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Assignment No. 1 (Units 1–4)

Total Marks: 100 • Pass Marks: 50

SOLVED ASSIGNMENT GUIDE

(For Study & Reference)

Note: This guide is prepared for study and reference purposes. Students are advised to read the relevant units of the course book carefully and write the assignment in their own words. Copying this guide word for word is not recommended.

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Question 1: English Teaching and Learners' Intellectual, Social and Communicative Development (20 Marks)

Discuss how English language teaching contributes to learners' intellectual, social, and communicative development at the elementary level.

Introduction

English occupies a special position in Pakistan's education system. It is taught as a compulsory subject from the earliest classes, it is the medium of instruction in many schools, and it is the language of higher education, administration, science and international communication. At the elementary level, however, English teaching is not merely the teaching of a school subject. The young child who learns English is simultaneously learning to think in new ways, to interact with new people and ideas, and to express himself or herself to a wider world. The elementary

years, roughly from class one to class five, are the most sensitive period of a child's life for language learning, because the mind is flexible, memory is strong, imitation is natural and fear of making mistakes is still low. Whatever is built at this stage becomes the foundation of all later learning. This answer discusses how English language teaching at the elementary level contributes to three closely connected areas of a learner's growth: intellectual development, social development and communicative development. It also shows, briefly, that these three areas support one another, and that the teacher's method decides whether this contribution is actually realised in the classroom or remains only a promise in the textbook.

Contribution to Intellectual Development

Intellectual development means the growth of the child's powers of thinking: observing, remembering, comparing, classifying, reasoning, imagining and solving problems. A second language gives the young mind a second system for organising experience, and this is a powerful intellectual exercise. When a child learns that the same object has one name in Urdu or Punjabi and another name in English, he learns an important abstract lesson: a word is a symbol, not the thing itself. This movement from the concrete object to the abstract symbol is the beginning of all higher thinking.

English learning trains the memory in a natural and meaningful way. Children memorise words, spellings, rhymes, dialogues and short passages, and this daily practice strengthens both short-term and long-term memory. At the same time, learning the patterns of a new language develops the power of analysis. The child notices that English sentences follow an order different from his mother tongue, that questions are formed differently, and that one sound

can be written in several ways. Comparing two language systems sharpens observation and logical thinking from a very early age.

English also widens the child's stock of concepts. Many ideas in science, mathematics, health, geography and modern life first reach the Pakistani child through English words and English textbooks. A child who knows English can read simple storybooks, encyclopaedias, maps and instructions beyond his own textbook, so his general knowledge grows faster than that of a child limited to one language. Story reading in English further develops imagination and prediction: the child guesses what will happen next, understands cause and effect, and learns to follow a sequence of events. In short, elementary English teaching lays the cognitive foundation on which all later academic achievement rests.

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Intellectual Benefits in Brief

- Cognitive flexibility: shifting between two languages trains the mind to switch attention and to see one situation from more than one viewpoint.
- Better concept formation: new English vocabulary adds new categories and labels through which the child organises the world.
- Improved memory and concentration: learning words, sounds and sentence patterns is daily mental exercise done through play and use.
- Foundation for later study: success in English at the elementary stage predicts success in secondary and higher education, where most books are in English.
- Problem-solving and creativity: puzzles, riddles, word games and stories in English encourage the child to think, guess and create rather than only to repeat.

Contribution to Social Development

Social development means learning to live and work with others: to cooperate, to share, to take turns, to respect other people's views and to adjust oneself to a group. Language is the main instrument of social life, and the English classroom, when it is taught communicatively, becomes a small society in itself. Pair work, group work, dialogues, role play and classroom discussion oblige children to listen to one another, wait for their turn, help weaker classmates and complete tasks together. These are social lessons that no lecture on good behaviour can teach as effectively as daily practice.

English also connects the child to a world much larger than his own street and village. Through English stories, poems and lessons, children meet people of other regions and countries, their food, dress, festivals and ways of life. This early contact develops tolerance and broadens sympathies; the child learns that people who speak and live differently are still understandable and worthy of respect. Within Pakistan itself, English works as a link language between speakers of Urdu, Punjabi, Sindhi, Pashto, Balochi and other languages, so the child who learns English gains a means of communicating with fellow citizens across provincial and linguistic boundaries.

