CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE RELATED LITERATURE

Introduction

As already stated in Chapter I the present study attempts to evolve a strategy for teaching English Grammar at high school level and to validate it in terms of the performance of the students both in the Comprehensive and Criterion tests as well as their reaction towards the various components which constitute the strategy. It also attempts to study certain student characteristics and their impact on student achievement. In addition, it seeks to study the comparative effectiveness of the three styles of programmed instruction when used in conjunction with other techniques.

It should be noted in this connection that the teaching of any language is based upon its intellectual heritage. The approaches and techniques that seem so new and so stimulating are rooted in a long tradition. Hence a search into this heritage of a language would shed much light upon the linguistic foundations on which its teaching is based and the principles on which its approaches and techniques are built. Moreover, it would be worthwhile to note how the technology of education has affected the methodology of teaching. Indeed, the advent of electronics and its allied appliances have made

tremendous changes and novel devices and techniques are increasingly used for teaching languages. A peep into all these aspects, namely the linguistic foundations, the various methods of teaching, and the impact of educational technology, would be of utmost importance to trace the perspective on which the present study is made.

In accordance with the aspects dealt with, this chapter is divided into four sections of which the first deals with the linguistic foundations of English language teaching, the second with the various techniques and methods employed in its teaching, the third with educational technology in the teaching of English and the fourth section, namely conclusion, tries to express the implications of the review on the present study.

I Linguistic Foundations of English Language Teaching

It should be noted that in the past in the name of language teaching in the secondary schools much grammar was taught either through correct or incorrect means. Teaching grammar in British schools is a tradition of long standing and the roots of which could be found in the tradition of the study of Latin and Greek grammar. This is so because the study of classical languages was considered to be education in those days. In its fight for official recognition English was raised to the status in the syllabus equal to that of Latin and Greek only in 1864 and the first national public examination in English was held for the first time in 1888. By 1888 English

won its fight for official recognition as a school subject leading to examination at the high school level. From that time to the present, different linguists have come out with a number of theories expounding grammar in their own way. The most important of these are (a) Traditional or Classical grammar (b) Historical or Comparative grammar (c) Structuralist or Descriptive grammar and (d) Transformational Generative garmmar.

(a) Traditional or Classical Grammar : When English was recognized as a school subject, the classics masters took up the responsibility of teaching it. They brought an enormous prestige of traditional rhetoric to bear on English studies and also advocated a strongly classical direction of language study. They taught English with the same prescriptivistic views as laid down by such classic grammarians as Alaxander de Villa Dei (1199) in his 'Doctrinale Puerorum' whichw was the standard school Latin grammar of the middle ages. The influence of Dei continued to have sway over the teaching of grammar until the seventeenth century. Latin grammar, as Waterman (1963) puts it, 'was studied in its relation to philosophy, constituting as it did one of the branches (along with logic and rhetoric) of the 'trivium' : the basic curriculum established by the scholastics'. The scholars formulated definitive rules of syntax and usage basing on classical models. They assumed the existence of an ideal language. They ignored historical changes in language or even considered such changes as inimical to usage.

The major figures among the traditional grammarians, according to Owen (1963) were Joseph Priestly (1761), Robert Lowth (1962), George Campbell (1776) and Lindley Murray (1795). These scholars formulated their rules partly on Latin and partly on their intuitive knowledge of 'Correctness' in language. There were many text books. The marked lack of agreement among these books as Owen (1962) puts it 'was surprising and for most students disconcerting.' The various grammarians were not unified even on basic definitions. The traditionalists were highly prescriptive and authoritarian in nature.

The two main detectable forces of the traditionalists were rhetoric and grammar. Rhetoric is the art or talent by which discourses is adapted to its ends. It was regarded as a speculative enquiry into the laws of universal literature as well as a technique for the practical criticism of texts and a practical guide to the art of composition. Rhetoric and grammar provided the rules by which excellence might be attained. Thus, traditionalists' rhetoric and grammar were rule-centred rather than usage centred and tended to make all diachronic changes of language seem pejorative.

(b) Historical and Comparative Grammars : A scientific approach to languages had to wait until the nineteenth century, although, of course, there were those whom one may appropriately call precursors. Three of these were Gottfried Wilhelm Von Leibniz, Johann Gottfriend Von Herder and Sir William Jones.

Leibniz (1646-1716) with his interest and background in linguistics stands at the beginning of the modern era pointing the way towards a true science of language. He studied the relationship of languages and established a linguistic geneology. He is the first scholar to propose that all the languages were derived from a common prehistorical ancestor. Herder (1744-1803) helped much to usher in the era of scientific linguistics. His essay 'Concerning the Origin of Language' (1772) attacked the orthodox view of his age that speech is the direct gift of God. He held the view that the gensis of language was due to an 'impulse like that of the mature embryo pressing to be born.' Sir William Jones (1746-94) studied Sanskrit and found profound insight into its relationship to certain other languages. It is, in fact, customary to date the beginning of modern comparative grammar in a general way from a statement contained in a speech which Jones delivered before the Asiatick Society on Feb.2, 1786 and his statement is usually accepted as the first known printed fundamental postulate of comparative linguistics. His statement said :

> 'The sanskrit language, whatever be its antiquity, is of a wonderful structure, more perfect than the Greek, more copious than the Latin, more exquisitely refined than either, yet bearing to both of them a stronger affinity, both in the roots of verbs and in the form of grammar...'

Statements and works of men like the ones discussed above, paved the way for overcoming the conservatism of tradition and literalistic theology and now the way was clear to approach the

study of language in this new perspective.

The first systematic exposition of this new approach to linguistics research was made by Rask (1814). In his essay entitled, 'An Investigation into the Origin of the Old Norse or Icelandic Language' (1814), he formulated certain basic principles and methods of modern comparative linguistics. Rask emphasized the necessity of methodically examining the total structure of a language, not merely, selecting a few details or words and compared them with similar phenomena in another tongue. Rask's essay, as Waterman (1963) puts it, gives the clearest account of the aims and methods of comparative linguistics. Grimm (1785-1863) later came out with the first comparative grammar of all the Germanic languages basing on the phonetic principles which Rask had so astutely observed in his essay. He was dedicated to the new - historico-organic method of research in the composition of his grammar. Hence he is known as the father of the comparative grammar.

