CHAPTER - 2

CONCEPTUAL FRAME WORK

2.1 Introduction

English belongs to the Indo-European family of languages. Within this family, English is a member of the Germanic branch. The Germanic branch may be divided into three groups or subdivisions: East Germanic, which consisted of Gothic, now an extinct language; North Germanic under which we include the Scandinavian languages; and West Germanic, which consists of High German, Low German, Frisian and English.

Three tribes settled in England. These were the Angles, the Jutes, and the Saxons. The Angles came from Denmark, the Saxons were from Holstein in the south, and the Jutes were from the north. These and the Frisian were worshippers of Ing. Linguistic and religious associations between these tribes resulted in a bundle of related dialects, which we presently call English.

2.2 Importance of English in India

Language, as far as we know, is something specific to humans. That is to say, it is the basic capacity that distinguishes humans from all other living beings. Language therefore remains potentially a communicative medium capable of expressing ideas and concepts as well as moods, feelings and attitudes.

A set of linguists who based their assumptions of language on psychology made claims that language is nothing but ‘habit formation’. According to them, language is learnt through use, through practice. In their view, ‘the more one is exposed to the use of language, the better one learns’.

Written languages use symbols (characters) to build words. The entire set of words is the language’s vocabulary. The ways in which the words can be meaningfully combined is defined by the language’s syntax and grammar. The actual meaning of words and combinations of words is defined by the language’s semantics.

The latest and the most advanced discoveries and inventions in science and technology are being made in the universities located in the United States of America where English language is the means of scientific discourse.

The historical circumstances of India (having been ruled by the British for over two centuries) have given the Indians an easy access to mastering English language, and innumerable opportunities for advancement in the field of science and technology. Many Indians have become so skilled in English language and have won many international awards for creative and comparative literatures during the last few years. Sometime ago, an Indian author, Arundhati Roy, won the prestigious booker prize for her book “The God of Small Things”. Her book sold lakhs of copies all over the globe.

Over the years, English language has become one of our principal assets in getting a global leadership for books written by Indian authors and for films made by Indians in English language. A famous Indian moviemaker Shekhar Kapoor’s film “Elizabeth” has got several nominations for Oscar Awards. It does not require any further argument to establish the advantage English language has brought to us at the international level.

English language comes to our aid in our commercial transactions throughout the globe. English is the language of the latest business management in the world and Indian proficiency in English has brought laurels to many Indian business managers. English is a means not only for international commerce; it has become increasingly essential for inter-state commerce and communication.

In India, people going from North to South for education or business mostly communicate in English, which has become a link language. Keeping this in mind, the Parliament has also recognized English as an official language in addition to Hindi. All the facts of history and developments in present day India underline the continued importance of learning English in addition to vernaculars.

Some of the states of India are witnessing popular increase in public demand for teaching of English language from the primary classes. Realizing the importance, recently, the Minister of Indian Railways, Laloo Prasad Yadav, demands teaching of

English language in schools. The great demand for admission in English medium schools throughout the country is a testimony to the attraction of English to the people of India. Many of the leaders, who denounce English, send their own children to English medium schools. Many of the schools in the country have English as the sole or additional medium of instruction.

A language attracts people because of the wealth of literature and knowledge enshrined in it. English poses no danger to Indian languages. The Indian languages are vibrant and are developing by the contributions of great minds using them as their vehicle of expression. English is available to us as a historical heritage in addition to our own language. We must make the best use of English to develop ourselves culturally and materially so that we can compete with the best in the world of mind and matter. English language is our window to the world.

English language is one tool to establish our viewpoint. We can learn from others experience. We can check the theories of foreigners against our experience. We can reject the untenable and accept the tenable. We can also propagate our theories among the international audience and readers.

We can make use of English to promote our worldview and spiritual heritage throughout the globe. Swami Vivekananda established the greatness of Indian view of religion at the world conference of religions in Chicago in 1893. He addressed the gathering in impressive English. Many spiritual gurus have since converted thousands of English people to our spirituality by expressing their thought and ideas in masterful English. English has thus become an effective means of promoting Indian view of life, and strengthening our cultural identity in the world.

