of formal writing and write the structures on the blackboard:

**Impersonal subjects:**
'This' is to inform you ......
'This' is to confirm that ......
I trust that these arrangements will meet with the Minister's approval.

**Conditional verb tenses:**
"Would" you therefore make arrangements ......
I suggest that he 'should' visit classes ......
He 'could' then address pupils ......

**Nominalisations:**
You suggested arrangements' (the arrangements you suggest)
The Minister's proposed visit' (the visit the Minister proposes)
These arrangements will meet with the Minister's approval.
(The Minister will approve what we have arranged)

h. Discuss the subject matter of the letter.

Subject matter: In the formal models only necessary information may be given, whereas in the informal models personal. Comments are also permissible (for example, he’s seen so many before that he won’t be all that interested' and which I guess is the real reason for his visit anyway’).

**Step-II:**
a. Discuss the body of the letter, i.e.
   - Sender's address
   - Date
   - Salutation
   - Closing (signature) or (subscription)
   - Address on the envelope. Address of the addressee (may be omitted in informal letters). Use examples to show a good address and a bad address.
Format of a letter

House No. 96,
Street No. 42,
Sector F-6/1,

Dear________________

______________________________________________

__________________________________________________

__________________________________________________


Yours sincerely

______________

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Good address</th>
<th>Bad address</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mr. Ghulam Rasul</td>
<td>Mr. Ghulam Rasul</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>House No 96, st. 69</td>
<td>Sector G-6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sector G-6/4</td>
<td>Islamabad.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

b. There are two types of letters i.e. the formal letter and informal (friendly/personal). There is another type of letter which can be included in the formal letters. Can you guess? Business letter.
Review the formal/informal letter writing process using two examples.

Step-III:

Use the situation illustrated below to practice writing three different types of letters.

a. Letter to a bus company (formal)
b. Letter to a student’s room-mate (friendly)
c. Letter to a stranger who found a briefcase (friendly)
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Formal</th>
<th>Friendly</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Business</td>
<td>Friendly letter to strangers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Letter ordering goods or services</td>
<td>Letters to older relations</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| More formal | Less formal |

10.2 **Assignments**

Complete the three letters.

10.3 **Alternate plan**

Write a letter to the principal to give you a reference letter for admission into a college. Include in the letter guidelines for the exact information you would like him to put in.


11. LESSON PLAN FOR TEACHING POETRY

Teaching point: Teaching a poem from poetry book.
Pre-entry assessment: Students have read poems in the textbook.

Relationship to current unit: Teaching poems from poetry book is backed up by poems in the textbook.
pre-entry performance: The students have read poems in the textbook.
Criterion level: It is hoped that 90% of the children will develop appreciation of the poem and feel no fear of the poetic language.

Performance objectives: 
   a. To let the students recite the poem.
   b. To enjoy the poem by paying attention to rhyme.
   c. To be able to tell the story about the poem.

Materials: Blackboard, some biographical notes on the poet, related visual aids.

11.1 Procedures
Step-I:
   Introduce name of poem.
   Introduce name of poet.
   Tell some biographical information about the poet. Go through the poem and list words and structures which are poetic and which you would not like your students to use in ordinary conversational English. Explain these items when you first introduce them to your class.
Step-II:

1. Present visual aids wherever you decide to use them. Mark your copy of the poem to remind you where they are to appear.

2. If the poem is a narrative poem (e.g. Yussouf), tell the story in simple words accompanying tune by a little move and gesture. If the poem is not a narrative one make sure you can tell it simply and quickly.

Step-III:

After the story is told and before the poem is read, ask questions. Prepare questions beforehand. The questions should be about the events in the poem and the things the poet says.

Step-IV:

Read the poem. Remember when to put the stress, where to change your speed and tone. Read the poem more quietly and signal to the students to join in. Let the students take over and your voice remains as one of them. If you hear they are breaking the rhythm, raise your voice just enough to bring them back.

Step-V:

Call on individual students to read. Keep your voice in a whisper tone. If you notice the student making a mistake raise your voice and join in. Do not stop the student, do not go back and do not make him go back.
11.2 **Assignments**

1. Write a description of one character of the poem.
2. Find out the background of the poem and the poet.
3. Let students write a short dialogue taken from the poem for acting in class.

11.3 **Alternate plan:**

Select some poems which can be recited.

1. Let the students recite the poem.
2. Let them enjoy the poem by paying attention to rhyme.
3. Ask them to tell the story of the poem.

12. **BIBLIOGRAPHY**


Murcia M. C., McIntosh, L. (1979). *Teaching English as Second or Foreign Language*, Newbury House Publishers, Inc. Rowley, Massachusetts:


Many African mothers carry, or nestle, their babies on their backs. This custom has advantages for both mother and child. A working mother who has nobody to look after the baby, knows he is safe on her back, while her hands are free for her work. Meanwhile, the baby stays in close contact with his mother and feels warm and safe. This sense of security may be suddenly broken, however, when the child can no longer be carried, he may be put down and expected to behave like a grown up child. But as he has been over-protected for so long through nestling that he now feels very insecure and may behave like a baby.

Children need freedom and the chance to use their limbs. They need to be able to observe and explore their environment. They also need to learn how to make and do things on their own. Therefore, even when mothers must carry their babies everywhere, they should try to set them free whenever possible.

Many women, whoever, prefer to carry their children all day long, they feel the children are safe, sleep longer, keep quieter and do not make a mess: I once visited a friend's home where the mam-nurse was nestling my friend's eleven months old child. Seeing he was restless, I asked the mam-nurse to put him down. At first she did not want to, because she thought the child would make the room untidy. When she finally agreed, I asked for some kitchen pots, spoons, unopened tins and boxes since there were no toys to play with. Immediately the child started examining them one by one. Then he started banging the pots and boxes with the spoons. The different sounds fascinated him. But mam-nurse didn't like the noise nor the mess.
EVALUATING THE INSTRUCTIONAL OUTCOME

Written By:
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Revised By:
Prof. Mian Muhammad Afzal

Revised (second) By:
Mr. Ajmal Malik
INTRODUCTION

Evaluation is as old process as the history of mankind itself. What ever we perform or accomplish, we evaluate it in the light of the standards set by the society. Education is no exception. Here we evaluate our own performance as teachers, and also evaluate the achievement of students in comparison to set objectives of the programme.

In this unit effort has been made to describe the different kinds of evaluation useful for the teaching of English language.

OBJECTIVES

After an intensive study of this unit, you are expected to be able to:

- Describe the meaning of evaluation and its relationship with some other terms.
- Enlist and explain the purposes served by evaluation.
- Make valid decisions about using a uniform or different criteria for evaluating students’ performance in English.
- Describe and make use of evaluation techniques for assessing students performance in oral as well as written English.
- Prepare and use check list for readily identifying students weaknesses in different aspects of learning English as a foreign language in Pakistan.
- Adopt remedial steps for the improvement of student learning in English as a foreign language.
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<th>Page No</th>
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1. EVALUATION

1.1 Nature and definition
As you must be aware, the present day literature on education is replete with terms like assessment, evaluation, measurement and testing, etc. Though there is a noticeable difference in the meaning of these terms, yet they are occasionally used interchangeably. Nevertheless, before we plunge into further discussion about the term “evaluation”, it seems desirable to have a cursory look at the subtle difference in them.

The term ‘evaluation’ is a fairly comprehensive one and includes the other terms in its overall umbrella. In this way, terms like measurement, assessment, etc. are a part and parcel of evaluation. According to Ahmann and Glock, educational measurement is the process that attempts to obtain quantified representation of the degree to which a student reflects a trait. The use of a paper and pencil test to discover the scholastic aptitude or achievement of a student is an illustration of educational measurement. It is a descriptive term which concentrates on a particular trait. On the other hand, evaluation is a more inclusive term than measurement. It is a process in which a teacher commonly uses information derived from many sources to arrive at a value judgement. Such information might be obtained by using measuring instrument as well as other techniques that do not necessarily yield quantitative results such as general information questionnaires, direct observations and teacher pupil interview.

Further, it may also be noted that an evaluation may or may not be based on measurement data, though appropriate measurements are often used if they are available. Data from good measuring instruments can provide a sound basis for good evaluation.
It is further maintained by some writers that educational measurement includes educational testing. The term test is fairly simple and widely used. According to Cronbach, it can be defined as any systematic procedure for observing a person's behaviour and describing it by means of numerical scale.

Having said a few words about the technical difference between the terms, let us now concentrate upon the word “evaluation”. As we have already described, it is quite an inclusive term as compared to others having more or less similar meaning. Firstly have a look at the following definitions of the term evaluation:

i. Evaluation is the systematic process of collecting and analysing data in order to make decision. (L. R. Gay)

ii. Educational evaluation is the systematic process of determining the effectiveness of educational endeavours in the light of evidence. (Ahmann and Glock)

iii. Evaluation is the assessment of whether teaching achieves its objectives. (H. H. Stern)

iv. Evaluation may be defined as the complete process of identifying the objectives of an aspect of education and appraising the extent to which those objectives have been achieved. ...(Thorndike and Hagen)

A close analysis of the foregoing definitions of evaluation indicates that it is a highly essential activity on the part of a teacher which enables him to judge as to what extent the predetermined objectives of an educational programme have been achieved. In case the objectives have not been achieved, what are the major obstacles or hurdles which have blocked their way, etc. In addition to that, the process of evaluation
yields so many other important information to the teachers and others involved in the instructional process.

1.2 **Significance of evaluation**

Since evaluation tells, all concerned, as to what extent the educational objectives have been achieved, the process obviously carries much significance. Before we take up the purposes served by evaluation specifically in the teaching of English language, let us have a cursory look at the purposes served by evaluation in general. According to Klausmier and Goodwin, these purposes include the following:

a. To facilitate student progress.
b. To assess student progress.
c. To understand the individual student.
d. To facilitate self-understanding by the student.
e. To evaluate instructional programmes.
f. To assist in administrative judgements.
g. To contribute to knowledge of abilities and instruction.

As a matter of fact, the number and types of purposes served by evaluation, may be much larger in actual practice but in a nutshell, the above list seems to be quite comprehensive as far as the overall and general purposes of evaluation are concerned.

1.3 **Purposes of evaluation**

Let us now discuss in brief the purposes evaluation serves in the context of teaching English as a foreign language in Pakistan. The purposes evaluation serves may be too many in number and too complex in nature, but the following description
would help you appreciate the major points in this connection. David P. Harris, identifies these purposes as under:

1. **To determine readiness for instructional programme:** It is a recognised fact that some sort of screening test help in separating those who are prepared for an educational programme from those who are not. You as a teacher of English language are also surely interested in undertaking similar useful exercise in your class.

2. **TO classify to place individuals in appropriate language classes:** Occasionaly, on the basis of the degree of proficiency in English language, you may like to place certain students in certain sections or groups.

3. **To diagnose the individual’s specific strengths and weekness:** Diagnostic screening tests generally consist of several short but reliable tests measuring different language skills or components of a broad skill. This helps us in identifying the relative strengths and weeknesses of the student in a particular skill.

4. **To ensure aptitude for learning:** You may also use a test with the objective of identifying as to what extent a student has got aptitude for language learning. This helps in predicting his future performance in that language.

5. **To measure the extent of students’ achievement of instructional goals:** Our final written examinations/tests help in knowing as to how far the student has achieved the instructional goals in learning English as a foreign language in Pakistan.
6. **To evaluate the effectiveness of instructions:** Sometimes tests are used exclusively to assess the degree of success not of individuals but of instructional programme itself.

1.4 **Activity**

You just identify as to what purposes are being served by the tests administered or the evaluation undertaken by you during the last few months in your class:

1. 
2. 
3. 
4. 
5. 
6. 

1.5 **Characteristics of good evaluation**

Some of the characteristics of good evaluation may be briefly mentioned as under:

i. **Validity:** Good evaluation procedure must have validity. By validity we mean that it must serve the purpose it is meant to serve. Put in other words, we should question, ourselves: Is our test appropriate to measure the essay writing capacity, if we are going to measure that very talent in our students? For that purpose, a test would not be valid if it tests any other thing but the essay writing ability.

ii. **Reliability:** An evaluation should have reliability. By reliability we mean the degree to which the results yielded by a test are consistent or stable. For example, a test is reliable if within reasonable time, a student every time gets almost the same marks. If in a translation test, a student gets 25/50 marks
now and soon after gets. 10/50 or 40/50 marks, the test is not said to be reliable.

iii. **Useability:** The test or evaluation instrument should be useable. In other words, it should be practicable or administerable. An evaluation instrument may be highly “good” but if it is not possible to test the student with that it is good for nothing. For example, it is not possible to administer a test to assess students performance which takes eight hours. So the test designed on these lines is not useable.

iv. **Suitability:** A test should be suitable to the mental maturity level and physical readiness of the students. For example, it is not suitable to ask a beginner of English to write an essay on ‘Journey to the Moon’ in this language. Similarly, an advanced level student may not be asked to tell spellings of simple words like ‘boy’, ‘girl’ etc.

v. **Motivationality:** The evaluation tool, test, etc. designed for the purpose should motivate the students, teachers and others involved in the process to accelerate their efforts in achieving the predetermined objectives of teaching. Any test or evaluation tool that leaves a negative impact upon them or frustrates them, is not a good test.

vi. **Objectivity:** The, evaluation should be designed in such a way that it comes out to be an objective instrument for measuring the intended characteristics. In other words, it should not be prone to any subjective element or personal biased opinion of anyone.

vii. **Scoreability:** A test should be easy to be scored so that the scorer does not feel exhausted or bored. A test which is difficult to be scored makes the evaluator lose his interest in the whole process which is likely to affect the objectivity of the same.
1.6 **Self-assessment questions-I**

1. What do you understand by evaluation? Differentiate it from other terms like measurement, research, testing.

2. What are the major purposes served by evaluation? Give examples in support of your answer.

3. Elaborate the significance of evaluation in education.

4. Encircle; the most appropriate answer:
   i. A test is valid if:
      a. It can be scored easily.
      b. It measures what it should.
      c. It can be administered easily.
      d. All of the above.
   ii. Mr. Ali got 20/50 marks in a test of English language. The teacher administered the same test to him just after half an hour. This time Mr. Ali got 40/50 marks. What is the most appropriate characteristic of the test:
      a. The test is not objective.
      b. The test is not scoreable.
      c. The test is not reliable.
      d. The test is not administerable.
   iii. Which one of these is the quality of a good test?
      a. Validity
      b. Reliability
      c. Scoreability
      d. All of the above

5. Complete the following sentences/statements by filling the gaps with the most appropriate Words/phrases:
   i. __________ is broader than measurement.
   ii. Measurement is the __________ aspect of evaluation.
   iii. Evaluation tells as to how far we have achieved the __________ of education.
2. TECHNIQUES OF EVALUATION IN LANGUAGE TEACHING

As has generally been accepted, the main aims of language teaching are very commonly defined in terms of four skills, i.e. speaking, understanding speech (or listening), reading and writing. According to H. G. Widdowson, speaking and listening are said to relate to language expressed through the aural medium and reading and writing are said to relate to language expressed through visual medium.

D. P. Harris has recommended the following techniques for evaluating different aspects of language learning.

i. **Translation:** Translation has been and is still a very popular technique of evaluating proficiency in a language. Even today in our schools, questions are invariably set on translating into English/Urdu. This, however, does not tell much about intonation and accent, etc. unless the student verbally utters or reads what he has translated from or into English.

ii. **Dictation:** It is a useful testing technique in the case of beginners and low-level learners of a foreign language.

iii. **Composition:** It may consist of some paragraphs on a certain topic set by the teacher/examiner. It tells a lot about the use of grammatical structures, lexicon of the language and also the expression and organization of ideas.

iv. **Multiple-choice items:** In this technique, the student is required to select the best or the most appropriate answer from amongst the given ones.

v. **Short-answer items:** It is a sort of combination of the good points of both multible-choice and
composition tests. The learner is required to write very brief in a highly structured way.

2.1 **Assessment of performance in oral English**

Since skill of oral expression occupies a very significant place in language learning, so does its evaluation. It is, however, much distressing to state here that no standardised evaluative instruments and techniques are available in Pakistan to evaluate the oral/spoken part of learning English. Nevertheless, a skilful teacher can manage to evaluate the expression of students informally and even by comparing the oral expression with some generally acceptable standard of expression.

Since the oral aspect of language learning teaching is closely associated with the listening of the same, the teacher of English cannot afford to remain unconcerned with the listening habits of his students. The situation in Pakistani schools is no exception, of course. The English teacher should, therefore, ensure that the students develop good listening habits and, if necessary, refer the case to medical specialist.

2.2 **Assessment of performance in written English**

Writing of correct English is an important aspect of teaching English as a foreign language in Pakistani schools. As a matter of fact, in our system of education where formal examination is arranged at the end of the academic semester or year, written English carries considerable weightage. Broadly speaking, it tends to include aspects like content, form, grammar, style and, if it is also relevant, the use of graphic conventions of the language.
2.3 **Use of essay type versus objective type tests**

The most frequently used technique in evaluating student’s performance in written English has been the composition or essay type tests which have their own strengths as well as weaknesses. Whereas essay type questions help in assessing students ability to express ideas, organise the matter and argue for or against a certain thing, but on the other hand, they are said to be unreliable. This has led the evaluator to develop what is known as objective type tests. In objective tests we have specific and clear cut answers which are easy to be scored.

According to David P., Harris, well-constructed objective tests of the language skills have been found to correlate quite highly with general writing ability, as determined by the rating of actual samples of free writing. Thus, in situations where the scoring of composition would be unfeasible (as in some large-scale testing operations) objective tests can be used as fairly good predictors of general writing skill.

At the same time, however, in certain cases it is also possible to administer and score composition tests so that they, too, may be used by themselves as reliable instruments. Put briefly, high reliability can be obtained by taking several samples of writing from each student and having each sample read by several trained teachers. Thus, the classroom teacher who lacks the experience and/or the time to construct objective tests of writing activity, can use composition with a reasonable degree of confidence.

A reasonable combination of essay/composition tests and objective tests, can be used to have reliable results. Everyone of you is fully aware of essay type test. In the following pages we would discuss the use of objective type tests in the evaluation of written English.
2.4 **Assigning grades**

Special mention needs to be made of evaluating papers and awarding grades. In this regard, the teacher has to adopt following procedures:

1. Avoid making too many indications of errors on the paper because that wouldn’t have the desired effect. It is better to point out the major errors and ensure a follow up of the same.

2. Try to capitalise upon the good points in writing so that the students feel encouraged and motivated to further develop and strengthen his good qualities.

3. Try to reinforce the better grades like A and B or C, etc. with certain verbal, words of praise and encouragement.

4. Establish rapport with the student through frequent talks with him and take him into confidence about your appreciation or concern of his writing, etc.

Though the English teacher in Pakistan may be already overloaded, yet this is not a valid reason to justify as to why most of us usually avoid assessing the work of their students. Too often we may tend to restrict such an activity merely to the marking of written work or scripts at the end of the academic year and that is all. As a matter of fact, it is much more than that. That evaluation of writing should invariably include in its ambit the whole series of such activities and also the general quality of writing as well as the quality of each student’s efforts and the assessment of his growth over-time and from one writing activity to another.

As a matter the aspects of written English that may be evaluated by a teacher, are so varied in number and so complex in nature that the process requires a highly active and a vigilant teacher fully equipped with the skills of evaluation. To make the
task of the teacher easier, we may suggest a sort of a checklist as given below. By having a glance at this chart you can instantly come to know the aspects of learning English in which some of the students need your special attention.

**Written work checklist**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Student's name</th>
<th>Commas</th>
<th>Full stop</th>
<th>Use of capitals</th>
<th>Spellings</th>
<th>Tenses</th>
<th>Narra tion</th>
<th>Voice</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mr. Iqbal</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mr. Bashir</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mr. Sohail</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mr. Imtiaz</td>
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<tr>
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<tr>
<td>Mr. Karamat</td>
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<tr>
<td>Mr. Faiz</td>
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<tr>
<td>Mr. Nasir</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

As you go on accumulating your experiences with your students, you may modify or change the checklist in the light of progress made by your students.

2.5 **Conclusion**

The above list of techniques of evaluating students' performance in oral and written English is not exhaustive. Since the process of evaluating and assessing students performance in spoken as well as written English has vide spectrum, so should be the number and variety of techniques for assessment purposes. As understood in this way and also keeping in view the multifarious limitations in our educational institutions, the English teacher may also make, conceive and design certain other techniques for evaluating students' performance in spoken as well as written English. Though these techniques and procedures are not that formal and structured as the ones you have just gone through, yet their significance cannot be questioned. They do provide very valuable information to the
teacher on the basis of which he can come to appreciate the
students' performance. These techniques include the following:

1. Statement of standards
2. Models
3. Score cards
4. Questionnaires
5. Attitude scales
6. Progress charts
7. Meetings with students
8. Pupils' folders
9. Teachers logs
10. Pupils diaries
11. Autobiographies
12. Samples of work
13. Observations of classroom work

2.6 Activity

Think of some more techniques as the above ones and jot
down in the space provided below:

1.
2.
3.
4.
5.
2.7 **Self-assessment questions-2**

1. What do you mean by productive and receptive skills? How are they related to active and passive skills in learning English language?

2. Briefly mention the major techniques of evaluation generally used for evaluating the teaching of English in Pakistan.

3. Discuss the different techniques you would like to make use of in evaluating the performance of your students in oral English.

4. How would you proceed with the following?
   Assessment of performance in written English.

5. Encircle the most appropriate answer to the following:
   
   i. Visual medium refers to which aspect of learning English:
      
      a. Speaking
      
      b. Listening
      
      c. Writing
      
      d. Both (a) and (b)

   ii. Which one of the following techniques can be helpful in knowing the students weaknesses in pronunciation:
      
      a. Written translation
      
      b. Dictation
      
      c. Multiple-choice items.
      
      d. Loud reading

   iii. Reordering the jumbled sentences refers to:
      
      a. Organisation of material
b. Creative writing

c. Mechanics of writing

d. All of the above

iv. Checklist of written work helps:

a. The teacher in knowing the weaknesses of different aspects of language learning.

b. The students in developing the ability of expression.

c. The students in developing confidence to make announcements.

3. HOW TO USE EVALUATION FOR STUDENTS' IMPROVEMENT

In view of the crucial significance of evaluation in the educational process, it is highly pertinent to have brief discussion on the ways and means of making evaluation a really useful process. As a matter of fact, evaluation being an extremely technical job, requires a lot of insight and resourcefulness on the part of teacher so as to make it really a useful activity. Following are some of the points which a teacher must keep in mind to ensure improvement of students learning.

3.1 Encouraging self-evaluation

The teacher must encourage self-evaluation of different aspects of teaching English language. The self-evaluation refers not only to the evaluation of teaching methods and techniques by the teacher himself, but also to the evaluation of students' own performance by themselves. Self-evaluation helps both the teacher and the students in knowing their strengths and weaknesses and thus provides them valid basis for adopting suitable strategies of language learning.
Petty and Jensen have rightly pointed that self-evaluation based on standards that children set themselves, should be an important part of the evaluation. For example, a class might adopt a list of “rules” for giving; an oral report similar to the following one and use it as the basis for judging the effectiveness of their reports:

a. Have an interesting topic.
b. Start with a good opening sentences.
c. Look at the audience.
d. Make your voice loud enough to be heard.
e. Organise your report carefully.
f. Stick to the topic.
g. Use good sentences.
h. Have a good closing.

The teacher should also practice self-evaluation questions such as the following will help a teacher appraise the oral language programme:

a. Do I recognize the need for students to practise oral expression?
b. Do I consistently provide opportunities for students to communicate orally?
c. Am I willing to work with students?
d. How can I improve my own skills in oral expression? Do I set a good example in my speech enunciating clearly, speaking comfortably and easily, organising my thoughts logically?
e. Do I listen to students? Do I give them my complete attention? Do I respond fully to their questions and comments?
Finally, teachers can check students' self-evaluation by using a checklist that may correspond to the one we have already given in one of the previous sections of this unit.

### 3.2 Undertaking diagnostic evaluation

By diagnostic evaluation, the teacher can identify the specific needs, interests, errors, bad habits and weaknesses of the students and make suitable modifications in his teaching methods and techniques.

According to Petty and Jenson, the precision of the diagnosis depends to a large degree on the nature and refinement of the evaluation instrument and procedures. In some language arts areas, including most oral expression and written composition, evaluation is largely subjective and hence teachers and students may refer to standards, models and checklist, etc. to arrive at objective findings and use the same for the improvement of student learning.

### 3.3 To be regular in grading and reporting

Grades need to be given to the students in order to give a sort of more or less concrete rating to students’ performance. Though not quite an adequate system, yet it provides some indication about the students relative position. A teacher who is quite regular and particular in awarding grades and sending reports about students’ performance can push the students, parents, school authorities and other concerned, towards ensuring better learning on the part of the students. This would also entail the maintenance of an upto date record of progress of the students in different aspects of learning English language or any other subject. With the help of the previous and the present record of performance, the teacher can determine the trend of students’ pace in learning and communicate to all concerned and ensure suitable action from them for accelerating students' learning.
3.4 To make the objectives of evaluation clear to the students

We have repeatedly mentioned in this unit the fact that evaluation has, always to be based on the pre-determined objectives of language teaching. So in order to ensure a purposeful- evaluation and improvement in students learning, it is highly essential to make the students clear about objectives against which they are going to be tested and evaluated. This would put the students in a situation they would ask themselves the questions like the following:

1. Do I know the correct use of idioms?
2. Do I know how to make nouns from verbs?
3. Do I know answers to all the questions given towards the end of each lesson?
4. Do I know the summaries of all the poems?

3.5 To ensure participatory planning of evaluation procedure to motivate the students

You as a teacher of English language must ensure participatory planning of evaluation procedure. Imposition of your own schedule of evaluation upon students would make them feel isolated from it and hence they may be disgusted from the same. So in order to motivate the students, it is proposed that you should:

a. make clear to the students of which they are to be evaluated;

b. encourage them to propose the possible dates and time at which they wish to be evaluated;

c. immediately communicate to the students any change in the schedule which should most
preferably come later and not earlier than the announced dates.

3.6 **Never lose sight of individual differences**

As has already been mentioned in this unit, students happen to belong to different strata of society and hence have quite visible differences in their socio-cultural backgrounds, attitudes, intelligence, and resultingly different understanding, etc. of what is taught to them. With this hard fact in the background, you should not expect equal level of performance from all the students in a particular test of evaluation.

To make the best use of results of evaluation, you should interpret the same with reference to the intellectual level and physical limitations, if any, in the case of each of the student. This would help you adopt a suitable teaching strategy for each student. In other words, you need to adopt a policy of individualised instruction in the light of performance of individual student.

3.7 **Important points**

We can sum up the following discussion in the form of the following points:

1. Objectives, against which is to be judged the students’ performance, should be made clear to them.
2. Plan beforehand about the schedule of administering tests or holding any other sort of activity of evaluation.
3. Motivate the students by ensuring their participation in finalizing any programme of evaluation.
4. Try to arrange the evaluation experiences/activities in such a manner that they lead to the feelings of maximum success on the part of the students.

5. Never lose sight of the hard fact that the students differ in their levels of intelligence and learning capabilities.

3.8 Activity

Since evaluation occupies a significant place in the instructional process, make sure that your evaluation of students’ performance in oral and written English takes care of different aspects of the evaluation process as well as the content. Follow the example given in the checklist and complete the rest of it to the extent you can.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S.No.</th>
<th>Points</th>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>No</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

Example:

1. Is the test objective?
2. Is it administerable?
3. Does it motivate the students?
   • Is it suitable for evaluating students' intonation?
   •
   •
   •
   •
   •
   •

3.9 Self-assessment questions-3

1. What are the major types of expected instructional outcomes of teaching English in your class? Discuss each one of them in detail.
2. Why is it essential to relate instructional outcomes with the objectives of teaching English? Give examples in support of your answer.

3. Discuss with examples the major considerations that may be taken into account for improving students learning through the use of evaluation.

4. Encircle TRUE or FALSE with reference to each of the statements given below:
   i. Cognitive domain of objectives refer to attitudes and values.  
      True/False
   ii. Psychomotor objectives pertain to movements and skills.  
       True/False
   iii. Affective objectives pertain to knowledge.  
        True/False
   iv. Relating instructional outcomes with objectives of teaching is not of much use.  
       True/False
   v. Diagnosis means that the test should be reliable.  
      True/False
   vi. Self-evaluation helps the students and the teachers in knowing their own weaknesses and strengths.  
        True/False
   vii. Grades do help students in improvement they are not reported to them.  
         True/False
   viii Participation of students in chalking out the schedule of evaluation disturbs the instructional process.  
          True/False
   ix. Diagnostic evaluation is closely associated with formative and summative evaluations.  
       True/False
   x. A teacher must take in to account the individual differences in students' abilities while interpreting results.  
      True/False
4. ANSWERS TO THE SELF–ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS

**Exercise–1**

Saq: 1–3. Please compare your answers with the relevant sections of the unit

Q: 4. i. B ii. c iii. d

Q: 5. i. Evaluation ii. Quantitative iii. Objectives

**Exercise–2**

Q: 1–4. Please compare your answers with the relevant section of the unit

Q: 5. i. c ii. b iii. a iv. a

**Exercise–3**

Q: 1–3. Please compare your answers with the relevant sections of the unit.

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THE PARTS OF SPEECH

Written By:
Abdul Hafeez

Revised By:
Professor Mian Muhammad Afzal

Revised (second) By:
Mr. Abdul Hafeez
INTRODUCTION

For understanding the basic structure of a language, the study of parts of speech is of vital importance. In this unit, an effort, though brief, has been made to explain the functions and uses of different parts of speech of English language, i.e. nouns, pronouns, verbs, adjectives, prepositions.