By this stage, the interest of scholars in comparative linguistics knew no bounds. Bopp (1852) completed his 'Comparative Grammar of Sanskrit, Zend, Greek, Latin, Lithuanian, Gothic and German' in 1852. Bopp mainly concentrated on morphology while Rask and Grimm were mainly concerned with phonetic changes. Later Schleicher (1821-68) also predominently dealt with morphology of language since he felt that the grammatical structure was that feature of a language least subjected to

extraneous forces and therefore must likely to have preserved integrity. In 1863 Fick (1833-1916) compiled the 'Comparative Dictionary of the Indo-European Languages'. This was the first major attempt to apply to vocabulary Schleicher's family theory for determining language relationships.

In short, it should be stated that the comparative Grammarians emerged as a protest against the prescriptive as well as the intuitive approach of the traditionalists. These grammarians sought to explain some of the intricacies and apparent irregularities of English language. Their explanations were mainly based on historic rather than intuitive bases. They developed hypotheses of language families and successfully illustrated how words have changed over in course of centuries. Thus, they destroyed the myth of the ideal language which was the base of the traditionalists. They questioned how Latin can be an ideal language and proved with detail citation that Sanskrit, Italic, Celtic and Germanic developed gradually from a parent language called Indo-European. Thus, the historical grammarians tried to explain language in terms of gradual development.

(c) Structuralist or Descriptive Grammar : Perhaps the destroyal of the myth of the ideal language by the historicians prompted other young grammarians into the field of linguistics. Among them were prominent figures like Bloomfield, Fries, Sledd and Whitehall. These scholars, like the historicians, began to

discuss and convince the students of the fundamental inconsistencies of traditional grammar. They held that traditional grammar is essentially latinate and that it is inadequate to describe English. They were of the opinion that 'form underlies meaning' and emphasized patterns and functions. Bloomfield (1933) argued that it was both possible and valuable to separate the form or structure of language from the meaning of the language. To Bloomfield the principle of the regularity of sound change was the corner stone of linguistic science.' The actual dispute, then, 'he said, 'concerns the weeding out of false etymologies, the revision of our statements of phonetic correspondence, and the recognition of linguistic changes other than sound change.' Hence he laid stress on structure and meaning. He divided language study into & 'Syntax' and 'Semantics'. Bloomfield and his friends including Fries began to describe the language as it actually exists. They were not interested in making judgments about correct or incorrect usage; they sought rather to record and describe all usages ignoring whether they might be correct or incorrect.

The structuralists developed new ways of discussing language. They developed the notion of 'Syntactic levels' in which the first dealt with basic sounds termed as 'phonemes' of language, the second dealt with regular combinations of phenemes called 'morphemes' and the third dealt with combinations of morphemes called 'Phrase Structure'. Thus, the phonemic level permits to discuss sounds, morphemic level with words and phrase

structure level provides a means of discussing groups of words such as noun phrase, verb phrase, and prepositional phrase, etc. Thus, the descriptivists have used the concepts inherent in the various levels to redefine some of the terms. In doing so they have applied the three scientific criteria of 'Simplicity, Consistency, and Completeness' and made their definitions mostly syntactic and made no appeal to meaning.

By then, prominent academics like Francis (1954), Levin (1960) loudly proclaimed that a Darwinian type revolution had taken place. Many articles appeared in American teaching journals advocating immediate change over to structural grammar. Pooley (1957) lists as many articles as fourteen in the 'English Journal' alone between January 1953 and November 1956. All these articles attacked 'old grammar bad' and 'new grammar good'.

Currie (1973) states that Bloomfied's trenchant remarks against traditionalists were full of intemperate antagonism. He attacked school masters who used this grammar 'ignorant of linguistic science' people who 'wasted years of every child's life' and accused them to be 'benighted' and 'authoritarian' and producers of 'cultural inertia.' These attacks set the tone of some thirty years of attack on school courses developed from formal grammar such as Pontsma (1904) and Kruisinga (1917).

Fries, a contemporary of Bloomfield was one of the best known polemists of the Bloomfieldian cause. His text 'The Structure of English' (1954) was mainly meant for school teachers and this book has profoundly influenced Roberts and others in their early courses offering new grammar for schools. Roberts' Patterns of English' (1956) is an important book in this direction. Whitehead (1966) praised Fries and Roberts for bringing about linguistic reform for education. Kreidler's survey (1966) in the 'Linguistic Reporter' shows that American mother tongue education atleast has been considerably influenced by Structuralists. Kreidler analysed 30 school text books and found that most of which were largely concerned with constituent analysis in the style of Fries and Bloomfield. This shows that structuralism come to be a significant line of approach.

It should be noted that in the beginning the structural grammar was far too complex to be readily adapted to the needs of the secondary school pupils. Moreover the students were antagonistic towards the Structuralists' emphasis on stress, pitch, and juncture particularly incorporated in immediate constituent analysis which splits the sentence as one student said 'into a hodge of podges'. Moreover Bloomfield and others were very enthusiastic about the behavioural approach and made claims for scientific method and behaviouralism. Perhaps, as Currie (1973) puts it,

> 'Had Chomsky not firmly reasserted his faith in the underlying philosophy of traditional grammar, a state of anarchy worse than the authoritarianism of old traditional courses might have prevailed in the language classrooms.'

Chomsky, Halliday, Lyons, Lamb and others have presented theoretical viewpoints which reasserted the notional basis of grammar and rejected Bloomfield's mechanistic structuralism on scholarly grounds. Although structuralism has influeced the teaching of English in many countries of the world including India, its officacy is being questioned at present.

(d) Transformational Generative Grammar : The publication of Chomsky's 'Syntatic Structures' (1957) marked one of the most important theoretical events of the twentieth century. Syntactic structures proposed an outline of a device which was expressed as a series of propositions and rules which purporated to be able to account for all the acceptable sentences of language. In technical terms the device generates, their grammar in a formally acceptable set of equations. According to Owen (1963), in Syntactic Approach, Chomsky refers to the 'natural tripartite arrangement'. He calls these three parts : (1) phrase structure, (ii) transformational structure and (iii) morphonemics. The first part deals with rules pertaining to the phrase structure or Kernel sentence. The second deals with rules that generate non-kernel sentences or transformational structures and the third deals with irregular terms termed as morphological structures. After discussing at length the different

features of the theory, Owen stated that Chomsky, as regards to his phrase structure or kernel sentences, has certainly drawn upon the works of the structuralists and as for his morphological structures or irregular forms from the comparative or historical grammarians like Jesperson. Hence he stated that transformational grammar is a synthesis of the best features of formal and descriptive grammars. However, Chomsky's linguistic theory is highly fashionable. It is mathematical and lends itself to certain interesting computational techniques in research; it has itself become, in recent years a theory of language and a theory of mind.