When William Caxton set up his printing press in London (1477) the new hybrid language (vernacular English mixed with courtly French and scholarly Latin) became increasingly standardized, and by 1611, when the Authorized (King James) Version of the Bible was published, the educated English of London had become the core of what is now called Standard English. By the time of Johnson's dictionary (1755) and the American Declaration of Independence (1776), English was international and recognizable as the language we use today. The Orthography of

English was more or less established by 1650 and, in England in particular, a form of standard educated speech, known as Received Pronunciation (RP) spread from the major public schools in the 19th century. This accent was adopted in the early 20th century by the British Broadcasting Corporation (BBC) for its announcers and readers, and is variously known as RP, BBC English, Oxford English, and the King's or Queen's English.

Generally, Standard English today does not depend on accent but rather on shared educational experience, mainly of the printed language. Present-day English is an immensely varied language, having absorbed material from many other tongues. It is spoken by more than 300 million native speakers, and between 400 and 800 million foreign users. It is the official language of air transport and shipping; the leading language of science, technology, computers, and commerce; and a major medium of education, publishing, and international negotiation. For this reason, scholars frequently refer to its latest phase as World English

2.3 English Language Teaching (ELT)

English, as a lingua-franca and as a link language occupied very important place in our social activities. Thus, every one in willy-nilly wants to learn the English language. Especially in the academic domain, each child is intimidated to plunge into the task of learning English language in order to survive in the competitive world. Consequently, the educational planners are moving heaven and earth to impart the English language to the future citizen of India. English, although it is a foreign language, is taught as second language as the society provides certain English learning situations.

2.4 Language Teaching Methods— a Historical Perspective

Europe and Asia have had a long tradition of teaching and learning foreign languages. Memorization of vocabulary and translation of sentences often formed the major part of such learning processes in the past. Ancient languages such as Sanskrit and Pali were mastered in Asia through the process of memorization of texts and

vocabulary lists. Learning vocabulary lists indeed formed the core of language learning.

The progress of Reformation in Europe brought within its wake change in methods of learning foreign and classical languages. While writing paradigms for individual verbs continued to be emphasized, teachers began to focus more on oral aspects of language. Until then learning a language was synonymous with learning the written language.

Two scholars during the progress of Reformation stood out as distinguished contributors for the change of language teaching methods: **Erasmus** and **Comenius**.

Erasmus, a contemporary of Martin Luther, in the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries, argued that speaking the foreign language should begin early in one's attempt in learning it. Good and understandable oral communication, he said, was the important thing to master. Next in importance was reading, and, then, writing came at last.

Erasmus wanted that we learn the language through exposure to interesting and practical conversations and stories accompanied by visuals such as picture. Note that this is still one of the cornerstones of current thinking on teaching foreign/second language. In addition, Erasmus suggested several rhetorical exercises which focused on "transforming verse into prose, imitating the style of a prominent writer, translating, or recasting propositions in various forms."

Currently these types of exercises are not favored in teaching and learning languages. These are good exercises, no doubt, but are more useful in teaching literature, or more appropriately, teaching writing of literary pieces. Presently we do make a distinction between learning language and literature. We may learn a language in order to study the literature written in it. But learning a language need not be necessarily done through studying its literature.

Martin Luther was opposed to excessive drill on rules for producing sentences. Instead of memorizing rules for the production of sentences, he asked for the actual production of sentences themselves as appropriate practice to learn a language.

William Bath (1565-1614) focused on teaching vocabulary through contextualized presentation, which would be further elaborated later on by Comenius.

The contribution of Comenius to modern secular education is enormous. His thoughts on methods of teaching languages had influenced generations of European teachers. He wanted a graded presentation of sentence structures. He insisted that grammar should be taught through an inductive approach, by giving many examples of the same sentence type, so that the students would understand and master the structures. He insisted that the understanding of the content and mastery of linguistic forms must proceed on parallel lines. In other words, he recommended that we do not introduce a content topic, if, for the understanding and expression of which, the students do not yet have some parallel linguistic mastery in the language they are learning.

Comenius recommended that new words be introduced to the students with the visuals of objects or phenomena they represented. He asserted that "words should not be learned apart from the objects to which they refer. Comenius held that the subject matter of lessons should have appeal to students, that modern languages should have priority over classical languages, that language should be learned by practice rather than by rules (though rules were seen as complementing practice), and that the subject matter of initial exercises should already be familiar to students (O'Grady, et al. 1993)." In subsequent centuries several methods came to be used.

2.5 Evaluation of Teaching Methods

2.5.1 Ancient education

out 3000 BC, with the advent of writing, education became more conscious or self-reflecting, with specialized occupations requiring particular skills and knowledge on how to be a scribe, an astronomer, etc.