There is also a practical social dimension. In Pakistani society, English carries prestige and is associated with good education and good employment. A child who can speak and understand some English feels confident in public situations, participates more boldly in school functions, and is encouraged by parents and community. This confidence raises the child's social standing and motivates further learning. Finally, classroom English teaches the social uses of language

itself: greeting politely, requesting, thanking, apologising and disagreeing without rudeness. These formulae of courtesy are social skills in linguistic form.

Contribution to Communicative Development

Communicative development is the most direct contribution of English teaching: the learner gradually becomes able to understand and produce English for real purposes. At the elementary level the four skills develop in a natural order. Listening comes first, as children understand the teacher's commands, stories and questions before they can produce language themselves. Speaking follows, beginning with single words and memorised chunks and moving towards short original sentences. Reading and writing then build on this oral base, and a child who has heard and spoken a word finds it far easier to read and write it.

Good elementary teaching develops communicative competence, not only grammatical accuracy. Communicative competence includes knowing what to say, to whom, when and in what manner. A child may know the grammar of requests yet still sound rude; elementary English teaching, through dialogues and role play, teaches both the form and the appropriate use. Pronunciation, stress and intonation are also part of communication: children at this age can imitate sounds accurately, so early teaching gives them a clear and intelligible accent that becomes very difficult to acquire later in life.

Communicative development also includes non-verbal and strategic skills. Young learners learn to use gestures, facial expressions, pictures and context to convey meaning when words fail, and to ask for repetition or help when they do not understand. These strategies are the mark of a real communicator rather than a mere reproducer of textbook sentences. As vocabulary and

confidence grow, children begin to use English for genuine purposes: describing their family, narrating an incident, asking questions about the world and expressing feelings and opinions. Each successful act of communication rewards the learner and creates the motivation for the next one.

Interrelation of the Three Areas and the Role of the Teacher

The three areas of development are not separate compartments. Intellectual growth supplies the concepts the child wishes to communicate; social activity supplies the partners and purposes for communication; and successful communication, in turn, brings new knowledge and new social confidence. A storytelling lesson, for example, develops imagination and memory (intellectual), cooperation and listening to others (social), and narration and questioning (communicative) at the same time. This is why modern elementary English teaching prefers integrated, activity-based lessons over isolated grammar drills.

Whether this triple contribution actually occurs depends largely on the teacher and the method. If English is taught only as translation and memorisation for examinations, its developmental value shrinks to a little bookish knowledge. If it is taught through listening, speaking, play, stories, pictures and group activity, it becomes an instrument of the child's all-round growth. The teacher must therefore provide a print-rich, fear-free classroom, use English as much as possible, encourage every child to speak, and treat mistakes as a natural part of learning rather than as faults to be punished.

Conclusion

To conclude, English language teaching at the elementary level contributes far more than knowledge of a foreign language. Intellectually, it sharpens memory, observation, comparison and reasoning, adds new concepts and lays the foundation of all later study. Socially, it teaches cooperation, courtesy, tolerance and confidence, and links the child to the wider national and international community. Communicatively, it builds the four skills in their natural order and develops the ability to use English appropriately for real purposes. Because the elementary years are the most favourable period for language learning, the quality of English teaching at this stage has lifelong consequences. It deserves, therefore, trained teachers, suitable materials and methods that treat the young learner as a thinking, social and communicating person, and not as a passive receiver of words and rules.

Question 2: Direct Method and Audio-Lingual Method Compared (20 Marks)

Compare the Direct Method and Audio-Lingual Method with reference to teacher role, learner participation, classroom activities, and oral communication skills.

Introduction

The Direct Method and the Audio-Lingual Method are two influential oral-based approaches in the history of English language teaching, and although both arose as reactions against the grammar-translation method, they rest on different theories of language and learning. The Direct Method emerged in the late nineteenth century from the Reform Movement and the

work of teachers such as Berlitz and Sauveur, who argued that a foreign language should be taught as a child learns his mother tongue: directly, through demonstration and use, without the interference of translation. The Audio-Lingual Method developed in the United States during and after the Second World War, when the army urgently needed speakers of foreign languages; it was later supported by structural linguistics and behaviourist psychology, especially the habit-formation theory associated with Skinner. Comparing the two methods under the four heads required by the question, namely the teacher's role, learner participation, classroom activities and oral communication skills, brings out both their common oral emphasis and their deep differences about freedom, creativity and the place of the learner's mind.

