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Sociopragmatic Perspective to ELT – Research Designs in
Second Language Acquisition – De-coding English
'Language' Teaching In India – Conceptualizing Curriculum
Design and Renewal – Promoting Students' Interest in
Learning English through Co-Curricular Activities –
Parataxis, Hypotaxis, Conjunctions and the Writing Style

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The English Language Teachers' Association of India was founded on August 7, 1974 by the late Padmashri S. Natarajan, a noted educationist of our country.

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The Journal of English Language Teaching (The JELT) is published six times a year: in February, April, June, August, October and December.

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Length : About 1500 words for theoretical articles and for others about 450 words.

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- To provide a forum for teachers of English to meet periodically and discuss problems relating to the teaching of English in India.
- To help teachers interact with educational administrators on matters relating to the teaching of English.
- To disseminate information in the ELT field among teachers of English.
- To undertake innovative projects aimed at the improvement of learners' proficiency in English.
- To promote professional solidarity among teachers of English at primary, secondary and university levels and
- To promote professional excellence among its members in all possible ways.

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Editorial

Dear Members of ELTAI and Readers of our Journal

It gives us great pleasure to bring out yet another number of the journal after the mammoth task of publishing the previous issue as the Golden Jubilee Year Special Number. We hope you went through all the articles, book reviews, chapter reports and humorous tidbits on grammar. We have been looking forward to receiving your feedback on that issue.

You will find six articles in this issue and a report of ELTAI Bilaspur Chapter besides the regular feature, 'Speaking Activity'. We hope you have been trying out in your classes all the speaking activities published in our journal. We would appreciate your feedback on the trials. Your feedback and suggestions will help the contributor refine them.

The first article makes a strong case for incorporating the sociopragmatic dimension of communicative competence in materials and methodologies for teaching English as a second language, especially in the Indian ESL context. The author Usha Kanoongo points to and bemoans the lack of awareness of this crucial dimension among teachers and students alike, which, according to her, often results in miscommunication, or even communication breakdown.

In the second article, Mandvi Singh provides an overview of the various research designs available to researchers in second language acquisition (SLA). She explains the basic features of each of those designs and shows that the choice of a particular design depends upon research aims and questions. SLA research is a critical area of research that can throw light on when and why ESL learners commit errors, which in turn can influence the way we teach English in our classrooms. Unfortunately, however, very little path-breaking and original work in this area has been done and reported in the Indian context.

The next article by Dishari Chattaraj is a critique on the language policy in education and attributes the lack of proficiency in English in a majority of learners to the confusion in language policies among the different states of India – bilingualism, trilingualism, and so on. She offers the model of 'convergent pedagogy' in Peru, another post-colonial society, as the basis of a solution to the problems in ELT prevalent in India.

In the following article, Dhumal Suraj Nandkumar makes a comparative assessment of the salient features of the three models of curriculum design and renewal, viz. classical humanism, reconstructionism and progressivism, and attempts to evolve and propose an eclectic model by incorporating features from all the three.

The next article by Datta Sawant reports a small scale study undertaken by him to promote his students' interest in co-curricular activities with a view to enabling them to learn English through such activities. In the last article Priyanka Dey emphasises the need for students to use parataxis and hypotaxis, and focus on the cohesive role of conjunctions in order to improve their writing style.

P. N. Ramani

Sociopragmatic Perspective to ELT: The Forgotten Indispensable of Communicative Competence



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ABSTRACT

This paper sets out a case for adopting a sociopragmatic perspective in English language teaching in India. Drawing attention towards this crucial but neglected facet of communicative language teaching, it discusses how sociopragmatic awareness contributes to achieving communicative success at both receptive and productive stages. In the present times when language learners and language users are faced with multiple contexts of using English as an international language, they need to be equipped with tools of socially appropriate language behaviours to achieve multi-contextual and cross-cultural communication. Knowledge of the social constraints of language use, ability to adjust speech to fit the situation, express intended meaning and understand that of the other is often a challenging task for even the native speakers of any language, let alone the second language learners. The growing use of English by its L2 speakers for international communication demands a recognition of this indispensable dimension of communicative competence which encompasses local and international contexts as settings of language use involve native–nonnative and nonnative–nonnative discourse participants, and provides intercultural insights and awareness. The essay argues that language teaching theory, research and pedagogy must evolve to address the sociopragmatic element of communicative competence in India.

Keywords: Sociopragmatics; Communication; Communicative Competence; ELT.

Introduction

Hymes (1970) defined *communicative competence* as a language user's grammatical knowledge of syntax, morphology and phonology, as well as social knowledge about how and when to use utterances appropriately. Canale and Swain (1980) and Canale (1983) have pointed out that the ability to communicate requires four sub-competencies: *grammatical, discourse,*

sociolinguistic and strategic competences. Grammatical competence deals only with sentence-level rules, discourse competence with rules that govern the relationship among sentences to form a meaningful whole, sociolinguistic competence with rules of speaking that depend on pragmatic and sociocultural elements, and strategic competence with the way the speaker manipulates language to fulfill communicative goals. Spitzberg (1988) has

defined communication competence as the ability to interact with other people in accurate, fluent, comprehensible, coherent, effective and appropriate to the context or topic being mentioned. Bachman (1990) has divided communicative competence broadly into *organizational competence*, which includes both grammatical and discourse (or textual) competence, and *pragmatic competence*, which includes both sociolinguistic and illocutionary competence.

While Hymes' concept was constantly being addressed and redefined by language researchers, his primary tenet that *communicative competence* is a *learner's ability to use language to be able to communicate successfully* came to be widely accepted as the goal of language education. It formed the theoretical underpinning of the Communicative Approach to language teaching (e.g., CLT) in which communicative competence is considered the ultimate objective of any or every language teaching situation and this remains to be so till today. CLT as a learner-centered approach which emphasizes learning to communicate through interaction in the target language was wholeheartedly embraced in ESL classrooms to the extent that it has become the lifeline of the entire ELT system. Much has been talked about the significance of CLT and the aim of this article is not to attempt to add another drop to the ocean of literature dedicated to this *Goddess* of language teachers. This essay dwells on how to *do* CLT fruitfully by drawing attention towards the much ignored facet of Hymes's communicative competence model – the

social appropriateness of language use or the *sociopragmatic* competence.

For Hymes, speakers of a language, in addition to possessing linguistic competence, also need to know how the language is used by members of the speech community if they are to accomplish their communicative purposes. Hymes and other promoters of social appropriateness of language use argue that one's ability in the grammatical aspects of language, including grammar, pronunciation and vocabulary, is one's linguistic competence, while one's sociopragmatic competence lies in the ability to manipulate utterances, make them fit the communication situation, and successfully convey the intended meaning. Unfortunately, the latter aspect has not been fully adopted in ESL classrooms, particularly in India. Even though language teaching programmes have shifted their focus from mere linguistic form to actual language use, thanks to CLT, attention on 'varying language output in different contexts and social considerations even for the *same use*' is yet to be achieved. The speech act of 'saying sorry', for example, has different variations, such as, 'sorry,' 'I'm sorry,' 'I am so sorry,' 'I apologize,' 'I beg your pardon,' and 'Excuse me.' These expressions constitute the sociopragmatic aspect of language use – the awareness of which of these expressions is most suitable in a given context even if the purpose is the same. Harlow (1990) defines *sociopragmatic competence* as the speaker's adjustment of speech strategies according to social variables and context.

It is argued that, today when the world is fast shrinking into a global village and English has become the language of international communication and cultural exchange, language learners have to be prepared not only for accurate but also *appropriate* communication. Nonnative speakers who have to use the target language in multiple situations are often faced with misunderstandings in the cross-cultural realization of communicative acts, which actually arise from their deficiency in sociopragmatic competence. It is a compelling need that they be equipped with sociopragmatic skills and strategies to be able to use the target language effectively in various social and cultural contexts to avoid such cross-cultural misunderstandings. Widdowson (1986) has rightly asserted that whether we teach *language for communication* or *language as communication*, it is imperative that we take into consideration the findings and recommendations made in the field of pragmatics.

Sociopragmatic Competence

The term 'sociopragmatic' is a blend of 'Sociolinguistics' and 'Pragmatics', which are two subfields of Applied Linguistics. *Sociolinguistics* is the study of the appropriateness of language in different social contexts and tells us how situational factors such as the cultural context, the participants, the setting of a speech event and the function of the interaction affect the choice of what should be said. *Pragmatics* studies the ways in which

context contributes to meaning, how the transmission of meaning depends not only on structural and linguistic knowledge (grammar or lexicon) of the speaker and the listener, but also on the context of the utterance, any pre-existing knowledge about the participants and the inferred intent of the speaker. We may note that while both the fields encompass specific domains of study, there is a fundamental commonality between the two – *the context of use* – so much so that if one attempts to study Sociolinguistics, one invariably ends up acquiring some knowledge of Pragmatics, and *vice versa*. The meaning-making quality of Pragmatics and the socio-contextual appropriateness rendered by Sociolinguistics together offer a perspective which can potentially make communicative goals of language teaching more achievable.

Leech (1983) defines Sociopragmatics as the sociological interface of pragmatics involving speakers' and hearers' beliefs built on relevant social and cultural values. Recognizing this, Harlow (1990) describes *sociopragmatic competence* as the ability to adjust speech strategies appropriately according to different social variables such as the degree of imposition, social dominance and distance between the participants of conversation, and participants' rights and obligations in communication. Thus, Sociopragmatics can be called a set of norms of behaviour for realizing a given speech act in a given context, taking into account the purpose to be accomplished, the culture involved, the relative age and gender of the interlocutors,

their social class, their roles and statuses. Sociopragmatic awareness enables a person to decide the kind of language to be used in an interaction which suits the setting, the purpose, the topic and the participants, also taking into consideration the social distance and power difference that exists between them and their interlocutors. For example, a student uses one expression or *code or variety of language* while interacting with his friend and another with his professor and still another with his father, one variety when discussing an academic topic with his friend, another when planning a party with the same friend, one with his sibling at home and another with the same sibling at a posh restaurant.

For instance, the speech act of 'asking someone to switch on the AC' can be done in several different ways, viz. 'It's so hot today.'; 'Could you switch on the AC?'; 'Please switch on the AC.'; 'How can anyone sit in this heated room?'; 'Aren't you feeling hot?'; 'I can't breathe without AC!!'; 'Switch the AC on!'; 'Is the AC not working?'; 'My head is spinning in this June heat.'; 'Are you (feeling) cold?'; 'Is it winter yet?', and so on.

According to Sociopragmatics, these utterances are different locutions for achieving the same perlocutionary effect (i.e., getting the AC on), but each possesses a different illocutionary force and can fit only a specific context, i.e. setting, participants, their social relationship and purpose. Using any of them inappropriately is sure to cause miscommunication, under-achieved effect, or unintentional insult.

Take another situation: the father comes home from work to see the children studying in the evening (and not playing as usual) and asks the mother, 'Where're the kids?' He is able to infer the reason in the mother's reply, 'Oh, their exam timetable has come!'