Sufficient number of examples have been given for making the concepts clear and understandable.

OBJECTIVES

Through the perusal of this unit, you should be able to:

- identify different types of nouns
- Explain difference between various pronouns.
- Identify an adjective.
- Recognize different types and forms of verbs.
- Define a preposition and explain its use
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1. THE PARTS OF SPEECH

When we speak or write, we express our thoughts in words. Sometimes only one word may be used to convey the message or express a thought such as STOP, HELLO. Both of them in their situation give complete meaning. But usually we use group of words which make statement, ask questions, give instructions or directions. Every word we use has got a definite importance in expressing a thought or idea. The way the word is used determines what part of speech that word is. There are eight parts of speech:

Nouns, pronouns, verbs, conjunctions, adverbs, interjections, adjectives, preposition.

In this unit, we will try to discuss these parts one-by-one.

1.1 The noun

The words, most frequently used, are those by which we identify someone or something. A noun names a person, a place, thing, an idea

Persons: Asim, shopkeeper, man, Afghan, etc.
Places: Quetta, Asia, Ayub Park, etc.
Things: Books, Pens, Tables, etc.
Idea: Grief, Happiness, Courage, etc.

1.2 Classes of nouns

There are two classes of nouns:

a. Proper nouns: A proper noun names a particular person, place or thing and is always capitalized.
b. Common nouns: A common noun names any one of a group of persons, places or things and is not capitalized.
1.3 **singular nouns and plural nouns**

a. Singular nouns: If a noun names only one thing, person or place, it is singular noun.

b. Plural nouns: If a noun names more than one person, thing or place it is called plural noun:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Singular nouns</th>
<th>Plural nouns</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Person</td>
<td>Persons</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lamp</td>
<td>Lamps</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chair</td>
<td>Chairs</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1.4 **Plural of singular nouns**

a. Most singular nouns form their plurals by adding ‘s’. Singular nouns ending in ‘s’ ‘x’ ‘ch’ ‘sh’ or ‘z’ usually form the plural by adding “es” to the singular:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Singular nouns</th>
<th>Plural nouns</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pass</td>
<td>Passes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ox</td>
<td>Oxes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Watch</td>
<td>Watches</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brush</td>
<td>Brushes</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

b. If a singular noun ends in a consonant followed by ‘y’ it forms its plural this way:
### Singular nouns

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Singular nouns</th>
<th>Plural nouns</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Fly</td>
<td>Flies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spy</td>
<td>Spies</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### 1.5 Irregular nouns

Some nouns form their plural in irregular way. They form the plural in a special way or do not change at all:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Deer</td>
<td>Deer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Woman</td>
<td>Women</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Goose</td>
<td>Geese</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mouse</td>
<td>Mice</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### 1.6 How different nouns form their plurals

a. Nouns ending with ‘f’ and ‘fe’ are dropped and letters ‘ves’ are added to make them plural look at the following example:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Wolf</td>
<td>Wolves</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Loaf</td>
<td>Loaves</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wife</td>
<td>Wives</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Scarf</td>
<td>Scarves</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

b. There are some nouns ending with ‘f’ or ‘fe’ they either take ‘s’ or ‘ves’ in the plural:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Scarf</td>
<td>Scarfs/scarves</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wharf</td>
<td>Wharfs/wharves</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hoof</td>
<td>Hoofs/hooves</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
c. Some nouns ending in ‘f’ or ‘fe’ take ‘s’ in the plural:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cliff</td>
<td>Cliffs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Handkerchief</td>
<td>Handkerchiefs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Safe</td>
<td>Safes</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

d. There are nouns that form their plural by a vowel change, like:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Man</td>
<td>Men</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Louse</td>
<td>Lice</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Foot</td>
<td>Feet</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

e. Certain nouns are always singular:

Advice   Knowledge   Baggage
Furniture Information News
Luggage   Rubbish

Note: To know more about plurals of nouns a good dictionary should be consulted. It must be noticed that all the nouns like ‘man’ don’t change their vowels. For example: ‘fan’ is not ‘fen’ but fans.

1.7 Compound nouns

you must have seen that two or more words may be used as a single noun. Postman, Ayub Park, these are called compound nouns. The parts of a compound noun may be written as one word, two or more words or may be hyphenated.

**Compound nouns**

Housekeeper  basketball  commander-in-chief  Father-in-law
Baby-sister

If you are in doubt as to how to write a compound noun, you should consult your dictionary. Some dictionaries may give
two correct forms for a word; for example: you may find vice-president written also with the hyphen, and without hyphen, but both are correct.

1.8 plural of compound nouns

a. Normally the last word is made plural:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Armchair</td>
<td>Armchairs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bookcase</td>
<td>Bookcases</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

b. Compound nouns formed with prepositions and make only the first word plural

Sister-in-law   Sisters-in-law
Looker-on       Lookers-on

c. Words usually ending in ‘full’ make their plural in the ordinary way

Handful         Handfuls

d. Initials can be made plural:

VIP             VIPs (very important persons)
MP              MPs (Members of parliament)

1.9 possessive nouns

a. A noun can show possession or ownership. A noun that shows possession or ownership is in the possessive case. Most singular nouns form their possessive case by adding an apostrophe (‘) and ‘s’:

Example: The mouse’s tail, Ali’s books.

b. Plural nouns that end in ‘s’ add only an apostrophe (’) to form the possessive case:

Example: Butterflies’ wing, welders, torch.
c. Irregular plural nouns such as “women” which don’t end in ‘s’, form the plural possessive by adding the apostrophe (’) and s”:

Example: men’s umbrellas, children’s books.

d. If two or more people own something the possessive ending is added only to the last person’s name.

Example: Ali and Aslam’s house.

1.10 Concrete and abstract nouns

a. Concrete nouns: A concrete noun is a word for a physical object that can be perceived by the senses----we can see, touch, smell the object:

Example: Table, Tree

b. Abstract nouns: It is a word for a concept, it is an idea that exists in our mind only.

Example: Beauty, grief, happiness.

1.11 Countable and non-countable nouns

a. Countable nouns: They can be counted as: one book, two books. They can be usually made plural by adding ‘s’ or ‘es’ as:

Girl    Girls

b. Non-countable nouns: they are started in individual quantity and are not counted.

Coffee    Iron
Mango    Mangoes

1.12 Collective nouns

A collective noun is a word for a group of people, animals or objects considered as a single unit.

Example: Audience, Committee, Class, Crew, Crowd
1.13 **Activities**

1. Give 15 countable nouns and 15 non-countable nouns.
2. Write five compound nouns and give their plurals.

1.14 **Self assessment questions-1**

I. Pick out the common nouns and the proper nouns out of the following list and write them in separate columns. Also capitalize the proper nouns: table, doctor, octopus, Atlantic ocean, storm, india, book, envelop, oakwood primary school.

II. Give the plurals of the following nouns:

state, fox, switch, goose, attorney general, fly, monkey, mouse, bush, loaf.

III. Pick out the collective nouns of the following:

dogs, committee, tables, crowd, family, flock, books, herd, group, government, public, pens, women, lice, team, army.
2. PRONOUNS

A pronoun is a word used in place of a noun. If we are talking about something we use the noun that means it. Once we have made it clear that we are talking about a person or a thing, etc. and we talk about that again, we don’t have to name it again, we can make other references without giving the name each time. This saves our time and makes sentences sound better.

Example: Where is Aslam? He says he is going home. “Aslam” is noun. The pronoun ‘he’ has been used twice, it takes the place of “Aslam” (noun) in the second sentence.

2.1 Types of pronouns

a. Personal pronouns:
   i. First person (the speaker) (always write capital)
      singular: I
      plural: we
   ii. Second person (the person spoken to)
      singular: You
      Plural: You
   iii. Third person (the person’s/things, etc. spoken about)
      singular: he (for male),
      she (for female).
      It (for things, also for the living beings whose sex in unknown or unimportant e.g. ant).
Plural: they, those, these (for the living beings and other things).

b. Impersonal pronouns:

It is generalized for all persons e.g. one should try to be kind to others.

2.2. Cases of pronouns

Some personal pronouns change form depending upon their use in a sentence. The form a pronoun takes is called its case.

a. **Subjective case:** If a pronoun is the actor or performer who perform an action (subject) in a sentence, it is in the subjective case. “He broke the pen”. (“He” is the actor/subject.)

b. **Objective case:** If a pronoun shows possession or ownership, it is in the possessive case.

Raazia brought her own car.

Imtiaz likes his own pen.

The pronoun ‘her’ shows that “Raazia” owns a car; the pronoun ‘his’ shows that “Imtiaz” owns a pen.

Here are the subjective, objective and possessive case forms of personal pronouns:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subjective case</th>
<th>Objective case</th>
<th>Possessive case</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>Me</td>
<td>My, mine</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>You</td>
<td>You</td>
<td>Your, yours</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>He</td>
<td>Him</td>
<td>His</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>She</td>
<td>Her</td>
<td>Her, hers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It</td>
<td>It</td>
<td>Its</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

551
Plural

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subjective case</th>
<th>Objective case</th>
<th>Possessive case</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>We</td>
<td>Us</td>
<td>Our, Ours</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>You</td>
<td>You</td>
<td>Your, Yours</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>They</td>
<td>Them</td>
<td>Their, Theirs</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2.3. Relative pronouns

Relative pronouns are used to begin group of words that tell someone or something mentioned earlier. It relates the word group to what it talks about. Some relative pronouns are: which, who, whom and whose.

Aslam who sells books, hit his car that came from UK. In the first case ‘who’ is relative pronoun which relates ‘sells books’ to “Aslam”. (It is telling about “Aslam” who sells books). May be there is some other “Aslam” or may be the listener does not know him by his name and the speaker is telling him about his job/work etc. in the second case the relative pronoun is ‘that’ which relates “came from UK” to ‘car’.

2.4. Demonstrative pronouns

a. Demonstrative pronouns are used to point out particular persons or things. Some common demonstrative pronouns are:

This, these, those etc.

This: generally refers to what is near or at hand.

That: refers to what is further away.

Example:
This book (over here) is more valuable than that (over there) one.

b. **Demonstrative pronouns** may also point to something that has been said. He told his father that he had been promoted. This pleased him very much.

c. Some times a demonstrative pronoun points to a part of a conversation that follows:

I must tell you this; I can no longer live here.

d. “Such” or “so” may function as demonstrative pronouns.

i. His officer was very pleased with the work and she told him so.

ii. They would like to buy Honda Accord, Mercedes, but such cars are very expensive.

**Note:** The bold words are demonstrative pronouns.

2.5. **Reflexive pronouns**

Reflexive pronouns are used to refer back to nouns of pronouns or we can say reflexive pronoun is a combination of ‘self’ with one of the personal pronoun or with the impersonal pronoun ‘one’. These pronouns generally refer to an animate being, usually a person. The most common use of reflexive pronoun is an object that reflects back to the subject; in other words it has the same identity as the subject. Thus in the sentence, the child hurt himself, ‘child’ and ‘himself’ are identical.

2.6. **Interrogative pronouns**

1. These pronouns are used to ask questions as:

a. **Who** (for person): Who gave this pen to you?

b. **What** (for thing): What is this? (pen etc).
c. **Which** (for persons/things):

   i. which is your pen?
   ii. Which one of them is your brother?

2. These interrogative pronouns have generalizing forms as follows:

   a. **Whoever**: Whoever he is I will not see him.
   b. **Whichever**: Whichever of the pens you buy you will pay Rs.31 for that.

3. The pronoun ‘what’ also introduces exclamations:

   a. What beautiful flowers those are!
   b. What a beautiful flower this is!

2.7. **Reciprocal pronouns**

   a. This shows that the individual member of a plural subject mutually reacts on each other. Reciprocal pronouns are ‘each other’ and ‘one-another’.

   **Example:**
   They amused each other by telling stories. (each one told stories to the other one.)

   b. For more than two nouns the use of ‘one another’ would be preferred.

   1. The four children are fond of one another.
   2. He put all the books beside one another.

2.8. **Indefinite pronouns**

   Such pronouns refer to indefinite (usually unknown) persons or things or to indefinite quantities.
Someone stole my pen. (Who stole, is not known)

Some common indefinite pronouns are:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>All</th>
<th>Each</th>
<th>More</th>
<th>One</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Another</td>
<td>Either</td>
<td>Most</td>
<td>Others</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Any</td>
<td>Everybody</td>
<td>Much</td>
<td>Several</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Anybody</td>
<td>Everyone</td>
<td>Neither</td>
<td>Some</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2.9. **Self-assessment questions-2**

**Activities**

I. Write down the following pronouns in the columns given below:

He, I, Me, Them, His, Her, Him, Their, Her, Ours, You, Your.

- **Subjective case**
- **objective case**
- **possessive case**

II. Write down five sentences using relative pronouns.

III. Write down five sentences using interrogative pronouns.
3. ADJECTIVES

An adjective is used to modify or describe a noun or pronoun. It gives information by answering one of these questions:

1. What kind
2. Which one
3. How many

For example:

A white car went on this road three minutes ago.

In this sentence, white, this, three, are adjectives. “white” gives information about car (what kind); “this” give information about road (which one) and “three” gives information about minutes (how many).

Nouns used as adjectives

Sometimes nouns are used as adjectives:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nouns</th>
<th>Used as adjectives</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Table</td>
<td>Table leg</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dinner</td>
<td>Dinner table</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sunday</td>
<td>Sunday dinner</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Leg, table and dinner, are qualified by table, dinner and Sunday respectively. If somebody asks which “table”, the answer is “dinner table”. The table which is used for dinner (dining table).

It gives information about the table.
Articles

The most frequently used adjectives are:

A                                  An                                  The

These little words are called “articles”.

a. A and an are indefinite articles. These are used with the common nouns.

Example:

i. A teacher arrived.

ii. An automobile went by.

iii. we waited an hour.

A is used before nouns beginning with a consonant sound: a pen, a book etc.

If we look at example III, given above, “an” is used before “hour” which begins with consonant “h”. It is used because it does not give ‘h’ sound. It gives a vowel sound (like our). It must be remembered that it is the sound of a noun and not the spelling that counts for using an article. Let us see another example:

He is a university student.

See that an has not been used here because the ‘u’ of university does not give vowel sound, (it sounds like “you”).

b. The is a definite article. It indicates that the noun refers to someone or something in particular. It helps to distinguish the known from the unknown.

i. This is the way to do it. (This is the only way, it is being particularized.)

ii. There was a lion. He was sleeping under a tree. A mouse came and started playing on the lion’s body.
The lion woke up. The lion was very angry. He took the mouse in his paw. The mouse said: “Forgive me”:

As the story starts a is used before ‘lion’ and ‘mouse’ but this is done only once. After that, as you see ‘the’ has been used. If we use “a” instead of “the” that may create confusion, it would mean another lion or mouse and not the same mentioned before. Here “the” is used to particularize the lion/mouse mentioned earlier.

Let us see how it distinguishes the known from the unknown. The film was not interesting. (which film, the listener knows about that.)

**Adjective in sentences**

a. You might have noticed that the adjectives come before the noun modified. The noun about which the adjective is giving information. Ahmed gave each student hot tea and apple pie.

The underlined are adjectives

b. Two or more adjectives can be used before a noun but are not usually separated by; ‘and’ except that the last two are adjectives of colour.

Example:

A big black bird.

A small fat man.

...... but, a black and white shirt.

A yellow, blue and black flag.

c. Sometimes adjectives can come right after the noun as: the patient, weak and pale, was lying on the bed. ‘Weak and pale’ are placed directly after the noun ‘patient’. They are set off by commas from the rest of the sentence.
d. Adjectives also come later in the sentence and completed the description of a noun or pronoun. These are called adjective completers. For example:

The napkin is red and white. It looks new.

The adjectives ‘red’ and ‘white’ describe the noun ‘napkin’. The adjective ‘new’ modifies the pronoun ‘it’.

**Comparison of adjectives**

An adjective may change form to show how one thing compares with another. Most adjectives add ‘er’ and ‘est’ showing comparison. These endings are added to the positive form of adjective. If two things are compared, ‘er’ is added to make comparative form.

If more than two things are compared ‘est’ is added.

Example:

I want a strong rope. Which one is the stronger of these two.

I want a strong rope. Which one is the strongest of all these.

(There are more than two ropes).

a. The degree of comparison:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Positive</th>
<th>Comparative</th>
<th>Superlative</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Dark</td>
<td>Darker</td>
<td>The darkest</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tall</td>
<td>Taller</td>
<td>The tallest</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

i. ‘er’ ‘est’ are added to the positive form of an adjective of one syllable to have comparative and superlative degrees.

Bright     Brighter     Brightest
New        Newer       Newest
ii. Adjectives of three or more syllables make their comparative and superlative by placing ‘more’ and “the most” before the positive.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Adjective</th>
<th>More Comparative</th>
<th>Superlative</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Interesting</td>
<td>More interesting</td>
<td>The most interesting</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Beautiful</td>
<td>More beautiful</td>
<td>The most beautiful</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

iii. Adjectives of two syllables follow one or the other of the above rules. It must be noticed that ‘er’ or ‘est’ are not added to the adjectives of two syllables if they make word sound awkward.

Example:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Simple</th>
<th>Simpler</th>
<th>Simplest</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>More simple</td>
<td>The most simple</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prettier</td>
<td>Prettiest</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>More pretty</td>
<td>The most pretty</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| Foolish    | More foolish | The most foolish |
|            | (Not foolisher) | (not the foolishest) |

| Gracious   | More gracious | The most gracious |
|            | (Not graciouser) | (Not the graciousest) |

iv. When the positive form ends in ‘y’ with a consonant before it, the ‘y’ changes to ‘ie’.

Example:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Happy</th>
<th>Happier</th>
<th>The happiest</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pretty</td>
<td>Prettier</td>
<td>The prettiest</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

v. the adjectives ending with ‘ful’ or ‘re’ usually take more and the most.

Example:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Doubtful</th>
<th>More doubtful</th>
<th>The most doubtful</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Careful</td>
<td>More careful</td>
<td>The most careful</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Obscure</td>
<td>More obscure</td>
<td>The most obscure</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
vi. Adjectives ending with ‘ly’ take more or the most.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Slowly</th>
<th>More slowly</th>
<th>The most slowly</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Quickly</td>
<td>More quickly</td>
<td>The most quickly</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

b. Irregular adjectives:

Some adjectives form their comparative and superlative forms in special ways. These are called irregular adjectives. Here is a list of forms of the most common irregular adjectives:

- Bad → Worse → Worst
- Good → Better → Best
- Much → More → Most

3.5. **Self-assessment questions-3**

I. Pick out the adjectives used in the following sentences:

1. I found a beautiful pen in the way.
2. The black bird took away the small piece from the little boys’ hand.
3. The fat man shot the cruel murderer.
4. He bought a black suit for his younger brother.

II. Insert suitable articles:

1. He is _______ honest man.
2. Shahid is _______ university student.
3. I offered my services as _______ humble man.
4. Samina is _______ M.A.
5. He came late by _______ hour.
6. _____ man you saw in the market is my friend.

III. Make a list of ten three syllable adjectives.

IV. Write ten two syllable adjectives.
4. **VERBS**

A noun or pronoun, no matter how many adjectives it may have can not make a sentence. The noun or pronoun must act in some way or something must be said about it. The part of speech that performs this function is the ‘verb’.

a. A ‘verb’ is a word that expresses action or otherwise helps to make a statement.

Example:
The green van __________ down the steep hill. (crept, rattled, slid)

To complete the sentence a verb is needed. An appropriate verb adds power and vigour to your sentence.

c. Verbs make statements, ask questions or give commands.

**Statement:** The star is the most popular symbol on the flags of the countries of the world.

**Question:** Do stars appear on more than 40 nations’ flags?

**Command:** Explain the arrangements of the stars on the United States’ flag.

4.1 **Action verbs**

An ‘action verb’ tells what someone or something does. (Action verbs’ as their name shows tell of action.) In a sentence the ‘action verbs’ helps tell what happens.

Example:

Aslam plucked flowers. (“Plucked” tells what Aslam did.) Sometimes action verbs express an action that can not be seen.

As believe, know, think, remember, understand.
4.2 Two kinds of action verbs

a. **Transitive verbs:** A verb is transitive when the action it expresses is directed towards a person or thing etc. or, we can say that a verb takes direct object, or, object comes directly after the verb.

Example:

Shahid opened the book. (The action of the verb “opened” is directed towards the book or the verb ‘opened’ has taken direct object, the book.) Such verbs are transitive verbs.

b. **Intransitive verbs:** A verb is an intransitive when it expresses a simple action without reference to an object.

Example:

He talked.
The train arrived.
Shahid laughed.
In these sentences no objects of the verbs are found.

c. Some verbs may be transitive in one sentence and intransitive in another.

Example:

Shahid speaks Urdu. (Transitive)
Shahid speaks. (Intransitive)
The speaker answered many questions. (Transitive)
The speaker answered. (Intransitive)

4.3 Linking verbs

Some verbs help to make a statement not by expressing an action but by serving as a link between two words. Usually linking verbs cannot complete the thought of a sentence all by
itself. It needs to be followed by another word or words which are called subject completer. Completers may be nouns, pronouns, adjectives or adverbs.

Example:
The room is full of chairs.
‘Is’ is the linking verb. “full” is an adjective that tells something about the condition of the room.
The most common linking verbs are the forms of the verb ‘to be’.
Some of these verbs are:
Am, are, is, was, were.
Other linking verbs are forms of “appear”, ‘become”, ‘look’, ‘seem’ “sound, smell”.

Example:
It tastes sour.
He seemed aware of all this situation.
It looked bad.
It sounds bad.
The food smells good.
(The underlined verbs are used as linking verbs.)

4.4. Auxiliary verbs
An auxiliary verb helps the main verbs tell what happens.
Example:
He will come out of the room.
(The auxiliary verbs, ‘will’ helps the main verb ‘come’.)
we can eat it. (“can” is auxiliary.)
The most common auxiliary verbs are listed here:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Am</th>
<th>Have</th>
<th>Can</th>
<th>Might</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Are</td>
<td>Has</td>
<td>May</td>
<td>Must</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Is</td>
<td>Had</td>
<td>Should</td>
<td>Do</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Was</td>
<td>Shall</td>
<td>Would</td>
<td>Does</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Were</td>
<td>Will</td>
<td>Could</td>
<td>Did</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The main verbs and its auxiliary verb or verbs make the verb phrase.

Example:

Shahid should know the answer.

He has been studying them all night.

4.5 **The principal parts of verbs**

The four basic forms of a verb are called the principal parts of the verb. They are:

- Infinitive
- The present participle
- The past
- The past participle

The four principal parts of the verbs “do” are:

- Do (infinitive)
- Doing (present participle)
- Did (past)
- Done (past participle)

I do my homework.

I am doing my homework now.

I did homework this morning.

I have done my homework.
4.6 Regular verbs
A verb that forms its past and past participle forms by adding ‘d or ed’ to the first principal part (infinitive) is a regular verb.

**Example:**
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb</th>
<th>Past</th>
<th>Past Participle</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Use</td>
<td>Used</td>
<td>Used</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ask</td>
<td>Asked</td>
<td>Asked</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Talk</td>
<td>Talked</td>
<td>Talked</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.7 Irregular verbs
A verb that forms its past or past participle in some other way (not-like regular verbs) is an irregular verb. Irregular verbs form their past and past participle in various ways:

- Begin: Began, Begun
- Speak: Spoke, Spoken
- Bring: Brought
- Put

4.8 Self-Assessment Questions-4
I. Read the following sentences and then write the action verbs and linking verbs in separate columns:

1. Shahid broke the pen.
2. The file is on the table.
3. The bottle is full of water.
4. It tastes bad.
5. Aslam has borrowed the book.
6. He will repair the watch.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Action verbs</th>
<th>Linking verbs</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

566
II. Write five sentences using transitive verbs and five sentences using intransitive verbs.

III. Give a list of ten irregular verbs.
5. **ADVERBS**

An adverb is a word that qualifies a verb, an adjective or another adverb. It tells when, where, how, how much or how often an action occurs. For details please study unit 13 of the book.

6. **Preposition**

“Preposition” are the spice of good conversation and correct idiomatic writing. (John O’ London.) What is preposition? It is a word that shows relation between two or more than two words.

It is a word placed before a noun or a pronoun to show in what relation the person or a thing shown by it stands in relation to something else. For example, in the hall, on the table, under the carpet, etc. are phrases with preposition. Let us take this sentence: I put my hand on the table. Now take the word ‘on’ out of this sentence and it will mean nothing. It is, in fact, the use of preposition ‘on’ which establishes a relationship between ‘hand’ and ‘table’.

Most commonly used prepositions are as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>After</th>
<th>About, below, near</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Before</td>
<td>Above, beside, on</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>During</td>
<td>Across, between, over</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Since</td>
<td>Against, beyond, through</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Until</td>
<td>Around, down, toward</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>At, into, under, behind,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>In side, up.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>By</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>For</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Like</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Of</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>With</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 6.1 Compound preposition

Compound preposition is made up of a group of words used as a preposition.

Example:

- In front of
- On top of
6.2 **Prepositional Phrase:** A preposition and its object form prepositional phase i.e., after the party, during the night.

6.3 **Object of Preposition:** A preposition usually takes an object. The object is usually a following noun or pronoun. The preposition relates its object to some other word in the sentence.

a. Ahmed left after the party. ”Party’ is the object of the preposition “after’.

b. She left with a friend. “Friend” is the object of the preposition ‘with’.

**Note:** A preposition may have more than one object.

He works at an office and his home.

6.4 **Function of Prepositional Phrases**

They can functions as:

- **Adjective:**
  - A girl with red hair
  - The cupboard under the stairs

- **Adverbial:**
  - I like sitting by the window.
  - Meet me at 6o’ clock.
  - He was killed with a blunt instrument.

6.5 **Self-assessment questions-5**

I. Read the following sentences carefully and then write the prepositions given in each of the sentences in the blank space against them:

1. He went out of the class._______
2. My office is near supermarket._______
3. The birds fly over the trees._______
4. The pen is under the chair._______
5. He went down the street._______
6. I can’t drive beyond the speed limit._______
7. He kept the bag behind the table.
8. You will have to wait in your room.
9. He has been working since morning.
10. He went across the street.

II. Give a list of ten prepositional phrases.
III. Write ten sentences using prepositions having more than one object.
7. ANSWERS TO SELF-ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS/ACTIVITIES

1. Countable nouns:

   Non-countable nouns:

2. Compound nouns:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Shopkeeper</td>
<td>Shopkeepers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cricket-ground</td>
<td>Cricket-grounds</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fruit-seller</td>
<td>Fruit seller</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wicket-keeper</td>
<td>Wicket-keepers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pen-holder</td>
<td>Pen-holders</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

SAQ-1: (Self-assessment questions)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Common Nouns</th>
<th>Proper Nouns</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>table</td>
<td>Atlantic ocean</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>doctor</td>
<td>India</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>octopus</td>
<td>Oakwood primary school</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>storm</td>
<td>Book</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>envelop</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

II. States, foxes, switches, geese, attorney generals, files, monkeys, mice, bushes, loaves.

III. Collective nouns.
   Committee, crowd, family, flock, herd, group, government, public, team, army.
SAQ-2:
I. Subjective case    Objective case    Possessive case
   He                     Me               Your
   I                      Them             His
   You                    Her              Her
                      Him              Their
                      You              Ours

II. 1. Shahid who is my friend has recently returned from UK.
     2. The man to whom you have given the pen is not a reliable person.
     3. The table that has three legs cannot be used for this purpose.
     4. The man whose books have been stolen is my teacher.
     5. The book which is under the table is not mine.

III.1. Who has given you this book?
     2. What have you brought for lunch today?
     3. Which one of them is your brother?
     4. Whose car is this?
     5. Whom did you see in the market?

SAQ-3:
I. 1. Beautiful    2. Black, small, little
     3. Fat, cruel    4. Black, younger

II. 1. An    2. A
     3. A        4. An
     5. An       6. The

III. 1. Disgusting    2. Obdurate
     3. Pervasive    4. Qualified
     5. Vivacious    6. Negative
     7. Neurotic     8. Expensive
     9. Perceptive   10. Indolent

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IV. 1. Naughty 2. Happy
3. Clumsy 4. Dirty
5. Tricky 6. Clever
7. Lofty 8. Jolly

SAQ–4:

I. Actions verbs  Linking verbs
1. Broke 2. Is
3. Is 4. Tastes
5. Appeared 6. Has borrowed
7. Will repair

II. Sentences using transitive verbs:
1. He spoke English.
2. He brought a knife with him.
3. He showed the picture.
4. I wrote a letter to him.
5. She made tea.

Sentences using intransitive verbs
1. Saleem laughed
2. You walked
3. I smiled
4. He slept
5. He shouted

III. 1. Teach 2. Steal 3. Hide
10. Sit

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SAQ-5:

10. Across

II.
1. Out of the ground
2. Inside the room
3. Under the table
4. Over the tree
5. Across the road
6. Above the picture
7. Below the map
8. Behind the wall
9. During the day
10. Near the college

III.
1. He lives with his father and brother.
2. He spoke to me and the chairman.
3. My house is near the road and the police-station.
4. My boss is out of the office and the university.
5. Shahid went across the road and the railway-line.
6. He talked about politics and the politicians of Pakistan.
7. He works during day and night.
8. You talked against me and Shahid.
9. Akram stole money from me and my friend.
10. He was hiding behind the table and chair.
8. **BIBLIOGRAPHY**


SENTENCE STRUCTURE

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Revised (second) By:
Mrs. Shagufta Siraj
INTRODUCTION

The topic in hand in this unit is ‘sentence structure’. Obviously it will deal with the formation of sentence. Our learning point will be a ‘letter’ and thence we shall proceed to the structure of complex sentence. There are different aspects of a sentence. Some of these aspects are inevitable, i.e. without them we cannot even think of a sentence. But we shall fix the priority and discuss all the aspects. During this discussion, we shall go into the details of each aspect, discuss it and determine its due place in the mutual arrangement of all of them. At the end of every section and sub-section, you will find a self-assessment exercise’. If you can answer the questions properly, it will come out that you have been able to understand the material in hand: The limit of answering those questions will determine the very limit to which you have to learn and then gauge your standard of learning. For a true assessment, please do not look at the solutions to those questions before time so that you have a very clear idea of what you have learnt and what you have not.