Background and Basic Principles

The Direct Method rests on the principle of direct association: the English word should be linked directly with the object, action or idea it represents, not with its equivalent in the mother tongue. The mother tongue is therefore banned from the classroom, meaning is conveyed through demonstration, pictures, actions and context, grammar is taught inductively from examples, and speech is considered more basic than writing, so reading and writing are delayed until the oral foundation is laid. Vocabulary is selected from everyday life and taught in complete sentences from the very first lesson.

The Audio-Lingual Method rests on two foundations: structural linguistics, which describes language as a system of patterns or structures, and behaviourism, which explains learning as habit formation through stimulus, response and reinforcement. Its principles are that language is primarily speech, that a language is a set of habits, that errors must be prevented because

bad habits are hard to remove, that the teacher should teach the language itself rather than talk about it, and that the four skills should follow the order listening, speaking, reading and writing. Dialogue memorisation and pattern drills are its signature techniques.

Teacher Role

In the Direct Method the teacher is the central model and guide, but his role is demonstrative and interactive rather than lecturing. He is the sole source of correct English in the classroom, so he must himself be a fluent and accurate speaker. He introduces new words by showing objects, pointing, miming and drawing, asks constant questions, encourages learners to ask questions in return, and corrects errors immediately but encouragingly. He is an active partner in conversation: much of the lesson is a lively exchange between teacher and class in which the teacher acts as a skilled native-speaker companion.

In the Audio-Lingual Method the teacher's role is more dominant and controlling, like that of an orchestra conductor or a drill master. He presents the model dialogue, leads the choral and individual repetition, conducts the drills, controls the pace and direction of every response, and supplies immediate reinforcement by praising correct responses and correcting errors at once so that wrong habits never form. The language laboratory extends this control mechanically. The teacher's own fluency matters, but his chief skill is the technique of drilling and error prevention rather than free conversation, because free conversation is deliberately postponed.

Learner Participation

In the Direct Method the learner is an active participant from the first day. He listens, imitates, answers questions, asks questions, acts out situations and gradually speaks in his own words

within the limits of the vocabulary taught. Participation is individual as well as collective, and although the teacher guides firmly, the learner is encouraged to guess meanings, to self-correct and to use the language creatively for genuine classroom communication, such as asking for a book or describing a picture.

In the Audio-Lingual Method learner participation is intense but tightly controlled and largely imitative. Learners listen and repeat, first in chorus and then individually; they perform substitution, transformation and chain drills at speed; and they memorise dialogues exactly as presented. There is very little scope for the learner to choose what to say, because an unexpected answer might produce an error and therefore a bad habit. Participation is thus high in quantity but low in freedom: the learner responds, but rarely initiates. Only after the basic structures are mastered are learners allowed freer practice, and in many classrooms that stage is never properly reached.

Classroom Activities

Typical Direct Method activities include question-and-answer exercises in complete sentences, conversation practice on everyday topics, dictation, reading aloud after oral work, picture description, demonstration with real objects, acting and mime, and inductive grammar practice in which learners first use a pattern in speech and only later notice its rule. Self-correction is encouraged: the teacher repeats a wrong utterance with questioning intonation so that the learner repairs it himself.

Typical Audio-Lingual activities are dialogue memorisation, backward build-up of long sentences, repetition drills, single-slot and multiple-slot substitution drills, transformation drills

changing statements into questions or negatives, question-and-answer drills in which even the answers are structurally fixed, and language-laboratory practice with tapes. Reading and writing, when introduced, are based strictly on what has already been drilled orally, and writing is often copying or filling gaps in known patterns so that no new error can appear.

Table 1: Direct Method and Audio-Lingual Method at a Glance

Aspect	Direct Method	Audio-Lingual Method
Basis	Natural learning; direct association of word and meaning	Structural linguistics and behaviourist habit formation
Mother tongue	Completely avoided	Avoided; used rarely by teacher for explanation if needed
Teacher role	Model, demonstrator and conversation partner	Controller, drill leader and reinforcer
Learner role	Active; guesses, questions and creates within taught vocabulary	Responsive; imitates and drills with little choice
Main activities	Q&A, conversation, picture description, demonstration	Dialogue memorisation, pattern drills, laboratory work
Grammar	Inductive, from examples in use	Patterns drilled first; rules explained later or never
Errors	Corrected, with self-correction encouraged	Prevented in advance; corrected immediately
Oral work	Free-ish communication from the start	Controlled practice; free speech postponed

The table summarises the comparison, but the most important difference lies beneath it. The Direct Method trusts the learner's mind: it expects understanding, guessing and gradual creative use. The Audio-Lingual Method distrusts uncontrolled practice: it expects accurate habits to be installed first, and understanding and creativity to follow. Both, however, agree

against grammar-translation that speech comes before writing and that the mother tongue should not dominate the English lesson.