In the following example, a candidate for a scholarship failed to get it because his professor wrote a recommendation for him as follows:

Dear Professor Smith

'John Jones has asked me to write a letter on his behalf. Mr. Jones is unfailingly polite, is neatly dressed at all times, and is always on time for his classes.'

Sincerely,

Harry L. Homer (Levis and LeVelle, 2011)

What and how did Prof. Homer try to convey which Smith aptly deciphered?

Need

Sociopragmatic competence denotes knowledge of the social constraints of language use –knowing how to read a situation, what to speak, when to speak, how much to speak, where to stop, adjusting the speech to fit the situation, expressing intended meaning and understanding that of the other, knowing how to use and respond appropriately to different types of speech acts, such as requests, apologies, thanks and invitations, knowing which address forms should be used with different persons one speaks to and in different situations . . . and the list is as vast as is

the scope of human language use. Achieving this can be a challenging task for even native speakers of a language, which is evidenced from the misunderstandings that we encounter in our own *native* language in everyday life, let alone the case of second language learners of any language. Without this ability, even perfectly grammatical utterances can convey a meaning entirely different from what the speaker intended. Blum-Kulka, House and Kasper (1989) reported that, “Even fairly advanced language learners’ communicative acts regularly contain pragmatic errors, or deficits, in that they fail to convey or comprehend the intended illocutionary force or politeness value.”

Contextual factors such as the time when the utterance is made, the setting of the speech event (e.g., boardroom discourse; the talk of people eating in a restaurant), load of imposition (e.g., borrowing a pen Vs borrowing a car; asking the time Vs asking for time) and the participants involved (considering social distance, power difference, gender, and age of the participants) all affect the language that is crafted. Every speech act is constrained by sociopragmatic factors and norms of speech behaviour which speakers (and hearers) have to follow, the failure of which leads to miscommunication.

In cross-cultural communication, cultural context plays a vital role in accurate expression of meaning. Even proficient learners’ communicative behaviour often deviates from L2 conventions due to lack of sociopragmatic competence causing many

misunderstandings. In cross-cultural interactions, rules of speaking change as one moves from one culture to another, and what is appropriate to say in one culture may not be so in another, even if the situation in which it is said is the same. All languages have sociolinguistically related regulations which generally do not overlap and vary considerably. Limited knowledge of the relevant social and cultural values, deficiency in varying speech strategies and applying the rules of speaking of their native culture in cross-cultural communication called pragmatic transfer cause serious breakdowns in communication. Ironically, learners who have a high level of linguistic competence are judged more severely because their sociopragmatic errors are perceived not as lack of knowledge but as rudeness, insincerity and insults, which result in mockery, disappointment, ethnic stereotypes, shock and contempt. Lack of awareness of sociopragmatic rules for speaking, conventionalized expressions and socio-cultural differences between their first and second language or between their native and non-native cultures leads to nonconformity to the speaking norms of the target language, unintelligibility and misunderstanding.

Challenges

In view of the importance of social, cultural, and pragmatic elements in communication, the challenge lies in incorporating the concept in language teaching curricula. Unfortunately, sociopragmatic perspective in language teaching is a formidably neglected area in India. Sociopragmatic

research methods like discourse analysis, interactional sociolinguistics and critical discourse analysis which analyze language occurring in different social contexts are highly effective tools that provide authentic insights on language behaviour to be incorporated in language teaching and training. But this research field is yet to be fully tapped in our country. Courses in sociolinguistics and pragmatics and their applications are being taught only in a handful of universities and even these teaching/research endeavours have not permeated into language teaching pedagogies. There are hardly any coursebooks which integrate sociolinguistics/pragmatics/sociopragmatics in ELT materials in the country. Absence of theoretical background, model courses and the limited number of available pedagogical resources are the challenges. Want of acceptance, lack of time and resources or teachers' confidence in sociocultural aspects of second language learning are possible reasons why this perspective remains to be addressed by academics.

Providing an immersion environment in the target language culture is one solution through which the rules of speaking can be slowly acquired by the language learner. It is believed that if the classroom environment is appropriately structured and well-organized, L2 learners will develop this kind of competence naturally in the course of their learning because sociopragmatic rules will be picked up unconsciously in the process of acquiring language features such as grammatical rules, pronunciation and

vocabulary. But providing such a sociopragmatically conducive immersion experience is a challenging and time consuming process, which is not available to many.

Moreover, it has also been observed that despite a long time spent in the target language environment, an unaware language learner continues to use the rules of speaking of their native language making sociopragmatic mistakes, a phenomenon which Gumprez (as cited in Marsh, 1990) labels as *pragmatic fossilization*. Bardovi-Harlig (2001) emphasizes the significance of classroom instruction in helping to push students towards higher levels of sociopragmatic competence, which can possibly lessen pragmatic fossilization. Teaching culture and cross-cultural differences to learners also has limitations because culture by itself is a complex and sensitive concept. The issue of whose cultural and socio-pragmatic system to teach in the context of English as an international language is yet another point that adds to the growing ambivalence about the inclusion of sociopragmatics in the ESL curriculum. The existence of various Englishes with their different cultural and pragmatic norms has also offered a serious challenge to any approach based on sociopragmatics (McKay, 2009).

The Way Forward

Sociopragmatic knowledge can be divided into two: the first is culture specific, which is gained through the knowledge, experience and awareness of a culture that a learner

finds himself in; and the second is universal, which refers to the universally applicable concepts and rules of communicative behaviour which find their relevance in any and every situation of human interaction.

The first type of knowledge may be acquired by learners by providing them with sufficient and appropriate input by immersing them in the target language culture. Real life experience is one option but it is a slow and lengthy process and has its own limitations, as mentioned earlier. An alternative to this can be observation of target language culture, interaction of the speakers, their verbal and non-verbal behaviour and strategies. This can be done by watching movies, TV programmes, talk shows, video presentations, meetings, etc. and are quite feasible.

The second type of sociopragmatic knowledge which is universally applicable and doable in language classrooms is formal instruction in sociopragmatic rules of language use which can potentially help learners express themselves more appropriately and prevent them from unintentionally causing offense or misunderstanding. Some of the essential sociopragmatic concepts that can be taught to language learners are:

- Searle's (1975) Speech Act Theory and Performative use of language
- Brown and Levinson's (1978) Theory of Politeness through the concept of Face
- Leech's (1983) Politeness Maxims

- Grice's (1975) Cooperative Principle and Maxims of Cooperativeness and Implicature

- Grice's (1975) Rules of Conversation

The concepts mentioned above may be said to govern all human communicative behaviour and are central to the acquisition of sociopragmatic awareness, which enables learners to communicate appropriately and effectively not only with native speakers of the target language but also with anyone in any interaction in any situation. Space precludes elaboration of these fundamentals of human communicative behaviour and it may be left to the informed reader to explore them and appreciate their significance for language teaching/ learning. It may be argued that these concepts have immense relevance for all language learners because they equip them with strategies of language behaviour to manipulate in different situations and contexts, teach them what to speak, how to speak and how much to speak in order to communicate effectively. Assessment of learners' academic level and their needs can aid course designers in incorporating these concepts in an ESL course.

Sociopragmatic research is another instrument which can aid second language specialists to provide meaningful insights in designing syllabuses, preparing teaching materials and developing classroom teaching methodologies. Discourse analysis, interactional sociolinguistics and critical discourse analysis are research methods which identify language variation that

occurs at all levels of language: phonology, morphology, lexis, syntax and discourse-linguistic features and analyze the language that takes place in different situations, like classroom, student presentations, boardroom, newsroom, political speech, media, informal discussions, newspapers, emails and blogs. Comprehensive evaluation of the language of such discourses can yield valuable insights on the do's and don'ts of communication, what went wrong and what facilitated successful communication. Sociopragmatic research can thus act as a bottom-up approach.

Engaging learners in performative use of target language, like speech acts of making requests, apologies, refusals, complaints, giving compliments and responses in multiple contexts which enable sociopragmatic, functional, authentic use of their target language for meaningful purposes enables experiential learning of sociopragmatic norms.

Conclusion

Competence in a language requires a combination of the formal, sociolinguistic and pragmatic knowledge of the language. In addition to learning structural and functional rules, second language learners need sociopragmatic rules which guide them in the choice of appropriate forms of using the language and thereby contribute towards achieving communicative competence. It is high time that we looked up to this *Cinderella* of ELT in India and promoted a sociopragmatic perspective in language classrooms in our country.

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REQUIREMENTS

A4, Font size: Times New Roman 12, Double Spaced, Margin of 1 inch on all four sides.

Title of the article should be in Caps, bold, centered.

Abstract in about 150 words

Full paper should not be in more than 2000 words.

Articles should be sent only as AN EMAIL ATTACHMENT – AS A WORD DOCUMENT to eltai_india@yahoo.co.in with a copy to ramanipn@gmail.com (CDs and Hard copies will not be accepted.).

A photo of the author should also be sent in the .jpg file format as an email attachment along with the article.

Research Designs in Second Language Acquisition: An Overview



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ABSTRACT

Acquisition of various elements of English syntax in second language learners of English has been examined through various methodologies. The purpose of the present paper is to provide a brief summary of the various research designs that have been widely used by the researchers in this field. It is believed that a discussion of research design will be very useful for research scholars who want to pursue research in this field; therefore, some key methodological issues will be examined in detail. The paper consists of two sections: two main strategies for research in general are described in the first section; the second section provides a discussion of various types of research design used in the field of Second Language Acquisition (SLA, hereafter).

Key Words: *Qualitative research design; Quantitative research design; SLA Research Designs.*

Introduction

Designing a research strategy and determining appropriate method of investigation is a difficult task. In understanding a research, the first goal is to understand research strategy. Research strategy is generally regarded as broad orientation to research. Basically two types of research strategy or paradigms have been discussed in the literature of research methodology: Qualitative and Quantitative. However triangulation method is also popular these days. In the triangulation method the same pattern or example of behavior is sought in different sources. In a way triangulation is a mixture of qualitative and quantitative strategies

Qualitative and quantitative

There is much debate about the value of qualitative and quantitative approach to research. The issues are complex and a great deal has been written on the topics. It is not within the scope of this paper to provide an extended discussion of the ongoing debates. The paper will briefly describe what the meaning of these approaches is. A simple distinction is that quantitative research employs measurement and qualitative research does not. However different researchers have interpreted it in different ways. Bryman (2008) compares these two paradigms on three dimensions: ontology, epistemology and methodology. Seliger and Shohamy

(1989) compare these two paradigms on the basis of 4 parameters. They are of opinion that in qualitative research synthetic or holistic approach is taken, it is heuristic in nature and control is low, whereas in quantitative research approach is analytic, it is deductive in nature and control is high. A much more clear definition is given by Larsen-Freeman and Long (1991). For them, “The prototypical qualitative methodology is an ethnographic study in which researcher do not set out to test hypothesis but rather to observe what is

present with their focus, and consequently the data, free to vary during the course of observation. A quantitative study, on the other hand, is best typified by an experiment designed to test a hypothesis through the use of objective instrument and appropriate statistical analyses” (Larsen-Freeman and Long 1991:11).