In America, as Kreidler (1966) notes in his excellent survey, there have been two different categories of applications of Transformational Generative grammar (T.G.) in school work. Firstly some writers distinguished the basic ideas of T.G. and introduced them as interesting theoretical ideas to teachers. Secondly some writers made actual use of T.G. model with its strings of symbols and rules. He lists three texts by Roberts (1962, 1964, 1966-67) and two by others which exemptify this kind of direct approach.

A close study of Roberts' 'English Sentences' (1962) shows the book to be a bridge between structuralist concepts and transformational ones. It was Roberts' first text after Chomsky (1957); all his previous books had been profoundly influenced by Bloomfield and others. Roberts 'English Syntax' (1964) is not an application of T.G.; (it is, in fact, an

exposition of part of the grammar. Roberts' English series (1966-67) is a most extensive school course designed to produce for grades 3 - 9 inclusive in the American schools (ages 10 - 17). T.G. is used here as the device for explaining sentence structures in the writing course. This course has been held to be 'teacher proof' and this aspect of the series, together with its authoritarian use of linguistic theory has led certain educationalists and linguists direct outspoken criticism against them. O'Neil (1968) accused Roberts of misusing linguistic theory and distorting applications at the expense of well established classroom practice and that Roberts has manipulated the English of his course to make it fit his linguistic theory. At present the theoretical proposals made in the transformational grammar are questioned and modified. It has, however, developed, as Jacobs et al. (1968) puts it :

> ... rarely in an atmosphere of certainty and security, always in an atmosphere of challenge and curiosity.'

However, scholars like Cattell (1966) praised Chomsky greatly. He said :

> No one can write a book about present day grammatical knowledge, it seems to me, without using the brilliant work of Noam Chomsky, the American scholar who has revolutionized linguistics and with it the study of English grammar.

However, that era has come to an end and Chomsky has come to be viewed dubiously and his theory questioned.

The present day scene of linguistics is one of turmoil and confusion. The entire field is locked in by arguments, counter-

arguments and counter-counter arguments. Hence, there is a positive need for judicious discrimination of the needed and elimination of the superfluous. The teacher is not supposed to go through one or other of these theories and follow it with evangelical fervour; he has to make judicious use of these theories in accordance with the requirement of his classroom. The relevant aspects of these theories may be used as a background for illustration of the different aspects to be taught.

2. Methodological Foundations of English Language Teaching

Though English has been taught for a long time in India, no single method has been employed uniformly in this field. Several people tried different methods at different periods of time. Since the earliest days of the employment of the grammar translation method to the present structufal Approach, it is a long way of experiments and verification. It would be worthwhile to examine how each of these methods emerged and existed side by side with a linguistic theory or another, how each method lost grounds as the theory itself was questioned and how, in turn, other methods came to be replaced.

(a) The Grammar Translation Method : In the realm of teaching language when the classicists or traditionalists were ruling supreme, the most prevalent method of teaching English was the grammar translation method. Grammar was taught as Gattell (1966) puts it, as if it has 'something of the awesome infallibility of the Bible'. The early grammarians were mostly

guided by logic and Latin grammar. Logicians thought 'round' and 'square', etc. are perfect and they cannot be thought to be 'more round' or 'more square'. They took language for something similar to this. In addition to this, they were of the view that there was a theoretical structure common to all languages. Hence they thought it was but natural to apply the rules of Latin to English and that one language could be translated into another in order to facilitate learning. Thus, in this method grammar and translation came to play the most important part. According to this method, the first step in learning a language is to get at the meaning of new words, phrases and sentences to be learnt. The meaning of English was taught by means of word for word or verbatim translation into the mother tongue of the child. In short, this method, as Bhattacharyya (1970) has noted, was based on 'the assumption that all words, be they nouns or verbal units, have corresponding terms in another language, and the best way is to interpret them in terms of the mother tongue phraseology'. Thus, the guiding principles are the interpretation and assimilation of the English phraseology through translation and comparison of the English structures.

The beginning of the present century levelled many objections to this method of teaching. It came to be held that each and every word or structure of English cannot be translated into the vernacular as every language reflected certain

characteristics that are peculiarly native. There are many variations between the speech habits, idioms and phrases of the English and those of native speakers. No wonder that the students got confused when they tried to reconstruct an English sentence on the pattern of his own language. Moreover, it was found that this method did not encourage direct thinking and expression in the language to be learnt. It tried to teach a foreign language through rules and not by use. It used the adults logical way of learning than through the natural ways of learning a language.

(b) The Direct Method : The Grammar Translation method had come under fire because of its stress on prescription, intuition and logic. As the historical grammarians like Jesperson (1933) sought to explain some of the intricacies and apparent irregularities in the grammar as held by the traditionalists and their method of teaching, the educationists became more conscious about the teaching of language. Hence gradually there occurred a change in the style of teaching English. Educationists began to neglect the role of the native language in teaching a foreign language. They began to stress that the foreign language itself is to be used as the means of instruction. This style of teaching was widely advocated in the early part of the present century and particularly popular between the two wars. The adherents of this method accepted the assumption, as Wringe (1976) puts it,

that

> language learning was a matter of understanding and applying grammatical rules, eventhough these had to be explained in a language not yet known to the pupils.

He continued to say that

> the role characteristically ascribed to the direct method teacher was that of explaining the meaning of texts to pupils, while the pupils' role was to follow or at least to strive to do so.

When the direct method was first introduced, it was widely acclaimed as a great step forward in foreign language teaching. Mother tongue was rejected in all classwork and the foreign language was substituted with a view to solving all the language learning problems. The exponents of this method carried out greetings and 'class room business' in the language many of which were associated with the traditional approach such as filling in gaps, putting sentences into plurals or the past, replacing nouns by pronouns and so on. These aspects of the traditional approach were acceptable to the direct methodists since the mother tongue was not involved.

Many criticisms were directed against the direct method. Dixon (1960) goes to the extent of saying that 'the direct method is not strictly speaking a method of foreign language teaching.' He continues to say that 'it is more a principle which can operate through various possible methods.' The teachers overlooked this fact in their enthusiasm. They felt through the application of it, they were really teaching a living

language. They tried to create a genuine environment for learning foreign language. The study of grammar was thrown out of window. Drills repetition, word study, formal review and memorization were discarded. They gave undue stress on oral language.