Effect on Oral Communication Skills

Both methods greatly improved the oral outcomes of their time compared with grammar-translation, whose products could read but not speak. The Direct Method produces learners who can handle everyday conversation on familiar topics with reasonable fluency and natural pronunciation, because they have always used English for real exchanges in class. Its weakness is that vocabulary remains limited to what can be demonstrated, abstract ideas are hard to teach, and accuracy may suffer because grammar is never systematised.

The Audio-Lingual Method produces very accurate pronunciation, stress and intonation and a firm command of basic sentence patterns; its learners can perform drilled dialogues almost perfectly. Its well-known weakness, exposed by classroom experience and by Chomsky's criticism of behaviourism, is that learners often fail to transfer drilled patterns to real, unpredictable communication. A student who has repeated a dialogue fifty times may still be unable to answer a simple unexpected question, because language use is creative and rule-governed, not merely a chain of habits. In oral communication, therefore, the Direct Method gives more genuine communicative ability, while the Audio-Lingual Method gives more accuracy within a narrow, controlled range.

Conclusion

To conclude, the Direct Method and the Audio-Lingual Method share an oral foundation, rejection of translation and insistence on English as the classroom language, but they differ in

the teacher's role, from demonstrator-partner to drill-controller; in learner participation, from active and partly creative to intense but imitative; in activities, from conversation and demonstration to memorisation and pattern drills; and in oral results, from natural everyday fluency to high accuracy with weak transfer to free communication. Neither method is used today in its pure form, but modern communicative teaching has inherited the Direct Method's insistence on meaningful use and the Audio-Lingual Method's useful drilling techniques for pronunciation and structure. A wise elementary teacher combines both: drills for accuracy, and real communication for life.

Question 3: Grouping, Individualised Instruction and Seating Arrangements (20 Marks)

Explain the importance of large-group, small-group, and individualized instruction in English language classrooms. How do different seating arrangements support effective language learning?

Introduction

No two English lessons, and no two learners, are exactly alike. In a typical Pakistani elementary classroom the teacher faces forty or more children of very different ability: some hear English at home, others meet it only in school; some are bold speakers, others are silent for months. A single way of organising the class cannot serve all purposes and all children. Experienced teachers therefore vary the grouping of learners according to the aim of the activity: sometimes the whole class works together as a large group, sometimes it divides into small groups or pairs,

and sometimes each child works alone with material matched to his own level under individualised instruction. Each pattern has its own importance and its own limitations. Closely connected with grouping is the physical arrangement of furniture. Seating is not a minor matter of discipline; it decides who can see, hear, speak and cooperate with whom, and therefore directly supports or obstructs language learning. This answer explains the importance of the three forms of instruction and then examines how different seating arrangements support effective learning of English.

Large-Group (Whole-Class) Instruction: Importance

Large-group instruction means the teacher teaches the whole class together, presenting, explaining and practising with everyone at once. It is indispensable at certain moments of the lesson. New material, a new sound, a story or a song is most economically introduced to the whole class together, so that every learner receives the same correct model from the teacher. It builds a sense of community: children sing, chant, recite and respond together, and shy learners gain courage from the chorus because their individual voices are hidden in the group. Choral repetition in the large group is particularly valuable for pronunciation, rhythm and stress, where the whole class can drill a dialogue or rhyme without anyone feeling exposed.

Whole-class work also serves classroom management and shared experience. Instructions, stories told by the teacher with gestures and pictures, question-and-answer sessions and end-of-lesson revision all need the class as one audience. Its limitations are equally clear: speaking time per child is tiny, individual errors pass unnoticed, fast learners are bored and slow learners are lost, and the teacher cannot judge what each child has actually learned. Large-group

teaching is therefore best for presentation and shared practice, not as the pattern for the whole lesson.

Small-Group Instruction: Importance

Small-group instruction divides the class into groups of about four to six learners, or into pairs, each working on a task together. Its importance for language learning is immense, because language is learned by using it, and small groups multiply the opportunities to use it. In a forty-minute whole-class lesson a child may speak for a few seconds; in small-group work the same child may speak for several minutes. Speaking time is the scarcest resource in a language classroom, and grouping is the simplest way to increase it without extra staff or materials.