However, in this connection, Reichardt and Cook (1979) provide a useful summary of the attributes of qualitative and quantitative paradigms.

Table 1: Attributes of qualitative and quantitative paradigms

	Qualitative Paradigm	Quantitative Paradigm
1.	Advocates the use of qualitative method	Advocates the use of quantitative method
2.	Concerned with understanding human behavior from the actors own frame of reference	Seeks the facts or causes of social phenomena with little regard for the subjective states of individuals.
3.	Naturalistic and uncontrolled observation	Obtrusive and controlled observation
4.	Subjective	Objective
5.	Close to the data; the insider perspective	Removed from the data; the outsider perspective
6.	Grounded, discovery-oriented, exploratory, expansionist, descriptive and inductive	Ungrounded, verification-oriented, confirmatory, reductionist, inferential and hypothetico-deductive
7.	Process oriented	Outcome oriented
8.	Valid; real, rich and ‘deep’ data	Reliable; hard and replicable data
9.	Ungeneralizable; single case studies	Generalizable; multiple case studies
10.	Holistic	Particularistic
11.	Assumes a dynamic reality	Assumes a stable reality

(Based on Larsen-Freeman and Long, 1991:12)

Further, Reichardt and Cook point out that “these paradigms are inflexible and a researcher has to make a choice between

the two only” (Reichardt and Cook 1979, cited in Larsen-Freeman and Long 1991: 12). However, Larsen-Freeman and Long

criticize this assumption and say that the attributes of paradigm are not logically linked to one methodology and they explain this with the distinction between longitudinal and cross sectional studies.

Longitudinal and Cross-sectional Studies

Longitudinal approach, i.e. a Case study design, is a study in which the same child is studied through various age levels over an extended period of time. Length of the study in L2 acquisition research has ranged from 4 to 18 months, although Brown's (1973) L1 study spanned four years. Frequency of data collection has also varied from once a week to once a month. No specific minimum guidelines have been set for sample size, frequency of data collection, length of the language elicitation sessions or length of the study. However longitudinal studies involve a small number of subjects studied over an extended period of time, requiring a long term commitment on the part of the researcher and the subject. Since the data collected in a longitudinal study represent the speech of the learner actually developing over some period of time, the order obtained should reflect the true acquisition order of the subjects, if data collection and analysis are conducted properly.

In a cross-sectional study data is collected from a relatively large sample of learners at one point in time. Such a design simulates actual development over time by including many learners who are at different stages of development. If the sample is adequate and appropriate analytical requirements are used then the language data collected may

be analyzed to the characteristics of language systems developing over a period of time. Sample size ranges from 24 to over 1,200. An instrument of some kind is developed for data collection. Data collection activity may take from say a day to a week or even a month, depending on the number of subjects and the availability of subjects to conduct interviews. Various researchers have argued for or against both longitudinal and cross-sectional approaches, and it is fair to say both have their inner strength and weakness.

Most early studies were descriptive, relying heavily on qualitative analysis, while most cross-sectional studies relied on the use of quantitative analysis. This is in the line with the claim of Reichardt and Cook (1979) that researchers must use the only one of the methods of inquiring and that being the one associated with a paradigm to which they subscribed. But many recent researchers are fulfilling the shortcomings by devising more workable methods. Further, despite the apparent differences between these two approaches, the methodological distinction is not categorical, therefore for the purpose of acquisition pattern research; some methods exemplified in one research can be used in the other. For example, it is possible to incorporate instruments such as artificial tasks in a longitudinal approach. In her acquisition of English Vocabulary by Japanese-speaking child study Yoshida (1978) used artificial task along with a longitudinal approach. Besides longitudinal observation of the subject for seven months she used PPVT (Peabody Picture Vocabulary

Test) for testing the comprehension and production of vocabulary in that child. Also unlike early descriptive case studies, in recent studies most researchers have quantified their data using longitudinal approaches. In their nine month longitudinal study of acquisition of negation in English by a Chinese immigrant, Shuhua et al. (2008) used frequency analysis to show

the developmental sequences of English negatives.

From the above examples it is clear that these paradigms are not universal paradigms which cannot be violated. So instead of discussing various methodologies individually they will be discussed along a continuum with two paradigms at either pole.

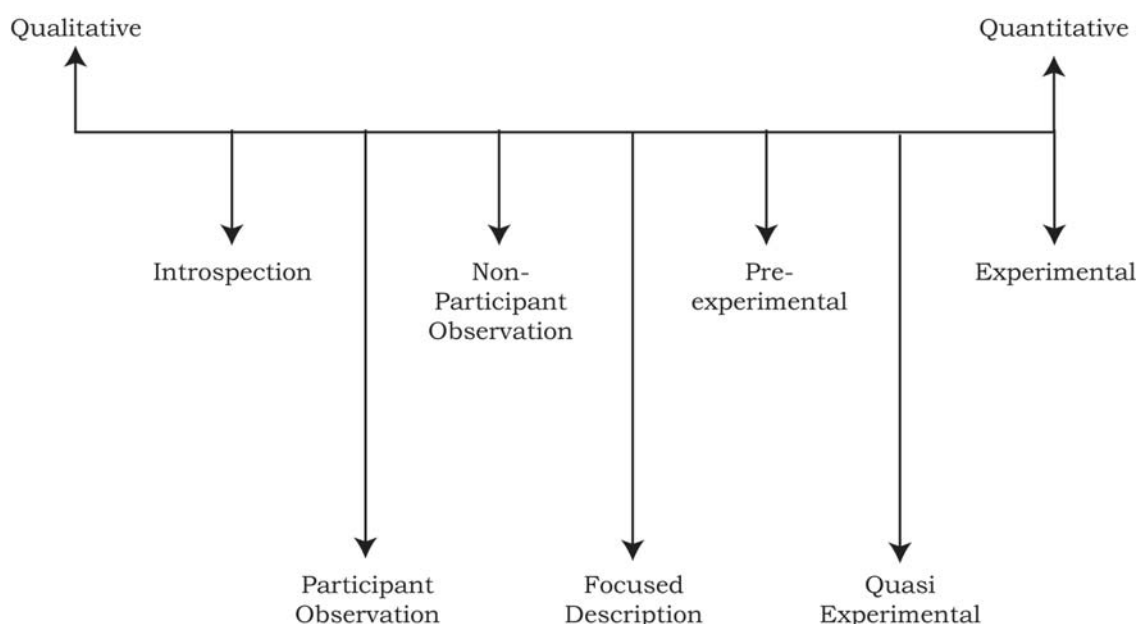


Figure 2.1: Qualitative-Quantitative Continuum of Research Methodologies (Based on Larsen-Freeman and Long, 1991:15)

Research Designs

1. Introspection

Perhaps the ultimate qualitative study is an introspective one in which, with guidance from the researcher, learners examine their own behaviours from insights into SLA. Seliger and Shohamy (1989) define it as the kind of research which requires “subjects

to observe the working of their minds when involved in a particular task and report on them as occur” (p.170). However, Larsen-Freeman and Long (1991) discuss the pros and cons of this kind of research with examples taken from SLA research. Some suggest that their use should be limited to affective variables (e.g., attitude, motivation), whereas others argue that observations by

the researcher cannot provide access to a learner's conscious thought processes.

2. Participant Observation

Observations have always been considered a major data collection tool in qualitative research. In second language acquisition research, observations are most often used to collect data on how learners use language in a variety of settings to study language learning and teaching processes in the classroom and to study teachers' and researchers' behavior. The main use of observation is for examining a phenomenon or behaviour while it is going on. In participant observation, the researchers take part in the activities they are studying. "They do not approach the study with any specific hypotheses in mind; rather they take copious notes on whatever they observe and experience" (Larsen-Freeman and Long, 1991:16). Usually the notes are recorded immediately after the activities so as to allow the researcher full participation in them. The period of observation is long and the number of subjects small. A good example of this kind of study in SLA context is the study by Bailey (1983) of her experience of learning French as a second language (ibid).

3. Non-participant Observation

The other kind of observation found in qualitative research is non-participant observation in which the researcher is not part of the group which he is studying. The researcher observes activities without engaging in them directly and data is usually collected by taking notes and

making tape recordings during the observation itself. In SLA field, this type of non-participant observation is usually known as a longitudinal study. Leopald's (1939-49) study of his daughter's simultaneous acquisition of English and German is an example of this kind of study. This is a four-volume work, which provides the most complete record of a child's acquisition of two languages simultaneously (Leopald 1939-49, cited in Hatch 1978: 23-32).

4. Focused Description or Descriptive Research

Further along the continuum we find focused, descriptive research. This type of research shares characteristics with both qualitative and experimental research design. It is similar to qualitative studies in that it is also descriptive in nature and deals with naturally occurring phenomena. It differs from qualitative research in that it is often deductive rather than inductive and begins with a pre-conceived hypothesis and a narrower scope of investigation. Researchers who use a focused descriptive methodology do so because they wish to narrow the scope of their study to a particular set of variables, a particular system of language (e.g., morphology, syntax), or to explore a particular issue (e.g., the influence of age on SLA or the effect of socio-economic condition on SLA).

An example of a focused descriptive study which aims to order data is Dulay and Burt's (1978) and Bailey, Madden and Krashen's (1978) study of morpheme acquisition by

children and adults respectively. Both studies used a cross-sectional approach and an instrument Bilingual Syntax Measure (BSM) for data collection. Dulay and Burt found that some 250 Spanish and Chinese-speaking children aged six to eight learning English in an SLA situation showed similar order in the acquisition of eleven morphemes.

Focused descriptive studies are usually less time-consuming than observational studies and they can use a fairly good number of subjects in any one study. Since this type of study uses more subjects, the researchers can feel confident about the generalizability of their findings. But even then, this kind of study has some limitations, for example, since it is focused, it cannot capture the complexity of the SLA process.

5. Pre-Experimental Design

Next, as we further move along the continuum we encounter designs that approximate, to an increasing degree, true experiments. In a true experimental design, the researcher's goal is to establish a cause and effect relationship between two phenomena. The researcher aims to establish that one variable, the independent variable, causes changes in a dependent variable. This can be shown as:

Independent variable → affects a dependent variable (Johnson 1992:165)

For conducting true experimental research, two criteria should be fulfilled: (1) two groups should be there, a control group and an experimental group; and (2) the subjects

must be randomly assigned to these groups. A research design which does not fulfill these two criteria is called pre-experimental. In a pre-experimental design there is only one group. Thus, subjects in one group serve both as control group and as experimental group. The comparison here is between its performance without treatment and its performance with treatment; that is why it is also known as one group pretest + post-test design.

Another type of design which uses one group is called time-sampling design, which is a time-series design, because a number of samples or observations are taken over a period of time. They are different from non-experimental longitudinal research because they have a controlled treatment inserted after a number of observations or measurements. They also use just one group for experimentation and the subjects of the groups are not random. One of the advantages of this type of research design is that a number of observations of the subject population before and after treatment allow us to ascribe any changes in the subjects' performance to the treatment with greater assurance. That is why it is sometimes known as a Quasi-experimental design.