According to Dixon (1960), there are two fallacies in this method. The first of these lies in the assumption of the classroom for home and the second in the notion that the child is a good language learner. The adherents of this method overlooked the fact that the classroom atmosphere is sterile and unreal and not conducive to the teaching of a foreign language unless such an atmosphere is created and the creation of such an atmosphere is not an easy one. Similarly, they lost sight of the fact that matured students are not like children picking up the native language under home surroundings. The mature mind is capable of analysis, concentration, observation, memorization, etc. It possesses many qualities which are still underdeveloped in a child. In learning a foreign language these important attributes are to be taken into consideration. The exponents of this method overlooked these facts related to the learning of language. In addition to this, paucity of good teachers having real command over English and adequate training to practice the method contributed to its failure.

(c) The Structuralist Approach : This method, variously dubbed as audio-lingual method, behaviourist approach or structuralist approach, as Wringe (1976) observes sprung during the sixties of the present century as a result of the extensive researches carried out at the institutes of education in the University of London. The structuralist approach is based on the principle that in the teaching of a foreign language mastery of sentence is more important than enlargement of vocabulary and that the progress in this mastery depends upon the proper drilling in the structure patterns. These patterns cover the most essential language constructions and each embodies an important point of grammar. In practical application, the scheme contains between 275 and 300 essential sentence structures for secondary schools. These sentence structures are graded according to difficulty and presented in the syllabus. The vocabulary is similarly graded.

Like the adherents of the direct method, those favouring the structuralist approach stressed the inappropriateness of translation as a teaching method and like them emphasized the priority of speech over the written language. They described 'hear, say, speak, write' with monotonous frequency as the 'natural' or 'logical' order in which the language skills to be learned. The most fundamental tenet of audio-lingual or structuralist approach, according to Wringe (1976) is that 'language is essentially a matter of habit, of several behaviour, to be drilled until in certain situations certain responses

are surely produced as conditioned reflexes.' Unlike the traditional methodist, structuralist teacher finds no place at all for the explanation of either grammar or lexis. His methods are drilling and repetition. The language laboratory, the audio-visual course and the tape recorder are usually his tools. In India, however, the structural approach is practised even today under normal classroom conditions without these aids.

Like the direct method, the structural approach also has had its excesses, the most notable of these as Wringe (1976) has put, is 'the failure to take account of the relationship between linguistic form and meaning.' The structuralists give stress to the observable form of language while meaning is rather less important. Thus, the teaching of language comes to be seen primarily as the teaching of linguistic forms and only when these are thoroughly possessed does the teacher turn his attention to their meaningful use.

(d) Situational or Communicational Approach : In addition to the approaches discussed earlier, there exists another identifiable teaching method in which the foreign language is the principle or exclusive means of instruction. Teachers adopting this style do not engage in any extensive explanation in the foreign language, for explanation of any kind plays little part in their work. Nor is drilling, particularly meaningless drilling, much used by them, though a limited

amount of individual or class repetition may be employed for the sake of emphasis and confident pronunciation.

The elements of this approach were adumbrated by Palmer as early as 1921 and later developed by Hodgson (1955) as well as being more recently incorporated into the teachers books of a number of quite widely used courses (Gilbert 1966-70). Russell 1968, Hornsey, 1970-71). Teachers using this style, however, would probably justify their practice, not in terms of any theoretical writing, but of simple pedagogic experience.

This method of teaching can be discussed under two headings namely : (a) the introduction and teaching of new grammatical structures and (b) the exploitation of materials for the sake ofkkeeping previously learned materials in play and extending the range and vocabulary and idiom. (a) Teaching new structures : Here the teacher's chief strategy in introducing a new structure is to set up or identify a situation in which it may be exemplified in a sufficient number of contrasting instances for its meaning to be apparent without the teacher having recourse to explanation, and then for it to be intensively practised by the class. The classroom situation, pupils' general knowledge, texts, pictures, recorded materials and audio-visual sequences may all be used for the introduction of specific structures. The recorded materials are used for providing the situation for the use of the particular structure.

(b) The structures are once introduced through suitable situation or media, they have to be kept in play and used with an increasing range of vocabulary and idiom. For this, almost any material of the right level and suitable subject matter may be used, provided it embodies a coherent situation on narration in authentic language. Skillful teaching, according to this method, involves putting questions which pupils can reasonably be hoped to answer correctly. Meaning is not ignored, nor is it strictly speaking explained in the language.

Teachers using this method follow certain pedagogic principles. The maxim that only one new difficulty should be introduced at a time is nowhere more important than here. Moreover, before introducing a new point, the prerequisites of understanding and using the structure are well established. Also teachers of this method demand an absolute consistency in the concise, idiomatically correct replies to questions.

This approach to language teaching has not, of course, been entirely without critics. It is often pointed out that the heavy reliance on question answer risks becoming tedious. It is, moreover, unduly formal and teacher-centred and fear that unimaginatively used, it may leave little room for pupils to initiate dialogue or even to practice the appropriate forms for making requests and asking questions. Variety obviously needs to be maintained in the kinds of materials and situations used. Clearly, too; there is every reason to

hope that work of this kind will be combined with many other activities such as writing, language laboratory practice and the more profitable forms of group work.

As already noted, just as in the case of linguistic theories, so does in the realm of teaching methods too, a reign of dialectics prevails. The last of the methods discussed above, is not practised in India in its proper sense and the most prevailing and common method is the structuralist approach, the efficiency of which is now being questioned and has already become obsolete in some parts of the world. Yet, in India, the structuralist approach even today is held as the most scientific method for teaching English which may be far from being true.

3. Educational Technology and the Teaching of English Language

In contrast to the situation some twenty years, the present day, language teacher finds himself amidst exciting and expensive teaching aids and machines. Of course, this has happened only in the case of developed countries like the U.K., the U.S.A. and the U.S.S.R., Japan, etc. In these developed countries mentioned above, machines and aids have made the language teacher elevate himself as Wringe (1976) puts 'to a truly managerial role by providing him with a team of technicians, Stewards, and other support staff.' Furthermore, it has become the policy of many of the schools over there to go in for the installation of language laboratory and other teaching machines. Thus, hardwares like radio, T.V., Computers, language laboratory

and software like film strips, Programmed Learning Material (PLM), tapes and others audio visual aids are employed unprecedently in the matter of teaching languages thereby bringing much progress not only in the matter of equipment but also in methodology. All these have become possible because of the effective blending and application of behavioural as well as physical sciences for language instructional purpose. In other words, this systematic application of modern methods and technologies in order to improve the process of human teaching and learning is termed as educational technology.