Philosophy in ancient Greece led to questions of educational method entering national discourse. In his *Republic*, Plato describes a system of instruction that he felt would lead to an ideal state. In his *Dialogues*, Plato describes the Socratic Method.

It has been the intent of many educators since then, such as the Roman educator Quintilian, to find specific, interesting ways to encourage students to use their intelligence and to help them to learn.

2.5.2 Medieval Education

Comenius, in Bohemia, wanted all boys and girls to learn. In his *The World in Pictures*, he gave the first vivid, illustrated textbook, which contained much that children would be familiar with in everyday life, and use it to teach the academic subjects they needed to know. Rabelais described how the student Gargantua learned about the world, and what is in it.

Much later, Jean-Jacques Rousseau in his *Emile*, presented methodology to teach children the elements of science and much more. In it, he famously eschewed books, saying the world is one's book. And so Emile was brought out into the woods without breakfast to learn the cardinal directions and the positions of the sun as he found his way home for something to eat.

There was also Johann Heinrich Pestalozzi of Switzerland, whose methodology during Napoleonic warfare enabled refugee children, of a class believed to be unteachable, to learn - and love to learn. He describes this in his account of the educational experiment at Stanz. He felt the key to have children learn is for them to be loved, but his method, though transmitted later in the school for educators he founded, has been thought "too unclear to be taught today". One result was, when he would ask, "Children, do you want to learn more or go to sleep?" they would reply, "Learn more!"

2.5.3 19th century - Compulsory Education

The Prussian education system was a system of mandatory education dating to the early 19th century. Parts of the Prussian education system have served as models for the education systems in a number of other countries, including Japan and the United States. The Prussian model had a side effect of requiring additional classroom management skills to be incorporated into the teaching process.

2.5.4 20th century

In the 20th century, the philosopher Eli Siegel posited that the purpose of education is to "like the world through knowing it." Teachers in New York found that student performance improved when this principle was employed in their teaching methods.

Many current teaching philosophies are aimed at fulfilling the precepts of a curriculum based on Specially Designed Academic Instruction in English (SDAIE).

According to Dr. Shaikh Imran, the teaching methodology in education is a new concept in the teaching learning process. New methods involved in the teaching learning process are television, radio, computer, etc.

Other educators believe that the use of technology, while facilitating learning to some degree, is not a substitute for educational method that brings out critical thinking and a desire to learn. Another modern teaching method is inquiry learning and the related inquiry-based science.

Elvis H. Bostwick recently concluded Dr. Cherry's quantitative study "The Interdisciplinary Effect of Hands On Science", a three-year study of 3920 middle school students and their Tennessee State Achievement scores in Math, Science, Reading and Social Studies. Metropolitan Nashville Public School is considered urban demographically and can be compared to many of urban schools nationally and internationally. This study-divided students based on whether they had hands-on trained teachers over the three-year period addressed by the study. Students who had a hands-on trained science teacher for one or more years had statistically higher standardized test scores in science, math and social studies.

2.6 Teaching methodology in English Language:

Evaluation of teaching methodology plays a vital role because the second language is learnt deliberately through formal classroom teachings. Various methods are used throughout India to teach English. Experts in the fields of language teaching

evaluate these methods now and then. Some of the teaching methods that are followed in India are as follows.

1. Direct method
2. Natural Method
3. Grammar translation methods
4. Conversational methods
5. Audio-Lingual methods
6. Eclectic method
7. Phonetic Method
8. **Group Method**

From those methods one is different from another or it may be different from many aspects. In the schools, they are introducing different contexts. No method is self sufficient.

2.6.1 Direct method

The main idea of the direct method is to make the learner to acquire the second language in the same way as he learns his mother tongue. In this method, oral practice is given by associating speech with ideas. The words are taught by pointing out the objects or pictures to the learner. That will be suitable according to their lessons grammar exercise easily. The second language is taught directly without associating it to the mother tongue

2.6.2 Natural Method

"Since children learn naturally to speak before they read, oracy (should) proceed literacy and that receptive skills precede productive ones. Proponents of the method tended to avoid the use of books in class like the child in his home, the student was to be immersed in language and allowed to formulate his own generalizations it consists of a series of monologues by the teacher, interspersed with exchanges of question and answer between instructor and pupil—all in the foreign language. A great deal of pantomime accompanies the talk. With the aid of gesticulation, by attentive listening, and by dint of repetition, the beginner comes to

associate certain acts and objects with certain combinations of sound, and finally reaches the point of reproducing the foreign words or phrases. The mother tongue is strictly banished". (Bowen et al. 1985:21; part of this cited text contains a quotation from the Report of the Committee of the Twelve, 1890)

2.6.3 Grammar Translation Method

In this method is to teach the second language through translation. This is marked by the dominance of mother tongue. This method is used widely in the schools.