6. Quasi-Experimental Design

Quasi-experimental research is conducted under conditions in which it is difficult to control many of the variables and in which subjects cannot be assigned to special groups for the purpose of the research. Quasi-experimental design is closer to true

experimental research in the sense that it uses one or more control groups and an experimental group but does not require random assignments of subjects to groups. Time-series or sampling designs are different from quasi-experimental design as they take one group for the study. Nevertheless, as Larsen-Freeman and Long (1991) suggest, time-series designs are quasi-experiments since they improve upon the one-group pretest-post-test design that is classified as pre-experimental.

7. Experimental Design

Experimental research is usually conducted to find out the cause and effect relationship between two variables. Experiments have two criteria: (1) there are at least two groups included in the study, a control group and an experimental group; and (2) the subjects are randomly assigned to one of those groups. The purpose of having two groups is that if one group is treated in one manner and another in a different manner and their post-treatment behaviour differs, we can conclude that this difference is because of the different treatment. This is possible only when we have two equivalent, comparable groups to start with. For this reason the subjects are randomly assigned to one of those groups. This random group assignment allows the researcher to assume that they have two comparable groups for the experiment. SLA researchers have investigated a wide variety of issues in classroom L2 learning through experimentation.

As we have travelled the continuum between

the qualitative and quantitative poles it is clear that there is no clear distinction between one methodology and other. There is no reason why the combination of these two parameters cannot result in hybrid methodologies. For example, focused descriptive studies can use focused introspection to probe some features of language acquisition. Also, there are pieces of qualitative research in which quantification of data takes place after data of general nature has been collected and perhaps categorized. A classic example of a combination of approaches is found in Brown (1973), in which many procedures typically found in qualitative research such as observation, tape recordings and manual transcription were used. So mixing of methodology is possible in field of SLA.

Another type of methodology which is basically conducted as a large-scale undertaking is **Multisite, Multimethod, large scale** research. In Johnson's definition, "Multisite, Multimethod, Large-scale research refers to large scale studies in which a team of collaborating researchers collect data from a number of sites and employs a variety of both qualitative and quantitative data collection and analysis strategies" (Johnson, 1992:221).

Conclusion

Once the researcher decides on a particular design, the next step is to decide how to collect data. For this he selects the appropriate data collection procedure, which is followed by analysis, results and interpretation. Another important element

in reporting any type of research is the information about the reliability and validity of the procedures used to collect data so that another researcher attempting to replicate the research is able to do so.

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De-coding English 'Language' Teaching In India

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ABSTRACT

English Language Teaching (ELT) in India is more than two centuries old and still, our students falter with the language. The aim of the present article is to unravel this enigma and in doing so it adopts a deductive approach and critiques our language policy in education with an aim to locate the crux of the problem. The article throws light on how our language policy in education is evidently monolingual under the façade of trilingualism. It goes on to establish that the position of English in the curriculum is that of a 'subject' and not a 'language' and questions the standards the policy aims to achieve. Providing an instance of the convergent pedagogy model from an analogous postcolonial society, it offers a solution to the problem at hand with a view to ending the plight of the learners.

Keywords: *ELT; Language Policy; Convergent Pedagogy.*

Introduction

English Language Teaching (ELT) in India began as early as 1780s and English was conceived, as Sinha (1978, p. 80) puts it, the “sine qua non for the scholars, the job seekers and the affluent in the society.” And nothing much has changed in all these 235 years; English still remains the *sine qua non* for higher studies, jobs and its use is restricted to the educated and privileged few; but now everyone wants to ‘learn’ the language because it is, as Annamalai (1992, p. 39) puts it, a “profitable commodity”. However, among the vast majority of the people only “. . . 30% are able to, to varying degrees, speak English” (Aula, 2014). This figure is

pretty ironic, given the fact English has been taught for more than 200 years now and also because it is taught from the primary level in government public schools in India. The article focuses on government public schools because, among the total 23 crore students enrolled in various schools in India (Dhawan, 2013), only a privileged 2 crore study in English medium schools (Mukherjee, 2012) and also because the language policy in education is mostly applicable only to government schools.

The aim of this article is to unravel this irony and in doing so it goes on to show how the term ‘language’ in English ‘Language’ Teaching is misleading in the

Indian context. A language is primarily a mode of communication and the requisite of mastering a language is to possess all the four skills, namely Listening, Speaking, Reading and Writing (Fromkin and Rodman, 1988). Thus, acquisition of English would also mean the acquisition of all the four skills. Sadly, that does not happen with our students as English is not taught as a 'language' to the pupils but rather as a 'subject', and this tragic outcome is a result of our language policy in education. This article, therefore, critiques our language policy in education in order to locate the problem and find the solution.

Literature Review

There has been a lot of research in the domain of English Language Teaching (ELT) on the problems. The fault has generally been found to be with teachers, teaching programmes, teaching materials (Prashar 2011, p.164), classroom practices, teaching methodologies (Kapoor 1992, p.80), and so on. However, very few pieces of work in the literature mention, to some extent, without dwelling much deeper, about the treatment of English as a subject.

Rajan (1995), though talks about "subjecting English", she does not focus on school children and is more interested in the 'literature' and 'language' bifurcation English is subjected to in India. She suggests English classes to be replaced with just reading classes in universities as she believes this will lead

to both insightful "critical thinking" and "language skills". The gap in her research is that she assumes the students have achieved a certain higher "level". This is entirely hypothetical because there is no consistent level and also because the general 'level' of English of an average classroom in an average college is poor (Benzigar, 2013). Shah (1992) talks about the treatment of English as a "content Subject" in schools. However, he just states the problem, makes no reference to the language policy in education, and provides no solutions.

India's Language Policy in Education

"India's language policy, known as the "three language formula", has the effect of covering 90% of the Indian population. Surprisingly, the Indian model of language planning has proven successful and points to a possible solution for multilingual countries..." (Gadeli, 1999, p.18). The quote gives an impressive, or rather a utopian, picture of the Indian Educational Policy. A country which houses more or less 122 languages (Census, 2001) belonging to five different language families, i.e. Indo-Aryan, Dravidian, Austro-Asiatic, Tibeto-Burman and Semito-Hamitic, and their innumerable dialectal varieties might be of immense interest from a linguist's point of view, but from a language policy maker's point of view, it is nothing less than what Gadeli states as "a nightmare" (1999, p.18). However, the three-language formula introduced more than half a century ago in 1968 sounds impressive and inclusive at the same time. The

formula suggested by the committee is mentioned below:

- **1st language:** Mother tongue or regional language.
- **2nd language:** The official language of the Union or the associate official language of the Union so long as it exists.
- **3rd language:** A modern Indian or foreign language not covered under (1) and (2) and other than that used as the medium of instruction (MOE, 1966, p.192, as cited in Meganathan, 2010, p.5).

Many researches in language acquisition have proved that the mother tongue serves best the purpose of medium of instruction for child learners; the evidence for this can be found in an UNESCO document (Bushman & Trudell, 2008, p.5), "The research evidence today clearly shows that using the learners' mother tongue is crucial to effective learning" and all efforts are made to apply this theory in the field of language teaching. The policy makers emphasize the use of mother tongue as medium of instruction. There are instances that even when the medium of instruction is theoretically a standard language, Hindi or Bangla for instance, in practice some dialect of the language is used as medium of instruction. So, technically as well as practically, the language policy is achieving what it desires; there is no problem here. The problem, however, lies

in the changing socio-cultural dimension and the forces of globalization: "the prevalence of globalization and democratic ideals demonstrates that students must be proficient in international and regional languages to gain access to wider society and to participate meaningfully in their world" (Bushman & Trudell, 2008, p.6).

The language policy in education, which is now more than half a century old, is good only in theory. The chief propagators of this three-language formula like Pattanayak et al (1971) were of the opinion that once implemented in schools, the formula will also enable universities to replace English with regional languages, more specifically Sanskrit and Hindi. However, the elite political class back then admitted the importance of English, as Gandhi (1921) said (as quoted in Zamam, 1984, p.8), "For a few of us therefore the knowledge of English is necessary", English thus was a language of the elite and they desired to keep it so. However, a drastic change in the socio-economic level, the liberalization of Indian economy in 1991, has brought forth many multinational companies which have been providing the youth, especially the English speaking ones, with employment. Thus, there is growing demand for English education and English is no longer a foreign language; it has been Indianized into a recognized standard variety called Indian English. Though the education policy provides for English education, there are gaps prevalent in it which must be bridged.

The Pedagogical Status of English in India

The fifty-year-old policy is not appropriately equipped to meet the interests and needs of the common people. The common people want to learn English as the language of empowerment, but the policy pays hardly any heed to this demand, at least on a practical level. Though theoretically pupils are taught three languages, the second and third languages are hardly of any use. Mastery in a language is possible only when more and more inputs are available in the target language. This is one of the main reasons why pupils from English medium background perform significantly better in English than their regional medium counterparts. English remains a 'subject' for the regional medium pupils and never acquires the status of a language which can be used for communication. So, what is the ultimate use of this celebrated language policy if it fails to impart the desired objective of achieving language proficiency?

The language policy in education has reduced the stature of English to just another subject in the curriculum like history or physics. Even in an English language classroom the instructions are not given in English. The teaching of English begins with the alphabet, which goes against the logical sequence of language acquisition that has been proved through research, as Rivers (1968:51) pointed out: Listening à Speaking à Reading à Writing. English is treated just like arithmetic and the A, B, C, Ds are equated

with 1, 2, 3, 4s and just as mathematical formulas are learnt by heart, and so are English sentences. Thus, on the surface the language policy looks like a trilingual one but a reality check reveals that it is not even bilingual in nature as "more than 90% of schools at the primary and upper primary stages teach through the children's mother tongue" (NCERT 2007, as cited in Meganathan 2010, p.20). So, clearly the education policy is a monolingual one behind the façade of a trilingual education policy.

The Convergent Pedagogy Model

A clear case of bilingualism in education can be found in Peru, where the model of *Pédagogie convergente* (convergent pedagogy) is used. Much like in India, pupils start learning to read and write in their first language before learning their second language, and by the time they reach 5th or 6th grade the time allocated for learning languages is divided equally between 1st and 2nd languages. However, by the end of primary schooling both the languages are used as medium of instruction. This stage is hardly ever achieved in the Indian government schooling system. The 2nd language retains the position of a 'subject' and as a result the school do not qualify to be bilingual schools, "Bilingual education is most likely to succeed if it consists of more than a change in the language of instruction" (Bushman & Trudell, 2008, p.13). The English medium private schools are more close to the model of bilingual education as they start teaching

English from the primary level itself. Initially, though instructions are given in the regional language, gradually the teachers move towards an all-English instruction mode. This enables the pupils to become proficient bilinguals as the 5 hours/day schooling gives them enough inputs for the acquisition of English and for the rest of the day their interaction with their parents and friends in their mother tongue makes them proficient in their L1, too.