Of all the principles behind many of these techniques and media which educational technology has utilised, those behind PLM and language laboratory can very well be employed for the purpose of teaching English in India mainly because of the possibility of introducing these either directly or indirectly in the normal classrooms irrespective of rural or urban locality thereby adding much to the effectiveness of language instruction.

(a) Language Laboratory : Language laboratory owes its existence to the recognition that the spoken form of language is central to effective communication and that it should have as large a share in instruction as do written forms. In order to implement this new orientation of language teaching, the text book was supplemented by sound recording of native speakers.

The coincidental advent of the tape recorder created a fortuitous juncture of technology and pedagogy. Thus, came into being the audio-counterpart of the traditional text book; the recorded laboratory drill and the language laboratory itself.

The main purpose of the language laboratory is to provide a convenient means of hearing and responding to audio-lingual drills. As Stack (1971) puts it, if a language laboratory is fully equipped, a student can : (a) hear the tape distinctly, (b) stop, rewind and replay the tape at any time, (c) select his material freely and further the teacher can (d) listen to individual students without disturbing others, (e) communicate with the student and (h) control the programmes when he so desires.

According to the audio-lingual theory of language learning, audiolingual skills namely hearing and speaking are far more important than graphic skills of reading and writing. Hence the adherents of this theory believe that the audio-lingual skills are to be developed before the graphic ones are taken up. So they stressed speaking which includes training in correct positioning of the vocal organs and formations of linguistic habits through intensive practice. The language laboratory , as Stack (1971) puts it, is 'a drill ground guided by authentic native voices' and the exercises presented through it for practice

are systematic, giving intensive active practice in application of structural and phonetic principles previously presented in the class room. Thus, language laboratory uses time more efficiently: They release the teacher from the mechanistic process of repetition practice, making class room experience relatively free of basic pronunciation and structural problem. More classroom time is released towards the conversational goal using dialogues, games and other techniques.

Various activities are being carried out in the language laboratory for the cultivation of audio-lingual skills. Repetition and imitation, laboratory drills, questions and answers, oral composition, and aural comprehension are the main activities. Repetition and imitation will have beneficial effects on pupils' pronunciation and confidence if sparingly used along with other laboratory activities briskly administered and consciously monitored. Laboratory drills variously dubbed as structure, pattern, aural-oral or audio-lingual drills are advocated in the terminology of stimulus response psychology. In these drills the pupils is said to have to hear a 'cue' or 'stimulus' and make a 'response' which is reinforced when the tape gives the correct response which the pupil is supposed to compare with his own. A drill which consists of a cue, space for the student response and the correct response given by the tape would be termed as a three phase drill. More common are the four-phase drills in which the student is given time to repeat the response again before the next cue. Oral composition to

another laboratory activity wherein the events or incidents concerned are elaborated or narrated. Similarly oral comprehension also is being more efficiently and conveniently practised here than elsewhere.

The various information gained so far about language laboratory shows that it allows the pupils to work through the material at their own pace and to consult the teacher or the dictionary in their own time. It as well keeps with the independent mode of working which is a natural characteristics of students in the secondary schools.

In short language laboratory can be a ground wherein a student can be taught a language to understand and speak with proper stress, accent, intonations, pronunciation and fluency of speech of a native speaker in normal conversation. The language laboratory drills and classroom instruction complement each other to bring about both graphic as well as audio-lingual skills in the students. Morton (1961) reports of his experimental course in which students have met and practised a third of the structures of the Spanish language through language laboratory before being given any indication of meaning at all. He claimed to have obtained through the course a high oral proficiency in the students.

(b) Programmed Instruction : It would not be an exaggeration to say that the advent of PLM marks a landmark in the history of educational technology. The initiation and the present interest

in PLM is specially attributed to the writings of Skinner in 1955 and 1958. It is Skinner's work which has captured the general imagination and his transition from laboratory studies to practical application has tremendously provided a systematic basis for a large number of researches and developments in the instructional process. Eversince its initiation and practical application by Skinner, although as Stones (1981) puts it 'like a heavy downpour on dry earth, the programmed learning flood ran off the surface,' the subsequent drizzle has penetrated deeper and has created a more lasting effect in the field of instruction than other single medium. Now it is being widely used as a means of automated instruction either alone or in combination with other instructional techniques. PLM has also been subjected to study not only in the traditional Skinnerian style, but in all its multiplicity of styles and also attempts have been made to find the comparative effectiveness of different styles. Likewise studies pertaining the relationship between achievement through PLM and learner characteristics have been brought under study. At present in evolving strategies too, PLM has been used profusely.

Looking into the nature and dimensions of these studies, they could be categorized under four heads for the convenience of study. They are : (1) Programmed Instruction versus traditional approach to teaching, (ii) PLM and its different styles of presentation, (iii) PLM and student characteristics, and (iv) strategies and modules.

(i) PLM versus Traditional Approach to Teaching : In the earlier stages, when PLM emerged as a means of imparting information, it was necessary to prove how effective it was in comparison with the traditional methods of teaching. Research, therefore, was directed towards such problems as whether automated teaching could produce learning, whether it could teach more effectively than some loosely defined variety of conventional instruction. Thus arose the need for comparative studies in which there were two treatment groups namely experimental and control group.

Reed and Hayman (1962) undertook an experiment involving the use of English 2600, an automated instruction text. In all there were 250 tenth grade students for their sample. They prepared a programme of 2600 frames on English grammar and usage. The experimental group was taught through the programmed text while the control group learnt through the traditional method. No significant overall differences were noticed between the experimental and control groups.

Muller (1968) reports of a number of experimental studies made in the University of Kentucky States to test the comparative effectiveness of PLM and traditional methods of teaching language. These studies have shown that students with average or below average language aptitude derive most benefit from PLM. It was also noted that students who learnt through PLM brought higher standards and lower number of dropouts than

those who learnt through the traditional method.

In a study by Jernudd (1968), attempt was made to study the comparative effectiveness of self-instructional materials and traditional method of teaching language in Swedish secondary schools. The study revealed that the use of self-instructional materials was more profitable in terms of cost involved. Overall achievement also showed profitability in favour of self-instructional materials.

Veits (1971) has reported of a study involving an experiment on tenth and eleventh grade English classes. A two year study has been completed in the use of programmed Materials in tenth and eleventh English classes. The students were tested when they entered the programme. The result at the end of the experiment showed that the experimental group had double the improvement over the control group.