2.6.4 Conversational Method

In this method, vocabulary and grammar of the second languages are presented to the learner in the form of the pattern as for (e.g. conversational to the situation).Then, the learner is made to participate in the conversations. In this conversational method, they are able to by- heart all the source materials whatever they are needed for their lessons.

2.6.5 Audio-Lingual Method

In this method, listening and speaking skills are given more importance. The learners are expected to listen to the teacher and repeat the graded utterances. According to this method, learner is getting the listening habit in the class and whatever teachers easily teach they are able to grasp. For the hard words they are able to get from their teachers speech itself.

2.6.6 Eclectic Method

In this method it is a combination of all above mentioned methods. The function and success of this method depend upon the needs of the learners and the skill of the teacher .It gives the more importance to all the form of the skills as the language, namely as speaking listening, writing and reading. It improves all the ways to the learner with this one method. The learners are able to understand their vocabulary to improve their knowledge through the listening. They are able to get listening carefully in the class rooms, then in the reading they are able to read the hard

words with the correct pronunciation. Then, in the speaking skills, they are able to get the fluent speaking in English at the class room. Then, in the writing, they are able to write their grammar parts with fully written method without committing the mistakes even in their spelling also.

2.6.7 Phonetic Method

This method emphasized “oral expression as the basis of instruction, stressing pronunciation, avoiding grammatical rule giving, and seeking to impart a practical mastery of language forms for use in-country; cultural information was also provided. The teacher would read a passage aloud, explaining unfamiliar words as students followed along. After discussing questions on the passage, students would paraphrase the story aloud. Next would come written answers to questions, phonetic work on new words, and ultimately recitation. Gestures, pictures, and interesting contexts were to be used in making applications of familiar material. Graded reading would come later.” This method demanded “heavy requirements for linguistic expertise on the part of the teachers.”

According to these methods that have been listed, then in the direct method conversational method and Audio - visual methods are not in use in the schools where the study was conducted. The teachers are not fully aware of the conversational and audio-lingual methods. They prefer to use the traditional methods. Grammar classes are very dull because of the students are repetitions of sentences by groups. The new trends in teaching second language are yet to be implemented in the schools that were selected for the present study.

2.6.8 GROUP METHOD

For some years now, methodologists have recommended small group work (including pair work) in the second language classroom. In doing so, they have used arguments which, for the most part, are ***pedagogical.*** While those arguments are compelling enough, group work has recently taken on increased ***psycholinguistic*** significance due to new research findings on two related topics: 1) the role of comprehensible input in second language acquisition (SLA) and 2) the negotiation

work possible in conversation between non-native speakers, or ***inter language talk.*** Thus, in addition to strong pedagogical arguments, there now exists a psycholinguistic rationale for group work in second language learning.

2.7 Detailed Description of Group work

2.7.1 The Logic behind Grouping

Thomas (1986) describes that one popular way of suiting teaching to individual differences has been to divide the learners into groups. The logic behind this practice is that students usually must be taught in groups, since society cannot furnish a separate teacher for each learner. So the most convenient way to suit teaching to the individual characteristics of students is to divide the learners into homogeneous groups with each group composed of learners who are alike. Moreover, Calfee, and Pointkowski (1986), point out that research on grouping for instruction is motivation is motivated by the assumption that grouping practices influence students' academic and social learning.

2.7.2 Factors Affecting Group Work

According to Nation (1989), the following factors work together, to result in-group work where every one involved is interested, active and thoughtful:

- The learning goals of group work
- The task
- The way information is distributed
- The seating arrangement of the member of the group
- The social relationship between the members of the group

2.8 The Goals of Group Work

Group work can promote language learning in the following ways:

2.8.1 Negotiation of in put

The learners get exposure to language that they can understand (comprehensible input) and which contains unknown items for them. Group work properly handled is one of the most valuable sources of input (Long and Porter 1985).