The Predicament of English in India

Several researchers like Mamta (2006) and Suresh (2006) made comparative studies about the standard of written English between students of government schools and those of private English medium schools, revealing a wide gap between the two groups. Mamta (2006, p.217) refers to the deplorable condition of English produced by students of government schools and adds that “some radical changes in the present education system, English language teaching in particular, should be necessary.” Such strong evidence about the sinking standards of English in government regional medium schools raises the obvious question of what the language policy actually strives to achieve, what standard of English it expects its subjects to produce.

A brief look might be taken at the National Achievement Survey (NAS) (NCERT, 2012, p.2) report, as it claims to conduct a “Health Check’to the education system by analyzing achievement based

on a range of background factors (school, home, teachers).” The English language test was conducted in two classes, class 3 and class 8 across the country. In class 3, LSR skills were tested and in class 8 reading and comprehending skills were tested. What is shocking to note is that no tests were conducted for judging the writing skills or communication skills. The inference that can be drawn here is that our language policy does not expect pupils to possess either writing ability or communicative ability even after studying English for 5 years in school. These students fail quite naturally when they go for higher studies, in producing error-free English and the innumerable studies in Error Analysis in the Indian context provide ample evidence for it.

Conclusion

The language policy needs to be amended. Changes in language teaching methodology will do little good as long as English retains the position of a ‘subject’ in the schooling system in India. No improvisations in the field of language teaching can make any significant difference for the betterment of the students’ proficiency in English. Nothing drastic needs to be done to make amends. Introduction of English from the very first year of schooling along with using it as a ‘language’ will do wonders. The present requisite, however, is the treatment of English as a ‘language’ rather than as a ‘subject’. Even trained teachers and professionally developed teaching materials would be

of little help if they were entrapped in the limitations of time, i.e. one period/day slot. If literature can be a “tool” (Kaur, 2011) in language education so can be the social sciences as well as the physical and natural sciences. The formula for language acquisition is very simple: the more the input, the better the output.

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Conceptualizing Curriculum Design and Renewal

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ABSTRACT

In this article, an attempt has been made to connect the values and principles of classical humanism and reconstructionism with the product approach, and the characteristics of progressivism with the process approach to curriculum. A framework for an eclectic approach to curriculum design and renewal has also been attempted by taking the best features from each of the value systems. This article falls into three parts: the first part deals with the Tyler's product approach to curriculum design and its association with Skilbeck's two value systems –classical humanism and reconstructionism, while the second part deals with Stenhouse's process approach to curriculum design and its association with Skilbeck's third value system, viz. progressivism. The last part of the article tries to present an eclectic model for curriculum design and renewal.

Introduction

The conceptual framework for curriculum design set out by Skilbeck (1982) plays a vital role in understanding the progressive tradition of curriculum design. In this framework, he has identified three broad educational value systems such as *classical humanism*, *reconstructionism* and *progressivism*. Over the ages these value systems have contributed much to theories of knowledge, different socio-political ideologies, intrinsic and extrinsic values of education and influenced curriculum development and renewal in academic institutions. These three educational value systems represent a particular group of socio-political and philosophical beliefs in curriculum design.

Classical humanism gives an elitist view, concerned with generalizable intellectual capacities and with transmission of knowledge, culture and standards from one generation to another (Clark, 1987, p. 91). **Reconstructionism** is society-oriented and focuses its attention on bringing about social change through the educational system and on achieving a social consensus on common goals and planning it rigorously to achieve them (*ibid.*). **Progressivism** is concerned with the development of the individual as a whole person, with personal and group responsibility, with promoting natural learning processes through various stages of development, and with fostering a capacity for learning how to learn (*ibid.*).

If we tried to examine the two approaches

to curriculum design, namely the *product approach* (Tyler, 1949) and the *process approach* (Stenhouse; cited in White, 1988) in the light of these three value systems, then we would realize that there is a clear association between the three value systems and the two approaches to curriculum design. An analysis of the two approaches and the three value systems reveals that these approaches are partly suitable for the present educational context. As a result, there is a strong need for an eclectic curriculum model, which in turn would help in learners' development.

Part I

The first two value systems and the product approach seem to follow a similar pathway in curriculum design. First, these have a predetermined set of objectives for curriculum. For instance, in both classical humanism and reconstructionism, in order to change learner behaviour there is a predetermined syllabus with specific objectives. In the same way, Tyler's product approach believes in having a predetermined set of objectives for a curriculum. Second, their syllabus content has a linear, cumulative approach to learning. For instance, the structures taught in classical humanism are sequenced from simple to complex and similarly the situations to be selected in reconstructionism range from the more useful to the less useful, and the most generalizable to the most difficult one. Activities and tasks designed in the product approach move from controlled practice through guided work to free communication.

Third, the teacher's role in the two value systems matches largely with the teacher's role in the product approach. For example, the teacher's role in these three frameworks is that of a knowledge-giver as the main resource. Furthermore, the teacher is not involved in curriculum development and is asked to teach whatever is prescribed by the authorities. Fourth, we can find that these three frameworks to curriculum design expect mastery of objectives from the students. For example, classical humanism looks for mastery of structures, reconstructionism of situational language use and the product approach of grammatical items. Fifth, curriculum renewal in these frameworks follows the same approach in redesigning the curriculum (i.e., top-down model). For example, in classical humanism, the examination board set by the university carries out the curriculum renewal; in reconstructionism, expert committees set by the government carry out the curriculum renewal: and the same thing happens in the product approach as well. Sixth, all these three frameworks to curriculum design follow skill-oriented teaching/learning activities. For example, classical humanism focuses on developing skills such as memorization, analysis and classification through the content. Reconstructionism focuses on social interactional skills through situations, and the product approach focuses on memorization, analysis, classification, etc. Therefore, we can say that the two value systems (classical humanism and reconstructionism) are linked with the product approach.

Part II

Progressivism and the process approach follow the same path in designing curriculum. First, the curriculum in progressivism and the process approach is process-driven, contextualized and open-ended, where the content is based on principles and derived from research into language learning development. Second, the syllabus content in these two approaches is recommended and not prescribed. Thus, curriculum in these approaches is flexible and provides rough specifications of contexts intended to promote learning. So both the approaches do not impose syllabus on teachers; instead, they recommend rough specifications for the classroom. Third, both the approaches to curriculum design believe in the principle that learning happens through the process of understanding and awareness through experiential learning. Fourth, the methodology followed in these two approaches is learner-centered where conditions for spontaneous learning are provided. Fifth, the teacher's role in these two approaches is to mediate the learning process, where the teacher works with the learners to help them in the learning process. Similarly, he also acts as a responder to learner needs and encourages learners to take responsibility for their own learning. Sixth, insiders such as teachers carry out curriculum renewal in both the approaches. In the process of curriculum renewal, teachers come together with their experiential knowledge and decide on what to teach, how to teach, and so on.

Part III

An Approach to Eclectic Curriculum Design and Renewal

Features of classical humanism to include in an eclectic model:

The methodology employed by classical humanism which focuses on conscious awareness of rules and patterns, and their subsequent application from controlled to more open contexts would be a useful feature for an eclectic model. If the learners develop conscious awareness of rules and patterns through their curriculum, it would help them consolidate their language use. In addition, their confidence level would increase. This feature should be included at the beginning level curriculum because at that level students need to be familiarized with the rules for learning to happen. Second, summative exam would be another feature of classical humanism to be included in the eclectic model because the summative exams grade learners based on their achievement in a particular course. It would satisfy societal as well as academic need for some principled basis to select learners for a particular vocation or for higher education. Third, the content to be taught and learnt is sequenced from simple to complex. This sequencing would help students in their learning by gradually consolidating their knowledge and they will not face many difficulties in coping with the content during the leaning process.

Features of reconstructionism to include in an eclectic model:

First, the methodology associated with reconstructionism places great emphasis on deliberate practice of skills and this feature should be included in an eclectic model because the deliberate practice of learnt knowledge would help learners in internalizing it. For example, the conscious use of certain words in certain situations would help learners to internalize those words. Hence, the more situations the learners encounter, the more they internalize. Then the egalitarian view of curriculum is very important for society, where every individual will get equal opportunities in learning and no learner will be considered superior or inferior in education. That is why pupils should learn in mixed ability groups.

Features of Progressivism to include in an eclectic model:

One of the important features of progressivism that we should include in an eclectic model is its design, which is research-oriented, open-ended and experimental in nature. Teachers and learners will then have freedom for teaching and learning. Another feature of progressivism to be included in an eclectic model is flexibility in syllabus content. That

is, the curriculum in an eclectic model should be flexible and should provide only rough specifications of contexts intended to promote learning and not a fixed content. Teachers would be able to help learners towards achieving their goals. Yet another feature of progressivism to be included is its learner-centered approach to curriculum that attempts to promote every pupil's development as an individual with intellectual and emotional needs, and as a social being, where the teacher is seen as a creator of an environment. This feature leads learners towards self-actualization and helps them in knowing how to learn things in their own way. One more feature of progressivism to be included is the developing, open, speculative view of knowledge in learners. Learners will be able to question reality. They will always look for evidences for every possible situation. Then there should be concern for learners becoming responsible for their own learning, just as teachers have to become responsible for their own classroom practices. This feature will encourage the teacher to observe, study and reflect upon their classroom practices to diagnose problems and address them. In progressivism curriculum renewal process is bottom-up; that is, teachers carry out curriculum renewal.

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Table 1: An outline of the Eclectic Curriculum Design and Renewal

Features of Classical Humanism	Features of Reconstructionism	Features of Progressivism
<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Design tasks or activities, which would create conscious awareness of rules and patterns in the learners' mind. Organize these tasks or activities from controlled to more open contexts. 2. See that the content to be taught and learnt is sequenced from simple to complex. 3. To determine learners' progress, conduct summative exams. 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Design or renew curriculum by emphasizing the deliberate practice of skills. 2. Design or renew curriculum with the egalitarian view. 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. The process of curriculum design or renewal should be based on current trends in ELT research (open-ended and experimental in nature). 2. The approach to curriculum should be learner-centered and there should be scope for learner autonomy. 3. Try to build flexibility in the syllabus content and follow a bottom-up approach in curriculum design and renewal.

Conclusion

To sum up, we can say that no curriculum is perfect. We should look for an eclectic model of curriculum and renewal, which will not only help learners in their learning process but will also consider their needs while designing a new curriculum.

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Promoting Students' Interest in Learning English through Co-Curricular Activities

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ABSTRACT

The present paper is an analysis of students' interest in learning English through co-curricular activities. It reports a small-scale research conducted in the author's college to promote students' interest to learn English with the help of some co-curricular activities, viz. student seminars, wall-poster presentations, weekly lectures on screen/projector and reading club. I and II year students (U. G. level) from three faculties were selected (Arts, Commerce and Sciences). In this experiment, two student seminars and two wall-poster presentations on different themes were organized. One lecture on screen/projector in a week was given for a month and a reading club was established to foster learning English. After completion of all these activities, feedback was collected from the students.