Dowsey (1972) made another comparative study in which 22 first year undergraduate students were divided into three groups to enable comparisons to be made first between CAI (Computer-assisted-instruction) and conventional lectures, and secondly between on-line examples sessions and the usual demonstration class. The conclusion drawn were that the weaker students benefited from the individualized instruction they received. However, the CAI students with higher aptitude did, not show up as well as expected and found the teaching impersonal and frustrating. It was suggested that the question of motivation should be studied more deeply before any future investigations

of this kind are made.

Joshi (1972) made a study on PLM in teaching remedial course in modern English usage for B.A., pre-university classes. The linear style was followed. The study showed that learning through PLM was more effective, permanent and interesting than through the conventional method. Moreover PLM was found to be an efficient device for remedial teaching as it was found suitable to all especially to the slow learners.

Mehta (1973) developed and validated a programme for students of Std. V in English for developing reading ability at the initial stage. The performance of the experimental group studying through PLM was found superior to those taught through the traditional method with respect to both acquisition and retention of the reading skills in English.

Dewal (1974) studied the difficulties involved in teaching English and developed a programme to see the effectiveness of teaching English through programmed material and compare it with that of the traditional method. PLM was found capable of overcoming some of the felt difficulties of the teachers and helped students to perform significantly better than those who were taught through the conventional method.

Reddy (1975) also made a comparison study to identify whether PLM was better or the traditional method in the matter of language instruction. The study revealed some definite advantages of PLM over that of the conventional method.

Chandrakala (1976) conducted a study with a view to evaluating the functional effectiveness of the programme on Sanskrit grammar at high, average and low academic achievement. Three alternative treatments viz. programmed instruction (P.I.), lecture method (LM), and traditional method (T.M) were tried out at three levels of achievement. The sample su constituted 172 students from Std. IX. A factorial design of 3 X 3 model was applied. The findings of the study showed the three methods equally effective.

All these studies on PLM, without single exception, reveal that PLM teaches as well or even better than the traditional methods. No wonder, researchers now give more concentration on other aspects of PLM than the comparative aspect which has already been established by now. However, the insight gained through the accumulated knowledge of the comparison studies has doubtlessly led the researchers a meanwhile, to further experiments pertaining to various forms of PLM, PLM and learner characteristics, etc. A few of the ensuing paragraphs attempt a review of studies pertaining to these aspects.

(ii) Different Styles of PLM : From the inception of PLM in 1954 to 1959, the only style of PLM known was the Skinnerian or classical linear form. However, Crowder (1959) came to the scene showing the possibility of having another style of PLM known as the branching style, thereby giving rise to the controversy as linear or branching superior. Many comparative studies were made to establish the superiority. During the process, the researchers

and scholars arrived at different styles of PLM slightly different from linear or branching, thus giving shape to a multiplicity of forms of PLM with different frame size, and mode of response, etc. Different studies were made so as to arrive at their comparative effectiveness so that they could be used in a relevant manner for learning at various stages.

Shah (1971) studied the effectiveness of four response modes namely (a) overt - answer not given, (b) overt - answer given (response prompt), (c) covert answer not given and (d) covert - answer given (response prompt). The result revealed that the response mode (d) wherein the pupils had to read the answer already given in the blank was the most effective one as far as immediate scores were concerned. When the retention scores were analysed, response (b) was found to be superior in school I, whereas response made (c) was found superior in school II.

Singh (1973) studied the effectiveness of formal and thematic prompts in a linear programme in geography. It was found that the thematic prompts were more effective.

Krishnamurthy (1972) studied seven different forms of PLM namely (A) Overt answer not given, (B) Overt answer given, (C) Covert answer not given, (D) Covert answer given, (E) Branching, (F) Skip-programme, (G) Hybrid. The study showed that the covert response prompt form was the most effective one as far as immediate achievement was concerned.

It should be commented in relation to this aspect of the programmed learning method that only very few studies are so far conducted in this area. More intensive studies need to be made in the area of different styles of PLM, covering other aspects like step size, reinforcement schedules etc. Such studies are of utmost value as they would take one long way towards establishing a form or forms which are suitable for actual classroom conditions. More researches in the area would provide the programme forms which are more effective, less time consuming and less costly.

(iii) PLM and Individual Differences : While studies on different styles and other aspects of PLM were being carried out, there arose a growing awareness among the investigators that mere experiments dealing with grossly defined teaching methods and learning situations would not yield the necessary data as to show the process of learning that occur within the learner during automated instruction. Consequently many studies paid attention, meanwhile on student characteristics and their impact on learning through PLM. Thus, personality variables associated with learning are studied increasingly at present. A review of some of these studies is pertinent here as the present study also has something to do with regard to this aspect

Porter (1959) conducted an intensive study to determine the effects of a year long instruction through teaching machine. He found a slightly negative correlation between intelligence and

post-test achievement. In another study, Porter (1961) compared the relationship between intelligence and achievement in spelling for a group of children taught through PLM and that of a group taught through the traditional method. He found the correlation between intelligence and achievement lower for the group taught through PLM than of the group taught through the traditional method.

Reynolds and Glaser (1964) in their experiment with VII graders, compared three teaching methods including PLM, correlated intelligence scores and scores on criterion tests administered after the completion of the programme. Based on their findings they concluded that intelligence scores could not be taken as predictive of the amount of achievement that resulted through the linear programmed instruction.

Eigen (1960) explored the attitude of high school students towards programmed instruction. He found that attitude vastly differed from student to student. However, he concluded that students' attitude towards PLM did not bear any significant relationship with the amount learnt through the programmed material. In another study, Eigen and Fieldhusan (1963) investigated the relationship between achievement and several student characteristics including attitude towards learning through PLM. They concluded that attitude of students towards PLM was not consistently related to the students' levels of learning. Doty and Doty (1964) also studied the effectiveness of PLM in

relation to five student characteristics including attitude towards PLM. The results revealed that the achievement of students was found significantly related to their attitude.

(iv) Evolvement of Instructional Strategies : During the past few years, an increasing awareness and interest is shown and activities involving the analysis of component behaviours are being carried out with a view to devising instructional systems. With the result, the various component behaviours that enable students to attain the terminal objectives specified can be identified. As Leedham (1973) puts it ; 'Man's symbolic and linguistic capacities support a wide range of behaviour, and his cognitive activity is further affected by the response environment in which he operates.' Similar opinion has been expressed by Dixon (1960), when he stated that the mature mind is capable of analysis, concentration, observation, etc. He further says that it would be foolish not to take advantage of these important attributes. This aspect of practical advocation enlarges response environment and therefore urges the use of texts, mannels, laboratory exercises, instructional involving pictures, television all with auto-instructional linked with testing situations to improve learning.