2.8.2 New Language Items

Group work provides more opportunities for use of the new items compared to the opportunities in teacher led classes. Group work may improve the quality of these opportunities in terms of individualization, motivation, depth of processing and affective climate.

2.8.3 Fluency

The students attain fluency in the use of language item already learnt.

2.8.4 Communication Strategies

Students learn the following communication strategies:

- Negotiation strategies to control input; seeking clarification, seeking confirmation, checking comprehension, repetition.
- Strategies to keep a conversation going (Holmes; and Brown 1976, Nation,1980).
- Strategies to make up for a lack of language items or a lack of fluency in the use of such items (Tarone 1980)
- Strategies for managing long turns in speaking (Brown ct al. 1984)

2.8.5 Content

Through group work the students can master the content of their English curriculum. The teacher can also help the learners to achieve one or more of the language learning goals mentioned above.

2.9 Arranging the Groups

MeGreal (1389) suggests that groups of form four to seven students are efficient for the communicative use of language. Christison and Bassanos (1981) have

recommended the following classroom arrangements bases on both small and large groups:

2.9.1 Restructuring

In this case the groups are fluid and are changed according to various criteria.

2.9.2 One Centered

In this type of grouping, a single student is the Centre of focus and either tells a story or performs some other communicative language function.

2.9.3 Unified Group

In this case, every one is part of one large class group.

2.9.4 Dyads (Pairs)

In dyads two students participate in activities together.

2.10 Types of Group Work Activities

Group work activities are of the following types:

2.10.1 The cooperative Arrangement

In this type of group work activities, learners have equal access to the same material or information and cooperate to do the task.

2.10.2 The Superior Arrangement

In the superior inferior arrangement one member of the group has information that all the others need.

2.10.3 The Combining Arrangement

In this types of group work activities, each learners has a different piece of information that all the others need.

2.10.4 The Individual Arrangement

In the individual arrangement each learner has access to the same information but must perform or deal with different parts of it.

2.10.5 Further Practice Activities

According to Hubicka (1985); Williams (1980), and Braughton (1969), the following types of activities can be used for the group work; These consist of extension activities dealing with language and of material already used with the class as a whole.

a. Dialogues

The students work in pairs, reading aloud the dialogues, which have already been prepared by the teacher e.g. dealing with new lexis, problems of pronunciation, stress and intonation.

b. Situation

The students can be made to practice e.g. inviting and responding and maps for giving directions.

c. Grammar Exercises

A lot of textbooks contain exercises to be done either in class or as homework. The students can do the exercise orally in small groups, helping each other and discussing the answers.

2.10.6 Interviewing Activities

These activities are based on the use of a specific structure such as simple present for likes/dislikes, comparatives and superlatives, used to etc. they often involve the use of a chart or questionnaire that has to be filled in.

2.10.7 Jigsaw Activities

The class is divided into groups and each group is given written or recorded material to study. The topic is the same for each group but each piece of material contains one or two details, which are specific to that group. Questions are provided to guide the students through their listening or reading. When each group has found the answers to its questions, the class as a whole is regrouped with one student from each group and a new set of questions is issued which can only be answered with the help of information provided in the original groups.

2.10.8 Preparatory Activities

The following two types of activities can be used;

a. Question Preparation

Working in pairs or in groups, the students prepare questions based on a text or listening passage that they can then ask the other pairs of groups. Scoring can sometimes add a bit of fun to this- one point for every correct question and bonus points for correct questions that the other pairs/groups answer incorrectly.

b. Role Preparations

The class is divided into groups and each group represents one character in a role-play. In the groups, the students woks out what sorts of personality they are, what sorts of things they intend to say and the questions they think they may be asked. At the end the class is organized for the actual role-paly.

2.11 Teacher's Role

McGreal (1989) describes the role of English teacher as;

> In the conventional classroom, the teacher takes on the role of the great leader, importer of knowledge and as the centre of all the activities. But this role is not suitable for English as foreign language (EFL) teachers who are teaching skills. This skill-based orientation implies a different role for the teacher. Active participation by the learner is essential. This can be done by employing group work activities in the classroom, but rather less the centre of activity. Certainly, a teacher who is monitoring, controlling, encouraging and participating in the different classroom groups will be even more active than the traditional teacher. The teacher's role must be modified to become

more managerial and supervisory. Teachers need to be more flexible in their attitudes towards how learning is achieved.