Introduction

The significance of English language and communication skills is accepted by almost everybody not only in the educational field but also in other fields of human activity. The English language and the importance of learning it have spread all over India, as it has produced immense job opportunities around the world. There is a progressive learning environment among students in urban areas. Urban students are grabbing jobs based on their communication skills in English, which is a good sign. But there is great difference between this situation and the one in rural areas. Most of the Indian villages do not have a good English-learning environment. They do not have adequate facilities required for learning English in villages. We have state government schools with scarcity of learning materials, basic

facilities and sufficient number of eligible teachers. This is true of rural Maharashtra.

As a result of this situation, the author tried to foster rural students' interest in learning English through some co-curricular activities conducted in an undergraduate college. The co-curricular activities included: Reading Club; A Weekly Lecture on Screen/Projector; Wall-poster Presentation; Students' Seminar; and Group Discussion. These activities were carried out in the academic year 2013-14; at the end of each activity feedback was collected from the students and analyzed.

Reading Club: In learning English, the basic skills of language are crucial – listening, speaking, reading and writing. For most of us in India, English is a second language; it is not our mother tongue. Most of our

students learn English through their mother tongue A Reading Club was established at the beginning of the academic year. The prime aim of this club was to develop the basic skills of English and all the four skills were covered through the various activities of the club. Students were asked to read aloud unknown texts/passages/study materials. Each student was given 5-7 minutes to read the text aloud while the rest of them carefully listened to it. Then reading and listening comprehension were tested by asking some questions on the text read aloud. The reader had to form sample questions to check the listening comprehension of other students. Students were then asked to write down their own comments on the performance of the reader and share their comments. The four basic skills were integrated in this activity. There was a very positive response (orally) to this activity from the students. There was also a positive change and improved confidence among the students. Many students participated in this activity.

A Weekly Lecture on the Screen/ Projector: Information and communication technology (ICT) has brought about changes in English language learning and teaching. Students need to know about various updates and new techniques of learning a language. The area of language research has expanded and students should be familiar with innovative teaching-learning methodologies. For this reason, a weekly lecture though on syllabus topics was introduced to the students. In this activity, a lecture was delivered using a screen/

projector every week for a period of two months. The students enjoyed the PowerPoint presentations prepared on their syllabus. They preferred ppt slides to direct lectures, which often become flat/boring for students as well as the teacher. Here students had scope to point to portions of the syllabus difficult to understand. There was no diversion of attention in the classroom while teaching; all the students focused their attention on the slides. The understanding capacity of the students increased to a great extent compared to the lecture-talk method of teaching. Students were given important points to discuss at the end of the presentation in a group discussion activity. All the students insisted on conducting all the lectures on the screen/projector. Very good oral feedback was obtained from the students.

Wall-poster Presentations: To increase students' interest in learning, they need to be involved in curricular and co-curricular activities. Such activities help them to learn a lot and achieve their goal. Students' participation in these activities is considered fruitful. Poster presentation is a medium to explore ideas and understanding. For poster presentation, students were given specific themes related to their syllabus and events happening around them. To motivate students, a competition was organized and prizes and certificates were given for some of the best wall-poster presentations so that participation of students could increase. There was very good response from students as they prepared many decorative, good content-based literary posters for exhibition.

There was an opportunity to observe the creative talent of students. Many students expressed their desire to have wall-poster presentations every month.

Students' Seminar: Building confidence is very essential for students to speak in English. It is the prime duty of a good teacher to develop enough confidence among students and prepare them for the challenge of speaking in English on the stage. The level of confidence determines the level of success of learning and students express themselves in front of other students. Considering this need, students were provided a platform in the classroom to speak from and interact with other students. They were asked to choose a favourite topic and prepare for the seminar. Seminars were organized every Saturday, so that many students could take part in the activity. Each student was allowed 5-7 minutes to give the talk. Many students spoke for the first time on the stage. Some students just read out the speech but many tried their best to express their ideas. This proved a very useful activity for both the teacher and the students as it gave feedback on the knowledge imparted by the teacher. Though it was an essential activity, it received a mixed response from the students.

Group Discussion: Students were asked to speak continuously on a topic given to

them. A group was formed of 5-6 students discussing a particular/ general topic. As it is very important to build thinking abilities of the students, the group discussion activity provided the right platform to share their ideas with others. The students discussed a range of themes and ideas in groups. The teacher had to supervise and facilitate the group discussion. The students wrote down important points and short notes while discussing a topic. These points and short notes assisted them in developing further arguments. In a span of 50 minutes, students could reach their best abilities of discussion and intellectual argument. The wide range of topics given for discussion covered local to global level. After completing the activity, the students were asked to write as homework essays on the topics they discussed. This activity also got a very positive response and feedback.

The scheme and plan of these activities had been provided to the students at the beginning of the academic year. After completing the last round of each activity, feedback was collected from all the students. A total sample of 71 students from three faculties (B. A.-21, B. Com.-20 and B. Sc.-20) had been selected for the experiment and feedback was collected. The following table shows the responses of students to five parameters on which the activities were judged:

Table 1: Student Feedback on the Co-curricular Programme

Sr. No.	Parameters	Excellent	Good	Satisfactory	Unsatisfactory
1	Content of the programme	48	21	2	Nil
2	Informative and thematic relevance	33	28	10	Nil
3	Students' participation	31	32	07	01
4	Administrative facilities	18	34	11	08
5	Overall satisfaction with the programme	35	28	08	Nil

From **Table 1** it is clear that only one student expressed dissatisfaction with students' participation and eight with the administrative facilities provided. There was no dissatisfaction from any student with the other three parameters, including overall satisfaction.

The students' responses to the questions on the feedback form about the various activities are summarized in the **Table 2**:

Table 2: Student Responses to Items on the Feedback Form

Sr. No.	Checklist of Questions	Yes	No know	Don't
1	Do you like these activities?	66	Nil	05
2	Do you think these activities will help you in learning English?	68	03	Nil
3	Should these activities be continued in future?	65	Nil	06
4	Would you like to participate in these activities again?	62	09	Nil
5	Which activity you like the most?			
	a. Reading Club		18	
	b. A Weekly Lecture on Screen/ Projector		24	
	c. Wall-poster Presentation		14	
	d. Students' Seminar		09	
	e. Group Discussion		06	
6	Which activity do you think is not necessary/helpful compared to other activities?			
	a. Reading Club		Nil	
	b. A Weekly Lecture on Screen/ Projector		Nil	
	c. Wall-poster Presentation		Nil	
	d. Students' Seminar		12	
	e. Group Discussion		59	
7	Did these activities improve your learning?	56	Nil	16
8	Is your syllabus covered through such programmes?	60	11	Nil
9	Do such programmes help you in semester/annual exams in earning good grades/scores?	62	Nil	09
10	Do these programmes create an environment of learning English and promote the use of English?	64	Nil	07

We get a clear picture of these programmes from the students' responses to the questions. Almost all students liked these activities and preferred to be continued in the future. According to them, these activities are very important and useful to learn English; they also play an important role in teaching-learning.

Parataxis, Hypotaxis, Conjunctions and the Writing Style



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ABSTRACT

Syntax is defined as the way words combine with one another to form phrases, clauses and sentences. It is observed that every text type having a particular genre and style of its own depicts a distinguished arrangement of clauses. Language is a social semiotic system that acts as a resource to making meaning which resides in the systemic patterns of choice. If this be so, then every clausal arrangement joined by conjunctions giving rise to paratactic and hypotactic constructions foreground certain thoughts, thereby bringing stylistic variation in the text. Practical examples show that writers do exploit these clausal patterns to achieve their aim. Hence, in this paper an attempt is made to show through the analysis of some practical examples how parataxis and hypotaxis are used in real world and how conjunctions play their cohesive role in it. The paper also explains how necessary its knowledge is for students so that they, along with developing insight into this type of text designing, also develop a unique writing style.

Key words: Clause; Conjunction; Parataxis; Hypotaxis; Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL); Writing style.

Introduction

Every language comprises content words and functional words. Content words are those which have some meaning of their own like *pen, book, chair, wood, furniture* and *bag*. These lexical items of the language carry a semantic value. On the other hand, words performing grammatical functions in a language are called *functional categories* such as auxiliary verbs and prepositions. There is another group of grammatical words which are used mainly for joining one sentence or a part of a sentence to another. They are commonly called *joining words* or

conjunctions. These words play a vital role in conveying the meaning of a phrase or a sentence though they are devoid of meaning content words have. In fact, without these functional words, language is a handicap. Hence, for clear and complete meaning transmission they are indispensable. Strategic manipulation and use of conjunctions is often adopted by writers to develop their unique style, to create an individual rhetoric profile. This paper will discuss how distinguished style can be created and thoughts foregrounded through expert handling of independent and dependent clauses linked by conjunctions.

Rhetoric Profile

Account holders in different social sites create their profiles by uploading their photos and personal information so that others can draw a character sketch of the individual. Similarly, for the purpose of creating language portraits, rhetoric profile enables one to project oneself before his readers or listeners. This rhetoric profile is being created using various sentence patterns and word choices. However, the selection of these to design the profile is greatly situation-dependent. While composing, one is always compelled by the needs for certain stylistic considerations – the need to show emphasis, the need for variation, the need to establish the view point and in some the need to use an elaborate texture and extraordinary style. This stylistic paragraph becomes possible only when special attention is paid to the style composition, which includes the type of sentences and their structural forms, their lengths and their repetition. Joining words has always been considered unfriendly to spontaneity: “Of all the parts of speech,” they have been considered to be “most unfriendly to vivacity” (Campbell, 1963, 395). But it cannot be denied that the thinking process continues in the brain in a train rather than in isolation. To link those thoughts dependent on another, “to express well such methodical and rational thoughts, he must have words to show what connexion, restriction, distinction, opposition, emphasis, etc. he gives to each respective *part* of his discourse. To mistake in any of these, is to puzzle instead of

informing his hearer: and therefore it is, that those words which are not truly by themselves the names of any ideas are of such constant and indispensable use in language, and do much contribute to men’s well expressing themselves” (Locke, 1894, 98-99).