As the unit is a part of a vast distant learning programe, efforts have been made to make it very simple and to the point. The idea is to let the student learn on his own without any external help. The examples have been given from every day life so that the student can learn it with reference to the real surroundings, in which he is living. Try to make a couple of examples of your own.

There is a personal suggestion. As said before, the examples have no doubt, been taken from daily life. You can make them more fruitful if you try to supplement them from the text you have to teach to your students. This will improve your understanding of the matter and also make the concepts clear in your mind. These techniques will improve your teaching as well. This proposal on the whole aims at one thing and that is
originality in your teaching technique and we all know that originality is the spirit of all first rate great work.

**OBJECTIVES**

When you have studied this unit, you are expected to be able:

- To explain the foundation of a sentence.
- To know the relationship of one part with another part of the sentence.
- To break a sentence into different parts.
- To apply different rules governing the construction of a sentence.
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1. INTRODUCTION TO THE WORD ‘SENTENCE’

1.1 What is meant by sentence structure?

The phrase sentence structure has two words, sentence and structure. Let us take these two words separately, understand them, join them and understand them again. A sentence is a combination of different words as a word is a combination of different letters. For example, when we say ‘we take tea’, it is a sentence made of three words: ‘we’, ‘take’ and ‘tea’. Each of these three words is made of different letters. ‘We’ is made of w, e, ‘take’ is made of t a k e, and ‘tea’ made of three letters t e a. In short, when letters join, they make words and when words join, they make a sentence and thus the process goes on.

The word “structure”, literally means “formation”, arrangement of composition. The phrase, sentence structure, demands that we should try to understand the arrangement of different words in their grammatical sense in a sentence. For example, we say ‘we take tea’. Now this very simple sentence has a structure and we cannot say ‘tea we take’.

1.2 Basics of sentence (Elements of Sentence Construction)

After this introduction, let us start from the idea that a sentence has two parts. There is an agent doing something and then there, is an action. The agent is called actor or, to be more grammatical ‘subject’ and his action is called ‘verb’. Subjects are usually people like ‘Azhar’, ‘Nasim’, ‘Salma’, ‘boy’, ‘my friend’, etc. Sometimes, they are not people. For example, ‘train’, ‘mosque’, ‘door’, ‘book’, etc. Action tells what the subject is doing. For example, an intelligent man works while the others sleep. The verb or “action word”, shows that the actor or
The sentence “an intelligent man”, is doing something while the other actors sleep.

1.3 **Self-Assessment Questions-1**

   Answer the following questions:

1. What two parts does every sentence have?

2. Pick up the “subject” and “verb” and write them separately under two headings: “Subject” and “verb”. Also point out whether the subjects are persons or not:

   a. The player plays.

   b. I run

   c. We study

   d. The school closes

   e. The passengers come out when the plane lands

   f. The actor performs

   g. The class protested.

   Sometime the sentence is something more than that, for example: “I run on the grass”, “we study French twice a week”, “the school closes at O’ clock’. In these sentences, on the grass “French Time a week”, at 1 O’ Clock etc. complete the sentence, they are called complements.

   In the above examples, the Verbs are action verbs. Some verbs are vers “to be” which do not show action. They are called “non-action” Verbs. For example, in the Sentence ‘I am late’, ‘am’ is a non-action Verb.

1.4 **Self-assessment Questions–2**

   Separate the following sentences into different parts like Subject (write separately Whether the Subject is a person or
not) Verb (write separately Whether the verb is an action verb or a non-action Verb), and a complement:

1. He is a Photographer.
2. The plane crashed while it was landing.
3. The old man works in a garden.
4. The heater burns surplus gas.
5. She is a very good singer.
6. Saga is an excellent dancer.

Note: Make at least ten more sentences for further

2. PARTS OF SPEECH

We have already studied that there are three parts of a sentence. We use different kinds of words in a sentence. These words (all of them) are called, parts of speech. ‘Nouns’, ‘pronouns’, ‘Subject’, ‘object’ have already been dealt in Unit 12.

A few exercises have been given below:

1. Here, are some sentences with Subject being pronouns.
   Take the Subject pronouns and verbs out of each sentence and write them separately under two different headings ‘subject pronouns’ and verbs.
   a. She rides on a bicycle.
   b. They play chess every morning.
   c. The old gardener waters the plants everyday.
   d. You need more attention to your studies:
   e. It is my watch. It gives excellent time.

2. Replace all the Subject nouns with
   a. Nasima
   b. Azhar and Najam
   c. Zafar
   d. Roamer
3. **PRONOUN**

Pronouns were explained in the previous unit but let us know something more about these.

3.1 **Possessive Pronouns**

Possessive pronouns are those words which are used in place of possessive nouns. Some examples of possessive pronouns are ‘my, our, your (singular), your (plural), his, her, its, their’, etc. In the sentence, “Shelley’s poetry is excellent”, Shelley’s is a possessive noun and when we say, “his poetry is excellent; the word ‘his’ has been used in place of possessive noun, Shelley’s. So it will be called ‘possessive pronoun’. In “Mrs. Rizvi’s car is out of order”, Mrs. Razvi’s is a possessive noun. When we say, “her car is out of order”, the word ‘her’ has been used in place of the possessive noun, “Mrs. Rizvi’s”, it will be called possessive pronoun.

3.2 **Self-assessment questions-3**

I. Change the possessive nouns in the following sentences into possessive pronouns:

1. The old man’s watch was lost by me.
2. Shakespeare’s “King Lear” was staged by the London Shakespeare Group,
3. The student’s books were thrown out of the window.
4. Lord sandwich’s problem was solved by his cook.
5. Stradeverie’s violin was bought by a violinist.
3.3 The -S form possessive pronouns

Unnecessary repetition of a word in a sentence is always considered to be a breach of good style. The -S form possessive pronouns ‘mine, yours, his, hers, ours, yours, theirs’, etc. are used when we do not want to, as we should always do, repeat a word in a sentence. (Let us remember that ‘mine’ is an exception. It does not end in ‘s’.) For example, to say; This pen is your pen’ sounds very odd. Instead we use –s form possessive pronoun and say, ‘This pen is yours’. Let us take some more examples. It is always better to say “This house is ours, that ‘This house is our house’. “The samsonite suitcase is her suitcase” sounds very odd as compared to, “The samsonite suitcase is hers”.

3.4 Self-Assessment Questions-4

I. Change the underline words in the following sentences into an –S form possessive pronoun:

1. This script is your script.
2. That building is State Life building.
3. Is this vacancy his vacancy.
4. This proposal is his proposal.

Now let us revise different kinds of pronouns discussed in the previous pages:

1. Subject pronouns: I, we, you (singular), you (plural), he, she, It and they, etc.
2. Object pronouns: as me, us, you (singular), you (plural), he, she, it and they, them, etc.
3. Possessive pronouns: as my, our, your (singular), your, (plural), his, her, its, and their, etc.
4. _S form pronouns_ (without nouns) as mine, ours, yours (singular), yours (plural), his, her and theirs, etc.

II. Review test (parts of speech)

We have studied three parts of speech i.e. (1) Nouns; (2) Pronouns (3) Verb.

3.5 **Self-Assessment Questions-5**

Separate the above mentioned parts in the following sentences:

1. I brought up his children.
2. They painted my house last year.
4. Mustafa Kamal is their national hero.
5. He did his work very well.

4. **VERB**

Verbs have been discussed in the previous unit but some more information about these is given below:

4.1 **Five parts of action verbs**

As we have already seen, action verbs are the verbs which show action. Verbs ‘to be’ will not show an action. Some examples of action verbs are: To play’, To go’, etc.

Now let us learn that there are five parts of action verbs and each part has its own name:

a. **Root form** as ‘to run’, ‘to come’, ‘to swim’.

b. **-S form**: ‘Runs’, ‘comes’, swims’


e. **Past participle**: ‘Run’, ‘come’, ‘swum’.
4.2 **Regular and irregular verbs**

**Regular verbs:** Regular verbs are the verbs which always end in “-ed” in the past form and past participle (please refer here to action verbs). For example, ‘to play’ played ‘played’, ‘to look, looked, looked’, ‘to visit’ visited, visited, etc.

**Irregular verbs:** These verbs do not end in “-ed” in the past form and past participle. They usually change spellings, for example, 'to break broke, broken', 'To buy, bought, bought', 'To drink, drank, drunk’, etc.

4.3 **Habitual present tense**

Previously we have seen five parts of action verbs. Here we shall use the first two parts, i.e. the root form, and the -S form. To write sentences in the ‘habitual present tense’ -S form is used with subjects ‘he, she, it, third person (singular noun)’; with the rest root form is used. What is habitual present tense? It is a tense which shows an action as a custom, a routine work or a habit. For example, ‘I usually take rest after the Zohar prayers’, you always come late’, we, some times, have our dinner at a hotel’ she never neglects her duties as a nurse’, ‘Raheela always takes pride in her intelligence’, etc.

**Habitual Present Tense** (time -words): Time -words like 'often, sometimes, never, always, usually and normally’ are used before the verb to show a custom or habit etc. Refer to examples give above.

**Let us note** that time -words like 'every morning', 'every–week', 'everyday', 'every–year', 'every–month’, etc. are used at the end of a sentence. For example, ‘I go to college every–morning’, ‘he writes a letter to his family every–week’, etc.
**Special point:** The -S form spelling rules. Some words have special rules to make the -S form. There are three -S form spelling rules:

Rule No.1: The consonant Y rules: We change ‘y’ to ‘i’ and add –es to make the -S form when a verb ends in a consonant letter ‘y’. For example, ‘copy’ will be changed into ‘copies’, ‘try’ will be changed into ‘tries’ etc.

Rule No.2: -Es rules: We add -es to make the -S form when a verb ends in ch, sh, x, o, ‘etc. For example, ‘catch’ will be changed into ‘catches’, ‘push’ will be changed into ‘pushes’, ‘miss’, will be changed into ‘misses’, ‘go’ will be changed into ‘goes’, ‘do’ will be changed into ‘does’ etc.

Rule No.3: Special –`S for rule: It is used in case of the ‘have’ which becomes ‘has’.

4.4 **Habitual Present Tense (Question Sentences)**

Helping verbs like ‘do’ or ‘does’ are used to make questions in the habitual present tense (question sentences). With it we use the root form of the verb. The helping verbs are used before the subject. It is to be noted that time – words are also used before the verbs. A question mark is put at the end in such cases. For example, ‘do I always speak wrong French’? ‘Does he usually visit you?’ ‘Do we often write letters to each other, etc.

4.5 **Habitual Present Tense (Negative Sentences)**

Helping verbs ‘do not’ or ‘does not’ are used to make negative sentences in the habitual present tense. It is always the root form of the verb which is used in negative sentences. The principle verb always follows the helping verb, but the ‘time words’ always ‘usually’, ‘often’ will come in between the two, i.e.
the helping verb and the principle verb. For example, ‘you do not always take interest in your work’, ‘I do not usually batter early in the morning’, ‘he does not often send money to his children’, etc. Time words like ‘every-night’, ‘every-year’ etc. will come at the end, of a sentence. Let us not forget that time words like ‘some times’, ‘seldom’ or never’ are not used in negative sentences.

4.6 **Special Point (Negative Contraction)**

To make negative contractions in the habitual present tense we combine ‘do not’ as ‘don’t’ and ‘does not’ as ‘doesn’t’. what we actually do is that we take out the ‘o’ in ‘not’ and mark the place with an apostrophe. For example, ‘you do not work hard’ will become ‘you don’t work hard’. ‘He does not visit us’ will become ‘he doesn’t visit us’.

4.7 **Continuous Present Tense**

Here we shall discuss one of the five parts of action verbs. It is called present participle (–ing form). This form of verb is used in the continuous present tense, a tense which shows an action that is happening now. Time – words such as ‘now’, ‘right now’ and ‘today’, etc. are often used in it. For example, ‘the school bell is ringing now’, ‘Imran Khan is giving a beautiful shot right now’, etc.

4.8 **Continuous Present Tense (Affirmative Sentences)**

In continuous present tense we used the verb ‘to be’ (is, am, are) and the present participle (–ing form) as in the above sentence.

4.9 **Special point (the –ing form spelling rules)**

There are some special rules to make the –ing form for a few verbs:
Rule No1:  The ‘e’ rule: When a verb ends in ‘e’ we take it off and add ‘-ing’ to it. For example, ‘make’ will become ‘making’ and ‘write’ will become ‘writing’ etc.

Rule No.2:  The doubling rule: When a verb ends in one short vowel and one consonant, we double the consonant and add ‘ing’. For example, ‘hit’ will be changed into ‘hitting’, ‘swim’ will be changed into ‘swimming’ and ‘set’ will be changed into ‘setting’, etc. REMEMBER that verbs like ‘to travel’, ‘to visit’, ‘to open’, ‘to listen’, ‘to fix’, do not follow the doubling rule.

4.10  Contractions

We combine the subject pronoun and verb ‘to be’ to make contractions in the continuous present tense. For this purpose, we take out the first letter of the verb ‘to be’ and mark the place with an apostrophe, ‘they are running’ and ‘they’re running’, ‘she is swimming’ and ‘she’s swimming’, etc.

4.11  Continuous Present Tense (Question Sentences)

When we want to make a question in the continuous present tense, we bring the verb 'to be' in the beginning of the sentence and put a question mark at the end. For example, ‘the students are studying English right now’ will be changed into ‘are the students studying English right now.

4.12  Continuous present tense (negative sentences)

When we want to make a negative sentence in the continuous present tense, we use ‘not’ after the verb ‘to be’. For example, ‘she is washing clothes today’ and ‘she is not washing clothes today’, ‘the children are playing with the toys’ and “the children are not playing with the toys”.

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4.13 **Negative Contractions**

Negative contractions in the continuous present tense are made in two ways:

**Negative short form No.1:** We drop the first letter of the; verb ‘to be’ and fill the place with an apostrophe. For example, ‘I am not playing’ and ‘I’m not playing’, ‘you are not studying and ‘you’re not studying’.

**Negative short form No. 2:** We combine the verb ‘to be’ and ‘not’. Then we take out the ‘o’ in ‘not’ and mark the place with an apostrophe. For example, ‘she is not knitting my sweater’, ‘she isn’t knitting my sweater’. ‘They are working very hard’ and ‘they aren’t working very hard’.

4.14 **Habitual Present Tense and Continuous Present Tense (Contrast)**

As we have already seen, we use the root form and the -s form in the habitual present tense. It shows an action which is a custom or habit. In it the time – words are ‘sometimes’, ‘never’ ‘everyday’ ‘always’ ‘seldom’ ‘often’, ‘usually’, etc.

In continuous present tense, we use the verb 'to be' and the –ing form. It shows an action that is happening just now. The time – words used in it are ‘now’, ‘right now’, ‘today’, etc.

Mark the following sentences carefully to note the difference:

a. Sarah and Salman visit their granny every year. (Habitual present)

b. Sarah and Salman are visiting their granny now. (Continuous present tense)

c. I do my work regularly. (Habitual present)

d. I am doing my work right now. (Continuous present tense)
5. **PAST TENSE**

This tense shows an action that happened in the past. We use the past form of the verb. The time-words often used to show the past time are ‘a week ago’, ‘last night’, ‘yesterday’, ‘the previous year’, etc.

5.1 **Past Tense (Affirmative Sentences)**

We use the simple past form of the verb in this tense. For example, “I called on him yesterday’, ‘the guests reached last night’, etc.

5.2 **Regular Verbs (Past Tense)**

Verbs that end in ‘-ed’ in the past form are called regular verbs. ‘-ed’ makes three sounds as:

a. Granted/id/
b. Talked/t/
c. Sprayed/d/

5.3 **Three -ed Pronunciation Rules**

Rule No.1: When the root form of a verb ends in a ‘t’ or ‘d’ sound, the ‘-ed’ makes separate syllable i.e. ‘id’, as ‘want’ – ‘wanted’, and ‘succeed’–’succeeded’, etc.


Rule No. 3: ‘-ed’ gives the sound of /d/ in all the other regular verbs, for example, ‘call-called’/d/, ‘gain-gained’/d/ ‘close-closed’/d/, etc.
The ‘–ed’ form consonant ‘y’ spelling rule:
Please not that when a regular verb ends in ‘e’, we add only ‘d’ When a regular verb ends in a consonant letter ‘y’ we change the ‘y’ into ‘i’ and add ‘–ed, for example, ‘try–ried’, ‘carry–carried’, etc.

5.4 **Past Tense (Question Sentences)**

We use the helping verb ‘did’ in the beginning of the sentence and the root form of the verb to make question sentences. For example, ‘you wrote a letter to your parents everyweek’ will be changed into ‘did you write a letter to your parents everyweek?’. The guests went to bed very early’, will be changed into ‘did the guests go to bed very early?’.

5.5 **Past Tense (Negative Sentences)**

To make negative sentences, we use ‘did not’ and the root form of verb. For example, ‘I wrote a letter to him’ will be changed into ‘I did not write a letter to him’, ‘we won the match’, will be changed into ‘we did not win the match’.

**Negative contractions:** To make negative contractions in the past tense, we combine ‘did not’ and it is changed into ‘didn’t’. In fact we take out the ‘o’ in not’ and mark the place with an apostrophe. For example, ‘they did not play well’ will become ‘they didn’t play well’. ‘It did not rain’ will become ‘it didn’t rain’, etc.

5.6 **Habitual Present Tense and Past Tense (Contrast)**

We already know as to what habitual present tense is. Time – words used are ‘usually’ ‘often’ ‘always’ ‘sometimes’ ‘seldom’ ‘everyday’ and ‘never’, etc. now let us mark the difference between habitual present tense and past tense.

1. We use the root form and’-S form’ in the habitual present tense as ‘play–plays’, etc.
2. We use the past form in the past tense; ‘To play—played’. Now notice the difference between the two at a stretch.
‘The school never works four days a week’. (Habitual present)
‘The school worked four days a week a year ago. (Past tense)

6. **USE OF VERB (PASSIVE VOICE)**

6.1 **Introduction**

Previously we have seen that the arrangement in a sentence is ‘subject’ ‘verb’ ‘complement’. If there is an object in a Sentence, it comes in the complement. For example, ‘the surgeon examines the patients on Tuesday’. In this, Sentence, ‘the surgeon is the subject’, ‘examines’ is the, ‘verb’ and ‘the patients on Tuesday’ is the ‘complement’. The object ‘patients’ has been used as ‘a part of the’ complement. It is an “active voice sentence” because the sentence will have its meanings even if we take object out of it. For example, ‘the surgeon examines on Tuesday’ is a complete sentence as far as its meanings are concerned. The sentence will become meaningless if and when we try to take ‘subject’ out of it. For example, the sentence (if it is a sentence) ‘examines the patients on Tuesday’ will mean nothing. When we make a passive voice of the same sentence, it becomes 'the patients are examined by the surgeon on Tuesday'. Now the object of the active voice ‘the patients’ used in, Passive voice, becomes very active and important and rather inevitable in a passive voice sentence and it does not matter much if We drop the word surgeon Which has been used as one of the basics in an active voice sentence.

It means that it is the object of the active voice with which the passive voice sentence starts and it is inevitable for it.
So, when we say, ‘the patients are examined’ and drop the rest of the words, it does not matter much. Has the subject of active voice not become passive? So We conclude that it is in fact the position of the Subject which makes a sentence an active voice sentence or a passive voice sentence. If the sentence cannot be made without subject: (subject being active here), it is an active voice sentence. If it can be made without a subject (subject being passive here), it is a passive voice sentence.

6.2 Basics

1. Subject--object order is reversed. In other words, subject takes the place of object and object takes the place of subject. Since subject takes the place of object, as; an object it would be used in the objective case. For example ‘he reads a book’ becomes ‘a book is read by him’. Similarly, an object when it takes the Place of subject, it will be used in nominative case. For example, ‘I called him’ becomes ‘he was called by me’.

2. All the perfect continuous tenses have no passive form. For example, it is correct to say, ‘I have been doing my homework’, but We cannot change it into passive voice and say, ‘my homework have been being done by me’.

3. When subject is used as an object, it is preceded by the preposition ‘by’ when it is desired to be mentioned clearly. For example, ‘he teaches poetry to BA class’, can be changed into ‘BA classes are taught poetry by him’. It will be equally correct when there is no subject which has been object here, to say ‘BA classes are taught poetry’.

4. It is always the past participle of the principal verb which is used in passive voice. For example, ‘these boys are always punished. ‘They are being examined very carefully’. ‘The work will be finished by me in time’, etc.
7. ADJECTIVES

7.1 The use of adjective

The following points are to be kept in mind about the use of adjectives in a sentence:

1. **Adjective before nouns:** Adjectives are usually used before the nouns which they describe. For example, ‘hot water’, ‘black ink’, ‘clever man’, ‘wide space’, ‘lazy boy’, ‘narrow street’, etc. Please note that to make plural we never add ‘s’ to an adjective. ‘S’ is always added to the noun. For example, ‘news camera’ is wrong. The correct shape will be new ‘cameras’.

2. **Latinized adjectives:** Some adjectives as ‘worth seeing’ and ‘concerned’, etc. are used after the noun. For example, ‘it is a sight worth seeing’. ‘The case has been sent to the officer concerned’. In Latin grammar, adjectives are always used after the noun. So the above mentioned two adjectives which are used according to the Latin pattern are called Latinized adjectives.

3. **The successive use of more than one adjectives:** When more than one adjectives are used with a noun, they will come after it. For example, it is a night, long, dark, horrible and restless. ‘You are a man simple, innocent, inexperienced and you are trapped by people selfish, cruel and cunning’.

4. **Adjective when it follows the verb:** For example, ‘he is foolish’, you are selfish’, he is sincere’, etc.

5. **The use of ‘-ing’ to make adjective:** Sometimes ‘-ing’ is added to a verb to make an adjective which is used before a noun. For example, ‘to bloom’ is a verb. When we say ‘she is a blooming girl’ the word blooming has become an adjective. ‘This juice has a refreshing effect’.
The addition of ‘-ing’ with the verb ‘refresh’ has made it an adjective.

6. **The use of article before an adjective:** When a noun follows an adjective, an article is used before the same adjective in a singular case for example, ‘he is an intelligent boy’. To say ‘he is intelligent boy’ is as wrong as it is wrong to say ‘he is an intelligent.

7.2 **Self-Assessment Questions—6**

Fill in the blanks in the following sentences with the adjectives in parenthesis:

a. Our hostel is __________ your. (clean)
b. Lahore is ______ of all the cities in Pakistan. (big)
c. You are ______ of all the brothers. (sincere)
d. This spot is ______ of the whole campus. (quiet)
e. Shakespeare was __________ Marlowe. (great)

7.3 **Spelling Rules**

Some adjectives have special rules for adding ‘–er’ and – ‘est’. Let us learn the two adjective spelling rules.

a. **The Y rule:** When an adjective ends in ‘y’ we change ‘y’ to ‘i’ and add ‘–er’ or ‘–est’. For example, ‘crazy’ – ‘crazier than’. ‘He is lazier than his brother’, ‘he is the laziest of all the brothers’. ‘This unit is the easiest of all the units in the book’.

b. **The doubling rule:** When there is one short vowel and one consonant at the end of an adjective, the consonant is doubled and we add ‘–er’ or ‘–est’ to, it. For example, ‘fat–fatter’, ‘red–redder–reddest’, etc.
7.4 **Self-Assessment Questions – 7**

Use the Y rule or the doubling rule and change the simple degree into comparative degree and superlative degree in the following adjectives: Sad, friendly, noisy, quiet, thin, thick, early, ugly.

7.5 **The Exceptional Use**

Two adjectives ‘good’ and ‘bad’ have their exceptional use. They change spelling to form the comparative and superlative degree. For example, ‘good’ (simple degree) is changed into ‘better’ (comparative degree) and the ‘best’ (superlative degree). In the same way ‘bad’ (simple degree) is changed into ‘worse’ (comparative degree) and the ‘worst’ (superlative degree).

7.6 **Long Adjectives**

Long adjectives are adjectives like ‘merciful’ ‘extensive’, etc. which we need to compare persons, places and things. For a comparison between two persons, places or things, we use more–than with long adjectives. For example, we say ‘he is intelligent’. When we want to make a comparison with another person, we say, ‘he is more intelligent than you’. For a comparison among three or more persons, places or things, we use ‘the most’. For example, we say ‘he is intelligent’. When we want to make a comparison with an other person, we say, ‘he is more intelligent than you’. When we want to make a comparison of the same with three, or more persons, we say ‘he is the most intelligent of all the students in my class’. Let us revise that the degree of the adjective which compares two things, persons or places is called comparative degree and the one which compares three or more, is called ‘superlative degree’.
7.7 **Self-Assessment Questions–8**

Make two more sentences using comparative and superlative degrees of the following sentences having simple degree:

1. Einstein is a famous scientist.
2. The Taj Mahal is a graceful monument of love.
3. He is very considerate.
4. Your ideas are no doubt valuable.
5. Russell is logical in his approach.

### 8. **ADVERB**

8.1 **Introduction**

An adverb is a word that tells us something about a verb, an adjective, a preposition, a conjunction and also an adverb. When it is used to qualify a verb, it tells us how, why, when or where the action takes place. Sometimes an adverb modifies a phrase. For example, ‘I was just’ (adverb). ‘I am quite (adverb) in the dark(phrase)’.

Sometimes an adverb modifies the entire sentence. For example, ‘unfortunately (adverb) he lost his job’. ‘Certainly (adverb) you are in the right’.

8.2 **Kinds of Adverb**

Adverbs are of nine kinds:

1. **Adverbs of time**: For example, now, then, before, since, ago, today, yesterday, tomorrow, already, late, recently, presently, immediately, instantly, gradually, afterwards, etc.
2. **Adverbs of place:** Here, there, hither, thither, hence, thence, above, below, outside, in, out, up, down, far, near, within, without, forward, backward, inside, etc.

3. **Adverbs of number:** Once, twice, thrice, again, never, always, sometimes, often, firstly, secondly, thirdly, frequently, etc.

4. **Adverbs of manner:** Qualify or state: thus, ill, well, slowly, quickly, conveniently, gladly, rightly, etc.

5. **Adverbs of quality/degree:** Very, much, far, quite, little, a little, rather, somewhat, half, partly, wholly, etc.

6. **Interrogative adverbs:** These adverbs are used for asking questions. They show ‘time, place, manner, quality, cause’, etc. For example, ‘when did you come?’ (time) ‘How often did you visit the Badshahi Masjid’ (number)

   How did you reach? (manner)

   Why did he fail to attend the class. (cause)

   He failed to attend the class due to/because of rain. (cause)

   He failed to attend the class since/in that it was raining. (cause)

7. **Adverbs of affirmative or negative:** Yes, no, not, nay, aye, etc.

   Please note that we should never use ‘yes’, with a negative sentence. ‘Yes, I was not there’ is a wrong sentence.

8. **Adverbs of conditions:** Its examples are ‘had’ ‘would have’, ‘if’ ‘in case’, etc.

9. **Adverbs of effect:** Its examples are ‘so that’, ‘to’. For example, ‘he works hard so that he may succeed’.

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8.3 **Position of adverbs**

The following points may prove to be helpful in understanding the position of adverbs in a sentence.

i. One of the ways to avoid confusion about the position of adverbs in a sentence is to place the adverb, as near the word it modifies as possible. A study of the following sentences will be interesting as well as thought provoking. Just see how the use of an adverb can change the very meanings in a sentence:

a. Only I went there (nobody else did).

b. I went there only (and no where else).

ii. Use the modifying adverbs before the adjectives or the adverbs as ‘you are a very good teacher’ or Salahuddin ran very quickly to hold the ball’.

**Please note** that ‘enough’ is used after the word it qualifies. For example, ‘he is intelligent enough to get through the examination’ or ‘she is clever enough to befoul you’.

iii. When an adverb modifies an intransitive verb (a verb without an object), it is generally placed after the verb. For example, ‘he walks slowly’ or ‘she can speak French fluently’.

**Exceptions:** Adverbs of time are used before the verb they qualify. For example, “often go to consult a specialist” ‘you seldom visit us’ ‘the teacher never comes in time’ ‘always do good to others’, etc.

**Please note** that adverbs of manner or description follow the ‘very they qualify, and if there is a direct object, they must follow that too. For example, ‘the people ran quickly after the thief’, or ‘he played the role
very naturally’. But they precede an adjective. For example, ‘your eyes are beautifully greenish’.

iv. When an auxiliary (helping) verb precedes the modified verb, the adverb is used between the helping verb and the principal verb. For example, ‘the Israeli steps was strongly condemned by us’ ‘the shall certainly help us’, ‘I have always been neglected’ ‘the guests will certainly have gone by morning’, etc.