Clarke (1966) was among the earliest to publish accounts of the true integration of various techniques. Much of his writings are presented in the subsequent publication of Longman's well known 'Discovery Programmes'. Later Leith (1969) has advocated

for such a process. He wrote :

> A programmer, now-a-days, seeks to arrange on environment within which learning activities are provided. Sometimes a sample text-book programme will do. Often co-operative learning, practical work, discussion, simulated situations, and audio-visual media are employed...

Cullingford (1970) too speaks of a study in which he used technological aids (audio-instruction loops, personal tape recorders, filmstrips) in presenting a programmed system. Huggett (1970) reports of an integration study in which PLM was integrated with practical tutorials. His study proved that the integrated approach was more effective than the traditional instruction.

Gagne (1965) also gives ample account of such integration experimental literature which could serve as fundamental building block for matching objectives with media. Gagne presents evidence that there are 8 different types of learning and that these types of learning are best defined and identified by the particular sets of learning conditions required for each.

In 1962 Goldbeck, Shearer, Campeau and Willis studied the effects of integrating PLM with classroom teaching : they found that PLM integrated with conventional teaching was significantly better. Similarly Hatch and Flint (1962) noticed no significant difference between the groups taught through conventional techniques integrated with PLM and those learnt through conventional methods alone. However, this study revealed that

those who learnt through PLM integrated with conventional instruction performed about one standard deviation higher than those who learnt through conventional method alone.

Another attempt to introduce multimedia approach at Junior College level has been made by Hunter (1970) in teaching English as well as other courses. Preliminary evaluations showed a significant increase in student achievement. Owing to these, the rate of failure was noticed to have dropped and the dropout rate became lower than before.

In a report Taillefer and Renee' (1971) given an account of the preparation of learning packets by the teachers of Ithaca city to be used in their city schools for teaching foreign language. The packets contain instructions, questions, supplementary exercises apart from PLM so as to enable the students to learn their own. The authorities concerned have expressed their optimism regarding the success of this system.

In Indian scene also, of late, a number of multimedia instructional strategies has been attempted in various subjects. Yadav and Govinda (1977) evolved a multi-media instructional strategy for teaching the B.Ed. students the entire course in Educational Evaluation. Sansanwal (1977) evolved a similar strategy for teaching M.Ed. and M.Sc. Home Science students the Research methodology course. In another study Seshadri (1979) tried to use PLM in combination with other instructional techniques for teaching students of Std. IX the complete course

of Algebra. Similar multimedia strategies are being worked upon by Menon (1977), Vardhini (1978), Ravindranath (1978) and others in various subjects and various levels.

The studies on multimedia instructional strategies made so far on various subjects have shown amazing effectiveness in learning. In the light of these successes, many studies, as already seen, have been attempted. However, it is a matter of concern that not much is done in India regarding this, in the field of teaching English language.

4. Conclusion

The first part of the chapter, as already noted, discusses at length the various linguistic theories. These theories have played an effective role of guidance in the formation of a pedagogic grammar. They have also stimulated teachers orientate themselves to their problems, help to rationalise the steps they take in grading materials and assist in the evaluation of progress. Also, where description obtrudes in teaching, linguistics can usefully guide the form of the metalanguage the teacher may use. Linguistics has also played a very important part in research especially about language acquisition and on various issues involving language learning which inturn act as orientating forces to the benefit of education.

As has already been noticed in this section, different linguistic theories on grammar are also being effectively adapted for teaching purposes. As a result, often, education

overenthusiastically embraces a given grammatical theory and apply it in a shortsighted and doctrinaire way to its programmes making in the process claims for its value with something like evangelical fervour. These practises have caused confusion in the mind of the teacher of language as which form of grammar is to be applied in the classroom. The teacher finds himself as Currie (1973) puts it, 'between the identified needs of the learners and the difficult and often bewildering world of academic linguistics'. He, further states that 'the vigorous world of linguistic theory itself is locked in debate on the merits of different theories and on the aims of linguistic approaches'. Hence the teacher has to be an eclectic in linguistic theory, selecting what he thinks might be useful for his needs. He has to make clear judgments about his needs as an applier of grammar. He should not apply what he thinks the theory states regardless of educational needs. A progressive education should always have the ability to apply theory in non-doctrinaire ways to pragmatic ends. Hence priorities involved in the teaching of a language should be given more care than to pure linguistic theories. As Allen (1957) pleads 'application of linguistic theory in school texts should be left to individual craftman'. He further states that it should be employed only for 'getting a handhold on the experience of language.' The teacher, therefore, should critically examine available linguistic theories in the light of diagnosis. Perhaps research in this field would help him realize the truth and do his work with more certainty and efficiency.

In the context of what is discussed in the above paragraph, it goes without saying that no linguistic theory is to be taken for granted to be the most perfect one on which classroom teaching could be based. The classical or traditional grammarians put a high premium on rules of Latin and Greek; the historicians and the comparativists mostly drew their citations from literature; the structuralists' citation are based mainly on a Corpus of telephone conversation while the transformational grammarians have tended to dismiss even the need for a corpus and have relied on their intuitions. This reliance of the theories only on one aspect or other has now widely been condemned especially by those who see grammar only as 'the linguistic device for hooking up the selections in meaning which are derived from the various functions of languages and realizing them in a unified structural form.' (Halliday, 1973). The present trend, as Gregory and Carroll (1978) note, is to base the grammar on the survey of educated English usage. Such a reliance, they say, has the strength of being more sensitive to the varieties and social context of a language. A grammar based on it, therefore, would be better than any other grammar so far discussed. This is the very reason why 'A Grammar of Contemporary English' (1972) by Quirk, Greenbaun and others is being greatly appreciated.

As far as India is concerned, English is said to be playing the role of a library language, although it is used in a few urban schools as medium of instruction. It is not extensively used in speech. Hence there is little scope for placing the

correctness on the speech of the educated people here. So, possibly one has to take for granted the speech accepted as correct by its native speakers, and its grammar laid down for being taught in schools. Hence, instead of being led by any specific theory of grammar, the present study has accepted the formal grammar, the grammar that is used in schools. However, emphasis has been laid on the functional aspects. Repetition, habit formation, and gradation, etc. have been taken care of. In short, it should be said that the grammar employed in the present study stresses the need for a bit of prescription and definition. For this, it owes to the traditional grammarians. Similarly, like the structuralists, it takes for granted the need for emphasis on syntactic levels and gradation. In the same way, like the transformational grammarians, it sees with interest how simple or Kernel sentences get transformed into complex sentences with every addition of words, phrases or clauses. In short, it should be stated that, although the grammar employed in the present study is mainly formal, it has imbibed the vital elements from all the grammars. In fact, it should be noted that an eclectic approach to grammar has been attempted here.