Sentences, Clauses and Conjunctions

A sentence is a group of words that makes a complete sense. These words are either combined into phrases with no verb in it or clauses with a subject and predicate. On the basis of the number of verbs and the dependence of the action, sentences are classified into simple, compound, complex and compound-complex sentences. Simple sentences [also referred to as clause simplex in SFL (Eggins, 2004, 256)] are those with one independent clause, i.e. which has only one subject and predicate, while a compound sentence is one in which two or more sentences or independent clauses are joined by a conjunction. Thus, in a compound sentence each of the clauses possesses a subject and predicate of its own, thereby constituting a part of a larger sentence and are called co-ordinate clauses. A sentence where there is one principal or main clause and a dependent clause is called a complex sentence. When a sentence comprises two or more coordinate clauses and one or more subordinate clauses, it is categorized as a compound-complex sentence. Halliday, the founder of Systemic Functional Linguistics, notes that “The organizing concept of a systemic grammar is that of choice (that is, options in

‘meaning making potential’” (2003, 434) and states that language is a social semiotic system, which semantically performs mainly three meta-functions such as ideational, interpersonal and textual. For him grammar is more like systems rather than sets of rules, on the basis that every grammatical structure involves a choice from a describable set of options. Eggins writes, “Wherever there is choice there is meaning” (2004, 256). Hence to realize why a speaker sometimes chooses a clause simplex over a clause complex or a specific “*type*” of clause complex, we need to examine the functional effect of these on the language in the situation concerned. However, what provides the resources for marking the logico-semantic relationships that obtain between text spans of varying extent, ranging from clauses within clause complexes to long spans of a paragraph or more is but the conjunctions. Thus Halliday and Mattiessen say, “the resource of clause complexes is used to guide the

local development of text.... and the clause complex is the most extensive domain of relational organization, whereas the cohesive system of CONJUNCTION has evolved as a complementary resource for creating and interpreting text” (2004, 538) and provides a list of cohesive conjunctions, also functioning in text enhancement, classifying it into four categories – additive, adversative, casual and temporal as shown below (*manner* and *matter* too contribute to this and hence Halliday, though not here, includes them in the chart below). Additive conjunctions mainly introduce additional or new information, while adversative ones bring out the contrast. A temporal conjunction indicates the time sequencing and causal connectives state about the reason that underlie a certain outcome or event. However, besides fostering cohesiveness, linkers in a text also enable it to elaborate through apposition and clarification, and extend the text through addition and variation.

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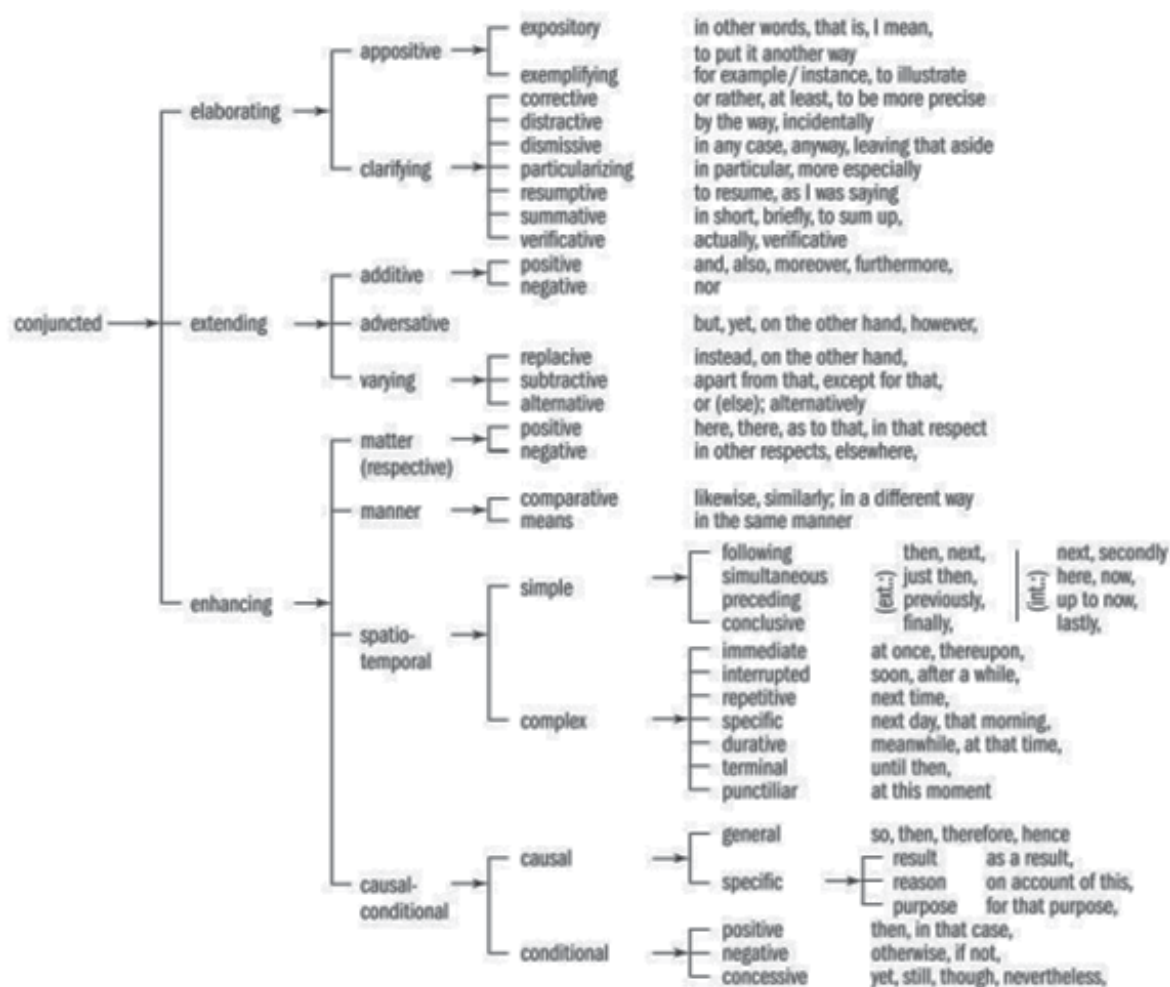


Figure 1: The System of Conjunctions (Halliday and Mattiessen, 2004, p 541)

Halliday (1994, 338) illustrates that conjunctions work in two planes corresponding to the ideational meta-function and interpersonal meta-function, external and internal respectively. Conjunctions working in external (ideational) plane present a relationship between processes (i.e., verbs) as a sequence of events that follow one another in time. For example, *first* [he entered], *next* [she entered], *finally* [the others entered]. And the conjunctions operating in internal (interpersonal) plane

configure a relationship between propositions or proposals like *first* [they say this], *next* [they say that], *finally* [they say the other]. The semantic links at this level are the links between the debate phases not between phenomena of experience. How these conjunctions act as cohesive devices and capture the logical relation including the metaphorical mode of expression in a clause simplex as well as clause complex will be examined in certain selected texts of different genres.

Type of Genre – Conjunction Selection – Clausal Impact

It is needless to say that people use language to express their thoughts and ideas and exchange the same with others through interaction. And they being a part of a society whatever they think or comment get reflected in their language. Thus language is basically a socio-cultural construct which is used by different members of different societies or sub societies like academic disciplines in different ways to meet their various needs. Hence we have so many registers, so many genres and so many different styles realizing those genres through individualistic pattern. Undoubtedly, “structure is an essential part of the description; but it is interpreted as the outward form taken by systemic choices, not as the defining characteristic of language. A language is a resource for making meaning, and meaning resides in systemic patterns of choice.” (Halliday, Mattiessen, 2004, 23). When two clauses are combined whether both would be given equal status or one would be subordinated to the other depends entirely on the language user’s choice and interpretation. Moreover, the user in the process of joining or binding clauses together chooses some meaning relation which to a great deal is influenced by the experiential function. Thus we see that the linking words or conjunctions in patterning the clause structure play a very vital role in foregrounding the thought conveying the underlying message. In fact, the paratactic

constructions showing the same interdependency (equal status) and hypotactic constructions with unequal interdependency of clauses (unequal status) are often found to be employed by the writers and speakers to produce the desired stylistic effect. Today thus it becomes the need of the hour to impart some lessons to the students on stylistic usage of the conjunctions through namely parataxis and hypotaxis and to achieve this aim two texts belonging to different fields have been chosen. The selected fields include marketing (i.e. advertisement) and literature (literary writing) and they with the analysis appear below.

1) Field-Marketing; Text Type- Advertisement; Genre-Narrative; Style- Subjective.

I love my get-togethers - guests always go back with fond memories. I also love dining with my family in the garden – it delights me to see everyone so happy. These moments are special – and they are connected by music.

(Product-Music system, BOSE, March 2014, *India Today Woman, Supplement to India Today*, 17 March, 2014)

Analysis:

The above text belonging to the field of marketing is an advertisement on the renowned music system producing company BOSE. It depicts a narrative style with total six clauses arranged into three sentences as shown in a tabular form-

Sl. No.	Clause	Sentence Number
1	<i>I love my get-togethers</i>	1
2	<i>-guests always go back with fond memories.</i>	(cont.) 1
3	<i>I also love dining with my family in the garden</i>	2
4	<i>- it delights me to see everyone so happy.</i>	(cont.) 2
5	<i>These moments are special</i>	3
6	<i>- and they are connected by music.</i>	(cont.) 3

Table 1:

Here we find that the independent clauses 2, 4 and 6 are continuations of clause 1, 3 and 5 respectively. This tells us that these continuing clauses stand in a paratactic relationship with their preceding clauses thereby resulting into three compound sentences. Another notable thing here in the text is that each coordinate clause has been introduced by a typical punctuation *dash*. Now the two questions that these choices raise are:

1. Why does the advertising agency despite having options for other sentence types resort only to the compound sentence?
2. Why, although according to the general norm a coordinate clause is to be introduced by *and*, does a *dash* occur in that place?

Each of the following clauses in sentence 1 and 2 could have had been introduced by the subordinate conjunctions like *wherein* and *as* respectively and written as-

Sentence 1- *I love my get-togethers **wherein** guests always go back with fond memories.*

Sentence 2- *I also love dining with my family in the garden **as** it delights me to see everyone so happy.*

It is only in sentence 3 i.e. the last one, that *and* joins the coordinate clauses. But there also *dash* occurs in parallel to the other two sentences. However, this recurrence instead of creating monotony adds to the emphasis produced by the additive conjunction *and* thereby linking the new thought with the rest of the clauses.

Actually though written in the form of a narration the poem being an advertisement of a product makes the persuasive appeal through this striking use of the unexpected *dash*. This punctuation as a mark of deviation not only helps the text to draw the attention of the readers but also produces a delayed effect increasing the time duration between the clauses. And this in turn implicitly instills a reflective mood in the text. The simple declarative sentences subtly becomes a part of the readers own life experience and they (readers) get transcended to that place and environment of the advertising personality while sharing his thoughts and feelings. And it is this mental change at which the advertisement aims- to make him feel as the lines narrate and believe in BOSE to be the best and buy it.

2) Field-Literature; Text Type-Poetry (Anti slavery); Genre-Allegory.