2.12 Advantages of Group Work

Group work has the following advantages:

Holt; et al (1993) describe that

a) Cooperative learning used in group, is a valuable strategy for teaching secondary school students, especially useful with students from diverse linguistic and cultural backgrounds who are learning English as second language.
b) It offers a method for managing diversity channeling peer influence into a positive force for improving school performance, and involving students in classroom communication and activity.
c) Secondary students with limited English language skills have less time to acquire the English essential to academic success, and need a low risk environment to practice English. Cooperative learning provides an appropriate method for these purposes, and in addition offers increased opportunities for students social development.
d) Cooperative learning strategies can be used in a variety of ways and time periods. Team building and oral language activities can be used to familiarize students with the approach and build language skills. Such collaborative activities include games for exchanging personal information, problem solving exercises, brainstorming, group discussion, cooperative review of information, and story sequencing.
e) Jacobs and Ratmanida (1996), describe that group activities developed in western countries have been advocated for use in foreign and second language learning internationally and the South Asian second language educators feel that group activities are appropriate to their contexts.
f) Long (1975.1977), describe that the potential benefits of the use of group work are: more learner language production, more varied talk, the adoption by students of a wider range of roles, more individualization, less boredom among students, more opportunity for communication, less boredom among students, more opportunity for communicative language

use, more creative, risk taking language use, grater variety in learner talk, increased learner independence, and more opportunity to develop social interaction skills and learning to learn skills.

g) Long and Porter (1985) find: provided careful attention is paid to the structure of tasks students works on together, the negotiation work possible in group activity makes it an attractive alternative to the teacher led, 'lockstep' mode and a viable classroom substitute for individual conversations with native speakers.

h) Martinez (1996), describe group work as a mean of organizing more advanced students to tutor their lower proficiency classmates: The teacher acts as a facilitator, only intervening when a group is unable to solve a problem on its own.

i) Northeote (1996) describes that collaborative group work can be used to cater for mixed abilities by building listening and decision, making skills, encouraging students to state opinions and disagree politely, beginning with pairs and short, structured tasks before students works in larger groups on longer, less defined projects, giving students a voice in choosing their group projects and providing students with responsibilities through the use of well defined group roles.

j) According to Rutter et al (1979), the real art here (in grouping) is keeping all students actively engaged and on task.

k) Cross (1995), describes that group work activities are frequently used in large classes because the use of groups minimizes the time and expense that would otherwise be needed to produce materials for large classes.

2.13 Some Potential Dangers in Group Work

Kelly (1974), suggest that some dangers should be avoided in group work.

a) Sometime all the potential trouble makers gather together in one group which becomes a gang. Such problem should be avoided by the intervention of the teacher.

b) The students from themselves into natural-ability groups. The teacher should note that no groups is seen to be inferior.

c) Isolates should not be left out. Teachers should try to integrate them into groups at the out set.

d) Jacob and Ratmanida (1996), find that the key problems cited in using groups in second language teaching are; low motivation, significant variation in proficiency levels and large classes.

2.14 WHY GROUP WORK IN TEACHING

There are at least five pedagogical arguments for the use of group work in second language (SL) learning. They concern the potential of group work for increasing the quantity of language practice opportunities, for improving the quality of student talk, for individualizing instruction, for creating a positive affective climate in the classroom, and for increasing student motivation. These are;

i. Group work increases language practice opportunities.

In all probability, one of the main reasons for low achievement by many classroom SL learners is simply that they do not have enough time to practice the new language. This is especially serious in large EFL classes in which students need to develop aural-oral skills, but it is also relevant to the ESL context. From observational studies of classrooms (e.g., oetker and Ahlbrand 1969 and Fanselow 1977), we know that the predominant mode of instruction is what might be termed the ***lockstep,*** in which one person (the teacher) sets the same instructional pace and content for everyone, by lecturing, explaining a grammar point, leading drill work, or asking questions of the whole class. The same studies show that when lessons are organized in this manner, a typical teacher of any subject talks for at least half, and often for as much as two thirds, of any class period (Flanders 1970). In a 50-minute lesson, that would leave 25 minutes for the students. However, since 5 minutes is usually spent on administrative matters (getting pupils in and out of the room, calling the roll, collecting and distributing homework assignments, and so on) and (say) ***5*** minutes on reading and writing, the total time available to students is actually more like 15 minutes. In an EFL class of 30 students in a public secondary school classroom, this averages out to 30 seconds per student per lesson-or just ***one hour per student per***

year. An adult ESL student taking an intensive course in the United States does not fare much better. In a class of 15 students meeting three hours a day, each student will have a total of only about one and a half hours of individual practice during a six-week program. Contrary to what some private language school advertisements would have us believe, this is simply not enough. Group work cannot solve this problem entirely, but it can certainly help. To illustrate with the public school setting, suppose that just ***half*** the time available for individual student talk is devoted to work in groups of three instead of to lockstep practice, in which one student talks while 29 listen (or not, as the case may be). This will change the total ***individual*** practice time available to each student from one hour to about five and a half hours. While still too little, this is an increase of over 500 percent.

ii. Group work improves the quality of student talk.