Small groups also change the emotional climate of learning. Children speak more freely before four classmates than before forty; the fear of ridicule falls, mistakes are treated lightly, and even silent children begin to participate. Groups allow genuine communication tasks that a lecture cannot provide: information-gap activities, role play, discussions, storytelling in turns, games, and joint preparation of a paragraph or dialogue. Learners teach one another in the process; a stronger child explains a word, a weaker child contributes an idea, and all practise listening, turn-taking and cooperation, which are themselves communicative and social skills. Groups can be formed by ability for targeted help, or mixed so that stronger learners support weaker ones. The teacher, freed from continuous talking, circulates, listens, notes common errors and helps groups that are stuck, acting as guide rather than lecturer.

Individualised Instruction: Importance

Individualised instruction means learning material and tasks are adjusted to the needs, pace and level of the individual learner, who works largely on his own with the teacher's guidance. Its importance rests on a simple truth: children do not learn at the same speed. In English this difference is extreme, because home exposure differs so widely. Individualised work, such as graded worksheets, self-access reading cards, vocabulary notebooks, learning corners and levelled storybooks, allows the fast learner to move ahead instead of waiting, and the slow learner to practise without shame the points he has not yet mastered.

It also develops independence and responsibility, which are long-term educational aims. The child learns to choose a task, complete it, check it against a key or model, record his progress and identify what he still cannot do. For the teacher, individual work produces evidence about each child: written exercises and reading records show exactly where each learner stands, making remedial teaching possible. In large Pakistani classes complete individualisation is difficult, but even a modest form, such as three levels of the same worksheet, or ten minutes of free reading at one's own level, respects individual differences far better than identical work for all.

Seating Arrangements and Language Learning

Seating arrangements are the physical side of grouping, and each arrangement supports a different kind of language activity. Rows facing the front suit large-group presentation: every child sees the blackboard, the teacher and the flashcards, attention is directed to one model, and control is easy in crowded rooms. But rows isolate learners from one another; children see

the backs of heads, pair talk disturbs neighbours, and the arrangement silently teaches that English is something received from the teacher, not something used with fellow learners.

A circle or U-shape (horseshoe) arrangement transforms communication. Learners face one another, eye contact is natural, and discussion, storytelling, show-and-tell and whole-class conversation become genuine exchanges rather than recitation to the teacher. The teacher sits within the circle as a participant. The U-shape keeps a board available at the open end, so it suits combined presentation and discussion, though it needs space that many classrooms lack.

Cluster or group seating, in which desks are joined in islands of four to six, directly supports small-group work. Learners can share materials, hold a group discussion without moving furniture, display group products, and help one another. Its risks are noise and off-task talk, which the teacher manages through clear tasks and time limits. Pair seating side by side is the simplest arrangement of all and supports the most frequent communicative unit, pair work: dialogues, interviews, reading to a partner and peer correction. Finally, flexible seating, in which the teacher rearranges the room for different phases of one lesson, rows for presentation, pairs for practice, clusters for the task, circle for the closing story, matches the physical environment to the learning purpose, and modern language teaching strongly recommends this flexibility wherever furniture can be moved.

Table 1: Seating Arrangements and the Learning They Support

Arrangement	Best suited to	Main benefit for English learning	Main limitation
Rows facing front	Presentation, board work, tests	Clear view of teacher and board; orderly listening	Little learner-to-learner talk

Circle / U-shape	Discussion, storytelling, conversation	Eye contact; equal participation; real dialogue	Needs space; board use limited in full circle
Clusters (islands)	Group tasks, projects, games	Maximum cooperation and speaking time	Noise and off-task talk if tasks are unclear
Pairs side by side	Dialogues, interviews, peer reading	Every child speaks in every lesson	Pairs of very unequal level need teacher support
Individual desks apart	Individualised work, assessment	Concentration; honest evidence of each child's level	No communicative practice

The practical lesson from the table is that no single arrangement is best for everything. The arrangement must follow the activity, just as the grouping must follow the aim. A teacher who keeps one fixed arrangement all year is, in effect, choosing one kind of learning and excluding the others, however good her explanations may be.