*He did not feel the driver's whip,
 Nor the burning heat of the day;
 For Death had illumined the Land of Sleep,
 And his lifeless body lay
 A worn-out fetter, that the soul*

Had broken and thrown away! (<http://www.bartleby.com/356/31.html>)

Analysis:

Here in this excerpt taken from *The slave's dream* by H. W. Longfellow we find the following clausal arrangement-

Sl. No.	Clause	Sentence Number
1	He did not feel the driver's.... day	1
2	For Death had illumined the Land of Sleep	(cont.) 1
3	And his lifeless body lay/A....fetter	(cont.) 1
4	that the soul had broken	(cont.) 1
5	that the soul had thrown away	(cont.) 1

Table 2:

The table shows that in this concluding stanza the clauses are so arranged that they form a compound complex whole with the first independent clause (clause 1), carrying a subordinate clause (clause 2), being coordinated with the second independent clause (i.e. clause 3) which again is joined with two subordinate (relative) clauses (clause 4 and clause 5) internally joined by *and*. However, the reason behind adopting such a complicated construction which involves both parataxis as well as hypotaxis is the subject matter of the poem the *dream* itself through which salvation is realized. Here the metaphor of salvation from the fetters of earthly life has been voiced through an implicit comparison with *Death*, personified and invested with the quality of rendering the slave freedom from all tortures; 'illumined' *Land of Sleep* has been compared with the peaceful, blissful, fearless life after death and "his life-less

body" has been implicitly compared with the "worn-out fetters" discarded by the departed soul. Had any other clause structure been chosen the allegorical note of the poem which is not merely a cry for political freedom but the freedom of soul soaring high and higher would have remained shrouded. That the poem is about a much dignified theme than slave torture and other earthly fetters, that it is a poem with a profound spiritual teaching that ultimately no shackle can keep the soul bound - it is ever free and ever blissful, would have remained unrealized.

Conclusion

Conjunctions, coordinating as well as subordinating, joining one clause with another to form clause complexes, thus provide key to the writer's mind and psychology. They function to provide textual transitions within narration and dialogues as well as they serve to facilitate

meaningful progressions from narration to dialogues and the vice versa. Moreover, as shows the analysis above, according to the aim of the writer clausal arrangement in the text changes, which not only creates stylistic differences in the text but also shows a shift in the theme under focus. So by examining the patterns of the independent and subordinate clauses the reader or the student immediately realizes the main motif of the speaker, understands that he is making one clause dominant over another just to emphasize on the main clause, or that the sentence initiates with the subordinate clause only to foreground that particular Theme. And in this way students gradually learn to identify the internal design of the text and read in between lines developing into a writer who can anticipate the needs of the audience. In fact, the success of a text not only depends on the writer but a great deal also on its readers. A good writing style does not only include the writer's ability to write spontaneous grammatically correct Standard English but also how far he can analyze the need and feel the pulse of his audience-otherwise he would never be able to touch their heart as we see in the first sample text on advertisement. Without organizing meanings effectively into clauses, clause complexes, paragraphs and texts, and without making the beginning and the end of all units of language organizational focal points, this is hard to be achieved. Hence it is very important to know how to order them using the cohesive conjunctions within texts mainly for the students who struggle with basic clause

structure and write texts made of clauses which do not have an effective progression of topical Themes. This besides improving the quality of business English dramatically, if proper attention being given to the thematic progression of information in texts, will also bring out an overall development in the writer's writing style engendering an insight into the subject making him adept in it. Hence Eggins writes,

“Understanding how the natural logic of English works to form clause complexes can thus help us understand the basic process of complexing: how language offers us the creative potential to ‘blow out’ or develop on the meaning in any grammatical unit.”
(2004, 256)

Note: *The ideational meta-function shows the ways in which the clause represents the experiences an author or speaker expresses. The interpersonal meta-function determines how a clause is represented as an exchange between the speaker and the listener i.e. “his (speaker’s) attitudes, and judgments, his encoding of the role relationships in the situation, and his motive in saying anything at all” (Halliday, 1976, 26-27) and hence helps not only to justify a particular grammatical choice made by the speaker but also to determine the mood (declarative, interrogative or imperative) of the clause. Textual meta-function tells how the clause is expressed as a message, how language is used to “provide for making links with itself and with the features of the situation in which it is used” (Halliday, 1970, 143).*

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ELTAI BILASPUR CHAPTER
Report for April 2013 - June 2015

Present Strength: 91 Members

The Bilaspur Chapter, established in 2002 under the able guidance of Dr. G. A. Ghanshyam, Mr. Shivaji Kushwaha, Mrs. Raj Rekha Singh and Mrs. Rima Dutta at its helm, has the distinction of being the first ELTAI chapter in India. As a child learns to walk after many a successful and faltering step, the Chapter also functioned with great enthusiasm initially, and then after a lull of a few years it has been rejuvenated again with the efforts of Dr. G.A. Ghanshyam, Mr. Shivaji Kushwaha, Dr. Sharabani Chakravorty, Dr. Devshree Chakravorty and Mr. Rakesh Dighraskar supported by a strong and dedicated team of members. ***The Bilaspur Chapter was given the Best ELT@I Chapter Award at the 8th International & 44th Annual Conference of ELT@I organised by SRM University, Chennai, by HE the Governor of Tamil Nadu Dr. Rosaiyya, on 18th July 2013 and received by Dr. G.A. Ghanshyam, Convener of the Chapter.***

Activities conducted: Total no. of programmes conducted during the period: **33**

Details of some of the recent programmes are given below:

#	Nature of Presentation	Presenter/Resource Person	Topic	For whom	Date
1.	Presentation (UGC Sponsored National Conference)	Dr. G. A. Ghanshyam	Learn Fluencies to Earn Currencies	Teachers	9-10 Feb 2015
2.	In-house presentation	Abhishek Sharma	Authentic Material	Members	22.02.15
3.	Literary Activity	Ananya Chatterjee (poet from Calcutta)	Poetic Adda (Poet's Recitation)	Members	27.03.15
4.	RELO-Sponsored National Workshop	Mr. Stephen De Guilo (RP from RELO)	English Language Workshop	Teachers	22.05.15 23.05.15
5.	Workshop	Dr. G. A. Ghanshyam Mr. S. Kushwaha Dr. Prerna Hiradhar Dr. Devasree Dr. Chakravarti	Do Touch the Future you Teach Teaching Grammar: From Words to Discourse Interact to Communicate Creative Reading	Teachers	11.06.15
6.	Workshop	Dr. G.A. Ghanshyam	Emotional Intelligence	Teachers	13.06.15
7.	Workshop	Dr. G.A. Ghanshyam Mr. S. Kushwaha Mr. Bhupendra Sharma	Attitude is Altitude Stress Management Presentation Skills	Teachers	14.06.15

Achievements, Awards & Distinctions

- Mr. Shivaji Kushwaha and Dr. Devshree Chakravarty were felicitated and honoured by ELT@I Bilaspur Chapter.
- Mr. Shivaji Kushwaha was awarded an ESOL Fellowship by the British Council.
- Dr. G. A. Ghanshyam received the Best Educationist Award from the International Institute of Education and Management (New Delhi) and the Star of Asia award from the Indian Solidarity Council (New Delhi).
- Dr. G. A. Ghanshyam has authored two books and edited four volumes.

For further details and earlier activities, visit <http://eltaibilaspur.blogspot.in>.

***Dr. G. A. Ghanshyam,
Convener***

The Journal of English Language Teaching (JELT) – ISSN-0973-5208

[A publication of the English Language Teachers' Association of India (ELTAI)]

Submissions

The JELT is an international, **peer-reviewed journal** published by the English Language Teachers' Association of India based at Chennai, Tamil Nadu, India, but with over 55 chapters in different parts of India. **Please see the front inner cover for details of the establishment and objectives of the association.**

The JELT is published **six times a year** – February, April, June, August, October and December. The overall aim of the journal is to promote the professional development of its readers, namely English teachers teaching at all levels, researchers and teacher trainers around the world. The journal, therefore, accepts submissions on all aspects and issues relating to the teaching and learning of English in ESL settings.

Criteria for Evaluating Submissions

Each submission will be evaluated for its suitability for publication in terms of the following criteria.

The article should:

- ★ Reflect current theories and practices in English language teaching.
- ★ Be relevant and appeal to the wide readership of the journal.
- ★ Be well written and organized, with sufficient explanation and examples to enable readers to apply the ideas and insights in their own classes.
- ★ Discuss the topic in the context of other work related to the topic.
- ★ Be written in clear and concise language, making it easy to read.

Guidelines for Submissions

Each issue of the journal addresses a specific theme. Authors should send submissions related to the theme before the deadline indicated for the issue. *See the ELTAI website and the journal for the themes (if any) and deadlines for the subsequent issues.*

Authors should follow these guidelines while preparing their articles for submission:

1. The article should not have been published previously in any form (print or online).
2. The maximum length of the article should be 2000 words (excluding an abstract in 150 words).
3. All pages should be double-spaced with a clear margin of 1 inch on all sides.
4. The title should be brief and focused, not broad or vague.
5. The article should carry only the title, abstract and the main paper.
6. The title, author(s)' name(s) [the last name first], affiliation [i.e., the name of institution(s) the author(s) belong(s) to; city, country] and email address should be provided on a separate cover sheet for the article, along with author(s)' photo(s) [.jpg].
7. Only sources cited in the article should be listed as references at the end of the article.
8. The article should use the author-date format for citations and references (e.g., Anderson 1997; Anderson 1997, p.17). *See the Chicago Manual of Style (15th edn.) for more details and examples.*
9. A list of all the references cited in the text should be given at the end of the article.

In each reference, only the author's last name and initials are to be provided.

The year is placed after the author's name.

Only the first word of the title and the sub-title (after a colon) are capitalized along with proper nouns.

Titles of books and journals should be in *italics*.

Quotation marks are not to be used in the title.

For electronic sources such as websites, the date of accessing the source should be given in brackets after the URL.

10. ***The filename of the article (in MS Word format) sent as an email attachment should contain key words from the title and the author(s)' names.***

SPEAKING ACTIVITY

Quick-fire Questions*

Dr. K. Elango, National Secretary,
ELTAI & (Formerly) Professor of English, Anna University
Email: elangoela@rediffmail.com

- Objective** : To facilitate learners to ask and answer quick-fire questions which demand fast and creative thinking
- Preparation** : Learners should be encouraged to ask and answer questions to themselves on a variety of subjects and events. Such a cognitive activity enables them to become better performers in whatever they do.
- Participation** : In pairs
- Duration** : About 3 minutes

Procedure:

- Teacher explains the concept of quick-fire questions:
- It is generally on a one-on-one basis.
- One who asks questions does so rapidly without giving any time for the other to answer. Similarly, the one who answers also does so rapidly. There is virtually no time gap for either asking or answering questions.
- Questions are usually short, and so are the answers.
- Unless one is quick enough one would find it extremely difficult to ask and answer questions.
- Teacher shows a video to give a sense of how it is conducted.
- Teacher and student, or student and student, take part in the activity. The one who asks questions gets the questions ready in advance. The questions are usually easy and generally focus on a particular area – a celebrity, a sport, and so on.
- Teacher pairs students and allots a fixed time for the one who is to set questions and then the process of rapid-fire questions begins. Next, the roles are reversed.
- About two pairs which have done exceedingly well are asked to redo it for the entire class, which is followed by detailed feedback.
- Either the teacher or an articulate student recalls some of the interesting questions and answers for reinforcement.

Learning outcomes:

1. Learners realize that they need to be fast thinkers for both asking and answering questions. Slackness in either would kill the spirit of the task.
2. Learners understand that unexpected questions or funny answers demonstrate their creativity.

Further activity : Once a while learners can engage their friends with this game, which will ultimately lead them to become good users of the language and fast thinkers.

****Quick-fire questions are those that follow in rapid succession. They are asked in quizzes and interviews which compel one to think faster and to respond quickly.***

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