The lockstep limits not only the ***quantity*** of talk students can engage in, but also its ***quality.*** This is because teacher-fronted lessons favor a highly conventionalized variety of conversation, one rarely found outside courtrooms, wedding ceremonies, and classrooms. In such settings, one speaker asks a series of known information, or display, questions, such as Do you work in the accuser's office at 27 Sloan Street?, Do you take this woman to be your lawful wedded wife?, and Do you come to class at nine o'clock?-questions to which there is usually only one correct answer, already known to both parties. The second speaker responds ***(I*** do) and then, in the classroom, typically has the correctness of the response confirmed (Yes, Right, or Good). Only rarely does genuine communication take place. (For further depressing details, see, for example, Hoetker and Ahlbrand 1969, Long 1975, Fanselow 1977, Mehan 1979, and Long and Sato 1983.) An unfortunate but hardly surprising side effect of this sort of pseudo-communication is that students' attention tends to wander. Consequently, teachers maintain a brisk pace to their questions and try to ensure prompt and brief answers in return. This is usually quite feasible, since what the students say requires little thought (the same question often being asked several times) and little language (mostly single phrases or short "sentences"). Teachers quickly "correct" any errors, and students appreciate just as quickly that what they say is less important than how they say it. Such work may be useful for

developing grammatical accuracy (although this has never been shown). It is unlikely, however, to promote the kind of conversational skills students need outside the classroom, where accuracy is often important but where communicative ability is always at a premium. Group work can help a great deal here. First, unlike the lockstep, with its single, distant initiator of talk (the teacher) and its group interlocutor (the students), face-to-face communication in a small group is a natural setting for conversation. Second, two or three students working together for five minutes at a stretch are not limited to producing hurried, isolated "sentences." Rather, they can engage in cohesive and coherent sequences of utterances, thereby developing discourse competence, not just (at best) a sentence grammar. Third, as shown by Long, Adams, McLean, and Castabs (1976), students can take on roles and adopt positions which in lockstep work are usually the teacher's exclusive preserve and can thus practice a range of language functions associated with those roles and positions. While solving a problem concerning the sitting of a new school in an imaginary town, for example, they can suggest, infer, qualify, hypothesize, generalize, or disagree. In terms of another dimension of conversational management, they can develop such skills-also normally practiced only by the teacher-as topic-nomination, turn-allocation, focusing, summarizing, and clarifying. (Some of these last skills also turn out to have considerable psycholinguistic importance.) Finally, given appropriate materials to work with and problems to solve, students can engage in the kind of information exchange characteristic of communication outside classrooms-with all the creative language use and spontaneity this entails-where the focus is on meaning as well as form. In other words, they can in all these ways develop at least some of the variety of skills which make up communicative competence in a second language.

iii. Group work helps individualize instruction.

However efficient it may be for some purposes-for example, the presentation of new information needed by all students in a class the lockstep rides roughshod over many individual differences inevitably present in a group of students. This is especially true of the vast majority of school children, who are typically placed in classes solely on the basis of chronological and mental age. It can also occur in quite small classes of adults, however. Volunteer adult learners are usually grouped on the

basis of their aggregate scores on a proficiency test. Yet, as any experienced teacher will attest, aggregate scores often conceal differences among students in specific linguistic abilities. Some students, for example, will have much better comprehension than production skills, and vice versa. Some may speak haltingly but accurately, while others, though fluent, make lots of errors. In addition to this kind of variability in specific SL abilities, other kinds of individual differences ignored by lockstep teaching include students' age, cognitive/developmental stage, sex, attitude, motivation, aptitude, personality, interests, cognitive style, cultural background, native language, prior language learning experience, and target language needs. In an ideal world, these differences would all be reflected, among other ways, in the pacing of instruction, in its linguistic and cultural content, in the level of intellectual challenge it poses, in the manner of its presentation (e.g., inductive or deductive), and in the kinds of classroom roles students are assigned. Group work obviously cannot handle all these differences, for some of which we still lack easily administered, reliable measures. Once again, however, it can help. Small groups of students can work on different sets of materials suited to their needs. Moreover, they can do so simultaneously, thereby avoiding the risk of boring other students who do not have the same problem, perhaps because they speak a different first language, or who do have the same problem but need less time to solve it. Group work, then, is a first step toward individualization of instruction, which everyone agrees is a good idea but which few teachers or textbooks seem to do much about.