Conclusion

To conclude, large-group instruction gives economical presentation, a shared correct model and community practice; small-group instruction multiplies speaking time, lowers fear and makes genuine communication and cooperation possible; and individualised instruction respects different speeds and abilities, builds independence and gives the teacher exact knowledge of each learner. Seating arrangements are the visible framework of these choices: rows support reception, circles support discussion, clusters support cooperation, pairs support dialogue and separate desks support individual work. Effective English teaching at the elementary level therefore plans grouping and seating together, varying both according to the purpose of each

phase of the lesson, so that every child listens, speaks, cooperates and progresses at his own level.

Question 4: Problems of Teaching English at the Elementary Level in Pakistan and Practical Measures (20 Marks)

Critically analyze the major problems faced in teaching English at the elementary level in Pakistan. Also, suggest practical measures for improving English language teaching in schools.

Introduction

English has been taught in Pakistani schools for generations, yet the common experience is disappointing: a child studies English for eight or ten years and still cannot speak a few correct sentences, understand simple spoken English, or write a short paragraph without serious errors. At the elementary level, where the foundation should be laid, the problems are most severe, because weaknesses formed in classes one to five follow the learner throughout his education. A critical analysis must do more than list difficulties; it must examine their causes and their connections: policy, teachers, methods, materials, class conditions and examinations form one interlocking system, and a fault in one part damages all the others. This answer analyses the major problems under these heads and then suggests practical measures that schools, teachers and authorities can realistically adopt to improve English teaching at the elementary level.

Problems Related to Policy and the Place of English

The first problem is an unresolved tension in language policy. English is compulsory and prestigious, yet for the great majority of children it is a foreign language in daily life: it is not spoken at home, in the street or in the market. The child therefore meets English for perhaps thirty or forty minutes a day, and often even that period is used for translation into the mother tongue. There is no English environment to support classroom learning, and what is learned in one lesson is largely forgotten before the next. In addition, the medium-of-instruction question has shifted repeatedly, with announcements of English-medium teaching in public schools that were never matched by teacher preparation, so policy ambition and classroom reality remain far apart.

A second policy-level problem is the late and abrupt demand for results. Because English becomes the medium of textbooks and examinations in later classes, failure in English is a major cause of dropout and of failure in other subjects. The elementary school is thus blamed for a burden that properly belongs to the whole system, while the early years, which need the most investment, receive the least.

Problems Related to Teachers

The teacher is the centre of the problem. Many elementary teachers have themselves learned English through grammar-translation, have limited spoken proficiency, and are afraid of speaking English before the class; a teacher who cannot speak the language cannot teach children to speak it. Pre-service training is short and theoretical, in-service training is irregular, and English-specific training in pronunciation, classroom English and activity-based methods is

rare. Teachers are also overburdened: large classes, several subjects, non-teaching duties and low salaries that force second jobs leave little energy for preparing aids or activities.

Critically, the problem is not only competence but also conception. Many teachers believe that teaching English means finishing the textbook, translating every line and preparing children for the written examination. Speaking and listening are not examined, so they are not taught. Until the teacher's own proficiency, training and beliefs change together, new textbooks and orders from above produce little change in the classroom.

Problems of Method, Materials and Classroom Conditions

Methodologically, the grammar-translation method dominates: the teacher reads a line, translates it into Urdu or the regional language, explains a grammar rule, and children copy and memorise. Oral work is minimal, English is seldom heard, choral memorisation replaces understanding, and children learn about English rather than learn English. Errors are punished rather than treated as steps in learning, so children choose silence as the safest strategy and communicative confidence never develops.

Materials and conditions deepen the difficulty. Textbooks are often too difficult for the children's level, culturally distant and introduced faster than teachers can handle them. Audio-visual aids, flashcards, storybooks, charts and even simple real objects are missing in most public schools; libraries at the elementary level are rare. Classrooms are overcrowded, frequently with fifty to seventy children, which makes pair work, individual attention and oral testing practically impossible. Teaching periods are short, furniture is fixed, and in many rural schools multi-grade teaching and teacher absence further reduce the little English time

available. Assessment completes the circle: examinations test reading, translation and memorised writing only, so listening and speaking, the very heart of language, are systematically neglected by teachers, parents and children alike.

The Problem System in Summary

- Learner side: no English environment outside school; fear of mistakes; memorisation habits; weak mother-tongue literacy in some cases.
- Teacher side: limited proficiency, especially speaking; inadequate and non-practical training; heavy workload and low motivation.
- System side: overcrowded classes; difficult textbooks; absence of aids and storybooks; examinations that ignore listening and speaking.
- Result: children can decode and translate a little, but cannot understand spoken English, speak, or write freely; the gap widens every year.