Please note that placing the adverb between the verb and the direct object is highly objectionable. For example, we should avoid sentences such as ‘I like very much outing’, ‘the correct use will be ‘I like outing very much’.

v. When a sentence has a verb of movement, the adverb of place comes immediately after the verb. For example, 'she went to Karachi by air yesterday'.

Generally the arrangement of adverbs in a sentence is:

a. Manner    b. Place    c. Time    d. MPT

8.4 Common Use of Some Adverbs

1. Much:

   a. ‘Much’ qualifies adjectives or adverbs in the comparative degree. For example, ‘this college is much better than the other one’.

   b. ‘Much’ is used with the past participle. For example, ‘he was much shocked at the death of his only son’.

Exceptions:
A few past participles as 'pleased' delighted, tired, pained, experienced, annoyed, contented’, etc. ordinarily take ‘very’.

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c. ‘Much’ is used with an adjective in the superlative degree to intensify the meaning. For example, ‘he is much the best boy in the class’ or ‘he is much most foolish boy in the class’.

d. ‘Much’ is used to modify a verb and the adverb too. For example, ‘he talks much’ or ‘the lesson is much too simple’

e. ‘Much’ is also used as an adjective. For example, ‘honesty gives us much pleasure in our heart’.

2. Very:

a. ‘Very’ is used with the adjectives and adverbs of the positive degree. For example, ‘she was very rich’, or ‘they travelled comfortably but not very happy.

b. ‘Very’ is used with present participles. For example, ‘his success is very encouraging for me’ or ‘this food is very nourishing’.

c. ‘Very’ is used to emphasize adjectives in the superlative degree. For example, ‘Sadaquain was the very best painter we ever had’.

d. ‘Very’ as an adverb is often used to qualify the adverb ‘much’. For example, ‘your house is very much better than ours’ or ‘you should be very much obliged to the old lady’.

e. ‘Very’ is sometimes used in the sense of ‘true’, ‘actual’ or for the purpose of stress. For example, ‘this is the very boy who is punished by the principal’ or ‘we shall all meet at that very place.

    Please note ‘very’ never modifies a verb.
3. **Too:**
   
   a. It means more than enough. It should not be used to replace ‘very’ or ‘much’. If you do it, you can see the result in the following sentences:
      
      The tea is too hot. (incorrect)
      The tea is very hot. (correct)
      I am too glad to know that you have succeeded.
      
      But the following sentences are correct:
      Do not work too much. (more than is proper)
      His speech is too long. (so long that it has become boring)
      You are too kind to your friend. (to the extent of being foolish)
   
   b. ‘Much too’ is used before an adjective. For example, ‘this room is much too large for a small class like this’, etc.

4. **Enough:**
   
   Its meaning is the opposite to that of ‘too’. It shows the proper desired and required limit of a thing. Whenever ‘enough’ is used as an adverb, it is used after the word it qualifies. ‘She was kind enough to help a widow’. Your salary is high enough for you to live properly’, etc.

5. **Before/ago/since:**
   
   a. ‘Before’ is an adverb that means ‘formerly’. For example, ‘I have been to Thailand before’, ‘I never before met such a foolish like him’, ‘the doctor has reached an hour earlier than before’, etc.
b. ‘Ago’ shows a period of time from the present dating backwards. For example, ‘long ago, Shah Jehan got the Taj made’.

Please note that as an adjective, it always follows its noun. For example, ‘this even took place a week ago’.

c. ‘Since’ it is used in three capacities as:
   an adverb of time
   a conjunction of time
   a preposition of time

As an adverb, it represents the time nearer to the speaker than another mentioned. For example, ‘since I ate that cake, I have been feeling sick.

Please note that we cannot use the present tense with since to show continuity. Avoid sentences like ‘I am in the University since 1972’. The correct use is ‘I have been in the University since 1972. It means that the action, beginning in the past has continued till present without any break. When there is a break, it becomes past perfect continuous tense as ‘I had been in the University since 1972’. It means that the speaker is not there now and the action has broken before coming right down to the present moment.

9. CONJUNCTION

9.1 Introduction

What is a conjunction? It is a word that joins two or more than two words. In other words it is used to join single words or groups of words to one another. (Do you remember that there are railway junctions and how do different trains join there.) It is just the same. For example, ‘I wanted to come but would not’. There is the first part ‘I wanted to come’, and there is the second part ‘could not’. It is the word ‘but’ which joins the two
groups of words to convey the meanings. Let us take another example. The thief could not jump over the wall though he tried time and again'. The first part of the sentence is, ‘the thief could not jump over the wall’. The second sentence is, ‘he tried time and again’. It is the word 'though' that joins the two parts and establishes a relationship between the two.

9.2 **Kinds of conjunctions**

There are two kinds of conjunctions: Coordinate and subordinate:

a. **Coordinate conjunctions:** Coordinate conjunctions are those conjunctions which either unite, coordinate (i.e. of equal value) parts of a sentence or words that stand in the same relation to some other word in the sentence. Some examples of major coordinating conjunctions are 'either–or, neither–nor, but both, otherwise, as well as, consequently, still, therefore, yet, for, moreover, nevertheless’, etc.

**Coordinating Conjunction Rules**

1. **AND** – use it to join sentences that are alike
   - The dog was sick, **and** it couldn’t sleep.

2. **But** – use it to join sentences that are opposite or show contrast.
   - I was sick, **but** I still went to school.

3. **SO** – use it to join a reason sentence to a result sentence.
   - Mariam didn’t study, **so** she failed the English exam.

4. **OR** – use it to join sentences that give choices or alternatives.
Saeed will go to the store, or he will take a nap.

Note: Do Not confuse a compound sentence with a simple sentence that has a compound verb. A compound sentence has TWO or more subject/verb COMBINATIONS.

- **Compound sentence:** My family **goes** camping every summer, and **we usually** **have** fun.
- **Simple sentence with compound verb:** My family **goes** camping every year and usually **has** fun.

**b. Sub–ordinate conjunctions:**

Sub–ordinate conjunctions are those conjunctions which link a principal clause to a sub–ordinate clause. For example, ‘that, because, since, after, till, though, if, except, unless, where, whether, etc.

**Please not:** That many people make mistakes in the use of proper correlative. The following correlatives may be studied carefully.

- **a. Both-and:** Zaman is both a poet and a journalist.
- **b. No sooner than:** He had no sooner left than his children began to weep.
- **c. Such-as:** He is such a foolish man as I can hardly talk to him.
- **d. So-that:** He is so foolish that I can not talk to him.
- **e. Indeed-but:** He was indeed found to be a criminal but no body could punish.
- **f. Either-or:** He is either a fool or a simpleton.
- **g. Neither-nor:** Neither my brother nor my sister came help to me.
- **h. Not only-but also:** Not only did they fine him but turned him out of the class also.
- **i. Scarely/hardly-when:** He had scarcely seen me when he slipped away.
j. **Thought-yet:** Though he is greedy, yet he is very good physician.

k. **Other-than:** I have no other claim to love than my life partnership with you.

### 10. INTERJECTION

#### 10.1 Introduction

An interjection is a word which is used to express some sudden rush of feeling of excitement. In other words, it is a word that expresses a state of emotion. Mark the following sentences with interjections:

Hurrah! We have won the match. (Interjection—Hurrah shows happiness.)

Aha/Ah! You are the man I was interested in. (Interjection/Aha/Ah shows satisfaction.)

Alas! My business has been completely shattered. (Interjection. Alas shows sorrow.)

Please note that words always perform different functions in a sentence. When one word is performing one function, it is one part of speech. When it is doing another, it is another part of speech.

#### 10.2 Clauses

Words and phrases can be put together to make clauses. A clause is a group of related words that contain a subject and predicate.

Note the difference between phrases and clauses in the following example:

Only one of the clauses is a sentence.

Clause #1 gives a thought or an idea that is complete, that can stand by itself, independent of other words.
However, clause #2 gives an incomplete thought or idea, one that cannot stand by itself, one that needs some more words to make it whole. The word after changes the meaning, making the thought incomplete. After reading this clause, we are left hanging.

These two clauses illustrate the two kinds of clauses:

independent clauses and dependent clauses.

An independent clause is a group of words that contains a subject, a predicate, and a complete thought.

A dependent clause is a group of words that contains a subject and a predicate, but does not express a complete thought.

Avoiding Fragments

A complete sentence needs only two elements:
a subject – predicate unit and a complete thought

In other words, a simple sentence is actually the same thing as an independent clause. Dependent clauses or phrases are called fragments because they are missing one or more parts needed to make a sentence. Therefore they are only pieces or fragments of complete sentences. Look at these examples:

Kinds of Sentences and Their Punctuation

A sentence may be one of four kinds, depending upon the number and type(s) of clauses it contains.

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1. **A SIMPLE SENTENCE** has one independent clause.  
*Punctuation note:* No commas separate compound elements (subject, verb, direct object, indirect object, subjective complement, etc.) in a simple sentence.

2. **Compound Sentence** has to independent clauses joined by  
A) a coordinating conjunction (for, and, nor, but, or, yet, so).  
B) a conjunctive adverb (e.g. however, therefore) or  
C) a semicolon alone.  

it composed of two simple sentences joined together by a comma and coordinating conjunction.

```
SIMPLE SENTENCE  COORDINATING  SIMPLE SENTENCE
               CONJUNCTION
```

For example:
- My family goes camping every summer, and we usually have fun.
- Last year we went camping at Lake Mead, but we had a terrible time.
- Next year we will take a cruise, or we may just stay at home.
- We want to go to Hawaii soon, so we need to save money.

(3). A **COMPLEX SENTENCE** has one dependent clause (headed by a subordinating conjunction or a relative pronoun) joined to an independent clause.

Punctuation Patterns (to match A, B, C and D above):
A. Dependent clause, independent clause
B. Independent clause dependent clause
C. Independent, nonessential dependent clause.
D. Independent essential dependent clause.

4. A **COMPOUND-COMPLEX SENTENCE** has two independent clauses joined to one or more dependent clauses.

## 11. ANALYSIS

### 11.1 Introduction

The word ‘analysis’ is noun from the verb ‘to analyse, which means to break something into smaller parts.

Let us make an analysis of different kinds of sentences.

### 11.2 Analysis of simple sentences

For example, ‘the hungry tiger ate the poor little calf in the jungle’, ‘my friend soon became a busy man’.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>Enlargement</th>
<th>Verb</th>
<th>Object or complement</th>
<th>Enlargement</th>
<th>Extension</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a. Tiger</td>
<td>The Hungry</td>
<td>Ate</td>
<td>Calf (object)</td>
<td>The poor little</td>
<td>In the jungle</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b. Friend</td>
<td>My</td>
<td>Became</td>
<td>Man (complement)</td>
<td>A very busy</td>
<td>soon</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Exercise:

Analyse the following sentences:

a. The old lady forgot a large sum of money.
b. She saw a very old friend this morning.
c. Bring me a glass of water here.
d. The police ran quickly to the spot.
e. One day a young frog saw an ox in a meadow.

11.3 **Analysis of compound sentences**

When we analyse a compound sentence, we have to:

a. Find out the number of clauses.

b. Write out such clauses in full by supplying the omissions.

c. Find out the connective word.

Take the following examples:

He came to see me but I was not at home.

They start in the morning and work on till dark.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Clauses</th>
<th>Connective</th>
<th>Kind</th>
<th>Function</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. He came to see me</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>principal</td>
<td>–</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. But I was not at home</td>
<td>but</td>
<td>coordinate</td>
<td>adversative to (1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. They start in the morning</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>principal</td>
<td>–</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. And work on till dark</td>
<td>and</td>
<td>coordinate</td>
<td>cumulative to (1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Either you have done it.</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>principal</td>
<td>–</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Or he has done it.</td>
<td>or</td>
<td>coordinate</td>
<td>alternate (1)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Exercise:

Give the clause analysis, of these compound sentences:

a. Money is a good servant but bad master.

b. We drove at great speed; otherwise we should have missed the train.

c. Either he or I must go.
d. Houses are built to live in and not to look on.
e. I am not angry but I am hungry.

11.4 **Analysis of complex sentences**

In complex sentences there are three kinds of clauses: A noun clause, an adjective clause and an adverb clause.

**Noun clause:** As the noun clause does the work of a noun, it can be:

a. The subject of a verb. For example:
   
   _______ What he did was wrong.
   _______ Whoever resisted was killed.

b. The object of a verb:
   
   _______ I do not know when I shall return.
   _______ Tell me why you went there?
   _______ He promised that he would come back very soon.

c. The object of a preposition or a participle:
   
   _______ There is no sense in what you say.
   _______ Your success depends on what you do.
   _______ Hearing that he was ill, I went to see him at his home.

d. In opposition to a noun or pronoun:
   
   _______ The reason as to why he is so sad is unknown to me.
   _______ It is hoped that he will come.
   _______ The news that he had succeeded gave us much pleasure.

**Exercise:**
Pick up the noun clauses in these sentences and state the function of each clause.

1. He can not rely on what he says.
2. How this happened is not known to me.
3. What he said was true.
4. I know what I want.
5. It is very clear that rain will fall today.

**Adjective clauses:** The adjective clause qualifies some noun or pronoun in a sentence. It is introduced by relative pronouns and relative adverbs.

a. **Relative pronouns:**
   - The boy who met me has gone.
   - This is the man whom we all love.
   - The house in which I live does not belong to me.

b. **Relative adverbs:**
   - I do not know the place where he was born.
   - I do not know the reason as to why he went there.
   - The time when the attack was made was never known.

Please note the following points with care:

1. The relative pronouns in the objective case are often left out. For example:
   - I gave him the books (which) I was carrying in my hand.
Do you know the man (whom) we met last night?

2. Sometimes the relative adverbs are also not expressed.

On the day (when) you pass the examination, I shall visit you.
The reason (why) I have come to ask for money.

3. Sometimes ‘as’ and ‘but’ are used as relative pronouns.

His behaviour was not such as we expected.
There was not a woman present but wept to hear such news.

4. If a relative pronoun is used in a continuative sense and can be replaced by ‘and’ it introduces a coordinate clause and not an adjective clause.

I met him who gave me your letter.
I met him and he gave me your message.
He released the bird which at once flew away.
He released the bird and it at once flew away.

Exercise:

Pick out the adjective clauses and the nouns and pronouns they qualify:

1. The boys who work hard usually succeed.
2. “That is why I sojourn here” (Keats).
3. We love them who love us.
4. Friends who are honest are trusted.

**Adverb clause:**

Please refer here to section-V of this unit.

**Special point:**
The following points regarding the analysis of various kinds of sentences should be carefully noted:

i. In SIMPLE SENTENCES, interrogative sentences should be treated as assertive.

ii. COMPOUND SENTENCES often appear in a contracted form and should be written in full before analysing them. For example, ‘I met your servant who gave me your message’ means ‘I met your servant and he gave me your message’.

iii. a. In COMPLEX SENTENCES the principal clause may be distinguished from the subordinate clause by the fact that a subordinate clause always begins with a conjunction. For example:
   ‘He will succeed, because he has worked very hard’.
   ‘When the cat is away, the mice will play’.

b. The kind of clause should never be judged from the ‘conjunction’ that introduces it, but from the ‘function’ it performs. For example:
   ‘I do not know who broke the window’. (Noun clause)
   ‘I do not know the boy who broke the window’. (Adjective clause)
   ‘He worked so hard that he fell ill’. (Adverb clause)
11.5 **Mixed sentences**

Mixed sentences are partly compound and partly complex. A mixed sentence, in this sense, contains two or more independent clauses which have subordinate clauses. Let us take a sentence for example and analyse it for our purpose.

He told me, his name was Saleem and that he had followed the sea since he was nine, but could not say how old he was, as he had lost his reckoning.

Now this sentence has two parts, A and B. Let us analyse separately.

A

1. He told me ___________ (Principal)
2. His name was saleem ___________ (Noun clause, object of told in (1))
3. And that he had followed the sea ___________ (Noun clause, object of told and coordinate to (2))
4. Since he was nine ___________ (Adverb clause showing time)

B

1. But he could not say _________ Principal clause, coordinate to (A)
2. How old he was _________ Noun clause object of say in (B) 1.
3. As he had lost reckoning ___________ Adverb clause showing reason.

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12. ANSWERS TO SELF-ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS.

Answers
Sentence has a subject and a verb.

SELF-ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS-I

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>Verb</th>
<th>Person or no person</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The player</td>
<td>Plays</td>
<td>Person</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>Run</td>
<td>Person</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>We</td>
<td>Study</td>
<td>Person</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The School</td>
<td>Closes</td>
<td>Not a person</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The passengers</td>
<td>Come out</td>
<td>Person</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The actor</td>
<td>Performs</td>
<td>Person</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Class</td>
<td>Protested</td>
<td>Not a person</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS — II

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>Verb</th>
<th>Complement</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>He (person)</td>
<td>Is (not-action)</td>
<td>A photographer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The plane (not a person)</td>
<td>Crashed (action)</td>
<td>While it was landing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The old man (person)</td>
<td>Works (action)</td>
<td>In a garden</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The heater (not a person)</td>
<td>Burns (action)</td>
<td>Surplus gas</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>She (person)</td>
<td>Is (non-action)</td>
<td>A very good singer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Saga</td>
<td>Is (non-action)</td>
<td>An excellent dancer</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS — III

a. His watch was lost by me.
b. His ‘King Lear’ was staged by the London Shakespeare Group.
c. His books were thrown out of the window.
d. His problem was solved by this cooks.
e. His violin was bought by a violinist.
SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS — IV
a. This script is yours.
b. That building is State Life’s
c. Is this vacancy his?
d. This Proposal is his.

SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS — V
a. I — noun b. They — pronoun
   Brought — verb Painted — verb
   His — pronoun My — pronoun
c. Beware — verb d. Mustafa Kamal — noun
   Your — pronoun Is — verb
   Enemies — noun Their — pronoun
e. He — noun
   Did — verb
   His — pronoun

SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS — VI
a. Cleaner than b. The biggest
   The sincerest d. The quietest
e. Greater than

SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS — VII
Sadder Saddest
Friendlier Friendliest
Noisier Noisiest
Quieter Quietest
Thinner Thinnest
Thicker Thickest
Earlier Earliest
Uglier Ugliest
SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS — VIII

Comparative Degree:
- a. Einstein is a more famous scientist than he.
- b. The Taj Mahal is a more graceful monument of love than it.
- c. He is more considerate than his brothers.
- d. Your ideas are more valuable than theirs.
- e. Russell is more logical in his approach than he.

Superlative Degree:
- a. Einstein is the most famous of all the scientists.
- b. The Taj Mahal is the most graceful monument of love.
- c. He is the most considerate of all of his brothers.
- d. Your ideas are the most valuable.
- e. Reussell is the most logical of all the thinkers in his approach.

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INTRODUCTION

If we trace out the history of English language we will find that in the earliest form of old English there were only two simple tenses, i.e. tense forms that consisted of one word. They are simple present tense e.g. I walk, read, and simple past tense, e.g. he walked/read etc. These two forms alone had to serve for the expression of all the various ideas of present, past and future. However, with the passage of time an elaborate system of tenses had evolved of which we are quite familiar and which is universally accepted and used in the teaching of English today. Thus the statement that English language had only two tenses can be read only as a historical fact and with academic interest.

In this unit we will explain the system of tenses now in vogue. This will be in the simplest form because we do not want the student of secondary school level to be involved in the intricacies of grammatical maze. This unit is specially written for those teachers who wish to get a bachelor of education degree. In order to help you with your teaching, the simplest methods of imparting instruction regarding tenses will be dealt with. Particular reference will be made to our social milieu. We can safely ignore the historical fact referred to above as it has no significance or relevance for the modern reader.
OBJECTIVES

After reading this unit you should be able to:

- Differentiate between time and tense and use the following tenses in different situations as needed
  
  i. present perfect tense
  
  ii. present continuous tense

- Identify the two simple forms of tenses—simple present tense and simple past and their usage.

- Identify and use the future time and the different forms of future tense.

- Prepare exercises for application of the methods learnt.

- Teach the different forms of tenses.

- Understand conditional tenses.

- Identify pitfalls in the tenses.
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<td>638</td>
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<td>Conditional tenses</td>
<td>647</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>Answers to the exercises</td>
<td>655</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.</td>
<td>Bibliography</td>
<td>659</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
1. DEFINITIONS

In this unit certain terms have been used. Although commonly known, they are defined for the convenience of the student.

1.1 Persons

There are three classes of personal pronouns viz; first person, second person and third person.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Person</th>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>First person</td>
<td>I</td>
<td>We</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Second person</td>
<td>You (thou)*</td>
<td>You (thee)*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Third person</td>
<td>He, she, it</td>
<td>They, their</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(All other pronouns except I, we, you)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Archaic: Used mainly in the holy books of poetry.

1.2 Negative sentences

Opposite of positive or affirmative, indicating no or not.

1.3 Affirmative or positive

A positive sentence in which the sense of yes’ is conveyed.

1.4 Interrogative sentences

A sentence in which a question is asked. It ends with a question mark (?)..

1.5 Time and tense

The word time and tense must not be confused. The notion of time present time, past time and future time is universal and is independent of language. Tense on the other hand is a linguistic device—a verb form or series of verb forms used to express time
relation. The concept of time and tense is dealt with at length in the next pages. In board term we can classify all the three times as three tenses although there is clear distinction between tense and time which will be elucidated at the proper place.

1. Present tense
2. past tense
3. future tense

Each tense is further divided in four tenses, i.e. simple continuous, perfect and perfect continuous. Thus for a beginner in learning English language there are twelve tenses which if understood in the simplest form can give an idea of different moods of time and action.

The twelve forms of tense are listed here for your information:

1. Present indefinite tense (simple present tense)
2. Present continuous tense
3. Present perfect tense
4. Present perfect continuous tense
5. Past indefinite tense (simple past tense)
6. Past continuous tense
7. Past perfect tense
8. Past perfect continuous tense
9. Future indefinite tense
10. Future continuous tense
11. Future perfect tense
12. Future perfect continuous tense
2. **PRESENT TENSE**

Now we shall take each tense separately:

2.1  **Simple present or present indefinite**

In this tense first form of the verb is used with addition of ‘s’ or ‘es’ with third person singular. Here are some examples for you to see how the tense is used.

i. For describing a habitual, permanent or repeated action:
   - I live in a small town
   - He always sleeps with his windows open (addition of ‘s’ with sleep).

ii. General, universal or true statement or proverbs:
   - The earth moves round the sun. (True statement)
   - Most of us probably eat too much meat. (General)
   - Shakespeare says, “neither a barrower nor a lender be”.

iii. For describing an event which depends on a fixed time table or schedule or to express a future action about a decision has already been taken:
   - The next train leaves at 11.00 am (fixed time, future action).
   - My course starts on Monday.
   - He sets sail for Bombay tomorrow.

iv. Describing a demonstration, giving the summary of a story or event in a play:
   - First I fill the beaker with acid. Then I add the crystals.
   - I heat the beaker and it turns yellow. (Demonstration)
   - At this moment the ghost of Banquo enters and sits in the chair of Macbeth.
   - Antonio needs money, shylock offers to lend him 3000 ducats.

v. In subordinate clauses of time or condition expressing a future action:
When you see Aslam tomorrow, remember me to him.
Don’t come until I write to you.
If you go to the party you will meet old friends.

vi. In exclamatory sentences:
Here comes the great hero of the war!
There goes the ball in the nets!

2.2 **Activity**

Prepare a diagram indicating all the tenses and all the three persons (singular and plural, positive and negative as well as interrogative). Please use the verbs sleep.

2.3 **Exercise-1**

1. Write five sentences in which the simple present tense is used but which do not denote the present time.
2. Make sentences against the words given in the table:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SPT (Verb) (simple past tense)</th>
<th>I person</th>
<th>III person</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Singular</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Go</td>
<td></td>
<td>Plural</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Write</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Read</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sleep</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sing</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4. Correct the following sentence where necessary:
   a. I am go to school.
   b. He go to play everyday.
   c. They writes their lesson.
   d. We does not watch television programmes.
   e. You do not kill the bird.

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f. Newspapers sell like hot cakes.
g. Ali and Wali takes tea.
h. She is write a letter.
i. This radio belongs to me.
j. Cigarettes causes danger to health.

2.4 **Present continuous tense**

This tense is formed by using the first form of the verb ‘to be’ a present participle (write + ing – writing), e.g. I am writing, you are writing, etc. let us consider some other examples of the present continuous tense:

i. For an action which began in the past and will terminate in the future, but which at the moment of speaking is incomplete and is still continuing, e.g.
   What are you doing?
   The moon is shining.
   I am drinking a cup of milk.

ii. To express futurity specially with verbs of movement like go, come, leave, etc. e.g.
   We are going to Lahore on Saturday.
   What are you doing next Friday?
   We are leaving by air.

2.5. **Exercise-2 (Present continuous tense)**

Complete the sentences with the present continuous form of the verbs in bracket:

1. I _____ my best to bring him here. (Do)
2. They are ______ building a home. (Try)
3. What game you ______ today. (Play)
4. There is no room in this house. Therefore, you ______ next door. (Sleep)
5. Where we ______ this evening. (Go)
6. What she ______ now? (Do)
7. The boys ______ cricket in the ground. (Play)
8. Bushra ______ a new novel. (Write)
9. My father ______ to see me tomorrow. (Come)
10. We ______ as hard as possible to win the contract. (Try)

2.6 **Present perfect tense**

The present perfect tense is made by using have/has and a past participle of the verb which is commonly called the third form of a verb.

Has is used if the subject is third person singular ie, he, she, it, and in the other person have is used:

i. For an action just concluded when the resulting state is still present: e.g.
I have lost my pen; I am unable to do the exercise.
(“Have lost the pen” concluded action; and “unable to do the exercise”, resulting state still present.)
He has unlocked the door; you can go out.
This watch was working all right a moment ago but now it has stopped.

ii. To denote an action which took place at an unspecified time before now.
Somebody has drunk all my soup.
The government has increased the price of cigarettes.
Who has eaten the apples?

iii. For duration of an action began in the past and continuing in the present (and possibly in the future).
I have not visited him for ten years.
I have taught this class for ten years (and am still teaching it).
iv. Perfect tense is used in phrases which almost always have ‘since’ in them:
He has been here since 1952.

v. It is used with ‘already’:
I have already explained that ......

vi. It may be used with adverbs of frequency e.g. often, never, always, etc:
He has often/never/always done this. Have you ever heard of such a thing?

2.7 Exercise-3 (Present perfect tense)
1. Rewrite the following sentences using the present perfect tense of the verbs omitting or changing words rendered incorrect or unnecessary by the change of the tense.

1. Did you write a letter to your father this week?
2. Do you play cards often?
3. I killed a lion several times.
4. He began to pay attention to his studies.
5. He first lived in this house.
6. My friend tells me that he is a liar.
7. I saw this advertisement in today’s newspaper.
8. Did you sleep well?
9. I bought this car from Karachi.
10. Did you meet him after marriage?

2.8 Present perfect continuous tense
This tense is formed by have/has + been + first form of verb. It shows an action that started in past is in progress at present and likely to continue in future time and may be mentioned when started.

i. I have been teaching this class for two years.
The rate of inflation has been falling slowly since the beginning of the year.
I have been working on this problem since nine o’ clock this morning and I still haven’t solved it.
This tense and other perfect continuous tenses are usually associated with ‘since’ and ‘for’ the use of since and for is very simple.

ii. ‘For’ is used when the duration of time is measured i.e. we can state the exact period spent, e.g.
He has been living here for ten years.
I have been writing for two hours.
‘Since’ is however used when a starting point in time is given.
He has been living in England since 1949.
He has been teaching in the school since April last.

2.9 Exercise-4 (Present perfect continuous tense)

Insert ‘for’ or ‘since’ in the following sentences:

1. I have been reading this newspaper _____ 1948.
2. Have you been studying in this college_____ six years?
3. The government has been trying hard to arrest the saboteurs _______ two years.
4. Perhaps you have been reading this novel ______ morning.
5. We have been canvassing for him ______ February last.
6. _____ Wednesday last, I have been searching for him.
7. The West Indies cricket team has been playing in Pakistan _____ October.
8. Imran Khan has been leading the Pakistan Cricket team___________ 1981.

9. I have been calling on you daily ______ one week.

10. Jahangir khan has been winning the championship ______ three years.

2.10 **Activity**

Write two sentences each to illustrate use of ‘for’ or ‘since’. Make sure that the examples given in (a) and (b) above are covered.
3. PAST TENSE

3.1 Past indefinite tense (simple past tense)

This tense is used for a time before now, earlier than now. It describes something which began and ended before the present, i.e. it describes a completed act. For example:

I went to cinema last night.
The French revolution broke out in 1914.
I was born in a small village.

For making negative we write did not and use the first form of the verb and in interrogative we start the sentence with ‘Did’ and use first form of the verb

Example: He did not go to college.
Did he go to College?

3.2 Exercise-5: (Past indefinite tense)

Make negative and interrogative sentences of the following:

1. The First World War broke in 1914.
2. The BBC gave this news.
3. He loved him like his brother.
4. The book contained objectionable material.
5. He watered the plants every morning.

3.3 Past continuous tense

This tense describes something which was in progress in the past i.e. it describes an unfinished action. This is formed by using was (were) and the present participle:
As I was running to the school, I met Aslam who was coming back. He was waiting for a hot cup of tea.

This tense is often used to give a descriptive background to a story (a narrative) in the past tense. In such sentences the new action is expressed by the simple past tense whereas continuous tense is used for the other action. For example:

As I was looking at the picture, the thief stole my purse.

It was raining when we left for Lahore.

3.4 Exercise-6

Make five sentences giving two actions---the more important in the past indefinite and the other in the past continuous:

As I was going to the hall, my teacher stopped me on the way.