Similarly, as for the matter of methods of teaching language too, there are differences of opinions. In the teaching of foreign languages, grammar translation method is yet used in many parts of the world. The structuralist approach, whose

efficiency is questioned elsewhere, is regarded as very scientific and is employed in the matter of teaching English in the schools of India. Similarly, the communicational approach is considered to be the best by some others. Thus, the field of methodology itself is entangled in the arguments for and against each of these methods while the fact remains that none of them by itself is capable of taking up the responsibility of language instruction in its full sense. It would be worthwhile to quote Dixon (1960) in this connection. He says : There still remains no royal road to language learning. And it will be a long time before one is found.' He further says that 'no one method of teaching yet exist, which is so good that it has universal approval or application.' Although these methods if used alone cannot meet the complete instructional needs, each of them contains some good points. For example, the emphasis laid on learning rules and classifications by the grammar translation method, would still serve a lot towards the understanding of foreign language. Similarly, the stress laid on creating situations by both the communicational and direct method wherein new structures are introduced and old ones are kept in play, is highly conducive to language teaching. The structuralist approach by its insistance on identification, gradation and drilling of the structures, would take one a long way towards the learning of a language. If all these relevant features of the various methods are adopted and put together

in the application of language teaching, it would lead to an eclectic approach which, being made of the good features of different methods, would be a better means of learning language.

As already noted, educational technology too has contributed much towards the successful instruction in languages. This has become possible with the application of radio, T.V., film-strips, video-tapes, language laboratory, etc. in the matter of language instruction. Although these devices and techniques are applied in a large scale in developed countries, developing countries like India, these are still matters of rarity and perhaps a couple of decades she has to wait to usher in such an era. Already filmstrips, charts, pictures, radio, PLM, etc. have begun to appear on the scene. Language laboratory, computerized instruction, etc. although have made a headlong direction in the western countries, in India, they are still far and few. Perhaps, it would take a century or so for such devices to reach the length and breadth of the country. However, it would be unwise to wait so long for their introduction. It has already been discussed in the course of this chapter that many of the exercises and activities carried out through computers or language laboratory could be carried out without recourse to either laboratory or computer.

As already noted, repetition, and imitation, drilling, questions and answers, oral composition, aural comprehension, etc. are the main activities carried out in the language

laboratory for developing audiolingual skills. Experiences in the classroom tell that these techniques can easily be incorporated into the texture of instruction if it is so designed. Moreover, many of these activities are already practised in the classroomsby the adherents, be they of structuralist approach or direct method. Hence what is required is to render these techniques into the texture of instruction in the light of the knowledge and insight gained through researches in the area. In the same manner, PLM even in the absence of machines, can do much in the direction of language instruction if it is so organized. PLM, with its insistence on small bits of information, immediate feedback, self-pacing, active participation, and gradual approximation can do much in the language instruction. However, as has already been discussed, PLM, in its pure form cannot stand for inculcating the various skills - both audio-lingual and graphic as well as other objectives for which English is being learnt for programmed instruction is totally verbal in nature and is devoid of human interaction. Identification, elicitation and reinforcement of complex behaviours such as creativity, productive thinking, appreciation, etc. therefore, might be beyond the capacity of PLM. In teaching English, along with PLM, if such activities as drills, repetition and imitation, questions and answers, exercises, assignments etc. are brought in at the appropriate places and incorporated with PLM, it will go for the evolving of a strategy for teaching English. Such a strategy

would have a great deal of autonomy, and is accountable. It would be individually paced, and it would provide ample scope for active participation and immediate feedback. Moreover, it is carefully sequenced or logically organized. Therefore, the resultant strategy would be conducive to systematic learning.

Educationalists have already expressed the need for such an approach. Dixon (1961), Cuyrrie (1973), Wringe (1976), etc. have expressed the need for an eclectic approach in the teaching of language. Goldbeck, Shearer, Campeau and Willis (1962) studied the effects of integrating PLM with classroom teaching techniques. They found PLM when integrated with conventional techniques was significantly effective.

In this connection, it should be noted that learning strategies, as a whole, deal with grossly defined teaching methods, techniques and learning situations. In fact, they are compounds of different methods, techniques and activities and therefore, a depth of knowledge of the learning process that occur within the learner during instruction is of paramount importance. Hence during the process of instruction stress is to be laid on the aspect of studying the interaction between auto-instructional methodology and task characteristics on one side and student characteristics on the other as these factors greatly determine the effectiveness of student learning.

Again, the very existence of many forms of PLM arouses confusion as to which form is to be used in the integration

process. Hence different forms of PLM are to be subjected to study to see their comparative effectiveness when admixtured with other techniques. Such studies are important as they would facilitate the use of appropriate form of PLM in the actual classroom for instructional purposes. Such studies also would throw light on the nature of combination and how it functions more effectively. Hence whenever a new design of instruction is attempted with PLM as one of the components, the identification of the suitable form or style of PLM is of much importance.

In the light of the discussion made above, there is a need for an eclectic approach towards the teaching of English grammar. In this approach, linguistic theories are not to be blindly used with evangelical fervour but rather be footholds for explaining language and its structures thereby making learning easy for the learner. Similarly it should visualize an eclectic approach so far as methods and techniques too are concerned whereby the most suitable techniques from each of the methods are to be selected and organized, integrated along with PLM thus resulting in the formation of a strategy for teaching English grammar.

The present study, therefore, is designed as a response to the felt need in the field of instruction in English language. The aim of the study as already noted, was to develop a multimedia instructional strategy using PLM as a major component for teaching the students a few units of English grammar prescribed for Standards IX and X, course A, by CBSE, New Delhi. The study

has made use of such activities as questions and answers, drilling exercises, summary, criterion tests, etc. along with PLM so as to bring in greater student involvement and active participation to bring about the inculcation of the various language skills for which English is being taught in schools. However, it should be admitted that as the study was made under the frame work of a fixed syllabus and time and with the responsibility of having to prepare the students for the public examination, no attempt was made to provide alternative components within the strategy. Nevertheless, care has been taken to study the factors that were supposed to affect the learner in his learning in relation to his performance in the strategy.