Practical Measures for Improvement

Measures must match the diagnosis, and they must be practical rather than ceremonial. First, teacher development deserves the highest priority: regular, practical in-service courses focused on the teacher's own spoken English, classroom English, pronunciation and activity-based techniques, followed up by classroom observation and support rather than one-day workshops. Model lessons, teacher guides written in simple language, and cluster-level English teacher groups can sustain improvement at low cost.

Second, method must change from translation to use. Even in a crowded class, the teacher can use English for daily classroom routines, greetings, commands and praise; can teach through listening and speaking before reading and writing; and can employ pair work, which needs no materials and works even with sixty children: every child reads to a partner, asks set questions, or repeats a dialogue. Third, materials should be simplified and enriched: graded storybooks and a small class library corner, teacher-made flashcards and charts, real objects and pictures, and radio, mobile-phone audio or recorded rhymes and stories where equipment exists. Much of this costs little; the essential change is valuing aids as part of teaching, not decoration.

Fourth, assessment must be reformed to include listening and speaking, even through short oral tests each term; once oral skills carry marks, teachers will teach them and parents will demand them. Fifth, class conditions should be improved where possible: rationalising class size in the early grades, protecting the English period from cancellation, and ensuring the textbook is actually available to every child. Finally, the home and community can help: parents should be told that English stories, songs and conversation, even a few minutes daily, strengthen school learning, and children should be praised for attempting English rather than corrected harshly. None of these measures requires waiting for a complete change of the system; each school and each teacher can begin with several of them immediately.

Conclusion

To conclude, the problems of elementary English teaching in Pakistan form a connected system: a foreign-language environment at home, teachers with limited spoken proficiency and traditional beliefs, translation-based methods, difficult books without aids, overcrowded rooms

and examinations that ignore oral skills. Critically viewed, no single villain explains the failure; it is the combination that defeats the learner. The encouraging conclusion is that the same connections work in reverse: improving teacher training changes method, including speaking in assessment changes teaching, and simple pair work and storybooks change the child's daily experience of English. Practical, sustained measures at school level, supported by realistic policy, can convert English from a feared examination subject into a usable language for Pakistani children, provided the elementary years are finally given the priority they deserve.

Question 5: A Teaching Strategy for Introducing New Vocabulary Through Pictures, Real Objects and Contextual Use (20 Marks)

Develop a teaching strategy for introducing new vocabulary through pictures, real objects, and contextual use. Explain how the strategy can improve learners' understanding and communication skills.

Introduction

Vocabulary is the foundation of all language skills. A learner with words but little grammar can still communicate a great deal, while a learner with grammar but no words can communicate almost nothing. For elementary learners, however, new English words are easily taught badly: the teacher writes the word, gives its Urdu meaning, and the class memorises the pair for the test. The result is words that are recognised in a list but neither understood deeply nor used in speech or writing. Young children learn words best in the way they learned their mother tongue: by seeing, touching, hearing and using words in meaningful situations. This answer

develops a complete teaching strategy for introducing new vocabulary through three mutually supporting channels: pictures, real objects (realia) and contextual use. It presents the strategy step by step as it would be used in an elementary lesson, with a worked example, and then explains how the strategy improves both understanding and communication skills.

Principles Behind the Strategy

The strategy rests on four principles. First, meaning before translation: the word should be attached directly to the thing, picture or situation, so that the child thinks in English instead of translating every time. Second, multi-sensory learning: the more senses are involved, seeing, touching, hearing, even smelling and tasting where suitable, the stronger the memory trace. Third, active use: a word is not learned when it is explained; it is learned when the learner hears it, says it, reads it, writes it and uses it for a real purpose several times in varied ways. Fourth, limited load and recycling: five to eight new words per lesson, carefully selected from the children's world, and deliberately recycled in later lessons, songs and routines, because words met once are words forgotten. The teacher plans in advance which words to teach, what object or picture will present each word, what simple sentence pattern will carry it, and what activity will make children use it.

The Strategy Step by Step

Stage one is preparation and warming up. The teacher arranges the real objects in a bag or box and the pictures ready for display, and begins by revising related known words, for example colours or classroom objects, to activate the children's existing English. Stage two is presentation with real objects. The teacher takes out each object, shows it, says the word

clearly two or three times with correct stress, and the class repeats in chorus and then individually. Children pass the object around, hold it, and answer simple questions: What is this? Is it big or small? The word is written on the board only after it has been heard and spoken, with a quick sketch beside it.