3.5 Past perfect tense

This tense is used to speak of an action concluded before a certain time in the past or before the occurrence of another action (denoted by the simple past tense). In other words, we want to make it clear that action (a) took place in a time before and is separate from the time when another action (b) took place. This tense is formed by ‘had’ + a past participle.

i. Ali had learned English before he came to England.

I gave my wife the present which I had purchased the day before. When I arrived at the station, the train had already left.

ii. To express duration up to a certain time limit in the past. For example:

By the time Ali passed the examination, he had studied in the class for five years.
By the time Bangladesh came into existence, Biharis had lived there for 24 years.

iii. In indirect speech and direct speech To express an idea that had been in the past or present perfect tense.
Direct: He said, “I have written her a letter”.
Indirect: He said that he had written her a letter.
Direct: Razia said, "I have just completed the job".
Indirect: Razia said that she had just completed the job.

3.6 Exercise-7
Make indirect sentences of the following:

1. He said, “I have already warned him of the consequences”.
2. Saleem said, “We have given many sacrifices”.
3. She said, “I killed the cat that drank the milk daily”.
4. Ali said, “I have not lent him any money”.
5. The US President said, “We have never forsaken our friends.”

3.7 Past perfect continuous tense
This tense is formed by had been’ + present participle:

i. To express the duration of some action upto a certain time in the past. For example:
When I reached the meeting hall, the speaker had already been speaking for half an hour.
The telephone had been ringing for three minutes before it was answered.

ii. For the use of a past continuous tense and present perfect continuous in reported speech:
Direct: I said, “What were you doing this morning”? 
Indirect: I asked her what she had been doing that morning?
Direct: He said, “I have been waiting for you since morning”.
Indirect: He said that he had been waiting for you since morning.

3.7 **Exercise-8**

1. She said, “Women in Pakistan have been fighting for their rights for 52 years”.
2. The minister said. “We have been trying to give maximum freedom to the press for 3 years”.
3. Ali said, “I have been teaching him for then years”.
4. Saleem said, “What game were you playing this morning”? 
4. **FUTURE TENSE**

This tense is formed by using the auxiliaries ‘will’ and ‘shall’.

4.1 **Future indefinite or futurity**

The simple form of the future tense is the normal usage of ‘shall’ for the first person singular and plural and ‘will’ for all other persons. This form is used to make a simple statement of fact about something which will definitely happen or not happen in a moment or period later that now.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Person</th>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>I shall</td>
<td>We shall</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>II</td>
<td>You will</td>
<td>You will</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>III</td>
<td>He, she, it will</td>
<td>They will</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Examples:**

(i) I shall be twenty-one on Thursday.
(ii) I think it will rain tomorrow.
(iii) We shall see who is faster.
(iv) If it rains we shall go by car.
(v) You will get wet if you go out without an umbrella.
(vi) There will be a time for questions after the meeting.
(vii) They will not be able to come tomorrow.

It often happens that in addition to future aspect, some other feelings such as willingness, determination, promise, command etc. also colour the futurism. The following will explain the different meanings.

**Will**

With the first person ‘will’ is used to express willingness, promise or determination.
a. **Willingness or unwillingness:**

Who will do the washing-up? I will (I will not).
I need some bread. All right, I will (will not) go and get some for you.

b. **Determination:**

I will repair the television set even if I have to stay up all the night.
I will get the ticket even if I have to stand all the day.

c. **Promise:**

I won’t forget your birthday. I will send you a present.
We will spend next weekend with you. Please don’t be angry.

**Shall**

a. Conversely, ‘shall’ denotes determination, promise, permission, prohibition, threat etc. with the second and third person. For example:
If you work hard you shall have a holiday on Saturday.
(Promise)
You shall have the money as soon as get it. (Promise)
He shall have every thing he needs. (Permission)
He shall not come here again. (Threat, Prohibition)
The enemy shall not pass.
This school shall be the best school in the country.
(Determination)

b. Shall is also used for oratorical or prophetic utterance.
The speaker wants to express things that he believes are bound to happen; God, Destiny, Fate has so willed it.
Such examples are found in literature and the Bible:
They shall beat their swords into plough shares.
Nations shall not lift up sword against nation.
Blood and destruction shall be so in use.

4.2 **Exercise-9**

Fill in the blanks to express determination:

1. He _____ never get what he wants.
2. I _____ lend you the book if you need it.
3. They _____ do what I tell them to do.
4. He has made up his mind that he ____ succeed this time.
5. Tell him that I _____ never let him do this thing.

4.3 **Future continuous tense**

The future continuous tense is formed by using will/shall be + present participle.

i. It is used to express future activity beginning before and finishing after some given time in the future. For example:
   What will you be doing this time tomorrow?  
   This time tomorrow I shall flying to Lahore.  
   My friend will be waiting for me at the airport.

ii. It is also used to indicate future plans that have already been decided on. For example:
   They will be staying with us again this year.

iii. To denote an action which may be going on now and we think of it continuing in the future:
   I wonder if it will still be raining in the afternoon.

iv. It is also used when we project ourselves into a future time and see something happening. For example:
   In a few minutes we shall be landing at Lahore airport.  
   I will be seeing Sakina this evening.
4.4 **Exercise-10**

Turn the verbs underlined in the sentences into the future continuous tense.

1. He will **work** hard next time.
2. Let us hope that it will **rain** tomorrow.
3. Saleem will **do** his military service next year.
4. I shall **play** cricket this afternoon.

4.5 **Future perfect tense**

This tense is formed by will/shall have’ + a past participle.

i. **This tense indicates a completed period of time in the future.** It is often associated with the preposition ‘by’ or ‘by the time’. Example:
   - by the time you receive this letter, I will have left Pakistan.
   - It is now 7pm I shall have finished my work by 10pm.
   - In another year or so you will have forgotten all about her.

ii. **This tense indicates duration upto a time in the future,** e.g:
   - When I leave the school next week, I shall have taught this class for ten years.
   - On 4\textsuperscript{th} march we shall have been married for nine years.

iii. **To denote a possibility or presumption.** Examples:
   - You will have heard that Seema is going to be married.
   - It is 6 pm; they will have arrived home by now.

4.6 **Exercise-11**

Complete the sentences using the verbs given in the bracket to make future perfect tense:
1. I ______ complete my job within two days. (Complete)
2. The police _____ the smugglers after this operation. (Arrest)
3. My examination _____ after 20 days. (End)
4. The patient _____ after continuous treatment of one week. (Recover)
5. The voters _____ votes by 4 pm which is the closing time for polling. (Cast)

4.7 **Future perfect continuous tense**

   This tense is formed by will/shall ‘have’ + ‘been’ + a present participle and is used to express the duration of an action upto a certain time in future..

   This tense is used very sparingly. It is often not needed. It is only the tense system which allows you to say some thing. See the following examples:

   It is 6 o’clock, I am reading the novel “war and peace”.
   At 8 o’clock, I will have been reading it for two hours.
   On April 26, 1993 we shall have been living in this house for exactly thirty years.
   In another month’s time Aslam will have been working in this office for five years.

4.8 **Activity**

   Using the information in 4.1 to 4.6 make sentences of your own to show the different uses of will and shall. At the end of each sentence identify the type of use within brackets.
## 5. CONDITIONAL TENSES

### 5.1 Introduction

Conditional tenses are used to show how one action or event depends on another. They can show whether we are certain (it will happen) or whether we are only expressing (the probability it may happen, it could happen etc).

Conditional clauses are of two kinds, distinguished by the form and meaning of the principal clause. The difference between them is important. There are two basic types of conditional tenses, one which has an open condition and in the other, the condition is hypothetical (supposition). In both the conditions sentences can be made with ‘if’. They may be called ‘if sentences’. These ‘if sentences’ can be used in the present tense, in the past tense and in the past perfect tense. In ‘if clause’ the future tense cannot be used even if the meaning is in the future. The following table will illustrate the conditional clauses:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>If clause:</th>
<th>Tense in the main clause</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>A.</strong> Present tense in the if clause</td>
<td>Tense in the main clause</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. If you are right I am wrong.</td>
<td>(Present)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. If you help me I will help you</td>
<td>(Future)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. If I get this right I shall have answered all the questions correctly.</td>
<td>(Future perfect)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. If what you say is right then what I said was wrong.</td>
<td>(Past)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. If the train should be late what will you do?</td>
<td>(Future)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| **B.** Past tense in ‘if clause | (Present) |
| 1. If I said that, I apologize. | (Present) |
2. If I said that, I was mistaken.  (Past)
3. If I made a mistake, I will try to remedy it.  (Future)

C. Present perfect tense in ‘if clause’
1. If I have made a mistake, I will try to remedy it.  (Future)
2. If you have done work, you may go to the cinema.  (Present)

5.2 Hypothetical conditions
If khalid were here he would know the answer.
If I had the money I would buy a new car.
If wishes were horses, beggars would ride.
If I were king, you should be queen.

Such sentences make a hypothesis which may be contrary to fact or just something not thought to be a fact or something which is considered impossible. In such hypothetical conditions the simple past tense is used in the ‘if clause’ and ‘would or should’ + the infinitive are used in the main clauses. Sentences of this kind may refer to the present time, past time, or future time as explained here:

a. Present time:
1. If I had the money, I should buy a Mercedes.
2. If I needed a haircut, I would go to the barber.
3. If the suit fitted me, I would buy it.

Here although ‘had’ ‘needed’, ‘fitted’ are in the past tense these sentences express a present condition. They mean ‘if I had the money now’. ‘if I need a haircut now’, or if the suit fits me now’, etc.
b. **Past time:**

1. If Aslam had worked hard (in the past) he would have passed the examination.
2. If you had asked me (in the past), I would have helped you.
3. If I had the money (some years ago) I would have bought a bigger house.
4. If you had not told me about it, I might never have gone to see it.

c. **Future time:**

1. If Khalid worked hard next term, he would pass the examination.
2. If you went there you would see what I mean.
3. If our train were to arrive punctually, we should have time to attend the funeral.

5.3 **General notes on conditional tenses**

Present tense, past tense, and past perfect tense can be used to indicate a conditional sentence. However, the future tense cannot be used even if the meaning is future, e.g:

I shall go for a walk if the rain will stop. (Wrong)

I shall go for a walk if the rain stops. (Right)

In addition to this ‘if conditional sentences can be formed with the help of inversion or by using words such as supposing, provided, had, were, should, in case, unless, etc. Examples:

1. Supposing you had married a foreigner, do you think you would have been happy?
2. Here is a hundred rupee note. Don’t spend it unless you have to.
3. I will give you some money in case you need to buy food.
4. You can go out tonight, provided you have finished your homework.
5. He said we could have a day off on condition that we completed the job.
6. Had I known you were coming I would have waited for you.
7. Were I to be invited I would love to go there.
8. Should you see him, tell him that his result has arrived?

5.4 **Pitfalls in tenses**

i. Time and tense.
ii. The use of shall and will.
iii. Two continuous are never used.
iv. Verbs of perception and those referring to state rather than to process are generally not used in the present continuous tense, exceptions are:
   a. Newspaper headlines.
   b. Used to (for indefinite period).
   c. Since and for.

In the use of tenses there are certain points which should be remembered and understood clearly for correct use. There are instances where one is tempted to use a tense which, strictly speaking, may be correct according to rules laid-down, but in fact is not received as correct. There are always exceptions to a rule which are considered to be correct. Thus there may be certain pitfalls which ought to be avoided. Some of them are enlisted here:
**Time and tense**

As clear distinction should be made between 'tense and time'. The notion of time of present time, past time, future time is universal and is independent of any particular language, or of language at all.

Tense on the other hand is a linguistic device varying from language to language. It means the verb form or forms used to express certain time relations.

A present tense does not necessarily express an action taking place in the present time. For example:

The rose smells sweet.

The verb 'smell' is in the present tense. But that sentence does not mean that the action of smelling takes place only in the present. Rose has smelt sweet in the past, and shall smell sweet in future too. Thus the present tense can express action taking place in the present, the past or the future.

Here are two other sentences:
If I trusted him I would lend him money.
It is time I went home.

In both these sentences, the verbs have a past tense forms, but 'if I trusted him' implies 'if I trusted him now' i.e. it expresses a present time. And though 'went' is a past tense form, the time of going home cannot be the past; it must surely be the future. Here are some more examples:

If Aslam worked, he would pass the examination.
If I were in your place I should accept this offer.
He acts as if he wanted to make trouble.
I wish I had a garden like yours.
It would be better if you went there yourself.

In all these sentences the past tense form indicates both present time and future time.
5.5 **Verbs of perception**

There are certain verbs which are not used in the Continuous tense. Instead the present indefinite tense is used. These verbs are:

i. Verbs of perception, See, hear, feel, taste, smell.

ii. Verbs which refer to a state of mind, feelings, emotions, etc. rather than action, for example:
   Assume, believe, feel, consider, suppose, think, expect, forget, imagine, know, mean, understand, remember, notice, fear, love, hate, hope, like, prefer, regret, want, wish.

These verbs even if denoting the continuous are used in the present indefinite tense, e.g:

- I don't see anything here. (Correct)
- I am not seeing anything here. (Incorrect)
- I am smelling something burning. (Incorrect)
- I smell something burning. (Correct)
- I consider him my best friend. (Correct)
- I am considering him my best friend. (Incorrect)
- This house belongs to me. (Correct)
- This house is belonging to me. (Incorrect)
- I hope to pass the examination. (Correct)
- I am hoping to pass the examination. (Incorrect)

However, this is not a rule of the thumb. Some of these verbs can be used in the continuous forms. Examples:

i. I have had too much wine. I am seeing double.

ii. The verb is used in a different meaning:
   I am seeing Sheila tonight.

iii. I am not hearing as well as I used to.

iv. Hameed was feeling his way in the dark.
5.6 Use of 'used to' and 'would' in the past continuous tense

When we want to emphasise or draw attention to any activity in the past which no longer happens, we usually use the pattern 'used to' + main verb e.g:

When I was young I used to go to the football match every Saturday.
I used to go village of Gujrat when I was young.
Two things should be remembered in the use of 'used to':

i. It is never used in the present tense as there is no form uses to’.

ii. ‘Used to’ is used with an expression of an indefinite period of time. We can say, I used to go to school in Gujrat when I was a boy.

**But we say:**

I went to school in Gujrat for eight years.

The alternative to 'used to' is 'would' which is mainly used in stories. Every Saturday evening father would take out his old guitar and start to play old songs. We had to listen politely and pretend to enjoy his playing. Mother used to look at us severely if we laughed or made noise. Sometimes father would go on for hours.

5.8. Newspaper headlines

In order to say as much as possible in a few words, newspaper headlines have developed what is almost a special language. They use short words instead of long ones even when those short words are never or rarely used anywhere else. For example:

‘Government railway inquiry row’ which probably means that there is an argument (row) about the inquiry which the government has set up to find out the cause of the rail crash.
‘PM ANNOUNCES NEW PLAN’, which although in the present indefinite tense means the Prime-Minister, has recently announced a new plan.

‘GM MOVING – TO NEW PREMISES’, which although probably in the present continuous tense, indicates a future action, i.e. general motors are going to move soon to new premises.

‘CHAIRMAN TO RESIGN’, the ‘to’ infinitive is used to describe a planned future event.

5.9. **Activity**

1. Write three headlines for a newspaper concerning the following:
   i. A National News.
   ii. An International News.

2. Prepare a chart giving each of the twelve tenses for verb ‘walk’ given in 1.3 for each tense. Make 28 sentences for each tense.
6. ANSWERS TO THE EXERCISES

Exercise-I:

1. Five sentences in the simple present tense which denote the present tense.
   
i. This year Eid-ul-Fitr falls on Sunday.
   
ii. My plane takes off at 7 pm.
   
iii. The headmaster announces the result tomorrow.
   
iv. The president leaves for tour of Jordan on Wednesday.
   
v. We play a match with England next Friday.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Simple present tense</th>
<th>III Person</th>
<th>III Person</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Verb</td>
<td>Singular</td>
<td>Plural</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Go</td>
<td>I go</td>
<td>He goes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Write</td>
<td>I write</td>
<td>He writes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Read</td>
<td>I read</td>
<td>He reads</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sleep</td>
<td>I sleep</td>
<td>He sleeps</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sing</td>
<td>I sing</td>
<td>He sings</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4. Correct sentences:

a. I go to school

b. He goes to school everyday.

c. They write their lesson.

d. We do not watch television programme.

e. Correct.

f. Correct.

g. Ali and Wali take tea.

Q. She writes a letter.

i. Correct.

j. Cigarettes danger to health.
Exercise-2:
1. I am doing my best to bring him here.
2. What game are you playing today?
3. There is no room in this house. Therefore you are sleeping next door.
4. Where are we going this evening?
5. What is she doing now?
6. The boys are playing cricket in the ground.
7. Bushra is writing a new novel.
8. My father is coming to see me tomorrow.
9. We are trying as hard as possible to win the contract.

Exercise-3:
1. Have you written a letter to your father this week?
2. Have you played cards often?
3. I have killed a lion several times.
4. He has begun to pay attention to his studies.
5. He has first lived in this house
6. My friend has told me that he is a liar.
7. I have seen this advertisement in today's newspaper.
8. Have you slept well?
9. I have bought this car from Karachi.
10. Have you met after marriage?

Exercise-4:
1. Since       2. For       3. For       4. Since       5. Since

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Exercise-5:
1. The First World War did not breakout in 1914. (Negative) Did the First World War breakout in 1914? (Interrogative)
2. The BBC did not give this news. (Negative) Did the BBC give this news? (Interrogative)
3. He did not love him like his brother. (Negative) Did he love him like his brother? (Interrogative)
4. The book did not contain objectionable material. (Negative) Did the book contain objectionable material? (Interrogative)
5. He did not water the plants every morning. (Negative) Did he water the plants every morning? (Interrogative)

Exercise-6:
1. As the war between India and Pakistan was going on, the Secretary General of UN visited both the countries.
2. As I was batting, he watched me.
3. As he was fighting alone, his friend looked silently.
4. As the dacoits were shooting in the bank, the gunman hid himself.
5. As the demonstrators attacked the police station, the policemen looked helplessly.

Exercise-7:
1. He said that he had already warned him of the consequences.
2. Saleem said that they had given many sacrifices.
3. She said that she had killed the cat that drank the milk daily.
4. Ali told that he had not lent him any money.
5. The US President said that they had never forsaken their friends.
Exercise-8:
1. She said that women in Pakistan had been fighting for their right for 52 years.
2. The minister said that he had been trying to give maximum freedom to the press for 3 years.
3. Ali said that he had been teaching him for ten years.
4. Saleem asked as to what game he had been playing that morning.

Exercise-9:

Exercise-10:
1. He will be working hard next time.
2. Let us hope that it will be raining tomorrow.
3. Saleem will be doing his military service next year.
4. I shall be playing cricket this afternoon.

Exercise-11:
1. I will have completed my job within two days.
2. The police will have arrested the smugglers after this operation.
3. My examination will have ended after 20 days.
4. The patient will have recovered after continuous treatment of one week.
5. The voters will have cast their votes by 4 pm which is the closing time for polling.
7. BIBLIOGRAPHY


Hornby A. S: *Guide to Patterns and Usages in English*. Oxford University Press.

Mekay, Sandra: *Verbs for a Specific Purpose*, Prentice Hall.
Unit – 15

VOICE AND NARRATION

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Sh. Muhammad Iqbal Naeem
INTRODUCTION

In previous unit you have studied different parts of speech and different ways of their use in English language. This unit is about the change of voice and change of narration.

‘Active Voice’ and ‘Passive Voice and similarly ‘Direct Speech’ and ‘Indirect speech’ are different modes of expression. The native people use these modes without much deliberation as their response of different situations is spontaneous—without thinking for the language adequacies.

Since we study English as a foreign language, we need to learn the rules governing different aspects of this language. In this unit effort has been made to explain the rules governing the patterns of voice and narration.

OBJECTIVES

After studying this Unit carefully, you will be able to:

1. Change the Active Voice sentences into Passive Voice.
2. Change the Direct Form sentences into Indirect Form.
3. Use idioms and phrases in sentences of your own.
4. Use Punctuation Marks to make the given sentences or a passage readable/understandable.
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1. ACTIVE AND PASSIVE VOICE

1.1 Introduction

Voice is a mode of expression. Grammatically speaking, as the dictionary tells us, voice is set of forms of a verb showing relation of the subject to the action, as active or passive voice.

Look at the following sentences carefully:

1. He reads the book.
2. I am eating a mango.
3. They are playing football.
4. The book is being read by him.
5. A mango is being eaten by me.
6. Football is being played by them.

In the first three sentences, we see that the subjects (He, I, They) are acting. They are performing the action stated by the verbs (reads, eating, playing.) They are Active Voice sentences. Other three sentences show that the subjects (The book, A mango, Football) are not acting. They do not perform the action stated by the verbs. Rather, they are receiving the action stated by the verbs. They are Passive Voice sentences.

### Active Voice

The active voice comprises all forms of intransitive verbs and those forms of transitive verbs that attribute the verbal action to the person or thing whence it proceeds (the logical subject), as:

**We punished him**

not like the forms of the passive voice to the person or thing to whom it is directed (the logical object) as:
He was punished by us.

**Passive Voice**
Passive Voice (comprising those forms of transitive verbs that attribute the verbal action to the person etc. to whom it is directed).

Why the passive voice is necessary in English? There are two main reasons for using the Passive Voice. We use the passive voice because:

1. The agent (or performer of the action) is unknown.
2. In English, the topic or theme of a sentence usually comes in the front of the sentences.

Here are some examples of the first reason

This book was written 1000 years ago.
(I do not know exactly who wrote it.)

The carpet was made in Afghanistan.
(I do not know exactly who made it.)
1.2 **Model Sentences for Study:**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Active Voice</th>
<th>Passive Voice</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. He eats an apple every day.</td>
<td>An apple is eaten by him every day.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. He is reading a book.</td>
<td>A book is being read by him.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. She wrote a letter today.</td>
<td>A letter was written by her today.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Affaq was playing hockey.</td>
<td>Hockey was being played by Affaq.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. I shall draw a picture.</td>
<td>A picture will be drawn by me.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. I have finished the book.</td>
<td>The book has been finished by me.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. We had won the race.</td>
<td>The race had been won by us.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Read the newspaper.</td>
<td>The newspaper be read by you.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Do you like this ice-cream?</td>
<td>Is this ice-cream liked by you?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Where has she thrown the ball?</td>
<td>Where has the ball been thrown by her?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. Who gave me the match?</td>
<td>By whom was I given the match?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

By studying thoroughly these sentences, we arrive at the following conclusions:

1. While changing the Active into the Passive Voice, the object becomes the subject and the verb should be used in accordance with the subject.
2. In all the tenses in the Passive Voice, the third form of the verb is used.
3. ‘ing’ used in the Active Voice is changed into ‘being’ in the Passive Voice (sentences 2 and 4)
4. When ‘has’, ‘have’ or ‘had’ is used in the Passive Voice, ‘been’ must also be used (sentences 6,7 and 10).
5. ‘Have’ may changed into ‘has’ and ‘has’ may change into ‘have’ in accordance with the subject of the sentence (sentence 6).
6. When ‘will’, ‘shall’, ‘would’ or ‘should’ is used in the Passive, there must also be ‘be’ with it (sentence 5,8).
7. As in the Active a question in the Passive Voice must have a question mark in the end (sentence 9, 10 and 11).

8. When we change a question into the Passive Voice, we must keep the question order (sentence 10, 11 or the examples given below):
   a. Who wrote this? = By whom was this written?
   b. Why did she break the glass? = Why was the glass broken by her?

1.3 Turning into Passive Voice:

   Generally, we have a subject in a sentence performing some activity. Such sentences have their verb in the active voice. When a sentence shows that an action is done to a person or thing denoted by the subject, the verb is said to be in the passive voice.

   For example:
   1. The toys are bought.
   2. Apples are eaten.
   3. His shoes have been stolen.
   4. The thief has been caught.
   5. She was fined.

A) Indefinite Tenses:

   You should always keep in mind the following points while using Indefinite Tenses in the Passive Voice:
   1. Only the transitive verb are used in the Passive Voice.
   2. If a verb in a sentence is in Present Indefinite Tense, it can be turned into passive voice verb by using ‘is’ or ‘are’ before the third form of the verb.
3. If a verb in a sentence is in Past Indefinite Tense, it can be turned into Passive verb by using was or were before the third form of the verb.

4. If a verb in a sentence is in Future Indefinite Tense, it can be turned into Passive Voice verb by using ‘shall be’ or ‘will be’ before the third form of the verb.

Study the following sentences to see how the rules have been applied:

1. The story is told.
2. The story is not told.
3. Is the story told?
4. We are taught Arabic everyday.
5. They will be punished.
6. She will be given a prize.
7. Will this egg be boiled?
8. These books will not be sold.
9. Was your pen stolen?
10. The servant has not been dismissed.

B) Continuous Tenses:

Now, using the Passive Voice in the Continuous Tenses, following points are to be kept in mind:

1. If the verb of a sentence is in the Present Continuous Tense, it can be turned into Passive Voice using ‘am being’ ‘is being’ or ‘are being’ before the third form of the verb. For example:
   The horse is being fed.
   The thieves are being punished.
   I am not being transferred.
2. If the verb of a sentence is in the Past Continuous Tense, it can be turned into Passive Voice verb by using 'was being' or 'were being' before third form of the verb. For example:

   The books were being bought.
   Was the house being sold?

3. You should remember that sentences in the Future Continuous Tense cannot be turned into the Passive Voice.
   To revise these rules, have a look on the following sentences:
   1. The floor is being washed.
   2. The mangoes are being eaten.
   3. The letter was being written.
   4. The flowers were not being plucked.
   5. Were late comers being punished?
   6. Was the new book being sold like hot cakes?

C) Perfect Tenses:
   While using The Passive Voice in the Perfect Tenses, you should follow these rules:

1. If the verb of a sentence is in the Present Perfect Tense, it can be turned into Passive Voice verb by using 'has been' or 'have been' before the third form of the verb:

   The work has been completed.
   We have not been asked about it.

2. If the verb of a sentence is in the Past Perfect Tense, it can be turned into Passive Voice verb by using 'had been' before the third form of the verb:
This chapter had already been taught.
The walls had not been painted before the guests arrived.

3. If the verb of a sentence is in the Future Perfect Tense, it can be turned into passive Voice verb by using shall have been’ or ‘will have been’ before the third form of the verb:
   The matter will have been decided before you reached.
   I shall have taken my meals before they knocked at the door.

4. You should remember that the Prefect Continuous Tense cannot be changed into the Passive Voice.

   Have a look on the following sentences carefully:
   1. This house has been sold.
   2. These apples have been bought
   3. The work had already been finished.
   4. A taxi will have been hired for the day.
   5. Will he have been escaped before police arrived?
   6. I shall have not finished the work before he called.

**WARNING.** In all Passive Voice exercises the use of “by” with an agent must be rigorously suppressed, except in those examples where our interest in the Predicate has led us to use the Passive Voice. But nevertheless the active subject has some interest of its own and is necessary for complete sense, e.g.

This poem was written by keats;
   shows greater interest in the poem (the speaker is presumably discussing it or reading it), but the poet is necessary to complete the sense. Such active subjects as I, we,
you, they, one, someone, nobody, people, a man, a boy, the servant, etc. scarcely ever warrant their inclusion in the Passive construction.

**Exercise No1 study these sentences carefully:**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Active Voice</th>
<th>Passive Voice</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. He writes a letter</td>
<td>A letter is written by him</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>He does not write a letter</td>
<td>A letter is not written by him</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Does he write a letter?</td>
<td>Is a letter written by him</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Liaba is writing a letter</td>
<td>A letter is being written by liba</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Liaba is not writing a letter</td>
<td>A letter is not being written by liba.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Is liaba writing a letter</td>
<td>Is a letter being written by liba?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. She has written a letter</td>
<td>A letter has been written by her</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>She has not written a letter</td>
<td>A letter has not been written by her.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Has she written a letter?</td>
<td>Has a letter been written by her?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Ihtizaz wrote a letter</td>
<td>A letter was written by Ihtizaz</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ihtzaz did not write a letter</td>
<td>A letter was not written by Ihtizaz.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Did Ihtzaz write a letter</td>
<td>Was a letter written by Ihtizaz</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Aroosa was writing a letter</td>
<td>A letter was not being written by Aroosa</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aroosa was not writing a letter</td>
<td>A letter was not being written by Aroosa.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Was Aroosa writing a letter</td>
<td>Was a letter being written by Aroosa.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Kinza had written a letter</td>
<td>A letter had been written by Kinza</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kinza had not written a letter</td>
<td>A letter had not been written by Kinza.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Had Kinza written a letter?</td>
<td>Had a letter been written by Kinza.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Ifra will write a letter</td>
<td>A letter will be written by Ifra</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ifra will not write a letter</td>
<td>A letter will not be written by Ifra.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Will Ifra write a letter?</td>
<td>Will a letter be written by Ifra?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. He will have written a letter</td>
<td>A letter will have been written by him</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>He will not have written a letter</td>
<td>A letter will not have been written by him</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Will he have written a letter?</td>
<td>Will a letter have been written by him.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Open the door</td>
<td>Let the door be opened</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No body can do it</td>
<td>It cannot be done by anybody.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Someone has open the door</td>
<td>The door has been opened.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Revision:
You may go through the rules of turning the Active Voice sentences into Passive Voice once again.