iv. Group work promotes a positive affective climate.

Many students, especially the shy or linguistically insecure, experience considerable stress when called upon in the public arena of the lockstep classroom. This stress is increased by the knowledge that they must respond accurately and above all quickly. Research (see, for example, Rowe 1974 and White and Lightbown 1983) has shown that if students pause longer than about one second before beginning to respond or while making a response, or (worse) appear not to know the answer, or make an error, teachers will tend to interrupt, repeat, or rephrase the question, ask a different one, "correct," and/or switch to another student. Not all teachers do these things, of course, but most teachers do so more than they realize or would want to admit. In contrast to the public atmosphere of lockstep instruction, a small group of

peers provides a relatively intimate setting and, usually, a more supportive environment in which to try out embryonic SL skills. After extensive research in British primary and secondary school classrooms, Barnes (1973:19) wrote of the small group setting: An intimate group allows us to be relatively inexplicit and incoherent, to change direction in the middle of a sentence, to be uncertain and self contradictory. What we say may not amount to much, but our confidence in our friends allows us to take the first groping steps towards sorting out our thoughts and feelings by putting them into words. I shall call this sort of talk "exploratory." In his studies of children's talk in small groups, Barnes found a high incidence of pauses, hesitations, stumbling over new words, false starts, changes of direction, and expressions of doubt ***(I*** think, probably, and so on). This was the speech of children "talking to learn" (Barnes 1973:20)-talking, in other words, in a way and for a purpose quite different from those which commonly characterize interaction in a full-class session. There, the "audience effect" of the large class, the perception of the listening teacher as judge, and the need to produce a short, polished product all serve to inhibit this kind of language. Barnes (1973:19) draws attention to another factor: It is not only size and lack of intimacy that discourage exploratory talk: if relationships have been formalized until they approach ritual, this, too, will make it hard for anyone to think aloud. Some classrooms can become like this, especially when the teacher controls very thoroughly everything that is said. In other words, freedom from the requirement for accuracy at all costs and entry into the richer and more accommodating set of relationships provided by small-group interaction promote a positive affective climate. This in turn allows for the development of the kind of personalized, creative talk for which most aural-oral classes are trying to prepare learners.

v. Group work motivates learners.

Several advantages have already been claimed for group work. It allows for a greater quantity and richer variety of language practice, practice that is better adapted to individual needs and conducted in a more positive affective climate. Students are individually involved in lessons more often and at a more personal level. For all these reasons and because of the ***variety*** group work inevitably introduces into a lesson, it seems reasonable to believe that group work motivates the classroom learner.

Empirical evidence supporting this belief has been provided by several studies reported recently in Littlejohn (1983). It has been found, for example, that small-group, independent study can lead to increased motivation to study Spanish among beginning students (Littlejohn 1982); learners responding to a questionnaire reported that they felt less inhibited and freer to speak and make mistakes in the small group than in the teacher-led class. Similarly, in a study of children's attitudes to the study of French in an urban British comprehensive school (Fitz-Gibbon and Reay 1982), three quarters of the pupils ranked their liking for French as a school subject significantly higher after completing a program in which 14-yearold non-native speakers tutored 11-year-old non-natives in the language.

vi. PSYCHO LINGUISTIC RATIONALE

In addition to pedagogical arguments for the use of group work as at least a complement to lockstep instruction, there now exists independent ***psycholinguistic*** evidence for group work in SL teaching. This evidence has emerged from recent work on the role of comprehensible input in SLA and on the nature of non-native/nonnative conversation. It is to this work that we now turn.

2.15 Conclusion

An effort has been made in this chapter, about the origin of English Language, its important in the nation, English Language Teaching in India and an evaluation of teaching method of teaching English, with special reference to group method technique. The present chapter also provides in-depth concept of Group method Technique.