Stage three is presentation and practice with pictures, which extends vocabulary beyond objects that can be brought into class: animals, vehicles, actions and places. The teacher shows a large picture, elicits what children see, teaches the new words, and practises them through games such as point to the..., show me..., odd-one-out, memory games and matching word cards to pictures. Stage four is contextual use, the heart of the strategy. Words are placed in a meaningful mini-situation: a short story, a dialogue at a fruit shop, or a description of a picture in sentences. Children hear the words connected with one another and with a purpose, guess meanings from context, and then perform the dialogue or retell the story in pairs. Stage five is production and assessment: children draw and label, complete a simple worksheet, play a vocabulary game, or use the new words to describe their own objects and pictures. The teacher observes who can use the words correctly and notes words needing revision next lesson.

Table 1: Worked Example - Teaching Fruit Names (Class 3, 40 Minutes)

Stage	Teacher and learner activity	Words taught
Warm-up (5 min)	Revise colours with crayons; sing a short fruit rhyme	Revision: red, green, yellow
Real objects (10 min)	Teacher shows real apple, banana, orange, mango from a basket; children hold, name, repeat, answer questions	apple, banana, orange, mango
Pictures (8 min)	Picture cards of grapes and watermelon; matching and	grapes, watermelon

	memory games in pairs	
Context (10 min)	Role play at a fruit shop: 'I want an apple, please.' 'Here you are.' Pairs perform	All words in sentences; want, please
Production (7 min)	Children draw their favourite fruit, label it and say one sentence about it	Consolidation of all six words

This example shows the three channels working together. Real objects teach the four fruits that can be carried into class; pictures teach the two that cannot; and the shop dialogue converts all six words from labels into tools of communication. Notice also the order: listening and speaking come first, the written word appears after the oral word is known, and reading and writing grow out of meaningful use rather than preceding it.

How the Strategy Improves Understanding

The strategy improves understanding first by making meaning clear without translation. A child who has held a mango, seen its colour and heard the word mango in the same moment possesses the meaning directly; there is no weak chain of English word to Urdu word to idea. Pictures do the same for things that cannot be brought to class and add detail and interest: the picture of a watermelon shows its size, colour and seeds, so the word carries a rich image, not a bare equivalent. Such concrete, image-based meanings are understood more accurately and remembered far longer than memorised translations, because they are stored with sight, touch and emotion attached.

Contextual use deepens understanding further. In the shop dialogue the child learns not only what apple means but how the word behaves: it takes an before it, it follows want, it can be

counted and priced. Context also teaches shades and limits of meaning: children see which words go together, which situations each word belongs to, and how words differ from their near neighbours. Repeated encounters in stories, games and routines move the word from passive recognition to secure knowledge, and because children deduce some meanings from context themselves, they gain the vital skill of guessing unknown words while reading, which serves them for the rest of their lives.

How the Strategy Improves Communication Skills

Vocabulary learned this way is available for communication, because it was acquired inside communication. Children have pronounced each word many times, heard it in sentences, and used it to ask, answer, buy, describe and narrate, so speaking with the new words feels familiar rather than risky. Confidence grows because success is frequent: games, dialogues and drawing-and-saying activities let every child use the words at his own level, and the class hears acceptable English spoken by children, not only by the teacher.

The strategy also supplies the raw material of all four skills. Listening improves as children respond to words in commands and stories; speaking improves through dialogues and descriptions; reading is easier because picture-word matching and labelled drawings connect print with known meanings; and writing becomes possible because children can now write sentences about what they can say. Perhaps most importantly, the method creates motivation: interesting objects, colourful pictures, games and acting make English lessons enjoyable, and enjoyment produces the willingness to communicate, without which no skill can develop.

Conclusion

To conclude, a vocabulary strategy built on real objects, pictures and contextual use follows the natural way children learn language: from the concrete to the abstract, from meaning to form, and from reception to production. Objects give words a direct, multi-sensory meaning; pictures extend that meaning beyond the classroom walls; and context binds words into sentences, situations and purposes. The result is understanding that is accurate, deep and durable, and communication skills that grow because words are learned by being used. For the elementary teacher the strategy needs little money, mainly preparation, imagination and consistency, and it converts vocabulary teaching from memorisation of lists into the living foundation of English learning.

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