**Exercise No. 2:**
Choose the correct Passive Voice sentences:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Active Voice</th>
<th>Passive Voice</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| 1. He paints a picture | a. A picture paints by him  
|   | b. A picture is painted by him.  
|   | c. A picture will be painted by him  |
| 2. She was teaching the students in the class. | a. The students were being taught by her in the class.  
|   | b. The students being taught by her in the class.  
|   | c. The students were taught by her in the class.  |
| 3. We shall catch him. | a. He will catch by us.  
|   | b. He will be caught by us.  
|   | c. He shall be caught by us.  |
| 4. They will not buy this house. | a. This house will not buy by them.  
|   | b. This house will not bought by them.  
|   | c. This house will not bought by them.  |
| 5. He has collected many books | a. Many books has collected by him.  
|   | b. Many books have collected by him.  
|   | c. Many books have been collected by him.  |
6. She had already written the letter.  
   a. The letter had already written by her.  
   b. The letter had already been written by her.  
   c. The letter was already been written by her.

7. Why have you selected this piece of land?  
   a. Why have this piece of land been selected by you.  
   b. Why has this piece of land been selected by you.  
   c. Why this piece of land has been selected by you.

8. The servant will bring food for us.  
   a. Food will be brought for us by the servant.  
   b. Food shall be brought for us by the servant.  
   c. Food shall be bring for us by the servant.

9. The boys in the street had beaten the dog.  
   a. The dog was beaten by the boys in the street.  
   b. The dog had been beaten by the boys in the street.  
   c. The dog was beat by the boys in the street.

10. Did his father forgive him?  
    a. Was he forgave by his father?  
    b. Was he forgiven by his father?  
    c. Did he forgiven by his father?

Answer  
1. b.  2. a.  3. b.  4. b.  5. c  
6. b.  7. c.  8. b.  9. b.  10. b.  

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Exercise No. 3
Change the following into Active Voice:

1. His brother was not seen by me.
2. Good pictures are enjoyed by everyone.
3. A cup of cold milk is being drunk by her.
4. The thief has been arrested by the police.
5. His brother will be met by me.
6. After the function a speech is made by the Headmaster of the school.
7. My room has been painted.
8. Was the patient well looked after by the nurse?
9. Lies should not be told by them.
10. By whom was this letter written?
11. They will be welcomed by us joyfully.
12. The school-gate has been closed by the watchman.
13. Books for you are being purchased by him.
14. The chain was pulled by him to stop the train.
15. The fruit vendor will not have been stopped by the children.

Answers

1. I saw his brother
2. Everyone enjoys good pictures.
3. She is drinking a cup of cold milk.
4. The police has arrested the thief.
5. I shall meet his brother.
6. The headmaster of the school makes a speech after the function.
7. (He has) painted my room.
8. Did the nurse look after the patient well?
9. They should not tell lies.
10. Who has written this letter?
11. We shall welcome them joyfully?
12. The watchman has closed the school-gate.
13. He is purchasing books for you.
14. He pulled the chain to stop the train.
15. The children will not have stopped the fruit vendor.
2. DIRECT AND INDIRECT SPEECH

2.1 Introduction

There are two ways of relating what a person has said: Direct and Indirect:

In Direct speech we repeat the original speaker’s exact words:

Ifra said, ‘I have lost my book.

In Indirect speech we give the exact-meaning of a remark or a speech without necessarily using the speaker’s exact words:

Ifra said that she had lost her book.

Remember: The part of a Direct Speech sentence enclosed within inverted commas is called the Reported Speech and the part outside the inverted commas is called the Reporting Speech. The verb used in the Reporting is named as the Reporting Verb.

While changing the Direct into Indirect Speech, the inverted commas are not used. The comma between the Reporting and Reported Speech disappears and ‘that’ is used instead.

<table>
<thead>
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<th>General Rules for Change of Tenses</th>
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</thead>
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<tr>
<td>Present Continuous Tense</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Present Perfect Tense</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Present Perfect Continuous Tense</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Past Indefinite Tense</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Past Continuous Tense</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Past Perfect Tense</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Past Perfect Continuous Tense</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shall/Will</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
General Rules of the following Changes

This That
These Those
Here There
Now Then
Sir/Madam Respectfully
Today That day
Tomorrow The next day
The following day
Yesterday The Previous day
The last day
That night
Tonight Deleted from sentence
All right, well, yes, no, hello Greeted
Good morning, Good evening, Same
Good noon, Good day
Good afternoon
Good bye, Farewell,
Good night

2.2 General Sentences, Statements

Direct Speech Indirect Speech
1. He says, “I read this book He says that he reads this
every morning. book every morning.
2. He said, “I read this book He said that he read that
every morning. book every morning.
3. She said, “I must take my She said that she must
purse with me.” take her purse with her.
4. They said to me “You may They told me that I might
bring your bag with you”. bring my bag with me.

By studying these sentences carefully, you may frame the
following general rules to follow while turning the Direct Speech
sentences into Indirect:
1. You should not change the tense of the Reporting Verb.
2. If the Reporting Verb is in the Present Tense, you should not change the tenses when turning the Direct into Indirect Speech.
3. If the Reporting Verb is in the Past Tense, you should change all the verbs into past.
4. You should use “said” in the Indirect Speech when no person is spoken to. But use “told” when the person spoken to is mentioned.
5. You should change the pronouns of the first person, I, Me, My, Mine, We, Us, Our, Ours, into the same person as the speaker.
6. Similarly, you should change the pronouns of the second person, you, your, yours, into the same person as the person spoken to.

2.3 **Universal Truths:**

Study the following sentences:

1. He says, “God is one.”
2. She said to me, “The sun rises in the east”.
3. They said, “The earth is round”.

The statements given in these sentences are truths. They are true always and everywhere. We call them universal truths. The verb used in the reported speech in case of a universal truth does not change. It may remain in the simple present. The sentences in the Indirect Speech will be as follows:

1. He says that God is one.
2. She told me that the sun rises in the east.
3. They said that the earth is round.
2.4 **Questions:**

For changing the Direct Speech sentences into the Indirect Speech, you have to take care of certain more things. Study these sentences:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Direct</th>
<th>Indirect</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. He said to me, “Can you drive”?</td>
<td>He asked me if I could drive?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. I replied, “Yes”.</td>
<td>I replied in the positive/ affirmative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. She said to me, “What are you studying”?</td>
<td>She asked me what I was studying.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From these examples, we come to the following conclusions:

1. For question sentences in the Indirect Speech, you should always use ‘asked’ instead of ‘said’.
2. You should never use ‘that’.
3. If you observe that the answer to the questions can be ‘yes’ or ‘no’, you should use ‘if’ or ‘whether’.
4. You should take care that the order of the words must be like a statement and not like a direct question.
5. In the interrogative sentences beginning with interrogative pronouns (who, what, where, when, how, etc.) if or ‘whether’ is not used.
6. You should not put note of interrogation/a question mark.
2.5 **Command and Requests:**

Study these model sentences:

1. The teacher said to the student, :Write down the names of the seasons:
   The teacher told the students to write down the names of the seasons.

2. The policeman said to the crowd, “Don’t move a step”.
   The policeman ordered the crowd not to move a step.

3. She said to me, “Please show me the way to the garden.”
   She requested me to show her the way to the garden.

4. He said to them, “Please do not waste my time”.
   He requested them not to waste his time.

5. My elder brother said, “Do not leave this place unless I give you permission”.
   My elder brother commanded (warned) me not to leave that place unless he gave me permission

After studying these sentences, you come to the following conclusions:

1. When turning the command or request sentences into the Indirect form, you must mention the person spoken to.

2. You should use ‘to’ with the first form of verb.

2.6 **Exclamations:**

Now study these sentences in which expressions of emotions or feelings (from anger pain or surprise) are made:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Direct</th>
<th>Indirect</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. He said, “How glad I am”!</td>
<td>He exclaimed that he was very glad.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. I said to him, “What a fool you are.”</td>
<td>He exclaimed to him that he was a fool.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. The headmaster said to the boys, “What a serious mistake you have made”?</td>
<td>The headmaster exclaimed to the boys that they had made a serious mistake.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. He said, “How hot it is today”!</td>
<td>He exclaimed that it was very hot that day.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

You should always remember that:

1. You should use “exclamation” (“exclaimed with joy or sorrow”).
2. You should make use of ‘that’.
3. You should not use ‘what’ or ‘how’.
4. You should avoid any interjection (Oh! Alas! Ah!, etc.)
5. You should not use mark of exclamation in the Indirect Speech, Rather use “full stop”.

2.7 **Optative:**

Optative sentences are used for expressing wish or prayer.

Study the following sentences:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Direct</th>
<th>Indirect</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. She said, “May I get through the examination”!</td>
<td>She prayed that she might get through the examination.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. He said, “Would that I had”</td>
<td>He wished that he had not</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
not written that letter”. written that letter.”
3. His mother said, “May you live long”! His mother prayed that he might live long.

You should notice that:

1. While changing the optative sentences into Indirect Speech “said” is changed into “wished that” or “prayed that”.
2. Mark of exclamation is replaced by full stop.

2.8 Exercises — 4

Question No. 1:

Change the following into Direct Speech

1. You say that you bought it of your own accord.
2. We said that we played a match everyday.
3. Liaba Iqbal said that her father was going with her.
4. They said that they had bought a bungalow in Sargodha.
5. The Doctor said that he had already seen many patients.
6. Ihtizaz said that he would leave for Rawalpindi early next month.
7. He said that man is mortal.
8. She greeted Mrs. Sara.
9. Mother forbade me to tell a lie.
10. He asked me to lend him my bicycle for that day.
Question No. 2:

Change the following into Indirect Speech:
1. My friend said to me, “I shall visit you tomorrow”.
2. He said to us, I am returning his book today”
3. She said to him, “I missed the school bus this morning”.
4. The poet says, “Life is not a bed of roses”.
5. The students said to the teacher, “We shall write the essay tomorrow, Sir”.
6. The merchant said, “Alas! I have lost the cheque.”
7. He said to her, “Where did you leave my handkerchief?”
8. She said, “How beautiful the scene is.”
9. They said, “Hurrah! “Our team has won the match”.
10. The mother said to her son, “May you always succeed in your life!”

3 – IDIOMS

3.1 Introduction:

Idiom means form of expression peculiar to a language or the usual way in which words of a language are joined together to express some idea.

Idiom denotes construction of words of expression contrary to the usual pattern of the language or having a meaning different from the literal, for example:

a. “At large” means ‘free’, ‘at liberty’.

b. “In the long run” means ‘at last’.

c. “To look sharp” means “to lose no time”.

An idiom is a combination of two or more words which function as a unit of meaning, such as:

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Go on = continue
Go back from one’s word = fail to keep it
Go through with = complete
Come into notice = attract attention
Put off = postpone.

3.2 **Idiomatic use of verbs:**

1. **Break down = fail**
   He is working so hard that his health has broken down.
   Has your car broken down again?

2. **Break into = intrude forcibly**
   Aslam told me that someone broke into his house last night.

3. **Break out = begin, spread**
   Cholera has broken out in the village.
   Fire broke out in the market last night.

4. **Break up = dismiss, close**
   The college breaks up today for the winter vacation.

5. **Break the news = disclose**
   I was the first person to break the news to him.

6. **Bring about = to cause to happen**
   The teacher has brought about a lot of change in his students.

7. **Bring to light = reveal, expose**
   This letter has brought many facts to light.

8. **Bring to the notice of = inform**
   Why don’t you bring this fact to the notice of the officer concerned.

9. **Bring up = train someone in manners and habits**
   This boy has been brought up by his elder brother.
10. Call off = cancel
   The workers have called off their strike.

11. Call the roll = take attendance
    The teacher called the roll and started the lesson.

12. Carry out = put orders, instructions into practice
    You should carry out the orders of your elders.

13. Carry on = go on, continue
    Please carry on with your work while I am away for an hour.

14. Come about = happen
    I am surprised how all this came about.

15. Come to hand = receive
    Your letter has just come to hand.

16. Come round = accept others’ views
    If you try, I hope he will come round.

17. Fall out = quarrel
    Why have you fallen out with your friend?

18. Fall to the ground = fail
    All his plans fell to the ground.

19. Get on = make progress
    How are you getting on with your studies?

20. Get off = alight from vehicle
    You have to get off the bus at the next stop.

21. Get through = succeed in an examination
    He got through the examination with good marks.

22. Get up = rise
    He gets up early in the morning everyday.

23. Get by heart = memorise
    I have got this poem by heart.
24. Give away = distribute
   The Principal gave away the prizes today.

25. Give up = cease from effort or doing
   He is so poor that he has given up further studies.

26. Go through = study
   Please go through this article today.

27. Go through with = complete, finish
   Let us try to go through with this work before 2 0' clock.

28. Keep word = stand by the promise or appointment
   Every gentleman should keep his word.

29. Keep in mind = remember
   I will always keep your words in my mind.

30. Keep an eye = watch
   Why don’t you keep an eye on your son? He has a bad company.

31. Keep up = maintain
   We are trying to keep our family traditions up.

32. Look after = take care of
   Please look after these guests carefully.

33. Look around = watch, search
   Whom you are looking around here?

34. Look sharp = hurry up, lose no time
   Look sharp, boys, the time is over.

35. Look into = examine, investigate
   I will have to look into matter carefully.

36. Make out = understand
   I could not make out what he actually wants.

37. Make up one’s mind = determine
   You should make up your mind to top the list.
38. Make the best of = drive maximum advantage
   You should make the best use of your stay in England.

39. Put off = postpone
   Do not put off till tomorrow what you can do today.

40. Put out = extinguish (fire, light)
   Please put out the lamp before you go to bed.

41. Put in black and white = put in writing
   Could you please put this agreement in black and white.

42. Run away with = carry off
   The servant ran away with the money-box.

43. Run down = (of watch, clock) stop for want of winding, (of person, health), become weak from overwork
   This clock has run down.
   His health seems to have much run down.

44. Run out = come to an end
   The stock of sugar has run out.

45. Set out = begin journey
   This party is setting out for the top of this hill tomorrow morning.

46. Set sail = begin voyage
   Columbus set sail to discover the way to India.

47. Set eyes on = catch sight of
   He could not set eyes on the new moon.

48. Set the pace = determine it by leading
   The teacher should set the pace for the students.

49. Set up = establish
   His father set his son up as a businessman.
50. Set aside = reserve
   We have set ample money aside for the business.

**Some more Idioms:**

Some more idioms with the meaning are being given below. Try to grasp the meaning and try to use them in sentences of your own:

1. Set one’s hand to = sign
2. Set one’s heart on’ long for, desire
3. Set free = release, liberate
4. Set forth = make known, declare
5. Take down = write down
6. Take off = remove (hat, coat) from the body
7. Take over = succeed, assume control
8. Take after = resemble
9. Take against = oppose
10. Take to one’s heels = run away
11. Take care of = look after
12. Take in hand = start
13. Turn off = stop flow of water or working of radio
14. Look down upon = hate
15. Hold off = to delay
16. Hold on = keep one’s grasp on something
17. Hold out = maintain resistance.
18. Hold over = postpone
19. Hold up = stop and rob by threat
3.4  **Exercise No 5:**

**Question No.1**

Use the following idioms in your own sentences:

1. At large  
2. Put off  
3. Break out  
4. Bring to the notice of  
5. Bring up  
6. Come round  
7. Give up  
8. Keep word  
9. Make out  
10. Set eyes on

**Question No.2:**

Match the meanings of the following idioms:

1. Get on  i) Examine, investigation  
2. Get up  ii) Make progress  
3. Give up  iii) Rise  
4. Look into  iv) Cease from effort or doing  
5. Run out  v) Establish  
6. Set up  vi) Resemble  
7. Set forth  vii) Make known, declare  
8. Take after  viii) Come to an end  
9. Hold out  ix) Postpone  
10. Hold over  x) Maintain resistance
4 - PHRASES

4.1 **Introduction:**

The word phrase is derived from the Greek word Phrazien which means ‘to speak’.

Literally the word phrase denotes a manner or style of speech or an expression which is short, colourful and forceful.

In grammar, “phrase” means a sequence of a few words conveying a single thought or forming a separate part of a sentence but without a subject and a predicate. It is a group of two or more words that can function as a grammatical structure, such as “a house on a hill”, “a bunch of keys”, “sense of proportion”, “sense of humour”, etc. Phrases are often used as idiomatic expressions.

4.2 **Some Idiomatic Phrases:**

A list of idiomatic phrases is being given along with the meanings. Study them carefully:

1. All and one = everyone
2. All in all = of utmost importance
3. All round = in all respects
4. All the same = in spite of this
5. On account of = for sake of, because of
6. On no account = on no condition
7. By all accounts = in everybody’s opinion
8. To all appearances = so far as can be seen
9. Keep up appearances = outward show of prosperity
10. Back and forth = to and fro
11. Bag and baggage = with all belongings
12. Bag of bones = very weak and lean
13. In the balance = remaining uncertain
14. Keep eye on the ball = be alert

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15. Bank on = base one’s hopes on
16. Beat the air = try in vain
17. Beat about the bush = talk about irrelevant things
18. Bed of roses = easy position
19. Bed and board = lodging and food
20. To begin with = as the first thing
21. Believe one’s eyes = accept that what one sees is true
22. Round the corner = very near
23. In due course = in the natural order
24. Matter of course = natural or expected thing
25. At hand = very near, about to happen soon
26. Man of his hands = a practical man
27. Hard nut to crack = difficult problem or person.
28. Hard and fast = strict
29. Call into question = doubt
30. Few and far between = less, small
31. In the dark = not informed
32. Kith and kin = near relations
33. Off and on = now and again
34. Out and out = thoroughly
35. Go to sea = become sailor
36. All at sea = confused
37. As sharp as a needle = very intelligent
38. Like a shot = willingly
39. Show one round = take one to all points of interest
40. Put things straight = put the record straight
4.3 **Exercises No 6:**

**Question No.1**

Study the following phrases along with their meaning and try to use them in sentences of your own:

1. By and by = gradually
2. For good = for ever
3. By leaps and bounds = rapidly
4. Ins and outs = all the details
5. Burning question = most important
6. Call in question = to doubt
7. Fall to the ground = prove useless
8. Go with out saying = quite clear
9. Make headway = make progress
10. Take part in = participate

**Question No.2**

Find out the meaning of the following phrases:

1. At arm’s length
2. Before long
3. Once for all
4. With one voice
5. Under lock and key
6. Safe and sound
7. In no time
8. Bring to light
9. Get rid of
10. Make up one’s mind
5 – PUNCTUATION

5.1 **Introduction:**

Putting in marks of question, exclamation, full stop, comma, etc. in writing to assist in making the sense clear is called Punctuation.

5.2 **The Full Stop:**

1. A full stop (.) is used at the end of a sentence. He went to Sargodha.

2. We use full stop after abbreviations: Ph.D. for Doctor of Philosophy M.B.A. for Master of Business Administration P.B.C. for Pakistan Broadcasting Corporation

3. Full stop is also used after initials: M.A.Jinnah for Muhammad Ali Jinnah Q.U.Shahab for Qudrutullah Shahab K.M.Hussain for Khawaja Manzoor Hussain

5.3 **The Comma:**

1) A comma (,) is used to separate the name of the second person from the rest of the sentence: Salim, I asked you to keep quiet. I asked you to keep quiet, Salim.

2) A comma is used to separate a phrase of clause from the rest of the sentence. This phrase or clause is usually added in the sentence to qualify or explain something: Mr. Khan, grandfather of my friend, has left for Haj. Dr. Abdullah, the author of this book, has died. Naseem, having locked the door, went away.
3) In a sentence where more than two nouns or phrases of equal value have been used, a comma is used to separate each noun or phrase from the other one before the last two nouns or phrases where ‘or’ or ‘and’ are used for this purpose. For example:

Ahmed, Salim, Khan and Raza are all class-fellows.

4) A comma is also used after words like yes, no, well, now, oh, etc. when a sentence starts with one of them:

Yes, I already told you that.
Now, the matter ends here.

5) A comma is also placed to separate the word “please” at the end of sentence:

May I ask your name, please?
Could you show me the picture, please?
Just listen to me, please.

6) We also place comma before a reported speech or direct quotation:

Ali said, “I am pleased to see you”.
Emerson wrote, “Not gold, but only men can make”.

7) We also use comma to mark off phrases, clauses or expressions inserted into a sentence:

The condition of the patient, to tell you the truth, is serious.
My friend is hardworking, intelligent and above all, honest.

8) A comma is used to indicate an omission of a word or words necessary to the construction of the sentence:

To err is human, to forgive, divine.
I talk of chalk and you, of cheese.
5.4 **The Semi-Colon:**

A semi-colon (;) is used where a pause longer than that of a comma is required. It is placed as the chief stop of intermediate value between comma and full stop.

“The Pak English Grammar and Composition” tells us that the Semi-Colon is used:

1) To separate closely connected clauses from one another, as,
   Honesty of purpose has many advantages over deceit; it is the safer way of dealing with men; it is an easier way of dispatching business; it inspires men with greater confidence.

2) To separate the clauses of a compound sentence, when they contain commas, as,
   He was a brave, young man; and we respected him.

5.5 **The Colon:**

A colon (:) ranks between period (full stop) and semi-colon. It indicates a longer pause than the semi-colon.

“A Guide to the Study of English” tells us that the colon is used:

1) After a statement, complete in itself, when it is followed by another statement or series of statements, connected with it (without a conjunction) by way of enumeration, example, consequence, cause or antithesis:-
   The subject generally precedes the verb as:
   “John reads this book”
   No man should be too positive: the wisest often err.
2) Before quotations, when not immediately dependent on the verbs that introduce them:
The inscription ran as follows: “This is the tomb of Cyrus”
When thus used, the colon is often followed by a dash (:-).

Note the following points:
The following members of the club have been invited:

5.6 **Exercise No 7:**

**Question No.1**

Insert full-stops where necessary:

1. Dr. Khan is a famous surgeon
2. His father is MA, PhD,
3. The University has started the B Ed programme this year
4. I joined the govt service in 1982
5. The BBC means the British Broadcasting Corporation
6. CID stands for Criminal Investigation Department
7. He is Lt Gen

**Question No.2:**

Insert commas at proper places:

1. I am leaving for Lahore on May 19 1987.
2. No I did not see him there.
3. Aslam Saeed and Salim came to see Sadiq their friend.
4. “Get out” she said “and do not come again”.
5. Come in boys and sit down.
6. Always speak the truth friends.
7. Could you include my name please.
8. The teacher said “Boys never tell a lie”.
9. This applies to all the subjects in school including agriculture.
10. In spite of being an expensive book I bought it.

Question No.3:

Insert commas, full-stops, semi-colons and colons where necessary:
1. In Rome the army was the nation no citizen could take office unless he had served in three campaigns.
2. The principal parts of a verb in English are the present tense the past tense and the past participle
3. Man proposes God disposes
4. Forget mistakes organise victory out of mistakes
5. Study nature by seeing not pulling it to pieces this study is loved by God
6. Lord Bacon says “Reading makes a full man speaking a ready man writing an exact man
7. To err is human to forgive divine

(Pak English Grammar and Composition, P. 250)

5.7 The Mark or Interrogation:

1) The mark of Interrogation (?) is placed after a direct question:
   What are you doing?
   Where has the servant gone?
The Mark of interrogation is not used after an indirect question or a polite request:

He enquired of me what I was doing. Could you please tell me where the servant has gone.

2) The Mark of Interrogation is also used where some word, name or figure is doubtful:
The population of Hazara division is 500000 (?)
The Saiful Maluk Lake is situated in Swat (?)

5.8 The Mark of Exclamation:

1) The Mark of Exclamation (!) is used after words or sentences expressed in emotion, surprise, feeling of joy or grief:
   How glad I am today!
   Alas! We have lost the match.
   How beautiful the moon is!
   Off you go!
   I can’t believe it!

2) It is also used when a wish is expressed:
   May you be happy!
   May you live long!

3) The mark is also placed after a Nominative of address:
   Have pity, O Judge!
   Pardon me, Sir!

5.9 The Dash:

1) The Dash (—) is used to mark a break or change in sense:
He was sitting next to the minister —never thought of it.

2) The Dash is used to indicate explanation of a word:
    Would you like to open an account in my bank —
    The Qaumi Bank?

3) When some words are used for explaining or emphasising in a sentence, one dash will be placed at the beginning and the other at the end:
    He announced— no one denied it —that he had won the case.

5.10 **The Hyphen**

1) The Hyphen (—) is used to make compound words:
    full-back, fruit-cake, fire-arm, rope-dancer, duty-free.

2) The Hyphen is used in verbs compounded with prefixes:
    re-open, re-elect, pre-arrange, pre-war.

3) The Hyphen is used to separate a prefix from a proper noun:
    pre-partition, post-graduate, un-American

4) To use the prefix “ex”, the Hyphen is placed after it:
    ex-minister, ex-governor, ex-champion.

5.11 **The Apostrophe:**

1) The Apostrophe (‘) shows the possessive case of singular nouns:
    boy’s name, girl’s book, teacher's pen

2) In case of plural nouns the Apostrophe is added after the “s”:
    boys’ names, girls' school, teachers’ pen.
3) The Apostrophe is used to show that a letter or letters have been omitted from a word:
   I’m for I am
   I’ve for I have
   Can’t for cannot
   we’ve for we have
   let’s for let us

4) The possessive of a noun ending in “s” is formed by adding the apostrophe afterwards:
   Jesus’ mother, Moses’ tablet.

5) Plurals of alphabets and figures are made by adding apostrophe and “s” (or apostrophes) b’s, t’s, p’s, 10’s

5.12 **The Inverted Commas:**

1). The-Inverted Commas or quotation marks (" ") are used to show the actual words spoken by the speaker.
   The Inverted Commas are placed at the beginning of the spoken words and at the end:
   Ahmed said, “Let me finish this book first”
   The prisoner cried, “My God, help me, I am not guilty”.

2) The Inverted Commas are used around titles of books, poems, TV. programmes, etc.
   “Bang-i-Dara”, “A Tale of Two Cities”.
   “Javab-i-Shikwa”, “Waris”.

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5.13 **The Brackets:**

1) The Brackets [ ( ) ] are the pairs of marks used to enclose words, phrases which are not a part of the sentence.

2) The Brackets are used to mark off letters or figures in a series:
   Three books written by Syed Ameer Ali are as follows:
   (a) The Spirit of Islam.
   (b) A short History of the Saracens
   (c) Muhammadan Law

3) The Brackets are used to enclose words explaining something:
   His birthday falls on 20th (Friday).

4) Square brackets [] are normally used when the curved brackets have already been used:
   I have already referred to this point [see page 126 (footnote No.1)].

5.14 **The Capital Letters:**

Capital letter is used:

1) To begin the first word of every new sentence.

2) To begin the first word of every line of a poem.

3) To begin every proper name:
   Allama Iqbal, Milton, Keats, Karachi, Tokyo.

4) To begin the names of the days of the week, months, seasons:
   Monday, March, April, Spring, Winter.

5) For the names of books, magazines, newspapers:

6) At the beginning of the first word of a reported speech:
He replied, “Of course, you are right”.

5.15 Exercise No. 8:

Question No.1

Study the following passage carefully:

great as he was he knew his limitations when his admirers exceeded the bound of admiration and called him Amir-ul-Momenin the king of the believers a title given to caliphs for they were the spiritual and political heads of Muslim Society, he would say please do not claim this I do not profess to be your religious and spiritual guide or leader I am your political leader and no more.

Now, go through again. The passage has been punctuated and proper marks have been put:

Great as he was, he knew his limitations. When his admirers exceeded the bound of admiration and called him Amir-ul-Momenin (the king of the Believers) a title given to Caliphs, for they were the spiritual and political heads of Muslim Society, he would say: “Please do not call me this. I do not profess to be your religious and spiritual guide or leader. I am your political leader and no more.”

Question No.2

Punctuate the following passage:

have you bought the ticket the ticket checker asked the passenger the passanger replied yes I've bought the ticket what is the departure time enquired the passenger it is half past three thank you very much said the passenger and taking his brief case boarded the train now it was only ten minutes left for the trains departure he took his seat and made himself comfortable
6 – BIBLIOGRAPHY


TEXTUAL STUDY AND CRITICAL APPRECIATION-I

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INTRODUCTION

In unit 7 we introduced you to the teaching poetry in general. You must have realized that our approach to the teaching of poetry is slightly different from the simple translation of the poem into Urdu and paraphrasing of the poem into prose. We do not say that, that approach is wrong. No; poetry can be studied from different angles. Some approaches are more interesting for the learners than others. We want you to try various ways of handling a poem in the class so that you will judge for yourself what works well in your class.

However, the first requirement for teaching poetry is that you understand and enjoy the poem yourself. It means preparation ahead of your class. This unit will give you ideas for doing new activities and if you solve the questions and SAQs yourself, your understanding of the unit will help you greatly as a teacher.

OBJECTIVES

After reading this Unit you will be able to:

- Familiarize yourself with English poetry.
- Prepare poetry lessons.
- Understand simple English verses and teach them in the class.
- Help students enjoy poetry.
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1. WHAT IS POETRY

1.1 Poetry and prose

Poetry differs from prose in form more than its subject. Both poetry and prose may express any humanly conceived idea, emotion or experience. However, prose tends to express more of intellectual ideas and poetry apparently deals with human emotions. But, this division is very superficial.

As far as the poetic language is concerned, it uses more poetic devices than prose. At the same time, we are sure you may have read a very romantic short story in prose which may be full of colours, emotions and use of imagery. So we want you to realize that the distinction between prose and poetry is actually very difficult to state. However, for the teaching purposes you may not bother too much about it.

1.2 Poetry as expression of feelings and thoughts

Man began to express himself in poetry very early in the history of his development. He used poetry to express his feelings even before he knew the art of writing. Poetic expression is easy to remember and convenient to repeat. It may not be incorrect to say that man began to use poetry as a medium of expression for thoughts that he wanted to preserve earlier than he began to use prose. Poetry touches many aspects of human life.

1.3 Views about poetry

According to Coleridge, “a poem is that species of composition which is opposed to the words of science for proposing for its immediate object, pleasure and truth, and from all other species having this object in common with it, it is discriminated by proposing to itself such delight from the whole as compatible with the distinct gratification from each
component part”. Johnson also supports that poetry is the art of uniting pleasure with truth by calling imagination to the help of reason.

“Absolute poetry is the concrete and artistic expression of the human mind in emotional and rhythmical language”. (Theodore Walts–Danton)

“Poetry is spontaneous overflow of powerful feeling; it takes its origin from emotions recollected in tranquility”. (Wordsworth)

“Poetry in general sense may be defined to be the expression of the imagination”. (Shelley)

Poetry has therefore many aspects and different qualities. The purpose of teaching poetry at secondary school level is understanding of emotions, sensitive feelings and appreciation of beauty of thought and expression. For students of this age group, poetry is taught mainly for enjoyment, pleasure and happiness.

2. THE STUDY OF POETRY

2.1 General approaches

The study of poetry has its technical side. You should be aware from the outset that not all verse deserves to be called poetry; nor is all prose lacking in poetic effect. Your general method of approach to any poem can be guided by three basic questions:

❖ What is the poet saying? Search for his theme, his purpose or motive in writing and consider each idea in the poem’s content (subject matter). Consider the arrangement of ideas and their relation to the theme.
How is the poet saying it? Examine the form (pattern), the mood of atmosphere of feeling which is created, and the devices of sound and language.

Was it worth saying? Your answer to this question has little value until you have carefully examined all the aspects of above questions you will then be able to say whether you consider the poem important for its ideas or its beauty of sound, or for some other reason such as its ingenuity of language or its unexpected design. You may assess its relevance for modern readers in general and its appeal or otherwise for yourself.

Your task is to equip yourself to appreciate, in the real sense of the word, what the poet is trying to do. It is hoped that you will reach a stage where you seek poems in order to explore and experience the poet’s heightened awareness of life and the world. If you already enjoy some poetry, further study will deepen your enjoyment.

2.2 Theme and content

As critics, our first task is to make sure we know what the poet is saying. We should be able to offer an explanation of each idea as it is developed in the poem and then consider all the ideas linked coherently; that is whether there is unit of purpose in the poem. You will find occasionally that the poet uses unfamiliar words or even everyday words in an unfamiliar way. It is your responsibility to check their meaning if your reading is to be satisfactory. When you have considered the whole subject matter of a poem, you must try to find its THEME (the central or controlling idea). Only the theme can tell you why the poet felt he had to write the poem. Sometimes the title of the poem may hint at its theme. The content or subject matter may keep repeating the theme, or it may be pictorial or
symbolic illustration of the theme. This will become clearer to you as you try to identify the themes in the poems set for study.

Let us take an example here. We are sure you may at some point have read the poem ‘The Daffodils’ by W. Wordsworth. Now the poet describes the lovely valley and the flowers near the lake. But his theme is not flowers or the beauty of the flowers. He is actually writing about the power to recall a scene at some future time and enjoy it in your mind’s eye. So the theme is expressed through a particular medium.

2.3 Figures of speech

We are again repeating some of the ideas that you have covered in earlier units. Earlier, in this unit we mentioned the differences between prose and poetry. The poet uses a language which is more colourful and enjoyable. He tries to use all the human senses to create beauty in his poems.

The poets use various devices or techniques to express their ideas. This is not peculiar to English poetry alone. You can perhaps appreciate this point when you read Urdu poetry specially a good poet who will be using imagery and personification etc. It will be a good exercise if at this point you can find a book of Urdu verses (or any other regional language) and read a verse or two and try to find out the use of poetic techniques used by that poet. Here are some of the common poetic devices.

**Simile:** A comparison beginning with ‘like’ or ‘as’ e.g. He is like a lion:

- Or picture of a fat woman laughing

  ‘..........all the woman heaves
  As a great elm all its mound of leaves
  Wallows before the storm.................’.
**Metaphor:** A comparison, without ‘like’ or ‘as’ in which one thing is said to be another. He is a lion, i.e. he is so brave that he can be called a lion.

Or Shakespeare’s description of death:

```
“That undiscovered country from whose bourne
No traveller returns ..................
```

**Personification:** The ascribing of human qualities to non-human things (gaining thus a special metaphorical effect), e.g. Shakespeare’s image of dawn:

```
‘But look, the dawn, in russet mantle clad,
Walks o’er the dew of you high eastern hill’.
```

**Hyperbole:** Deliberate exaggeration for dramatic effect, e.g. (Lady Macbeth, remorseful over murder of the king):

```
‘Here’s the smell of blood still. All the perfumes of Arabia will not sweeten this little hand’.
```

**Antithesis:** Balanced contrast for special effect, e.g.

Alexander Pope’s description of man:

```
Created half to rise, and half to fall;
Great Lord of all things, yet a prey to all........
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**Imagery:** One important aim of the poet is to choose words that evoke a suitable image or picture in our imagination. It may appeal to our intellect as a clever or startling idea or it may torture our sense of taste, touch, smell, sight or hearing. Your task as a critic is to be able to explain whether such imagery is vivid or hackneyed, whether it develops the content or atmosphere of the poem, or whether it obscures the poet’s intention by being too unexpected or over-complicated.
Symbolism: Sometimes a particular object or image is made to stand for some idea. “The cross”, for example, always suggests Christianity; “Eve” is the symbol of womankind and “Adam” the symbol for all men.

Form (literary terms): It is usually possible to recognise verse simply by looking at its more or less regular lines on the printed page; but there is more to its form than the regularity. The form of any one poem depends on the writer’s choice of rhythm and metre, rhyme, line-length, stanza pattern, and even a particular set of rules (such as that governing the sonnet). You can appreciate a poem without knowing all these names; however, they can be very helpful in giving you an exact term for the effects you wish to comment on.

2.4 Stanza pattern

Although there are numerous technical terms for different patterns, the most useful ones are the quatrain (four lines) and the couplet (two lines). Some poets reject stanzas altogether, or they divide their poems into stanzas of irregular length, like paragraph in prose.

2.5 Forms of poetry

There are three major forms of poetry:

Descriptive poetry: In this kind of poetry the poet usually describes different objects of nature or other things that he may find of interest to himself. Wordsworth’s poem ‘Daffodils’ is an example of this kind of poetry.

Narrative poetry: In this kind of poetry greater importance is given to the events than to the things that are described. Coleridge’s ‘The Rime of the Ancient Mariner’ is an example of this kind.
Reflective poetry: In this kind of poetry the poet expresses his own ideas about things.

Ballad: Ballad is the oldest form of poetry. This is the earliest type of narrative poem, extremely simple in language, often with a refrain, always with a definite rhythm and rhyme to help recitation.

Lyric verse: Traditionally there have been several lyric forms, each with its own characteristics. However, all lyric verse is marked by an intensely personal expression of thoughts and feelings, and thus it is highly subjective in treatment.

Sonnet: A sonnet is a poem of 14 lines. In the first eight lines (called octave) the poet places before the reader the problem and in the last six lines (called sestet) he gives a solution of the problem.

Ode: Ode is a form of poetry in which a thing or a person is addressed.

Elegy: Elegy is a poem written on the death of a man or the loss of a cause.

Epic: This is a narrative poem of much more solemnity and magnitude than the ballad. Its subject is legend or great heroes or main events in a nation’s history.

2.6 Critical appreciation

While writing appreciation of a poem first thing is to deal with the theme and content. Then make an attempt to understand poet’s motive and ideas. You may also indicate the type of poem, particularly if it follows a definite structure such as the sonnet. Take note of his use of poetic devices such as figures of speech and tricks of sound. You may want to discuss the emotional impact of the word or their precision in expressing the thoughts of the poet. Finally, you should give your own
opinion of the poet’s success perhaps emphasizing the qualities, you consider most worthwhile, perhaps comparing it with other poems of similar content and mood.

3. TEXTUAL STUDY

3.1 ‘March’ by William Wordsworth

William Wordsworth (1770-1890) was educated at the grammar school of Hawkshead and St John’s College. In 1970 he went on a walking tour to France, the Alps, and Italy. He was greatly influenced by revolution and the democratic movement to which it gave birth. Wordsworth was high priest of nature. In 1795 he made the acquaintance of S.T. Coleridge and they together published the “Lyrical Ballads” in 1798. Wordsworth was married in 1802. In 1843, he succeeded Southey as poet laureate and died in 1850. Wordsworth’s poetry is a strong protest against over-civilization. He is a poet of nature.

MARCH

The cock is crowing
The stream is flowing;
The small birds twitter,
The lake doth glitter;
The green field sleeps in the sun

The oldest and youngest;
Are at work with the strongest;
The cattle are grazing;
Their heads never raising;
There are forty feeding like one!

Like an army defeated,
The snow has retreated;
And now doth fare ill,
On the top of the bare hill;
The plough boy is whooping anon! anon!
There is joy on the mountains,
There’s life in the fountains;
Small clouds are sailing;
Blue sky prevailing;
The rain is over and gone!

3.2 Let us first look at the difficult words
Birds twitter – birds make small noise
Lake doth glitter – lake shines
Retreated – has gone back
Doth – old form of does
Fare ill – is not doing well
Whooping – crying loudly and joyfully
An–on – soon
Prevailing – has gained victory

3.3 Stanza pattern
There are four stanzas of the poem, each of five lines.

3.4 Theme
The theme or central idea of the poem is expression of joy at the coming of spring.

3.5 Paraphrase
Paraphrasing is expression of the same thing in other words not necessarily making much changes in construction or meaning.

Set out below is paraphrase of all stanzas of the poem:
Stanza-1:

The cock is crowing and the stream is flowing. The small birds are making noise and the lake is shining. The green field is stretched in the sun.

Stanza-2:

The oldest and the youngest people are at work with the strongest. The cattle are grazing in such a way that they do not raise their heads. They are plenty in number but they all look as one.

Stanza-3:

The snow has gone down like a defeated army and does not look well on the naked hill. The plough boy cries with joy that the season is changing soon.

Stanza-4:

Joy can be seen on the mountains and fountains as they are full of life. Small clouds can be seen moving and the sky is blue. The rain is over now.

3.6 Critical appreciation

“March” is a poem in which Wordsworth has expressed his feelings in very simple language. Wordsworth is a poet of nature and deals with the different manifestations of nature. In this delightful poem the poet has expressed his joy at the coming of spring. Winter has gone and snow has melted.

Like an army defeated
The snow has retreated

The poet is overjoyed on the change of season and vehemently expresses that activities of life have come back. The birds are happy and old and young people have come to work. The cattle are grazing in the field and there is life all around. It
is an atmosphere of festivity. There is joy on the mountains and fountains are full of life.

The poem is an example of beautiful rhythm. The short lines create good effect and the set pattern of rhyme scheme adds to the charm of the verses. The poem is like a song sung in festivity. The poet has used in this poem some attractive similes.

“They are forty feeding like one”;

and

“Like an army defeated, the snow has retreated”.
4. **TEXTUAL STUDY**

4.1 **Leisure** by W. H. Davies

S. H. Davies (1871-1940) is a poet whose lyrics have a force and simplicity lacking in most of his fellow poets. His verse represents a turn towards nature. After serving as apprentice to a picture farmer, Davies tramped through the United States. Crossed the Atlantic many times on cattle boats, lost a foot while trying to jump a train headed for the Klondike region in Canada, became a street singer in England and after several years of wandering life, published his first volume “The Soul’s Destroyer”, and other poems’ (1905). Although his work achieved wide popularity, Davies lived the life of a recluse. A collection of his poems with an introduction by Sir Osber Sitwall, appeared in 1942. His poem “Leisure” is given below:

What is this life if full of care,
We have no time to stand and stare? 2
No time to stand beneath the boughs,
And stare as long as sheep or cows, 4
No time to see, when woods we pass,
Where squirrels hide their nuts in grass 6
No time to see in broad daylight,
Streams full of stars, like skies at night 8
No time to turn at beauty’s glance,
And watch her feet, how they can dance. 10
No time to wait till her mouth can,
Enrich that smile her eyes began 12
A poor life this is if, full of care,
We have no time to stand and stare. 14

We have analyzed the poem March for you. Now let us see if you could attempt to enjoy as well appreciate this poem.
4.2 In the poem March, we noticed that each stanza was made up of 5 lines. Can you find out how many lines make a unit (which will be called a couplet) in this poem? The sound at the end of the lines will give you a clue. We are sure you found out the care goes with stare; and boughs goes with cows. So we can say that it is a poem in which the poet has used the pattern of 2 lines which is called couplet (the word is related to the word couple meaning 2 persons). Now read the poem and find the words that sound the as these words.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Boughs</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pass</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Light</td>
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<tr>
<td>Glance</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Can</td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>

4.3 Suggest at least one more word with the same sound pattern as the words above. For example the words care and stare have the same sound pattern, but there are other words such as share, bare, layer, mayor that end with the same sound.

Boughs
Pass
Light
Glance
Can
4.4 Theme

Read the poem again and notice how many different kinds of ‘nature’ does he mentions here.

1. Humans
2. ______
3. ______
4. ______
5. ______

In the last poem, we suggested that the poet is writing about the beauty of the season of change. In the Western countries winter is very harsh and everything is covered with snow. March is the month when things in the world come to life again. So the poet talks about all the rural activities which take place when the weather changes.

What do you think is the theme of this poem?
Write in your own words here.

..__________________________________________________
________________________

In the poem the poet has used word which express the opposite ideas. For example, day and night express opposite conditions. Find the words which express the opposite condition, place or idea to the words below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Care</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Stand</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Daylight</td>
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</table>
4.5 **Simile**

At the beginning of this unit we explained what is a simile. If you turn to previous pages you will read that it is a comparison of two similar objects or situations. Find one simile used in this poem and write it here.

4.6 **Paraphrase**

Line 1-2:

This life of ours is no good because we have to bother too much and we are so busy that we have no time to stand for a while and see around us.

Line 3-4:

The busy life does not give us time to stand under boughs of trees to see upto the grazing sheep or cows.

Line 5-6:

We have no time to see the woods (jungle) we are passing through and have a look at squirrels who are storing their food in grass.

Line 7-8:

We have no time to have a view of the board daylight and the streams which are full of stars made up of reflection of sun. These appear like skies full of stars at night.

Line 9-10:

We have no time to have a look of beautiful lady and watch her feet dancing.

Line 11-12:

We have no time to wait and see the expected charming smile of her mouth initialed from her eyes.
Indeed our life is poor, as it is full of cares and does not give us time to stand and stare.

4.7 Critical appreciation

The poet has beautifully drawn the picture of today’s life which is full of care and man has become so busy that he has no time to stand and see around him. The poet has counted numerous activities of life which are overlooked as we have no leisure time.

The poet has used couplets for expression of his feelings to create effect. Each couplet has single idea which is linked with the other. The poem presents good example of rhythm and rhyme. The style is highly imaginative. The poet has strong desire for leisure which is essential for human life.

5. TEXTUAL STUDY

5.1 Drive The Nail Aright (Anonymous)

Drive the nail aright boys
Hit it on the head;
Strike with all your might boys,
While the iron is red.
When you have work to do boys,
Do it with a will;
They who reach the top boys,
First must climb the hill.
Standing at the foot boys,
Looking at the sky;
How can you get up boys,
If you never try?
Though you stumble oft, boys,
    Never be downcast;
Try and try again boys,
    You will win at last.
Drive the nail aright boys,
    Hit it on the head;
Strike with all your might boys,
    While the iron is red.

(Note: A poem whose writer is not known or given is called anonymous).

5.2 Notes

Aright in the right way
Might power, strength
Will determination, inclination
At the foot at the bottom
Stumble takes a false step, come near to falling, lapse into wrong doing.
Oft often, many times
Down cast dejected

5.3 Stanza pattern

The poem consists of five stanzas each of four lines.

5.4 Rhyme and rhythm

The poem has a set rhyme pattern. Boys (line 1) rhymes with boys (line 3), and head (line 2) rhymes with red (line 4).

The rhyme scheme of the first stanza is therefore abab.

The rhyme scheme of other stanzas is as below:
There is regular rise and fall (rhythm) in each line of the poem. The division of line into a number of regular unites or feet (metre) is even and equal. The poem, therefore, creates a great musical effect.

5.5 **Theme**

The poet wants to convey his message to the younger generation that they should avail every possible opportunity at the right time and never be discouraged.

5.6 **Paraphrase**

Stanza-1:

Drive the nail, boys, in the right way and hit it on the head. While the iron is hot, you should strike it with full force.

Stanza-2:

Boys, when you have to do work, do it with willingness, as those who reach the top, first climb the hill.

Stanza-3:

If you keep on standing at the bottom only looking at the sky, you cannot reach the top.

Stanza-4:

Although many times you face problems, never be disappointed. Keep on trying and at last you will win.
Stanza-5:

   Drive the nail, boys, in the right way and hit it on the
   head. While the iron is hot, you should strike it with
   full force.

5.7  **Critical appreciation**

   In this poem the poet has stressed the younger
generation to make best use of the time and avail every
possible opportunity at proper time. He has given a note of
encouragement to boys and has advised them to do consistent
effort which is kenote to success. The poet emphasises the
youth to work with determination. Only standing at the bottom
and looking upto sky does not make one climb, unless he tries.
He says the boys not to be discouraged whatsoever obstructions
come on the way. The poet urges the youth to continue their
efforts till the achievement of goal.

   The poem creates strong musical effect because of its
highly rhythmic pattern. The appropriate use of words,
arrangement of ideas and the style of composition strengthens
the expression of the poet to convey his message.

5.8  **Self-assessment questions-1**

1. Which one word points out to the central idea of stanza-2
   (line 5 to 8)?

2. What is the relationship of foot’ (line 9) with sky (line
   10)?

3. What figure of speech is used in ‘Drive the Nail Aright
   Boys’?

4. A number of passions such as given below have been
   expressed in lines 13-16. Write against each the word or
   phrase, from these lines which indicates these feelings.
a. Courage
b. Consistent effort
c. Hope
d. Disgusted
e. Anger
f. Pleasure

5. What does the following mean as used in the poem?
   a. Drive The Nail Aright
   b. While the iron’s red
   c. They who reach the top
   d. Strike with all your might
   e. How can you get up
   f. Though you stumble oft
   g. Never be downcast
   h. Hit it on the head

6. What is the theme of the poem?

7. What message the poet wants to give and whom?

8. As the poet says, who is the winner in the end?

9. Why do you like this poem?

10. Looking at the style of the poem, which mood the poet wants to create?
6. TEXTUAL STUDY

6.1 ‘DEEDS OF KINDNESS’

by

Fanny Van Alstyne

Suppose the little cowslip

Should hand its golden cup,
And say, “I am such a tiny flower,

I’d better not grow up!”

4

How many a weary traveller

Would miss its fragrant smell,
How many a little child would grieve

To miss it from the dell!

8

Suppose the glistening dewdrop

Upon the grass should say,
“What can a little dewdrop do?

I’d better roll away!”

12

The blade on which it rested,

Before the day was done,
Without a drop to moisten it,

Would wither in the sun!

16

Suppose the little breezes,

Upon a summer’s day
Should think themselves too small to cool

The traveller on his way!

20

Would we not miss the smallest
And softest ones that blow,
And think they made a great mistake,
   If they were talking so?  
How many deeds of kindness
   A little child may do,
Although it has so little strength,
   And little wisdom too!
It wants a loving spirit
   Much more than strength, to prove
How many things a child may do
   For others by its love!

6.2  **Notes**

Cowslip — a wild flower of yellow colour, as well as the plant on which it grows.

Golden cup — the flower is yellow in colour and is shaped like a round, hollow cup. The poet therefore calls the flower ‘golden cup’ ‘hand its golden cup’ ‘means to refuse to grow its flowers.

Weary — tired

Fragrant — sweet smelling

Grieve — feel sad and unhappy

Miss — to regret the absence of something

Dell — small valley or low ground

Glistening — shining; sparkling

Roll away — warm up
Moisten — make slightly wet
Wither — become dry; fade; die
Wants — requires, needs. The whole stanza means that a child does not require strength of body to show love and kindness to others. He only needs to have a loving nature.

6.3 Theme

The poet is trying to say that even small deeds of kindness leave significant impact on our life. If we consider such acts too little and ignore them, we will miss something great. The blossom of a flower, the small beautiful dew drop and the love of a child, and his small innocent deeds of kindness are humble part of significant deeds. Such things need attention and should not be overlooked.

6.4 Paraphrase

Stanza-1:

If a little cowslip thinks that it is too small a flower and better should not grow up, it will deprive the tired traveller from sweet smell and small children will feel sad by not finding it in the valley.

Stanza-2:

If a shining dew drop on the grass says it is too little to do anything and should better roll away and move out, the blade of the grass whom it made wet would dry in the sun.

Stanza-3:

If little breezes on a summer day think they are too small to cool the traveller on his way, we will miss the little coolness and would face hardship of a hot
day and feel that small and soft breezes made a mistake by not contributing even their insignificant share.

Stanza-4:

A child can do many acts of kindness, though he has little strength and little wisdom. There is need of a loving spirit of child, more than its strength, to prove that he can do so many things for others by its love.

6.5 Critical appreciation

The poet is talking about the value of small but kind deeds that make a difference in our lives. Kindness and goodness are abstract ideas. However, the poet makes the ideas clear to us by giving examples from nature.

There are a total of 32 lines in this poem; can you read the poem and decide how many lines make a stanza here? The best clue is the topic.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>1. The first topic is the cowslip</th>
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Yes you guessed it right. There are four topics and each topic is covered in eight lines. The second topic is the dewdrop, third the breeze and the last one being the acts of kindness.

Cowslip is a foreign flower for us. Give example of a local flower which may grow in your area without proper plantation or care. Talk with your classmates how much you notice it and why would you miss it if it was not there.

Lines 9 to 16 describe a tiny dewdrop. Now this is part of universal nature. We also enjoy seeing the dewdrop early in the
morning. Let us think for the words that the dewdrop can be compared to. We can say:

As bright as_________________  
As precious as_________________

Lines 17 to 24 describes the breeze ‘upon a summer’s day,

What other words can you think which mean breeze

1________
2________

What is the difference between the breeze and the hurricane? Look it up in the dictionary. In our country, we can easily appreciate them.

6.6  **Self-Assessment Questions-2**

1. If we talk about the subject, what is common in stanza 1 and 2?

2. What role can a tiny flower play?

3. Why is a little dewdrop important?

4. What does ‘ones’ stands for in line 22?

5. In line 24 ‘if they were talking so’, who is talking to whom?

6. What figure of speech is used in the line ‘if they were talking so’?

7. What is the link between stanza 3 and 4?

8. Why do you like this poem?

9. In which broad form of poetry i.e. descriptive or narrative would you place this poem?
10. What effect do the little breezes have on summer's day? (Refer line 17-18).

**Answers to Self Assessment Questions**

**SAQ-1**

1. Will
2. ‘Foot’ refers to the lowest and ‘sky’ has been used for the highest.
3. Metaphor
4. Courage never be down cast  
   Consistent effort try and try again  
   Hope will win  
   Disgusted downcast  
   Anger stumble  
   Pleasure win at last
5. a. Initiate the work in the right direction  
   b. When there is the right time, avail the opportunity.  
   c. Those who reach the high ranks or top position in life.  
   d. Hit the target with full force; make the best use of available chance.  
   e. How can you reach the heights in rank, position of authority?  
   f. Although you are often obstructed on the way; though many a time you face problems.  
   g. Never be discouraged.  
   h. Strike at proper place to avoid missing.
6. The theme of the poem is that the youth should try constantly without fear of defeat and should avail chances to best of their ability so as to achieve victory in life.

7. The poet wants to convey the message that the youth should work in the right direction and should try again and again to achieve success. The message is directed to the youth.

8. One who puts in constant effort and tries again and again.

9. Because it gives courage to work hard for success.

10. The poet has used simple language and has been successful in conveying his message to whom it is directed. The rhythm and set rhyming pattern are helpful in creating effect. The words are persuasive and ideas are well arranged. The poem has not been loaded with unfamiliar poetic tricks. The poet has succeed in motivating the youth to work hard to achieve their goal in life.

**SAQ-2**

1. Cowslip and dewdrop are very small things.

2. A tiny flower can provide soothing and refreshing effect to a tired traveller and can give fragrant smell to a little child.

3. A little dewdrop is important because without it the blade of grass would dry in the sunshine and greenery would disappear. A dew drop plays very significant role to keep the terraces green and to provide lively atmosphere to mankind.

4. Little breezes.

5. The little breezes are talking to themselves.

6. Personification.
7. Thinking of too small of themselves.
8. It is a good poem to be liked by all, because the poet has stressed that even the small deeds of kindness have their place and we should not overlook them because of their mini size or little role they play.
9. This is a descriptive poem, because the poet is describing about the deeds of kindness small things present.
10. They have cooling effect.

8. BIBLIOGRAPHY


Unit – 17

TEXTUAL STUDY AND CRITICAL APPRECIATION - II

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INTRODUCTION

You have read Unit 16 in which we critically examined 4 poems. So by now you have a fairly good idea how to introduce a new poem in the class and how to appreciate it critically.

You must have noticed that we seem to move from the outward to inward. First we look at the visible features such as length of the poem and lines; the kind of groups that lines make (if 2 lines end with the similar sound words to a complete). Then we look at the rhyme scheme in the lines. After this we study the difficult words so that the meaning is clear to the students. Next we start looking at the poets use of language. What kind of techniques the poet is using to create an effect in his poem. We also tried to put words in groups for example all the words referring to animals or parts of nature such as mountains breeze, valley, river etc.

The purpose of such analysis is to divide a huge piece into bite size pieces so that the students may be able to digest them easily.

OBJECTIVES

After reading the unit, you will be able to:

- Pick different grammatical structures in poetry
- Find examples of imaginary figures of speech, rhyme scheme
- Analyze parts to understand the whole
- More practice
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</table>
Let me not to the marriage of true minds
   Admit impediments. Love is not love
Which alters when it alteration finds,
   Or bends with the remover to remove;
0 no! it is an ever-fixed mark
   That looks on tempests, and is never shaken;
It is the star to every wandering bark,
   Whose worth's unknown, although his height be taken.

Love's not time's fool, though rosy lips and cheeks
   Within his bending sickle's compass come;
Love alters not with his brief hours and weeks;
   But bears it out ev'n to the edge of doom:

If this be error, and upon me proved,
   I never writ, nor no man ever loved.

William Shakespeare

1. “True Love” is a beautiful sonnet by the great English dramatist and poet, William Shakespeare (1564-1616). A sonnet is poem of fourteen lines. Shakespeare’s sonnet consists of three quatrains followed by a couplet.

2. The main theme of the poem is the unchangeable and permanent character of love. Love, as presented in this poem, is indestructible, unfathomable. The poem opens with a declaration or a statement of intention. The poet announces that he will not stand in the way of true love of “the marriage of true minds”. He firmly states that true love cannot be bent or altered by any force whatsoever. Mark the relation between the first part of the statement with the second.
3. The second quartrain highlights the steadfastness and the immeasurable value of love. It has a rock-like strength and star-like light saving people from being lost.

4. In the third quartrain the poet regards love as immortal, beyond the destructive power of time. Man is mortal and youth and beauty (rosy lips and cheeks’) will not last. Long, but love will survive “to the edge of doom”. Here the permanence of love is compared with the transient nature of youth and beauty.

In the ending couplet, the poet asserts the unquestionable truth of what has been said earlier.

1.1 Exercise-1
What do the following words or phrases imply? Indicate with the sign.

i. ‘Impediments’  ii. ‘Alteration’
a. Hurdles  a. Changing force
b. Objections  b. Compulsion to change

iii. ‘Ever-fixed mark’  iv. ‘Tempests’
a. Permanent point  a. Storms
b. Unchanging thing  b. Adversities

v. ‘Time’s fool’  vi. ‘Bears it out’
a. Deceived by time  a. Tolerates it
b. Helpless before time  b. Transcends it

vii. ‘To the edge of doom’
a. Upon the last day
b. Forever.
1.2 **Exercise-2**

Metaphor and simile are the two most common figures of speech found in poetry. **Metaphor** is a figure of speech in which one thing is described in terms of another. The comparison is implicit. For example, “love is an ever-fixed mark”. Here love and un-changing thing or spot have been favourably compared.

**Simile:** A figure of speech of which a direct comparison between two different things is made and indicated by the words ‘like’ or ‘as’. For example, ‘O my love’s like a red, red rose’

Mention the metaphors used in this poem.

a. ________________
b. ________________
c. ________________
d. ________________

1.3 **Exercise-3**
a. Arrange in pairs the words that rhyme:
   minds, mark, removed, proved, finds, bark.

1.4 **Exercise-4**

Indicate whether the following images are:

a. Visual (pertaining to the eye)
b. Tactile (touch), or
c. Abstract (conceptual)
   or are mixed ones:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Visual</th>
<th>Tactile</th>
<th>Abstract</th>
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<tr>
<td>i.</td>
<td>bends</td>
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<tr>
<td>ii.</td>
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<td>iii.</td>
<td>wandering bark</td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
iv. rosy lips and cheeks
v. bending sickle's compass
vi. to the edge of doom

1.5 Exercise-5

In each of the 3 stanzas the poet mentions at least one quality of love. We have given you a choice of words, select one word which best suits each stanza.

Stanza-1: a. Inflexible  
b. unchanging  
c. alterable  
d. true.
Stanza-2: a. powerful  
b. immovable  
c. guiding light  
d. beautiful
Stanza-3: a. immortal  
b. long-lasting  
c. strong  
d. inflexible

1.6 Exercise-6

Read the poem carefully and complete the following sentences in your own words:

a. True love does not alter when it ____________
b. Love is the star ____________
c. Although youth and beauty are short-lived ____________
d. Love does not change with time but lasts ____________
1.7. **Exercise-7**

a. Do you think the poet uses the word ‘love’ in two different senses in ‘love is not love’?

b. What is the function of love as mentioned in the last verses of stanza-2?

c. In stanza-3 the poet relates time, and love. What is the nature of this relationship?

d. Explain the nature of the conclusion drawn by the poet in the final couplet.

2. **THE SANDS OF DEE**

O Mary, go and call the cattle home,
And call the cattle home,
And call the cattle home,
Across the sands of dee’;

The western wind was wild and dank with foam,
And all alone went she.

The western tied crept up along the sand,
And o’er and o’er the sand,
And round and round the sand,
As far as eye could see.

The rooling mist came down and hid the land:
And never home came she

“Oh! is it weed, or fish or floating hair
A tress of golden hair,
A drowned maiden’s hair
Above the nets at sea?”

Was never salmon yet that shone so fair
Among the stakes on dee’.

They rowed her in across the rolling foam,
The cruel crawling foam.
The cruel hungry foam,
To her grave besides the sea!
But still the boatmen hear her call the cattle home
Across the sands of dee.

C. Kingsley

1. This poem is different from the whole group discussed in this unit. It tells the pathetic story of Mary’s death by drowning. The song-like easy flow of verse and the varying rhythm intensify the effect of tragedy.

2. Thr rural setting marked by the traditional way of life is in harmony with the sentiments expressed in the poem. The repetitions in the second and third lines of each stanza produce a deep effect. The poet adopts an informal and spontaneous tone. The choice of simple language is deliberate and is appropriate to the total atmosphere created in the poem.

3. In the first stanza, the reader is told about the task for which Mary was sent. The fury of the weather (the wild western wind) and fury of the seatides, indicated by ‘foam’ prepare the reader’s mind for the impending tragedy, which is mentioned in the second stanza.

4. The pathetic death of Mary is movingly described in the third stanza:

   “O! is it weed or firsh, or floating hair ...
   A tress of golden hair,
   A drowned maiden’s hair
   Above the nets at sea?”

   The information in the stanza is supposed to have been given by someone (see the use of inverted commas). The device enhanced the gravity of the event. The impression of uncertainty gives way to definite knowledge of the child’s
identity. It is Mary’s dead body not fish which is floating on water.

The last stanza gives us a new element: the presence of Mary’s voice after death “Across the sands of dee”.

2.1 **Exercise-8**

i. In stanza-1, second and third lines are repeated.
(Repetition is a poetic device used to heighten effect and to serve as a unifying element in poetry.) What effect is desired to be heightened by the poet?

The speaker
a. Request Mary to hurry up _______

b. Urges her to hurry up __________

ii. What kind of atmosphere has the poet created in the 5th and 6th lines of stanza-1?

a. Beautiful ____________

b. Dangerous ___________

iii. At the end of second stanza the poet says:
“And never home came she”.
The first five lines provide the answer.
Was it because Mary

a. lost her way?

b. got drowned?

iv. What is the function of the second and third verses?

a. To produce a musical effect.

b. To create frightening effect.
v. What three objects have been compared in stanza-3, and why?
   a. They look alike.
   b. they are connected.

vi. Why did they row her “across the rolling foam”?
   a. Because she was helpless.
   b. Dead.

vii. What did the last two verses suggest?

2.2 **Exercise-9**
There is a strong element of:

i. Alliteration in the whole poem. (Alliteration is a figure of speech in which consonants, especially at the beginning words, or stressed syllables, are repeated e.g. call, cattle.)

   What consonant sounds have been repeated in the first stanza?

ii. What do the 'nets' and 'stakes' suggest in stanza-3’?

iii. What is the grammatical function of ‘Oh’ in stanza three?
   a. To invite attention
   b. To express astonishment
   c. To give information

iv. The three phrases 'the rolling foam'; 'the cruel crawling foam'; 'the cruel hungry foam' suggest three attributes of the tide.

   What do they imply respectively.
   a. ‘The rolling foam’.
   b. ‘The cruel crawling foam’.
   c. ‘The cruel hungry foam.'
2.3 **Exercise-10**

**Ellipsis**

(A device where a word or several words are left out in order to achieve more compact expression.)

i. Read stanza-4 closely and tell in which places some words have been dropped. Re-write the whole in prose, using the original words of the poet.

ii. Inversion (change in word order) in which lines of stanzas-1 and 2, does it occur?

2.4 **Exercise-11**

The poem is full of powerful imagery. (Imagery is a general term which covers the use of language to represent objects of feelings, thoughts, states of minds and any sensory or extrasensory experience. An image may be visual (pertaining to the eye), tactile (touch), auditory (hearing), abstract or conceptual or kinesthetic (sense of movement). Mention the nature of the following images, indicating with a mark the actual category of each one:

i. (The western wind was) ‘dark with foam’:
   a. Visual
   b. Tactile
   c. Conceptual

ii. ‘The rolling mist’
   a. Visual
   b. Tactile
   c. Conceptual
   d. Auditory
   e. Kinesthetic (motion)
iii. ‘The rolling foam’
   a. Visual
   b. Tactile
   c. Kinesthetic

iv. ‘The cruel hungry foam’
   a. Visual
   b. Kinesthetic
   c. Tactile
   d. Conceptual

2.5 **Exercise-12**

i. What information has been provided about ‘Mary’, in
   a. Stanza-1
   b. Stanza-2

ii. a. What information about Mary does the poet give in the first line of stanza-3?
   b. What does the poet suggest by comparing Mary's dead body with Salmon?
   c. What feelings does the poet intend to produce by the first four verses of stanza-3?

iii. The poem is a dirge' or song of lament and creates feelings of pity and sympathy for the poor girl swallowed by the cruel tides of the sea. What is the function of the last two lines?
    “But still the boatmen hear her call the cattle home; Across the sands of Dee”.

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3. **YUSSOUF**

A stranger came one night to Yussouf’s tent,
   Saying, Behold one outcast and in dread,
Against whose life the bow of power is bent,
   Who flies, and hath not where to lay his head;
I come to thee for shelter and for food,
To Yussouf, called through all our tribes “The Good”.

This tent is mine, ’said Yussouf’, but no more
   Than it is God’s; come in, and be at peace;
Freely shalt thou partake of all my store,
   As I of His who buildeth over these
Our tents his glorious roof of night and day,
And at whose door none ever yet had “Nay”.

So Yussouf entertained his guest that night,
   and, waking him ere day, said, here is gold;
My swiftest horse is saddled for thy flight;
   Depart before the prying day grows bold’.
As one lamp lights another, nor grows less
So nobleness enkindleth nobleness.

That inward light the stranger's face made grand,
   Which shines from all self-conquest, Kneeling low.
He bowed his forehead upon Yussouf’s hand,
   Sobbing, O’ Shaikh I cannot leave thee so;
I will repay thee; all this thou hast done
Into that Ibrahim who slew thy son!

“Take thrice the gold, 'said Yussouf; for with thee
   Into the desert, never to return,
My one black thought shall ride away from me.
   First-born, for whom by day and night I yearn,
Balanced and just are all of God's decrees;
Thou art avenged, my first-born, sleep in peace!”

   J. R. Lowell
1. “Yussouf” is written in the form of story with a situation containing an element of suspense. A stranger, who had earlier killed Yussouf’s son, is closed by his enemies and begs for refuge in his tent for a night. When he is about to leave next morning, Yussouf gave him gold and a swift horse for escape. By this time the reader hasn’t the slightest idea of, who the stranger is. Moved by Yussouf’s hospitality and generosity, he discloses his identity as the murderer of his son and begs for revenge. The large hearted and noble Yussouf overcomes one black thought (of revenge) and gives him more gold, bidding him to leave at once and never to return.

2. In the last three verses, the poet communicates the profound message of the poem. The noble Yussouf accepts the death of his son as God’s will and forgives his enemy. Yussouf is presented in poem as an exemplary person who believes in noble deeds and has conquered all low impulses. He is held up as a moral ideal. The poet has throughout the poem recorded tense feelings and profound reactions very accurately.

3.1 **Exercise-13**

Mark with a tick the correct meaning of the following:

i. ‘A stranger’
   a. A strange person
   b. A person unknown to Yussouf

ii. ‘Outcast’
   a. Friendless
   b. Vagabond
iii. ‘In dread’
   a. In danger
   b. In great fear

iv. ‘The bow of power’
   a. The force opposed to him
   b. Enemy

v. ‘Who flies’
   a. Who leaves
   b. Who runs away

vi. ‘To lay his head’
   a. To have shelter
   b. To rest

vii. ‘Be at peace’
   a. Be comfortable
   b. Be peaceful

viii. ‘My store’
   a. My stock of provisions
   b. My storing place

ix. ‘Glorious roof’
   a. Beautiful roof
   b. The sky

x. ‘The prying day grows bold’
   a. It is broad daylight
   b. The day begins to inquire boldly
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<td>Bad thought</td>
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<td>b.</td>
<td>Thought of revenge</td>
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</table>

<table>
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<th>xii.</th>
<th>‘God’s decrees’</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a.</td>
<td>God’s will</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b.</td>
<td>God’s judgment</td>
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3.2 **Exercise-14**  
a. Re-arrange the following words in rhyming pairs:  
tent, gold, night, bent, dread, good flight, hold.

3.3 **Exercise-15**  
There is ‘ellipsis’ in the lines given below.  
Rewrite the lines in prose supplying the missing words, as you guess.  
A stranger came one night to Yussouf’s tent  
Saying, ‘Behold one outcast and in dread;  
Against whose life the bow of power is bent,  
Who flies, and hath not where to lay his head.  

Fist born, for whom by day and night I yearn,  
Balanced and just are all of God’s decrees;  
Thou art avenged, my first born, sleep in peace:

3.4 **Exercise-16**  
Complete the following statement after consulting the relevant stanza:  
i. A stranger came to Yussouf’s tent and begged for shelter and food because he ___________.  

ii. Yussouf told the stranger that this tent is mine ... but no more than ___________.

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iii. In the morning Yussouf gave the stranger _______ and ________ for his flight.

iv. The stranger was moved by Yussouf’s kindness and informed him that he had killed __________.

v. The name of the stranger was __________.

vi. Yussouf forgives the strange because ______________.

3.5 Exercise–17

The language of poetry is figurative and metaphorical, while the language of prose is almost literal. Rewrite the poem in a dialogue form in simple English between Yussouf and the stranger.
4. **BIBLIOGRAPHY**


TEXT AND RELATED EXERCISES

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INTRODUCTION

Both from the language learning and examination point of view, the most important assignment of a language teacher is "Teaching the text". Textbooks are set according to an accepted norm at the national level, while the schools, where the texts are taught do not keep any such norm for promoting students to higher grades. The task of teaching text depends upon the ingenuity of the teacher.

If the teacher is innovative and can devise methods for motivating students, he/she is expected to perform the job most successfully.

In this unit some inventive ways of teaching text have been explained. You can devise many other ways on the same pattern.

OBJECTIVES

After reading the unit you will be able to:

- Retrieve information stated in the text.
- Deduce meaning and use of unknown words.
- Skim to obtain the gist.
- Understand the meaning and implications of grammatical structures and related exercises following the text.
- Make pre-reading and post-reading exercises stimulating and interesting for the students.
- Recognize the functions of sentences even when not introduced by discourse markers, e.g. definition, paraphrase, conclusion, warning.
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1. READING THE TEXT

1.1 Introduction

An introduction in the form of a teacher monologue is less likely to motivate the students than the one in which you involve your students in a discussion. You will see that an introduction which poses questions is more likely to make your students want to read. This approach definitely arouses interest than the one in which all the answers are given or story summary provided. When you provide everything ready for the students, then they do not see any point in reading for themselves.

But at times, there will be difficult text. With such a text you will have to help your students through adopting the following points:

- More background information.
- Pre-teach key words the day before.
- Divide text into short chunks.
- Sign post-question for main points.
- Ask easy questions.
- Paraphrase difficult ideas.
- Set easy tasks like matching questions and answers.
- Praise and encouragement.

1.2 Writing and reading

Along with reading, you have to develop the writing skills of the students. Reading and writing reinforce each other. You should see that the writing exercise is not liked by your students. Make the writing exercise also as interesting as possible. Before students write, make sure that they:
can say it  
can read it  
can understand it  
know what you want them to do  
know why they are doing it

In order to develop in your students the urge to read, you have to arouse their interests, involve them, devise activities, exercises for testing their comprehension and application of knowledge. The exercises should be confined to the comprehensive question only in order to test their comprehension skill, you may develop exercises like:

- True and false statements.
- Incomplete sentences.
- Matching items.

1.3 Preparation of exercises

When preparing exercises you should keep the following points in mind:

- Give clear instructions.
- Have variety in exercises.
- Make use of all the four skills of listening, speaking, reading and writing.

Furthermore the assimilation of text should extend to post-reading activities. Activities can be in the form of group and class projects. The skills of listening, speaking, reading and writing can further be enhanced by further reading and listening to cassettes, making speeches, participating in dialogues, dramas and writing for class magazines, school magazines, class newsletters, and youth section of newspapers.
So as a language teacher, your task is to make the teaching of the text interesting, stimulating and challenging for your students. Make use of a variety of learning exercises and projects.

**Remember:** Variety is the spice of life and essence of “good teaching”

The exercises given here are a fraction of the amount of work that can be done. Do not let these exercises limit your innovative ideas. Using these as guidelines, make a breakthrough in making text exercises enjoyable and worth doing.

In this unit we will be dealing with the following two texts:

- The Quaid Said
- The Giant Leap
- Textbook of English of class-x

The format used with these texts is based on the following structures:

![Diagram of Pre-reading: To prepare the students for the lesson listening]

- Listening
- Speaking
- Reading
- Writing
- Comprehension
- Grammar
- Post-reading for assimilation
  - Personal experience
  - Prior knowledge
- Projects
- Writing
- Speaking
- Listening
- TV
- Group/Class
- Radio/Cassettes
In order to carry out the different reading skills, group work is advocated. The groups should be small, of even numbers so that if you wish to do pairing within groups, you can do it easily. Moreover, the size of the groups should be according to the number of students and size of the classroom. The group arrangements should not hinder your movement to different groups.

When students are working in groups, you should go round and supervise the work. Group leader should be told that if they are not sure of any word’s pronunciation, they should not hesitate to call you. The groups should have a mix of good and weak students. The good students can help the weak ones.

After every reading lesson you should write down comments for evaluating the lesson. These comments should form the basis of your future lesson.

2. TEXT-I: THE QUAIM SAID

2.1 Pre-reading
- Can any one tell me:
- What does Quaid-i-Azam mean?
  Any one . . . . The great leader
- Can you quote any saying of the Quaid?

2.2 Reading of text

Introduction: We have heard what our great leader had to say. Today we have a whole lesson with his different messages. The lesson is “The Quaid Said”.

Listening:
- Get into groups.
- Choose one person as your group leader.
- Group leader, you have to help your group and organize your group.
- Have a notebook to record your group discussion.
- Open your books on the lesson “The Quaid Said”.
- In your groups read the lesson. Find the difficult words and in the groups try to find out their meanings.
- If there are words which the groups cannot handle we will discuss them together.

**Reading:**

The group members read in groups or the group leader reads aloud and others listen.

2.3 **Comprehension**

Para-I:

i. The groups give their difficult vocabulary.
   Discussion of the vocabulary and its usage.
   e.g.
   mould (cast), 
   deliverance (act of freeing), 
   honour (respect), 
   grasp (hold), 
   proportion (ratio), 
   forth (forward), 
   glory (honour).

ii. We celebrate March 23, 1940 because on this day:
   a. Pakistan Resolution was passed.
   b. Allama Iqbal was born.
   c. All India Muslim League was formed.

iii. **Grammar:** Encircle the words in column II which are similar in meaning to column-I:

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<tr>
<th>Column-I</th>
<th>Column-II</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
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<td>rescue, safety</td>
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<td>destiny</td>
<td>fate, power</td>
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<tr>
<td>ensure</td>
<td>definite, certain, doubtful</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>honour</td>
<td>reputation, prestige</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>solid</td>
<td>hard, strong</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

773
victory
grasp
success
With, reach, hold with hand

**Writing:**

Write a paragraph about Minar-e-Pakistan:

**Hints:** Location
Height
Design
Messages written
Why erected?

**Speaking:**

i. A dialogue on the celebration of Pakistan Day. (Let two students from each group have a dialogue for Pakistan Day celebrations in Karachi, Lahore, Rawalpindi.)

**Karachi**
- Qaid’s Tomb
- Flag hoisting
- March Past
- Wreath and Fatehah
- People paying homage to the Quaid

**Lahore**
- Allama Iqbal’s Tomb
- Guard changing
- Wreath and Fatehah
- Badshahi Mosque
- Minar-e-Pakistan

**Rawalpindi**
- March Past in the Race Course Ground
- The three armed forces parade
- Audience
- Exhibition

ii. Discussion on what is the message of first para.
2.4 **Reading/listening**

**Para-2:**

i. The group leaders read para-2 aloud in the groups and the group members listen.

ii. The groups discuss the difficult vocabulary among themselves. The vocabulary which they can not handle is written on the blackboard by the teacher. The teacher has to give examples to explain the meaning and usage of the vocabulary.

iii. Fill in the blanks:
   In May 1944 Quaid-e-Azam was __________ years old.

Match the words similar in meaning from column A with column B:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Column A</th>
<th>Column B</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>youthful</td>
<td>barriers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>untiring</td>
<td>enemies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tremendously</td>
<td>tirelessly</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>opponents</td>
<td>inspiration</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>obligatory</td>
<td>extraordinarily</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>obstruction</td>
<td>legally</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>young age</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>compulsory</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Speaking:**

i. Group leaders to make a speech on what students should do for Pakistan. Quaid-e-Azam’s advice should guide the leaders in making the speech. Group members to give help with speech preparation.

ii. Discussion on what is the message of 4th paragraph.
2.5 **Activity**

Listen to the cassette tape of Quaid-e-Azam’s message to students and in groups discuss your role as a student.

**Comprehension:**

i. Sindhis, Punjabis, Pathan, Baluchi, are all.

ii. All the four provinces make our—land.

**Speaking:**

i. Let two pairs of students have a dialogue of 3 minutes each on “our land and agricultural products of Pakistan”. Let each pair come in turn before the whole class. Good performance may be applauded, by point system.

ii. Discussion on the message of the para.

**Writing:**

Write paragraph on the qualities of a good Pakistani.

2.6 **Reading listening (para-4)**

Group leaders read the para and group members follow it in their books.

**Comprehension:**

Fill in the blanks (choose the right word):

The duties required of you are: develop a sound ______ of ______ character ______ and a solid ______ background. You must devote yourself ______ to your ______ for that is your first ______ to yourselves, your parents, and to the ________.
Speaking:
i. Each group to contribute one sentence each for the topic: “How to make Pakistan strong?” Each member to read his/her sentence aloud. Best sentence to be appreciated.

ii. Discussion of the message of the para.

Writing:
How to make a strong Pakistan?

2.7 Post—Reading Exercises and Activities

Listening:
Group 1 to listen to a cassette of Quaid’s messages and pick out any item which has been covered in the textbook.

Writing:
Group II to write the items not covered in the book.

Class project
Group III make a chart on the important dates in Quaid's life. Make a chart of the important buildings related to Quaid-i-Azam. Group IV make a list of meetings of Quaid-i-Azam and students.

OR
Make one class project on Quaid-i-Azam and his life.

2.8 Hints for exercises of the textbook

a. Comprehension
1. The Great Leader
2. Pakistan Resolution passed
3. A Separate Nation
4. Destroy the Forces Against Pakistan
5. Curse
6. Studies

b. Para-2 (ii) 67 years
Para-3: Pakistanis, homeland
Para-4: Sense, initiative, academic, whole heartedly,
    studies obligations, state

c. achievements, creation, youthfulness, destruction, advice,
    strength, happiness, provincialism, liveliness, political,
    socialism, development.

d. Fill in the blanks with suitable prepositions.
   1. for 2. with 3. to 4. to, into 5. up, into, for, up
Choose words in column B which are similar in meaning
   with words in column A.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Column A</th>
<th>Column B</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>create</td>
<td>make something new</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>separate</td>
<td>apart</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fundamental</td>
<td>basic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>high</td>
<td>tall</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>active</td>
<td>energetic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>freedom</td>
<td>liberty</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>famous</td>
<td>well-known</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>honour</td>
<td>respect</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
3. TEXT-II: THE GIANT LEAP

3.1 Pre-reading

Look at these pictures. Can you differentiate between these pictures?

What is another name for big?
Huge Giant
Generate the word from the students through discussion.

Picture of frog jumping What is frog jump called leap

Have you ever played leap frog race?
If we have these two words together, what does it mean?
Giant Leap
Big Jump
3.2 Reading of text (introduction)

We have the words “Giant Leap”, meaning ‘big jump’. In our text we have a lesson called “Giant Leap”. Open your books on the “Giant Leap” lesson. Can anyone tell me by looking at the picture what the lesson will be about? Likely answers-space, rocket, astronaut.

Listening:

Get into groups. For today choose a new group leader. You have the big responsibility of helping your group. So open your notebook and get started. Start reading the “Giant Leap”. While reading write down the difficult words. First try and discuss the words within group. If there are words whose meanings you could not find, then do let me know. We will write them on the blackboard and discuss with the whole class.

Reading: (Para-I)

The group leader to read the paragraph loudly and the group members to follow silently in the book.

Speaking:

Can anyone in the group tell the class what the first paragraph is about. (Generate answers by calling out different students.)

Hints:

This para tells us about man's adventures in space. The first person responsible for this big jump is the American Astronaut Neil Armstrong. He landed on Moon on July 20, 1969. His this action is a source of joy for millions of people of the words. His name will be remembered in man's history for ever.

Writing:

Write answers to the following questions:
1. Who was the first person to land on moon?
   Ans. Neil Armstrong, an American Astronaut was the first man to land on noon.
2. Why will Armstrong’s name be remembered in history?
   Ans. Armstrong's name will be remembered for ever because he succeeded in finding space for man on moon.

Dictation:
(See words from sheet for paras.)

3.3 Speaking/grammar/vocabulary (para-2)

Through discussion let the students in groups tell the meaning of the following vocabulary:

- astronomer : a person who studies stars
- telescope : an instrument
- data : information
- fanciful : imaginary
- strange : funny
- creatures : living beings

Comprehension:

Make a list of people mentioned in para-2.

Reading:
Loud reading by group leader
Silent reading by the group members.

Grammar (new vocabulary)

a. Through group discussion elicit from the students the difficult vocabulary:
   technology, industrial arts, orbit,

b. Make new words (nouns) by adding “tion”
   - create : creation
   - inform : information
   - invent : invention
explore : exploration
imagine : imagination
select : selection
elect : election
form : formation
administer : administration

3.4 **Comprehension writing**

Write answers to the following questions:

a. How did telescope help astronomers?
b. How was the V-2 improved to fulfill the required speed of space travel?

**Reading:**
Loud reading by group leader.
Silent reading by group members.
Discussion of vocabulary, para-4.

Grammar (New vocabulary)
Para-4: startled
Para-5: manned spacecraft
Para-6: launching pad, historic journey

Match words in column A with words of similar meaning in column B:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Column A</th>
<th>Column B</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>invention</td>
<td>rocket</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>explore</td>
<td>surprised</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>startled</td>
<td>search</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>spacecraft</td>
<td>discovery</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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Comprehension:

Complete the blanks in the following sentences:
1. Russians launched Sputnik I in ____________.
2. Sputnik II was carrying dog ____________.
3. Americans launched in ________ in March ____________.
4. To escape from the gravity of the earth, the speed should be ____________ per hour.
5. Russians launched their first spacecraft ________ in April _____.
6. The first Russian man who travelled in space was _____.
7. Vostok VI carried the ________ Russian woman in June ____________.
8. The first American man Alan Shepherd was carried by ____________. Capsule in May ________.
9. The NASA lunar programme was called project ________.
10. Apollo project involved the following:
    Expenditure ________.
    Labour ________.
    Manufacturing companies ________.
11. Apollo II took off from ________ launching pad.
12. The project of the capsule was ________ meters.
13. Apollo II took off at ____________.
14. The three American Astronauts on the spacecraft were:
    ____________ Armstrong
    ____________ Aldrin
    ____________ Collins

Speaking:

Para-2: What was the point discussed in: information about moon through telescopes; information about moon through imagination of writers.

Para-3: Invention of Garman V-2 rocket. Improvement of V-2 as a result of research and experiment into multistage rocket with a speed of 40,000 kilometers per hour.
Para-4: Space Race of USA and USSR years 1957, 1958.
Para-6: NASA Lunar Programme and details of Apollo's expenditure, people involved in its manufacture, its launching -place, time, date, with the three Astronauts (names).

Writing:
Write down all the persons used in this lesson in paragraph order.

Para-1: Astronauts
American
Commentator
Para-2: Writers
Astronauts
Poets
Scientists
Para-3: Scientists
Para-4: Astronauts
Para-5: Astronauts
Russians
Para-6: Technicians
Technologists
Scientists
Para-7: Write down the different names used for space vehicles in this lesson, e.g. Lunar Module, V-2 rocket.
Multi-stage
Satellite

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3.5 Grammar (Vocabulary) – para-1

i. Explain the meaning through discussion:
   - lunar - moon
   - descending - downward direction
   - immortal - famous for all times, divine, which can not die
   - mankind - human beings
   - Established a Foothold in Space: Found a place in space

ii. An astronaut is a person who travels in space

iii. Encircle the words in column 2 which are opposite in meaning to column 1:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Column 1</th>
<th>Column 2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>immortal</td>
<td>mortal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>descending</td>
<td>uphill, ascending</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>land</td>
<td>leave, take off</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lunar</td>
<td>solar</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>surface</td>
<td>bottom, at the basement</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Writing:**

Learn the spelling for dictation:

Correction of spellings to be done in pairs.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Para-1</th>
<th>Para-2</th>
<th>Para-3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>attentively</td>
<td>powerful</td>
<td>invention</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>excited</td>
<td>telescope</td>
<td>technology</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>commentator</td>
<td>astronomers</td>
<td>exploration</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
A. **Comprehension:**
2. Find a space for man on moon.
3. Provide useful information and data about moon.
4. The basic design, principles and components of V-2 are the sole operators of V-2 in space.
5. V-2 speed was only 7,200 kilometers per hour whereas to remain close to the orbit, the required speed was 29,000 kilometers per hour and to escape from the gravity of the earth completely by
a speed of 40,000 kilometers per hour was required.
6. First man in space was a Russian, Yuri Gagarin.
7. First woman in space was Valentina Tereshkova.

Comprehension para-3:

a. The astronomers collected a lot of useful information and data about the moon.
b. Another rocket was mounted on V–2 to make it a multi-stage rocket over V-2 so that it can achieve high speed for space.

B. Fill in the blanks
1. 1967
2. Laika
3. Vanguard, 1958
4. 40,000 kilometers
5. Vostok, 1961
6. Yuri Gagarin
7. Valentina Tereshkova, 1963
8. Shepherd, 1961
9. Apollo
10. 7,000 million, 30,000 technicians, 20,000 manufacturing companies
11. Cape Kennedy
12. 11064 meter
13. American time, July, 16

C. Correct answers
1.b An astronomer is a scientist who studies stars and planets.
2.c An astronaut is a traveller in space.
3.a An orbit is the path of a planet revolving round the Sun.
4.a Lunar means pertaining to the moon.
5.c Solar means pertaining to the Sun.

D. Find in list B words similar in meaning to words in list A:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>List A</th>
<th>List B</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. hush</td>
<td>attempt</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. glued</td>
<td>imaginary</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. triumph</td>
<td>search</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. immortal</td>
<td>silent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. endeavour</td>
<td>victory</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. verify</td>
<td>fixed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. data</td>
<td>ever lasting</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. fanciful</td>
<td>jump</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. leap</td>
<td>attest</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. explore</td>
<td>information</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

E. Change voice from passive into active. (Explain that in the active form ‘by’ is not used):

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Passive</th>
<th>Active</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. He is not liked by me.</td>
<td>I do not like him.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Grass is eaten by cow.</td>
<td>A cow eats grass.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. The newspaper is being read by him.</td>
<td>He is reading the newspaper.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Why were you beaten by him.</td>
<td>Why did he beat you?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Apples were being sold by him.</td>
<td>He was selling apples.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. The window was closed by me.</td>
<td>I closed the window.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
7. This book has been bought by him.  He has bought this book.
8. You will be helped by him in the hour of need.  He will help you in the hour of need.
9. A football match will be played by us tomorrow.  We will play a football match tomorrow.
10. My homework will be finished by me in a week.  I will finish my homework in a week.

3.7  **Post-reading/writing**

Suppose you are a Pakistani astronaut to land on the moon. Describe your feelings on your landing.

3.8  **Activity**

a. Prepare a chart of comparison with dates for USSR and US Space Race.

b. Abbreviations are used to shorten names. For example NASA is the abbreviation of National Aeronautics Space Administration. Can you tell what do these abbreviations stand for? Write them down:

```
PIA    USA    PBC    USSR    PTV    UK    BBC
UAE    MCC    WAPDA  CDA    DHS    DHA
```

**Project:** In groups prepare a model of a rocket. Name your rocket.

4.  **BIBLIOGRAPHY**

Punjab Textbook Board(2004): *English Textbook for class IX and X* Lahore: