

# Teaching English as Second Language

Theory, Techniques and Technology



AARATI R. MUJUMDAR

# Teaching English as Second Language

This multidisciplinary volume is a systematic, well-researched resource to help understand the methods and techniques of teaching English as a second language. It integrates theory with praxis, drawing on the Cognitivist–Social interactionist theory and Constructivist approaches adopted in an English classroom. It provides insights into recent trends in teaching, given the changed teaching–learning scenario in education, while simultaneously aiding in the development of the 4IR skills much needed in the 21st century.

Written in an easy-to-understand language, the book expounds on various language skills and their application in real-world classrooms. These classroom-tested techniques can be used by teachers by modifying the context in which they are used. The tasks help develop critical-thinking and problem-solving abilities in learners. The techniques and practices elucidated in the book are designed to be accessible to a global readership.

This book will be useful to students, pre-service teachers, and researchers, who are new to the teaching of English Language. It will also be an essential companion to practicing in-service teachers and Teacher Trainers to further sharpen their concepts and skills.

**Aarati R. Mujumdar** holds a PhD and MPhil degrees in English Language Teaching from Maharaja Sayajirao University of Baroda, India. Both dissertations are psycholinguistic, exploring the cognitive processes of writing Language 2 compositions. Her teaching experience spans over 35 years in which she has taught language, literature, and academic writing. She has guided students toward their PhD degrees and presently is a foreign evaluator for adjudicating PhD thesis for various universities in India. Her research has been published in Scopus indexed and reputed peer-reviewed international journals, she has presented on numerous international platforms, and her areas of research interests are Psycholinguistics, developing Critical Thinking, and Teaching Methodologies. She has authored books on Business Communication and Academic English.



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## Theory, Techniques and Technology

Aarati R. Mujumdar



Designed cover image: Getty Images

First published 2025

by Routledge

4 Park Square, Milton Park, Abingdon, Oxon OX14 4RN

and by Routledge

605 Third Avenue, New York, NY 10158

*Routledge is an imprint of the Taylor & Francis Group, an informa business*

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*British Library Cataloguing-in-Publication Data*

A catalogue record for this book is available from the British Library

ISBN: 978-1-032-60369-8 (hbk)

ISBN: 978-1-041-00723-4 (pbk)

ISBN: 978-1-003-61130-1 (ebk)

DOI: 10.4324/9781003611301

Typeset in Sabon

by Deanta Global Publishing Services, Chennai, India

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# Preface

A lot of water has flown under the bridge since I penned this book. After teaching in India for 27 years (at Maharaja Sayajirao University of Baroda), I moved to Oman in 2014 to join the Modern College of Business Science (MCBS, the first private college of Oman), which shifted my teaching perspective. From teaching a set of multilingual students (Indian students are generally multilingual) to teaching a set of bilingual and international students in Oman, I gathered new insights that led me to change my teaching strategies. In addition to this, COVID-19 changed the way I delivered knowledge, new norms emerged that are not going away any time soon. When pandemic gave way to face-to-face teaching again, Gen Z continued to constantly engage with technology. They had just started to get over their lethargy of using pens, when to their advantage, AI language model tools emerged commonly referred to as ChatGPT. For them, it was another tool they could use without getting noticed that they had not written their assignments but for the teachers it posed a big challenge. Today, into my 11th year of teaching at MCBS, Oman, each day I continue to learn new things from my students and my international colleagues. Despite the changed education scenario, the genesis of writing this book remains the same. In this revised edition, the new insights gained form new chapters—integration of AI in teaching, using alternate mode of learning methodologies to enhance learning experiences of Gen Zs, while cautioning the students that plagiarizing in academics leads to a breach in integrity that will affect their progress and success in future.

Why do I begin my book by writing about the theories of language learning? Let me recount a personal experience. My teaching career began as a class teacher of Standard II in Nashik, an industrial town in the state of Maharashtra in India, nearly 400 km away from Mumbai. I taught a poem and set up a class test to understand whether the students had understood what I had taught. In the test, some students fared well, most of them fared averagely, and the rest poorly. This made me think as to why the students had fared differently when the input was the same? Though I was teaching the English language, I had no knowledge of the theoretical aspect of language learning. A couple of months later when I joined Maharaja Sayajirao University, Baroda, India, as a student of Master of Philosophy (MPhil) in English Language Teaching, I understood the reasons and the many factors that are involved in learning a language that makes the output differential. Yes, dear friends, this is the primary reason why this book begins with the theoretical considerations and proceeds to the practical aspect of teaching English as a second language. Gaining insights into the way language is learnt will help teachers understand learners and orient their teaching by using appropriate methods and techniques.

The order of the chapters denotes the layout of the book. Theory gives way to the constituent elements of the English language, which is followed by the practicums and techniques of the four skills. A chapter on assessment will help the teachers prepare tests and question papers to reflect on students' learning and their own teaching. I would like you all to note that the designed activities have been used in the Indian classrooms. However, they are very generic and can be adapted to any global classroom situation. Online teaching has come to stay. Separate chapters are designated to Online teaching and methods, embracing AI tools in teaching, and building a classroom culture of academic integrity with special focus on plagiarism.

On this note, I am hoping that you find my writing useful, and activities interactive, to develop language proficiency in learners.

Aarati R. Mujumdar, Muscat

Date: June 14, 2024



# Acknowledgments

At the very outset, I wish to dedicate this book to all my students, who I have taught for over 37 years in India and in Oman. Learning is a two-way process and without students a teacher has no identity. Thank you, dear students, for trusting me that I could help you overcome the fear of the “unknown” and help you achieve your path to success and glory. In this journey of mine, I have learned from each one of you. Thank you.

My passion for teaching was first ignited by my teachers from Sacred Heart Convent, Jamshedpur, where I did my schooling, followed by my professors at Jamshedpur Women’s College. The scholarship they possessed kept the lamp of learning burning within me. This was fully supported by my parents, who considered that education was the only jewel that would constantly shine and never lose its luster and sheen. They were not wrong, and that urge “to know more” remains in me today. My professors from Nagpur University where I did my masters helped me hone my language skills and consolidated my love for literature.

I would not be who I am today, had Professor Ranu Vanikar not made me aware of what I was capable of. She brought out in me the spirit of inquiry that I possess today, through my MPhil and doctoral dissertations in the area of writing skills at Maharaja Sayajirao University of Baroda. This questioning spirit further developed in the Department of English, at Maharaja Sayajirao University of Baroda, where I served for 25 years. Each colleague of mine from the Department has shaped my thinking, which has translated into the writing of this book. I am extremely thankful to each one of them for their trust, confidence, and faith in me, the memories of which can never be erased.

I sincerely wish to thank my two doctoral students, Dr Sanjukta Sivakumar and Dr Tarun Patel, who gave me the opportunity to guide them toward their doctoral degrees. This helped me to grow further as a researcher and teacher and understand the nuances of thinking, which underlie the language behavior of students. Thank you both for showing confidence in me that I could help you grow in your academic careers.

Meena and Kamali, a big shout out to both of you for helping me in my doctoral dissertation, by critiquing what I used to write when we worked together at Bangalore. You both helped me to gain psychological insights into the functioning of a teacher training institute, which helped me formulate ideas that are a part of this book. The wonderful time we spent together at RIE Bangalore, the reverberation of laughter at lunchtime, I am sure still resonates among the four walls of the institute. These and many more incidents have left lasting impressions that years cannot wipe away. Meena, once again thank you for helping me settle into my new job here in Muscat.

I will be failing in my duty if I do not thank the management of the Modern College of Business and Science, Muscat, where I am presently teaching. If they had not given

me an opportunity to be a part of their faculty, I would not have known how to teach international students, nor how to be a part of the diverse system of expatriate teachers and students from 27 different countries. This opportunity has helped me to understand myself better and has taught me how to adjust and adapt to a totally new teaching-learning and culturally vibrant environment. I sincerely wish to thank all my colleagues who seamlessly made me a part of the Department of General Education. Thank you, dear colleagues, for taking me into your fold and helping me to be a part of you all. A big thank you to all the students who I have taught for over the semesters these past 10 years. I have learned from each one of you.

How can I forget my family? Rajeev, Namita, Gaurav, Amol, Aparna, and, of course, my adorable granddaughter, Aahna. When I visit them in the United States, our roles are reversed. Aahna is my teacher, and I am her student. All of them mean so much to me; to say just a “Thank you” is an understatement. Without my family, I am no one. The invaluable support I received from each one of them over the years has made me what I am today.

In my life journey, my brothers, Rahul and Sanjiv, and their families have also contributed with their thinking. The discussions I have had with them and their children while they were studying at Cambridge, and Harvard, gave me new insights into teaching, some of which I have incorporated in this book. Thank you all for your unstinted support.

I would be failing in my duty if I did not thank my publisher, Routledge, for publishing this book. Looking back, sometimes I wonder whether I have really written all of it. Thank you for being patient with me and giving me the time that I needed to pen my thoughts. It is a dream that I have always dreamt of.

I am still passionate about molding young minds and achieving their career goals, I “have miles to go before I sleep and miles to go before I sleep.”



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# 1 Education and the English Language

## Education, Industrial Revolutions, and the English Language

Education has undergone a paradigm shift over the years aligning with the shifts and transformations accompanying every Industrial Revolution (IR). This alignment between industrialization and education was self-reinforcing. Every change in the industry brought about a shift not only in the economy, social life, health, lifestyle, employment, and skills development but also in education. The Industrial Revolution marked a period of technological advancements and socio-economic change that reshaped almost every aspect of human life.

It all began in the 18th century in Britain and the United States, as the agrarian economy started shifting to the industrial economy. This shift created a new demand for education. Before the Industrial Revolution, education was very shallow, and most of the people in society were illiterate, focusing more on farming and daily survival. There was little or no interest in knowledge. Education was accessible only to the wealthy few. As more industries were developed, factories were created and more human labor was needed. In the 1800s, formal education became inclusive as it was accessible even to the poorest people (Figure 1.1). Children were taught basic literacy and numeracy skills. As factories sprung up and manufacturing techniques began to shift from traditional methods to more structured systems, this brought about further growth of education.

The Second Industrial Revolution in the late 19th century saw the innovation of transportation, steamship communication, the automobile, radio, telegraph, and the light bulb. The emergence of the printing press witnessed a rise in reading habits, and literacy rates increased. These created a demand for specialized labor. New technologies were introduced, and training schools were established in Europe and the United States to train people on how to work with the newly invented machinery. This resulted in specialized subjects being introduced in universities and colleges.

The digital revolution triggered the advent of the Third Industrial Revolution. With the coming of the internet and personal computers, the balance tilted toward information-based and service-oriented economies. It was the age of communication, media, tape recordings, vinyl disks, digital files, and compact disks. Online learning was launched in colleges and campuses to extend the reach of campus-based programs. Teaching of the STEM subjects witnessed a phenomenal rise, marginalizing general education and the arts subjects to a secondary status. This shift in the curricula set the stage for the Fourth Industrial Revolution, which we are witnessing today.

The Fourth Industrial Revolution is the era of artificial intelligence, artificial agents, robotics, the Internet of Things, biotechnologies, and the like. New technologies are

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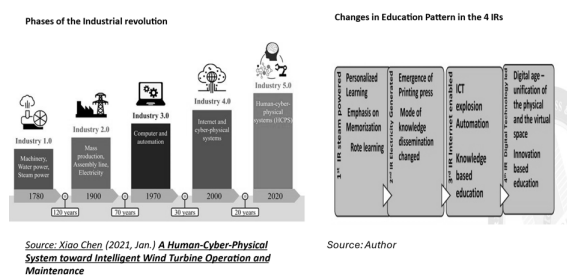


Figure 1.1 Phases of the Industrial Revolution and the change in education.

developing at an unprecedented rate. Online teaching, which started during the Third IR got an unprecedented boost during the COVID-19 pandemic and has now come to stay. With the publication of new language models of AI like ChatGPT and many more, the delivery of knowledge in the classroom has changed. This has resulted in massive shifts in jobs, and professions like accounting, diagnostics, marketing, management, and media are seen to be on the wane. The educational curriculum is shifting to teaching skills and competencies that are found to be important for a successful career. Focus is now placed on multidisciplinary courses and the development of soft skills, which include interpersonal and intercultural communication, critical thinking, problem-solving, oral and written communication, and power skills like teamwork, creativity, and emotional intelligence. The most important feature of education in the Fourth IR is the concept of lifelong learning, being ethical, and being a global citizen. As this also gives rise to the next IR, structures and technologies will come and go, but learning will always remain a constant requirement for success.

Given these changes, the English language has had its own linguistic revolution due to advances in science, industry, and technology, as well as trends in business and cultural shifts. New words were coined, new meanings accrued to a set of words, and new ideas appeared to help describe and explain them fully. Considering the rate of technological change since the 18th century, the English language has evolved and grown and will continue to grow alongside the myriad of advances that are yet to come. This flexibility of the English language has made it possible for cross-cultural communication across the world, keeping abreast of the top of current trends in business research and training that can help businesses to progress and thrive.

### English as a World Language

English has spread its wings across the world, and the native language of the United Kingdom and United States has attained an international status. Over the years, the position of English has rapidly changed and the number of people who speak English as their second language has grown exponentially. Economic and technological forces have played a major role in establishing English as the medium of communication. The language has succeeded in reinventing itself as a medium of global communication, a legacy left by colonialism in many other countries including India. Considering the spread of English across continents, Kachru (1985) divided English in the world into three circles (Figure 1.2).

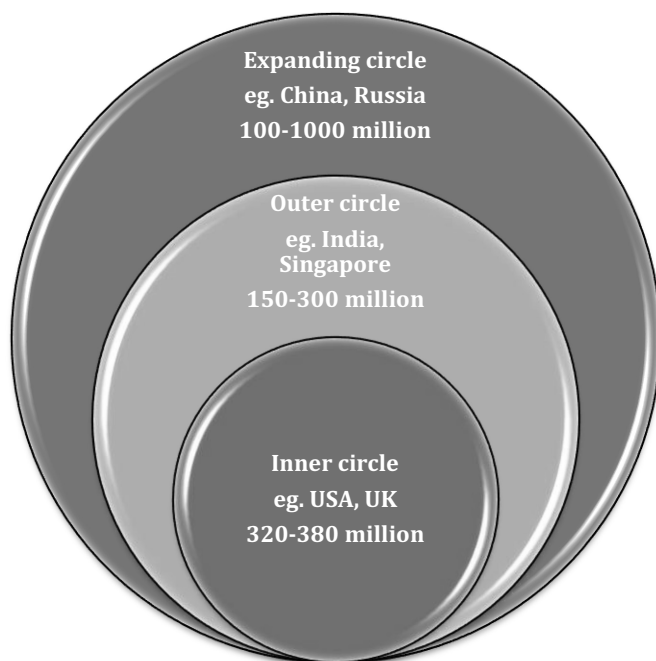


Figure 1.2 Spread of English around the world (David Crystal 1995).

Note: Figures refer to populations of English speakers.

Source: David Crystal (1995).

The **inner circle** consists of “native speakers” for whom English is the first language and often the only language.

The **outer circle** consists of people using English as a second language for official and inter-state as well as international communication.

The **expanding circle** consists of speakers learning English as a foreign language, generally used for a specific purpose. If we take Crystal’s (1995) estimate of the speakers of English, it will look as given in Figure 1.2.

Graddol (1997) was of the view that the speakers of English as a second language would outnumber the first language English speakers, which “increasingly will decide the global future of the language.” According to him, Kachru’s concentric circles would overlap and the center of gravity would shift toward the Language 2 speakers.

This center of gravity has shifted in the 21st century. In the context of India, Graddol (2010) in his book *India Next* stated that “a major shift in the status of English in India was underway. English will be used by a greater number of people for more purposes.” According to him, the main drivers for English would be:

- **Education:** increasing demand for English-medium schools, widening access to higher education, incorporation of English training in vocational education
- **Employment:** sustained economic growth requires many jobs in the organized sector requiring good English skills.
- **Social mobility:** English is seen as an access route to the middle class and geographical mobility within India.

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These drivers are applicable the world over; worldwide speakers of English have increased. The shift from agrarianism to industrialization, further to Information Technology, has seen a shift in the position of English not only in India but also in the international world. English is no longer “Eurocentric” but has acquired an international hue as globalization and free market policies have shrunk the world into a global village, in which English acts as a tool for communication. The English language is synonymous with the IT revolution and the internet. The development of AI language models like ChatGPT, Gemini, etc., by Google, and an open access has seen a shift in language users and the way in which information is disseminated. It has stripped the language of “culture, class and even race” (Krishnaswamy, 2006) resulting in “effective communication skills in English” acquiring a greater market value than the study of literary texts. Today’s workforce all over the world is multilingual, multicultural, and multiethnic. Multinational companies and outsourcing centers ask for competence in communication skills in English. All professional and business situations, such as facing interviews, writing resumes and reports, conducting campaigns, conducting meetings, seminars, conferences, and discussions use the English language. If one is proficient in communicating in English and if one’s accent is “mutually intelligible,” he/she has the entire world as an open access. This present scenario of the use of English has led many countries to re-formulate their language policy to suit national and global needs.

#### **Teaching of English**

As the status of the English language underwent constant reinvention, the English language teaching paradigm also has been subject to constant modification. The closing years of the 20th century saw English emerge as the global language. The liberalization of the economies ushered in various reasons to learn the language. Earlier in the century, students who had specialized in English joined either teaching or the elite services that required English language proficiency, but now a whole new spectrum of job opportunities has opened. In India, and perhaps in other countries as well, English was needed by trainers at call centers to equip their employees with communication skills, by multinationals to train their staff in spoken English, by medical transcription centers to be effective and efficient translators and reporters, and those desirous of immigrating to the West for greener pastures.

This change percolated down to the social, political, and economic levels. English ceased to be the prerogative of only the upper classes and of a few groups who were seen using English in everyday life. The middle class learned it to use it for official purposes or those social occasions where they wished to leave an impression. For the lower classes, the use of English remained within the four walls of the classroom. With the beginning of the 21st century, all of this has now changed. The information explosion has led to “a revolution in our understanding of human physical, cognitive, and social development, as well as on the nature of the learning process.” Teacher is considered only a facilitator while the students are active participants in the learning process. However, industry and business houses levied the criticism that graduates were not work-ready and did not possess the required competencies to survive and thrive in an increasingly globalized world (Soland, Hamilton, & Stecher, 2013). This led the educators to frame competency-based syllabi, which moves beyond transmitting only information and gaining mastery of content. It focuses on creating SMART learning outcomes and evaluating the techniques used. These learner outcomes are specified as competencies that learners should be able to achieve at the end of the instructional process. Given this shift in teaching, none of this

can be realized without language. More importantly, with the emergence of AI language models and open AI platforms, a new use of the English language has emerged. Students need to master the English language to research, to build a knowledge-based economy, and to frame appropriate prompts to use the AI models in a productive way.

In conclusion, the English language has evolved over the centuries and so has English language teaching. It is pertinent to pause and reflect on the different approaches and methodologies followed in the teaching of English.

### To Summarize

Global factors have led English to be acknowledged as the language for communication.

Industrial revolutions and their impact on education.

Teaching of English.

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## 2 Methods and Approaches

### Introduction

The chapter 1 focused on the changes that have taken place in the evolution of the English language due to the industrial revolutions. It also emphasized that language plays a major role in developing the competencies in students, which are the learning outcomes. Theories of language learning have acknowledged these learner changes and language behaviors relating to language development. This has resulted in changes in approaches and methods, which translate into methodology catering to developing language proficiency and competencies in learners. The important question is whether these new approaches help to achieve the objectives. This chapter reviews the different approaches and methodologies used in the West to teach English and explores whether these have helped in meeting the objectives.

### Difference between Approach and Method

Before reviewing the different language teaching approaches and methods, it is important to understand and make a distinction between an approach and a method. To differentiate between the two, applied linguist Edward Anthony (1963) identified three levels of conceptualization and organization that are termed—approach, method, and technique.

According to Anthony's model (1963), **approaches** are **axiomatic**. It is the level at which assumptions and beliefs about language and language learning are specified. These assumptions and beliefs, or axioms, are abstract concepts that the teacher may or may not be conscious of. These axioms remotely guide the teacher's awareness and organization of his/her work in the classroom.

**Method** is an overall plan for the orderly presentation of material, which is based upon a selected approach. There could be many methods within a single approach. It is **procedural** and outlines in a proximate and concrete manner the overall functioning of the teacher in a classroom. It is the level at which theory is put into practice. At this level, choices are made about particular skills to be taught, the content to be taught, and the order in which content is to be presented.

The **technique** is the actual unit of teacher's behavior that takes place in the classroom. It is a teaching device or a strategy to accomplish the immediate objective. It is **implementational** and must be consistent with a method and in harmony with the approach as well. Anthony's model thus serves as a useful way of distinguishing between different degrees of abstraction and specificity found in different language teaching proposals.

To sum up the distinction, we can say that the teacher has certain beliefs that their students will benefit from a particular approach. Based on this belief, the teacher devises

a teaching methodology to achieve the learning outcome. In class, the teacher undertakes teaching using various activities. This teacher's behavior in the classroom is the teaching technique. Keeping this distinction in mind, a short review of the various language teaching innovations carried out in the West is presented in the next section.

### **Traditional Approaches and Methods**

Tradition for many years was the guiding principle for language study, and the **grammar translation method** reflected a time-honored and scholarly view of language and language teaching. The study of grammar translation dominated European and foreign language teaching from the 1840s to the 1940s, and in a modified form, it continues to be used in some parts of the world. This method was the offspring of German scholarship, and its leading exponents were Johann Seidenstucker, Karl Plotz, H.S. Ollendorf, and Johann Meidinger. The objective of this method was “to know everything about something rather than the thing itself” (W.H.D. Rouse, quoted in Kelly 1969: 53).

It was an era where formal grammar reigned supreme. The main underlying principle of this method was that the mother tongue remained as the reference system in learning and in the acquisition of a second language (Stern 1983). In the classroom:

1. Grammar was taught prescriptively through the study of rules.
2. Students memorized endless lists of grammatical rules and vocabulary to produce translation.
3. Teacher translated every word, phrase, and sentence from English to the mother tongue.
4. Students translated sentences from the mother tongue to the target language.
5. Accuracy was given a lot of importance. According to Howatt (1984), “high priority” was attached to meticulous standards of accuracy, which was a (ibid) “pre-requisite for passing the increasing number of formal examinations that grew up during the nineteenth century.”
6. Method focused primarily on the skills of reading and writing with little emphasis on listening or speaking.
7. Mother tongue of the learner was used to explain new items and make comparisons with their equivalents in the target language.

By the middle of the 19th century, opposition grew toward this method in several European countries and a demand was created for oral proficiency in foreign languages. The Frenchman, C. Marcel (1793–1896), and the Englishman, T. Prendergast (1806–1886), are well known 19th-century reformers. Marcel, emphasizing the importance of meaning in learning, proposed that reading be taught before other skills and tried to locate language teaching within a broader educational framework. Prendergast observed that children used contextual and situational cues to interpret utterances and used memorized phrases in speaking. He proposed the first “structural syllabus” (Richards and Rogers 1986: 5) that later developed into a method. But it was the Frenchman, F. Gouin (1831–1896), who is perhaps considered the best known mid-19th-century reformer. Gouin developed an approach to teach foreign languages based on his observations of children's use of language. He believed that language learning was facilitated by using language to accomplish events that consisted of a sequence of related actions. His method used situations and themes as ways of organizing and presenting oral language. It was

Gouin's approach of teaching a foreign language based on the observation of child language learning that advocated the "natural" or the "Direct Method" in Europe (Richards and Rogers 1986: 9).

The **Direct Method** opposed the grammar translation method in both theory and practice. The underlying principle of this method was that words should be directly associated with reality or experience, which would help students to find a meaning to the new linguistic forms they were exposed to. Language learning was facilitated by:

1. The use of language that consisted of a series of related actions.
2. English was taught through English only, as a result of which a transition to an "all English classroom" was affected.
3. Emphasis was placed on oral proficiency.
4. Inductive teaching of grammar was carried on in classrooms.
5. Learners were taught new vocabulary.

In Europe and America, the early nineties (1920–1940) saw a lot of work done in the field of vocabulary. These years saw Thorndike's (1921) *Teacher's Word Book* (1921) and Carnegie's (1936) *Interim Report on Vocabulary Selection* being published. At the same time in India, Michael West published *Bilingualism* (1926), which was based on his research at Dacca. *Experiments and Studies in Modern Language Teaching* by Coleman and Fife was also published in 1934. Both reports emphasized the importance of reading and placed speaking in a secondary position, which was the main tenet of the Direct Method. West also published his famous *New Method Readers* based on his ideas on vocabulary selection and placed emphasis on the systematic teaching of "reading." This period was marked by pioneering work in the twin fields of vocabulary selection and reading. Serious efforts were also made to evolve a scientific approach to language teaching.

In the 1940s, two parallel schools of language teaching emerged. The entry of the United States of America into World War II had a significant effect on language teaching in America. The American government needed qualified people to train their military personnel in various foreign languages. Thus, the Army Specialized Training Program (ASTP) was established in 1942. The ASTP lasted only for about two years but made a considerable impact on the academic community, the linguists, and the language teachers. Linguists and applied linguists during this period were becoming increasingly involved in teaching of English as a foreign language. The demand for foreign expertise in teaching was also growing. Thousands of students who came to America for higher studies required training in English before they could begin their higher studies. These factors led to the emergence of what is popularly known as the **Structural-Oral-Situational Approach** (S-O-S Approach) in the mid-1950s.

The second important development in the United States was the development of the **Oral Approach** by Charles Fries. He was a trained structural linguist, and he applied the principles of structural linguistics to language learning. He and his colleagues rejected approaches like those of the Direct Method that exposed learners to the language and allowed gradual absorption of the grammatical patterns. Instead, for Fries, grammar or "structure" was the starting point in teaching language. The structure of the language was identified with its basic sentence patterns and grammatical structures. Language was taught by placing systematic attention on pronunciation and by intensive oral drilling of its basic sentence patterns and grammatical structures. Teaching techniques concentrated on the repetition of a pattern several times so that the learner becomes perfect in the use of the pattern.

In Britain, a parallel approach to language teaching was being developed—the oral approach to teach English as a foreign or second language. Two prominent applied linguists, H. Palmer and A.S. Hornby, attempted to develop a more scientific foundation to teach English than was seen in the Direct Method. The result was a systematic study of the principles and procedures that could be applied to the selection and organization of the content of a language course. In this approach, two aspects received attention—vocabulary and grammar. It was Hornby himself who used the term “situational approach.” This approach suggested that any language item, whether it be a structure or a word, should not be presented in isolation. It had to be introduced and practiced in a context, situationally. Efforts made by specialists like Palmer, West, and Hornby firmly established the foundations for the structural-oral-situational approach, which was accepted in the late 1940s and early 1950s.

In the United States, Noam Chomsky (1957) in his classic book *Syntactic Structures* questioned the theory underlying the structural approach. He was of the view that current standard structural theories of language were incapable of accounting for the fundamental characteristic of language—the creativity and uniqueness of individual sentences (explained in detail in Chapter III). Along with him, British linguists also emphasized the functional and communicative potential of language that was inadequately addressed in the current approaches. They saw the need to focus on communicative proficiency instead of mere mastery over structures. Scholars like Candlin and Widdowson who advocated this view of language drew on the works of British functional linguists, like Firth, Halliday, and American sociolinguists, like Hymes, Gumpres, Labov, and on the works on philosophy of Austin and Searle.

The changing educational realities in Europe also contributed to the development of alternative approaches to language teaching, and in 1972, a British linguist, D.A. Wilkins, proposed the first communicative syllabus for language teaching. Wilkins (1972) described two types of meanings that lay behind the communicative use of language—**notional categories**—which included concepts such as time, sequence, quality, location frequency, etc., and **categories of communicative functions**, which included requests, denials, offers, complaints, etc. Wilkins later expanded these functions into a book called *Notional Syllabuses* (1976), which had a significant impact on the development of communicative language teaching (CLT). The teaching of language began to be viewed in terms of the functions it would perform. As this aspect of language learning gained momentum, a distinction was drawn between **competence and performance**. The notion of communicative competence as introduced by Dell Hymes (1972) referred to the knowledge of the rules of the language, while performance referred to the realization of the language in terms of output. It referred to the learner’s ability to use rules of grammar in appropriately relevant social contexts. A shift was perceived in emphasis from the individual to society and from the psychology of mind to the society. The scope of communicative competence widened from its linguistic potential to its sociological implications, and it was increasingly felt that learners need language not for the mere production of correct sentences, but as a “**social tool**.” Both American and British exponents now saw that the communicative approach aimed at the following:

1. Making communicative competence the goal of language teaching.
2. Developing procedures for teaching the four language skills that acknowledge the interdependence of language and communication.

## 10 *Teaching English as Second Language*

In this approach, the primary units of language were not merely its grammatical and structural features, but categories of functional and communicative meanings exemplified in discourse. Its comprehensiveness thus made it different in scope and status from any of the other approaches or methods. **Communicative language teaching** thus meant a little more than an integration of grammatical and functional teaching. According to Littlewood, “it paid systematic attention to functional as well as structural aspects of language” (1981: 1).

As the communicative movement gained momentum in the 1980s, teachers and material designers faced the challenge of creating conditions for learning that made use of genuine communicative contexts. The methodologies followed were

1. Development of a friendly rapport between the teacher and student.
2. Oral introduction of any new item—grammatical or functional—through a series of examples.
3. Importance given to individual, pair work, or group work.
4. Numerous real-life situations provided learners with opportunities to put the acquired language to creative use.

With this movement, the role of the teacher underwent a great change. He/She no longer remained the controller of the classroom, but now assumed various roles in the classroom—facilitator, organizer, resource person, tutor, mentor, assessor, and participant. Approaches and methods of English language teaching had come a long way from the grammar translation method to communicative language teaching. The British colonies followed these methods, and India being one of them was deeply impacted.

### **Impact of Western Approaches and Methods on Indian Education**

Classical languages like Persian and Sanskrit were taught before English came to India. These languages were taught through the grammar translation method. Many schools in India continued to adopt this method to teach Sanskrit until the 1970s, and today the same approach is still followed to teach this classical language.

When the Direct Method came into vogue in the West, this new innovation found its way to India. The grammar translation technique was slowly waning, and in India the Direct Method was introduced by P.C. Wrenn’s *The Direct Teaching of English in Indian Schools* (1911). Otto Jespersen (1956) and H. Palmer (1964) popularized the Direct Method in training colleges, and this method secured wide acceptance at the official level. In the classroom:

1. Instruction was conducted only in the target language.
2. As the sentence was the unit of speech, only those sentences that could be used every day were taught.
3. Oral training was provided that laid emphasis on listening, speaking, and pronunciation.
4. Grammar was taught inductively.
5. New teaching points were discussed orally.
6. New vocabulary was taught after careful selection and gradation, in association with objects, pictures, and ideas.

Between 1920 and 1940, although new innovations in English language teaching were taking place in the West, in India, very little progress was being made to develop English language teaching. This was due to two significant reasons—World War II and the Independence of India. The Indian independence gave more importance to the regional languages, relegating the teaching of English to a secondary position. It was taught as a second or third language. This also led to a deterioration in the teaching methodology of English in Indian education.

It was in 1952 that the structural-oral-situational (S-O-S) approach made its advent into India, and Tamil Nadu (erstwhile Madras) was the first state to agree to use the S-O-S approach for the teaching of English as a second language. The British Council took a keen interest in popularizing this approach by sending English Language Teaching (ELT) experts from England to help the Tamil Nadu government in framing the syllabus and producing relevant materials. The Madras English Language Teaching (MELT) campaign provided training to all the teachers of English in this new approach and used the snowball effect (for faster results) for the spread of the new approach. The British Council also sent Indian ELT experts from Tamil Nadu to various English universities for further training in English language teaching.

The S-O-S approach of teaching English became so effective in Tamil Nadu that the other southern states of India, namely Andhra Pradesh, Kerala, and Karnataka, also wanted to follow this approach in their respective states. Considering the favorable demand, it was thought that instead of having ELT centers in respective states, it would be better to have one institute which could train teachers, prepare syllabi, and produce modern teaching materials. This realization led to the establishment of the Central Institute of English at Hyderabad (English and Foreign Languages University [EFLU] of today). This also led to the establishment of the Regional Institute of English (RIE) at Bangalore in 1963. Since then, the institute has been training teachers of all four southern states and helping in the preparation of materials. More RIEs were established in the various zones of India including Chandigarh and Bhopal.

The 1950s and 1960s witnessed large-scale acceptance of the S-O-S approach. By 1975, the Structural method was practiced in all universities, colleges, and schools; however, it failed to equip learners to cope with language in contexts outside of classrooms. Until the 1980s, the teaching of English in India continued with this method. Major insights and ideas emerged in the teaching of English in India, with the introduction of the **Communicational Syllabus** by N.S. Prabhu (1987).

At this point, a distinction needs to be made between the “communicative approach” and the “communicational approach.” The **communicative approach** attended to the meaningful use of language and professed that structures could be learned using language. The **communicational approach** also used language in situations but adopted the process of problem-solving through “task-based teaching” (Prabhu, 1987: 3). There was no explicit teaching of grammar because according to Prabhu (1987) teaching grammar would only lead to knowledge about the language; it would not help in the production of correct sentences in contextual situations. The new approach, therefore, preoccupied itself with meaning rather than contextual appropriateness.

Though publicly proclaimed and ably defended within and outside India as a viable alternative for schools, the project failed to evoke any interest in public schools, state-level schools, or in the fast-multiplying private English medium schools of urban India. In fact, it had no impact on any aspect of syllabus reform in any part of India because, firstly, it placed heavy emphasis on receptive language, assuming that learners would

internalize the structures and be able to produce language voluntarily. Secondly, Prabhu adopted purely cognitive methods—problem-solving for teaching. The teaching methodology was totally devoid of props, stories, songs, puzzles, games, etc. Without proper catalyst materials to trigger idea generation, learners usually lost the variety and excitement of genuine communication. Thirdly, though the communicational approach committed itself to a learning-centered environment, it disallowed group work, fearing that learners would use their mother tongue that would promote pidginization. This syllabus, thus, was also not accepted in the Indian education system.

Even though CLT had taken off in a big way in the West, English language teaching in India generally remained unaffected. The impact of the communicative teaching approach was not felt by the educators, and it merely remained a debatable issue in discussions and seminars. At the curricular level, in the late 1980s, some attempts were made to incorporate the communicative approach into the syllabus, and among the pioneers to introduce this approach in syllabus design were the universities of Bombay and Baroda.

But it was in the post-liberalization phase that communicative language teaching took off in India. The opening up of markets saw multinational companies, BPOs, call centers, and medical transcription centers set up their offices in India, for which they needed a workforce well conversant with the English language. The boom in the IT revolution enabled the paradigm of “communication skills” to acquire more market value than the subject itself. Most colleges affiliated with various universities started following the CLT approach. Even university departments, which always prided in following the canonical syllabi, started including courses in English language teaching at the PG level. Methodology also underwent changes. The teacher no longer controlled the classroom. Through GDs, presentations, role-play, simulations, and group work, the classrooms became “student centric,” in which learners were active participants in the teaching-learning process. This approach also saw school boards like the CBSE and the NCERT change their syllabi, prepare new materials, and train teachers in this new approach. The state education boards followed suit, and many state boards in the country changed over to the CLT approach in terms of syllabi, materials/textbooks, methodology, and assessment patterns.

However, following the best method does not guarantee better learning. Successful teachers rely on what works best for them. Even when they follow the tenets of a named method, they modify it substantially. A single method in its pure form is rarely seen at work in a real classroom. For example, even if the CLT method does not advocate memorization, certain grammatical forms, like the various verb forms or the comparative and superlative degrees of adjectives and adverbs, must be memorized. The point to emphasize, therefore, is that the teacher needs to have knowledge of all approaches and methods. But *which* method to use *when* to teach *what* should be best left to the teachers’ judgment.

## Recent Trends in Language Teaching

### *Cognitive Constructivism and Social Constructivism*

Constructivism is a theory of learning which posits that students learn by actively constructing their own knowledge (Duffy and Cunningham 1996; Fosnot 1996; von Glasersfeld 1996). According to von Glasersfeld (1995), “concepts cannot be simply transferred

from teachers to students—they have to be conceived.” Duffy and Cunningham (1996) maintained that learning was a process that involved active construction and not passive acquisition. In constructivism, the familiar metaphor that students’ minds are empty pots waiting to be filled with knowledge is challenged. Further, knowledge is not regarded as a commodity that can be transferred from an expert to a learner, but is viewed as a construct that is created through an active process of involvement and interaction with the environment. Interaction with the environment helps the students to build schema (cognitive structures) by which they can construct knowledge that is meaningful to them. This process of knowledge construction is an ongoing process of “construction, evaluation and modification.” Knowledge is thus shaped by the activities in which they are engaged in. Mind is thus not a passive recipient but an active agent that continuously seeks to create new knowledge with the help of the existing schema and its interaction with the environment.

The two main approaches to constructivism are cognitive constructivism, associated with Piaget (Scholnik 2006), and social constructivism, associated with Vygotsky (Scholnik 2006). The underpinnings of both approaches are that students learn by constructing their own knowledge; however, there is a fundamental difference in the emphasis placed by both approaches.

#### *Cognitive Constructivism*

The cognitivists place importance on the mind in learning. They are of the view that it is the mind that develops the cognitive structures in students/learners. However, they do not deny the role the environment plays in the making of the cognitive structures. The two key words that Piaget uses to describe the interplay between mind and the environment are “accommodation and assimilation.” According to Piaget, students have some existing cognitive structures in their mind that they have formed due to their interaction with the environment and experiences in life. Learners use these formed cognitive structures to interpret the environment, and they “assimilate” information as much as their schemas allow them to do. In this process of interacting with the environment, their cognitive structures undergo change. The new information is now assimilated into their cognitive structures, leading to a “modification” of the structures. This means that the cognitive structures are modified and have “accommodated” the new information. According to Piaget, thus, learning is the process of “assimilation–accommodation–modification” in which cognitive structures are constantly “under construction” (as quoted in Fosnot 1996, 18).

#### *Social Constructivism*

Social constructivists, on the other hand, emphasize the key role the environment plays in the construction of knowledge. Vygotsky (1986) does not underestimate the role of cognitive structures in learning. He does not deny the role of the mind in the creation of knowledge. However, according to him, it is an individual student’s interaction with society that leads to the acquisition of culture, which is the sum total of life experiences. This becomes part and parcel of every learner, impacting learning and meaning-making processes. He emphasizes the social origin of cognition, and it is this dialogic nature of social interaction that leads to learning. It follows, therefore, that for Piaget, learning was an active construction of meaning rather than a passive understanding of knowledge.



New learning experiences created a state of conflict in every individual's mind because they were contrary to current thinking. The mind then had to alter its thinking to assimilate it into the existing corpus of knowledge. Thus, for Piaget, the mind was the focal point of learning. For Vygotsky, however, the environment and its interaction with learners were the key to learning. Considering this approach, how can we define a constructivist classroom?

### *Constructivist Classrooms*

The constructivist learning theory states that learning is an active process of creating meaning from different experiences. Students learn best by trying to make sense of something on their own; therefore, the learning environment should support learners' construction of knowledge. Learners should be exposed to materials, experiences, and situations from which they can inductively build their own knowledge. Dialogues, discussions, and interchange affect learning; therefore, teachers should allow for activities requiring communication and exchange of ideas. Meaning-making among learners is bound to be differential because all learners encounter various and different experiences at different points in their lives. Therefore, learning needs to be looked into through students' perspectives.

Undertaking this approach leads to many different teaching practices. It means:

- Encouraging students to use active techniques to create and encounter problem-solving situations,
- Creating more knowledge, reflecting, and discussing it,
- Trying to understand learners' thinking and investigating whether it is changing,
- Understanding pre-existing conceptions of learners,
- Guiding them to address problems and helping them to build on them,
- Providing tools such as problem-solving and inquiry-based learning activities, with which students formulate ideas, draw conclusions, and draw inferences,
- Using raw data, primary sources, physical, and interactive materials,
- Accepting and encouraging student autonomy and initiative,
- Asking open-ended questions and allowing wait time for responses,
- Encouraging higher level thinking,
- Students engage in dialogue with the teacher and with each other.

Source: Brooks, J. and Brooks, M. (1993).

In short, constructivism transforms students from passive recipients of information to active participants in the learning process.

### **Collaborative Learning and Cooperative Learning**

**Collaborative learning** "implies working in a group of two or more to achieve a common goal, while respecting each individual's contribution to the whole" (McInnerey and Robert 2004). It is "the mutual engagement of participants in a coordinated effort to

solve the problem together” (Roschelle and Teasley 1995). The shared learning gives students an opportunity to interact among group members, engage in discussions, and take responsibility for their own learning, thus becoming critical thinkers.

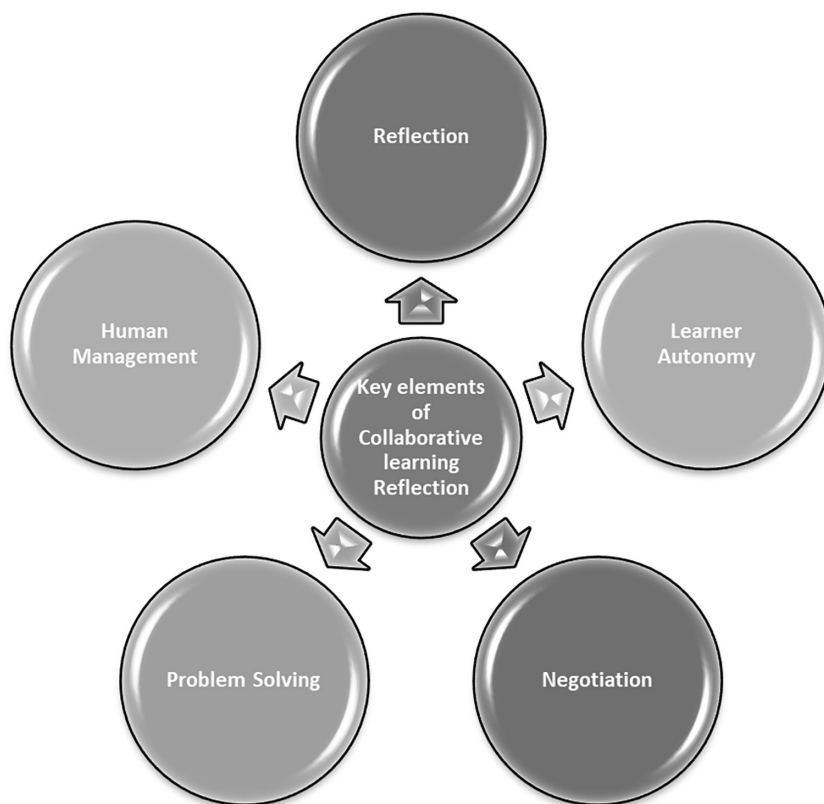
**Cooperative learning**, on the other hand, is defined as “working together to accomplish shared goals” (Smith 1995). Roschelle and Teasley (1995) describe cooperative work as a task that is accomplished by dividing it among participants, where “each person is responsible for a portion of the problem solving.” According to Nelson (2008), cooperation is “a protocol that allows you not to get in each other’s way” as you work. This means that the task at hand can only be accomplished when group members complete the tasks allotted to each. Understanding both concepts, it is evident that there is a key difference between the two, which some years earlier were considered synonymous. The key difference is that cooperative learning is more focused on working together to create an end product, while collaborative learning requires participants to share the process of knowledge creation together as a unit (Dillenbourg et al. 1996; Roschelle and Teasley 1995). This means that in cooperative learning if students do not do their assigned work, the task cannot reach closure as each team member is doing the allotted task individually. In contrast, in collaborative learning, there is direct interaction among students who consensually arrive at a conclusion on tasks and produce the end product together as one group/unit. This interaction leads to negotiations, discussions, and accommodating others’ perspectives, with the entire group accepting the responsibility of learning unlike the former.

The strength of collaborative learning lies in the fact that deeper information processing and more meaningful psychological connections are made among the participants (Johnson, Johnson, and Smith 1998; Smith 1995). The goal of collaboration is to create new insights during discussions (Henri 1992; Kaye 1992) and to move students closer to an understanding of alternate perspectives (Cunningham 1992). While working together, students build new understanding by challenging others’ ideas and defending their own. This creates a new product through the combination of different perspectives, talents, and ideas, which is quite different from what each learner could have created on their own. Thus, collaborative learning embodies the values of reflection, negotiation, human management, decision-making, and problem-solving skills, leading to learner autonomy.

The essence of collaborative learning can be summed up in Figure 2.1.

### *Task-Based Language Teaching*

Task-based language teaching (TBLT) is an offshoot of the CLT approach, which dates to the 1950s when tasks were first used for teaching in vocational training practice in new military technologies and occupational specialties of that period. Task analysis initially focused on solo psychomotor tasks for which little communication or collaboration was required (Richards and Rogers 2001: 225). Subsequently in the 1980s, the main proponent of Task-Based Teaching was Prabhu (1982) who used it for teaching English to secondary school students in Bangalore under the communicative teaching project. Prabhu believed that students learn much more effectively when their minds are focused on tasks rather than the language they are using (Prabhu 1987). Unfortunately, it did not achieve the expected results at that time, but later new stimulus brought the TBLT approach to the fore of language teaching.



*Figure 2.1* Collaborative learning.

*Source:* Author.

### *What Is the TBLT Approach?*

TBLT is an approach developed for language teaching that is based on the premise that the completion of communicative “tasks” given for the purpose of language teaching leads to language learning because completing tasks offers students the opportunities to actively engage in communication in order to achieve their goal of task completion. Before we move further, let us understand what is meant by the word “task.”

Primarily, a task is an activity in which students use language to achieve a specific outcome. The activity reflects on the real life and learners focus on meaning, while undertaking the task they are free to use any language they want. Many researchers have defined “task” as follows:

- A task is an activity that learners engage in the process of learning a language (Williams and Burder 1997).
- A task is a range of learning activities from simple and brief exercises to more complex and lengthy activities such as group problem-solving or simulations and decision-making (Breen 1987).

- An activity which requires learners to arrive at an outcome from given information through some process of thought and which allows teachers to control and regulate that process (Prabhu 1987).
- An activity or action which is carried out as the result of processing or understanding language. A task usually requires the teachers to specify what will be regarded as successful completion of the task (Richards, Platt, and Weber, cited in Nunan 2004).
- An activity that involves the use of language but focuses on the outcome of the activity rather than on the language used to achieve that outcome (Willis 1996).
- Tasks are activities that have meaning as their primary focus. Language teaching tasks bear resemblance to real-life situations, and its success is evaluated in terms of the achievement of outcomes (Skehan 1992).
- A piece of classroom work that involves learners in comprehending, manipulating, producing, or interacting in the target language while their attention is principally focused on meaning rather than on form (Nunan 1989).

Considering all the earlier definitions, the most comprehensive and the most widely accepted definition is that of Nunan (1989). The key characteristics of tasks that emerge are:

- Meaning is primary, and form is secondary.
- Learners do not regurgitate the meanings given.
- Learners interact in target language/mother tongue (TL/MT) to create their own meanings.
- Tasks are considered pivotal for the stimulation of input–output practice, negotiation of meaning, and transactionally focused conversation.
- Task completion is a priority.
- Assessment of the task is in terms of outcomes.

Task-based teaching does not involve sequencing of language items. Learners carry out the tasks in the target language or in any other language to achieve the desired outcome. As language forms are not prescribed in advance, the learners make note of the new language output, attempt to reproduce it, and, importantly, use it for purposeful communication. Their “schema” or “cognitive constructs” begin to adjust and adapt to the input and enable them to exchange, create, and negotiate meanings. The language generated during this interaction provides them with opportunities to expand their inter-language capacity, thus enabling them to “internalize it” (Swain 1995). In this constant process of creating a new meaning system, they continuously adopt new strategies due to which accuracy in language is sometimes ignored.

Different learners adopt different strategies and different language forms in the achievement of the goal depending on the stage of language development, their degree of involvement with the task, and the cognitive challenge the task presents. R. Ellis (2000) termed this type of teaching and learning as the “psycholinguistic perspective.” The works of Long (1983, 1998), Doughty and Pica (1986), Swain (1995), Skehan (1992), Foster (1996), and Bygate (1996) show that the interaction generated in language use leads learners to modify and develop their language system. When faced with the need to interpret language and encode meanings, learners adopt new forms and refashion their language system to meet the new demands placed on them.

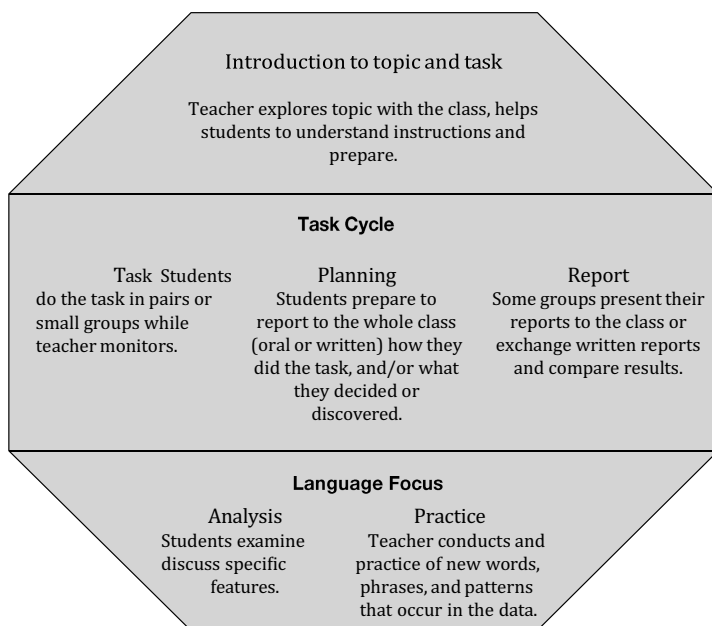
Research is also conducted on the types of tasks that are likely to stimulate their interactive language use. Small group work (Long et al. 1976) with learners from different language backgrounds and proficiency levels (Varonis and Gass 1983) are likely to facilitate more interaction among learners in TL/MT to achieve the desired outcome of the tasks. The different types of tasks that are used in this approach are tasks that involve:

- Negotiation of meaning in which the exchange of information is essential (Doughty and Pica 1986).
- Problem-solving as it prompts more interaction than only debating (Duff 1986).
- Stimulating internal psycholinguistic processes of acquisition (Prabhu 1987).

### *Classroom Procedure*

The classroom procedure that is followed in this approach is summed up in Figure 2.2.

As one can see from Figure 2.2, the procedure involves a pre-task–task–report cycle. First, the teacher designs a task with certain objectives in mind. The teacher undertakes pre-task activities in class and explains what is expected of the students. This is followed by the task itself. The pre-task activities initiate the students into the task and allow them to recall phrases and concepts that are necessary to undertake the task. If a student is unable to make meaning, then the other group members support him/her. The teacher monitors the activity the students are doing and, in the process, clarifies any doubts of the students. After the activity is over, the groups prepare a report on how they did the



*Figure 2.2* Classroom approach to TBLT.

*Source:* TBLT framework (Willis, 1996, p. 38).

Advantages of TBLT	Disadvantages of TBLT
Students are free of language control and have much more varied exposure to language forms collocations, lexicons, patterns etc.	• Not for beginners as it requires a high level of creativity and initiative on the part of the task.
A natural context is developed from the students' experiences	• Requires resources beyond the textbooks and related materials usually found in language classrooms.
Students are free to use whatever vocabulary and grammar they know, rather than just the task language of the lesson.	• Can't predict or guarantee what the students will learn as it requires individual and group responsibility and commitment on the part of students.
The language explored arises from the students' needs	• Hard to focus on specific language features. There is a risk for learners to achieve fluency at the expense of accuracy.
It is a strong communicative approach where students spend a lot of time communicating	• Likely to restrict their experience to single pieces of target language is unnatural
Allows meaningful communication.	• Some students might be unwilling to speak while others speak too much.
Encourages students to be more ambitious in the language.	

Figure 2.3 Advantages and disadvantages of TBLT approach.

task and what conclusions they reached. They present their outcomes to the class either orally or in writing as required. After this, students are also given the freedom to ask questions on any issue that they find problematic. Finally, the teacher gives feedback and emphasizes language points that arise from this activity.

#### *Advantages and Disadvantages of TBLT Approach*

Considering the PPP (Presentation–Practice–Production) model of teaching, in task-based learning, a range of tasks are available (reading texts, listening texts, problem-solving, role-plays, questionnaires, etc.) that offers a great deal of flexibility that leads to motivation and enjoyment. However, as in every approach or method, there are some advantages and disadvantages that are graphically presented in Figure 2.3.

### **Classroom Implications**

The classroom implications are that if we provide learners with a series of tasks involving both comprehension and production of language with a focus on meaning, it is likely to prompt language development. However, this approach is open to teachers who are willing to practice innovative techniques in class. The focus of education is developing communication of meaning as well as form, and therefore those teachers who are willing to invest time and effort to prepare tasks and design activities depending upon the learning objectives are likely to derive satisfaction when they see the development of language proficiency in their students.

**Inquiry-based learning** is a student-centric learning approach that develops curiosity to ask questions on disclosed topics. This method encourages curiosity to learn and understand new topics through interrogation, leading to the framing of ideas and analysis.

The inquiry-based learning technique involves a higher level of critical thinking, developing ideas, and interpreting and analyzing problems. This technique of imparting learning can be mostly incorporated into advanced-level courses in the program. However, the instructor is recommended to evaluate the suitability of a learning technique that is feasible for the nature of the course content and learning outcomes.

### *Characteristics*

- Focus on imparting a lower level of cognitive skills.
- Choice of topic to develop critical thinking and understanding.
- Develop reasoning skills and creativity in problem-solving.
- Collaborative and coordination outside the classroom.
- Learner-centric and resources, technology, and instructor guidance are peripheral to learning.
- Enhances and motivates student engagement during in-class activities.

### **Game-Based Learning**

Game-based learning is another teaching technique that can be used in the flipped classroom approach. Learning is achieved through repeated failures by acquiring skills to overcome those failures to achieve goals. Learning can be imparted using the game based on specialized courses in the programs by identifying the suitability, appropriateness, and feasibility to different levels in a program. Game-based learning is very effective at junior- and senior-level courses that involve strategic management and problem-solving.

### *Characteristics*

- Learning focuses on cognitive skills through a self and independent approach.
- Developing strategic thinking.
- Incorporate problem-solving and critical thinking.
- Administering learning through experiential training.
- Acquire learning by practicing repeated scenarios.

### **Team-Based Learning**

Team-based learning is an instructional method and a popular form of collaborative learning. It is a “relatively recent development in education, combining elements of both direct instruction, active, collaborative learning in small groups” (Rotgans et al. 2019). The students are grouped together in a structured manner to solve a problem, complete a task, or create a product. This learning method places greater autonomy on learners to take responsibility for their learning (refer to Appendix 4).

### *Characteristics*

- Active engagement among learners promoting active participation.
- Increased motivation in learning.
- Development of critical thinking and problem-solving.
- Reflection on real-life problems through collaboration.

### **Problem-Based Learning**

Problem-based learning finds suitability in group-based tasks and courses that are delivered for acquiring higher-order cognitive skills. This method of teaching can be employed in conjunction with other teaching methods based on the learning outcomes intended for each course. The course instructor should assess the feasibility of the problem-based

learning technique in each course by identifying proper instruments to administer at appropriate stages in the overall learning process.

In this technique of teaching, learning is imparted by creating tasks for active engagement in groups to find solutions to some open-ended problems. Problem-based learning focuses on student-centered learning, encouraging independent thinking, analysis, and developing knowledge and skills outside the classroom environment.

### *Characteristics*

- Student-centered learning approach and instructor as facilitator in the learning process.
- Group-based learning through working on real-life problems.
- Learning is synchronized with traditional classroom teaching.
- Focus on a higher level of cognitive skills.
- Acquiring knowledge and skills through self-directed learning.

### **Critical Thinking and English Language Teaching**

In recent years, learners are considered active participants in the learning process. The focus, therefore, is on how learners process information to produce knowledge rather than on how teachers disseminate it. To produce knowledge, information processing and thinking skills such as analysis, lateral, problem-solving, critical, creative, and reflective skills are required (Rose and Nicholl 1997). These skills are not innate but acquired; therefore, to help students develop thinking skills, these abstractions need to be concretized through activities and taught to the students in class.

### *Concept of Critical Thinking*

Critical thinking is not a new concept and always has been one of the main goals of education—“improvement of student thinking. However, in the last decade there has been a growing concern that graduates at all levels do not demonstrate higher thinking abilities” (Cromwell 1992). Critical thinking is an art of analyzing and evaluating thinking with a view to improve it. It is a core life skill, which every individual requires to “deal effectively with the demands and challenges of everyday life” (WHO 1999). Lack of critical thinking not only affects students’ academic success but also their personal lives. Critical thinking is not an easy concept to define as it can mean quite different things to different people in different contexts and cultures. To think critically about an issue means to consider that issue from various perspectives, to look at and challenge any possible assumptions that may underlie the issue, and to explore its possible alternatives. More specifically, when we think critically about a given topic, we are forced to consider our own relationship to it and how we personally fit into the context of the issue (Brookfield 1987, 7–9). Critical thinking is thus a mode of thinking—about any subject, content, or problem—in which the thinker improves the quality of his or her thinking by skillfully taking charge of the structures inherent in thinking and imposing intellectual standards upon them.

Critical thinking as defined by Scriven and Richard Paul (1987) is an “intellectually disciplined process of actively and skillfully conceptualizing, applying, analyzing, synthesizing, and/or evaluating information gathered from, or generated by observation, experience, reflection, reasoning or communication as a guide to belief and action.” It is based on universal intellectual values of clarity, accuracy, precision, consistency, relevance,



sound evidence, good reasons, depth, breadth, and fairness. It also involves the thorough examination of an issue in terms of its purpose, problems, questioning of assumptions, concepts, finding empirical evidence, reasons that lead to conclusions, implications and consequences, and finding alternative points of view. Critical thinking is seen to have two components:

1. A set of skills that processes information and generates beliefs.
2. Habit based on intellectual commitment for using those skills to guide behavior.

The key processes that the definition states are inferred from Bloom's Taxonomy (1956) and further from the Revised Bloom's Taxonomy of Anderson and Krathwohl (2001).

### *Revised Bloom's Taxonomy (RBT)*

RBT derives its origins from the commonly referred to as Bloom's Taxonomy of Cognitive Domain (1956), which was primarily developed to promote higher forms of thinking skills in education, such as analyzing and evaluating processes, procedures, and principles rather than just remembering facts. Bloom identified three domains of educational activities:

- Cognitive: mental skills (knowledge).
- Affective: growth in feelings and emotional areas (attitude or self).
- Psychomotor: manual or physical skills (skills).

This taxonomy of learning behaviors was considered as “the goals of the learning process.” That is, after a learning episode, the learner should have acquired a new skill, knowledge, and/or attitude according to the objective envisaged. As critical thinking deals with the cognitive domain, it involves knowledge and development of intellectual skills. This includes the recall or recognition of specific facts, procedural patterns, and concepts that develop intellectual abilities and skills in students. There are six major categories of cognitive processes, starting from the simplest to the most complex in terms of degrees of difficulty. It is hierarchical in nature, and it is understood that the simpler ones have to be mastered before moving on to the more difficult ones (Figure 2.4). An

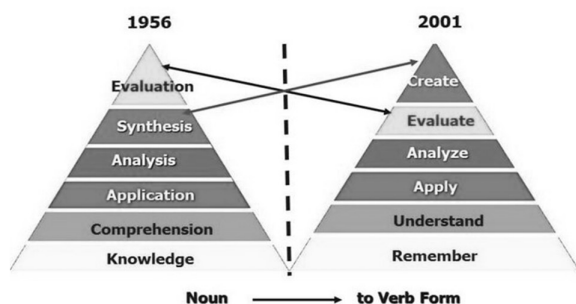


Figure 2.4 Bloom's taxonomy.

Source: Anderson and Krathwohl (2001, 67–68).

important point of this taxonomy is that whatever the educators want students to know can be arranged in a hierarchical form from less to more complex.

This taxonomy was in use for nearly 50 years; however, in 2001, Anderson and Krathwohl revised it, keeping in mind the educational objectives required for the 20th century and for the future. In the new taxonomy, there were certain structural and terminological changes. The most obvious difference between the two was that the major categories were changed from noun to verb forms (Figure 2.4), reflecting a more active and accurate form of thinking. Additionally, the lowest level of the original taxonomy, “Knowledge,” was renamed “Remember.” Finally, “Comprehension” and “Synthesis” were retitled to “Understand” and “Create”.

The most important difference to note between the two is that “Creation” in the new taxonomy is at the pinnacle of the pyramid. Let me explain its significance with the help of Figure 2.5.

You can see from Figure 2.5 that in any course if teachers are giving questions in which students must recall information or explain any ideas, then new learning is not taking place. However, as one starts climbing up the pyramid, the thinking skills start getting complex until they reach the top when the students must create something new by using information, drawing connections between ideas, justifying the decisions taken or the opinions formed, and finally producing new or original work. The mind is constantly undergoing the processes of reasoning, evaluating, problem-solving, decision-making, analyzing, and the process starts again until the student is satisfied and new learning has taken place. Therefore, according to Anderson and Krathwohl (2001), “Remembering,” “Understanding,” and “Apply” are considered lower order thinking skills (LOTS), while “Analyze,” “Evaluate,” and “Create” are higher-order thinking skills (HOTS).

### *Critical Thinking and the ELT Classrooms*

Given this theoretical background, what kind of relationship do language classrooms share with critical thinking? Critical thinking essentially means having a questioning, challenging, analytical state of mind. A critical thinker questions whether something is believable, evaluates how strong the basis of an assumption is, and makes new connections between what they know and learn. Language classes are especially suitable for teaching critical thinking due to the wealth of material and the interactive methods that are used. All characteristics of the critical thinker mentioned earlier can be linked

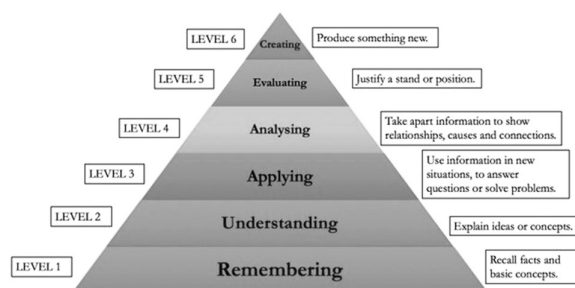


Figure 2.5 Distinction between LOTS and HOTS.

Source: Fastiggi (2019).

to language learning in one way or another. As most of the features are related to how to deal with new information, the teacher needs to tap the multiple intelligences that students are endowed with. Language learning does not take place simply because teachers tell students how to “get it right” (Corson 1999). Teachers should provide students with opportunities to work with new information so that they can integrate it with the information they already have; weave new meanings into the network of meanings they already know; relate new experiences to the ones they have experienced before; and help them to “figure out” through intellectual participation. They must use reasoning as a “pervasive tool of learning” and facilitate students to make “critical thinking moves in reading, writing, speaking and listening” (Paul 1995).

Teaching critical thinking in the classroom will help students learn to analyze, synthesize, evaluate, and create new knowledge. Thinking is driven by questions, not answers. Questions define tasks, express problems, and delineate issues; answers, on the other hand, signal a stop in thought. Therefore, as questioning becomes the guiding force, the responsibility for developing these skills shifts from students to teachers, “it is teachers, not textbooks, that have the power to shape students’ ability to think” (Chalupa and Sormunen 1995). To develop critical inquiry in class, the following strategies can be incorporated in the classroom.

- Debating
- Problem-solving
- Attitude of teachers toward students
- Socratic questioning

**Debate:** Debate forces students to think about multiple sides of an issue. It also forces them to interact not only with the details of a given topic but also with one another. This develops interpersonal relationships that help when collaborative projects are undertaken. There are many debatable topics depending upon the level of the learners; therefore, while debating, they can relate themselves with it. However, the teacher should:

- Choose a topic that is appropriate to the interests of the students.
- Students need to be allowed to form their own opinions rather than having the teacher assign “sides” to the debate. This would allow the students to form their own opinions on the issue being discussed and try to justify their opinions.

**Problem-Solving:** Problems exist everywhere, both inside the classroom and out, and their resolution is a popular source of conversation in all countries and cultures. Asking students to critically analyze a problem with which they are familiar can bring about myriads of opinions for and against it. By asking students to look at the pros and cons, and costs and benefits, an instructor is forcing them to consider real-world problems that impact their daily lives in a critical way. To undertake such issues:

- The instructor must think through the steps in the process clearly before introducing a given problem to the class.
- Student-generated solutions need to be as concrete and realistic as possible.
- Working with an outside agent (city official, university representative, lawyer) for correspondence would be helpful as it lends weight and a sense of accomplishment to the task.

**Attitude of Teachers toward Students:** Some teachers consider students as empty vessels and therefore do not give much credence to their opinions. However, as mentioned earlier in this section, students come to class with certain schemas and, therefore, when issues are being discussed in the class, it is likely that they have something to say about it. Teachers therefore should give a chance to every student to voice their opinions, whether they are right or wrong. If they are unable to justify their opinions, then by listening to others, their schemas will get modified, and they will accommodate and assimilate the justifications according to their own thinking on the issue. But if the teacher does not give an opportunity to the students to voice their opinions, then the students will never gain the confidence to express what they think about it, and they will never get confirmation for their thoughts. Their ability to think creatively and critically will be stifled.

**Socratic Questioning:** Socratic questioning is at the heart of critical thinking; it is learning through inquiry. It is basically asking a series of questions on a central issue or topic to engage students in thoughtful discussions. Paul (1990) states that it:

- Raises basic issues.
- Probes beneath the surface of things.
- Pursues problematic areas of thought.
- Helps students discover the structure of their own thoughts.
- Helps students develop sensitivity to clarity, accuracy, and relevance.
- Helps students arrive at a judgment through their own reasoning.
- Helps students note claims, evidence, conclusions, questions at issue, assumptions, implications, consequences, concepts, interpretations, and points of view.

As one observes, questioning can be used at all levels and at different points within a unit or a project. The taxonomy includes six types of questions for:

1. Conceptual clarification directing students to think more about what exactly they are asking or thinking about. These are basically “tell me more” questions so that it gets them to go deeper and understand the concepts.
2. Probing assumptions/purpose, making them think about unquestioned beliefs on which they are founding their argument.
3. Probing rationale, reasons, and evidence means giving a rationale for their arguments, rather than assuming it is given.
4. Questioning viewpoints and perspectives, showing that there are other, equally valid, viewpoints.
5. Probing implications and consequences, making them accountable for their decisions taken.
6. Probing questions about questions, breaking questions into mini-questions or determining whether evaluation is necessary.

The challenge is asking the right kind of questions. Yes/No questions should be avoided because they lead nowhere and do not promote thinking or discussion. The focus should be on asking open-ended questions with a “wait-time” to help students formulate answers from the task they are undertaking. Questions should help students distinguish relevant from irrelevant points, question their beliefs, and allow them to justify the decisions taken. This would promote independent thinking, giving students ownership of what they are learning.

## Conclusion

In conclusion, looking at the context in which learners require English today, language teachers need to become interdisciplinary instructors. Teachers should act as critical agents of change in society in which English classrooms can become sites for enhancing life skills (Pishghadam and Kermanshahi 2012). To develop critical thinking, teacher–student and student–student dialogue and discussions help students to consolidate their thinking. The give and take of ideas reinforce what they are thinking, and when they voice their opinions and hear others’ views, they build their own knowledge bases. These activities lead to independent thinking, helping them attain intellectual identity. The task of creating something new assists cognitive growth and develops reflective, negotiating, and team skills. Learning is made relevant while establishing connections with life outside the classroom, and they learn nuances of social discourse while retaining their individual identity.

### To Summarize

1. Difference between an approach, method, and technique.
2. Different approaches and methods were followed in the West to teach English.
3. English and the impact it has on the teaching of English in India.
4. Recent trends in language teaching include the task-based method and blended learning.
5. The advantages of collaborative work in the classroom.
6. Relationship between critical thinking and English language teaching.
7. English language classrooms are interdisciplinary sites for teaching life skills.

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### 3 Theories of Language Learning and Second Language Acquisition

#### Introduction

The chapter 2 pointed out that there is a belief system within the teacher that guides her/him to adopt a particular approach and devise teaching strategies to deliver the learning outcomes. This belief system stems from the knowledge of different theories of language learning and acquisition. One knows how Language 1 (L1) is acquired and its underlying principles of acquisition. Second language acquisition (SLA) theorists have borrowed from first language acquisition (FLA) theories and research methods to understand how Language 2 (L2) acquisition takes place. We need to understand the shared relationship between L1 and L2 and the points of similarities and differences between them. We will begin by trying to understand how L1 acquisition theories have impacted L2 acquisition theories. This attempt at exploring the acquisition process will reveal points of similarities and differences in L1 and L2 acquisition.

#### Concepts: L1 and L2

##### *First Language (L1)*

In language teaching, we usually refer to Language 1 (L1) and Language 2 (L2). Language 1 (L1) generally means the language first acquired by the child, which is generally called the “mother tongue” (MT). This is because it is usually the mother who speaks the most with the child and who establishes a regular and lasting linguistic bond with the child. L2, on the other hand, is usually referred to as the language that is learned after the mother tongue is acquired; it means the next language learned after the MT. However, the concept of L1, determined by the **context of learning**, throws up other definitions, which can be considered.

According to Tove Skutnabb-Kangas (1981), a definition depending on **linguistic competence** would be “the language a person knows best.” This sounds simple, unambiguous, “competence” meaning skill, proficiency, or capability. This means that if a person can use a particular language competently, then that language becomes his/her MT. It is immaterial whether he/she is a native speaker of that language or not. Let me elaborate on this by an example from the regional states of India: Maharashtra and Gujarat. If a person has first learned the Marathi language being a Maharashtrian by birth and a native speaker of Maharashtra, and if the same person can speak Gujarati competently being a resident of the Gujarat state, then for all practical purposes his/her MT is Gujarati and not Marathi. This explanation also holds good for a more **sociolinguistically oriented**



definition of L1, which states that L1 could be the language that “the child uses the most.” However, there are situations when people are using language at their workplace without knowing it fully well as it is not their primary language.

A **social-psychological definition** of L1 states “the language one identifies with” in the social realm. It means that the language through which, in the process of socialization, one has acquired the norms and value systems of one’s own group. For example, the Maharashtrian community internalizing the norms and values of the Gujarati community because of their stay in the state for several years. So, if you are looking in terms of origin, competence, function, and attitude, one can say that in a multicultural and multilingual country like India, the definition of L1 is not **static** but is **continuously evolving** because most people in India are multilingual or bilingual, and the use of MT is likely to change depending upon the situations and different stages in life.

The question now arises whether it is possible to have two MTs. In a family where there is a mixed marriage, and **both parents have different mother tongues** then it is possible that the child will pick up both languages simultaneously because it is observed that the parents speak in their own mother tongue with the child. For example, let me take the example of an Indian regional language—Punjabi (Punjab is another state of India) and Gujarati. If the mother is a Punjabi and the husband is a Gujarati, then the mother will speak Punjabi with the child and the father Gujarati. In such a case, the child grows up imbibing two linguistic systems simultaneously within him/herself. When **one language is spoken at home and the outside language is different**, it is usually observed that a time comes when the outside language encroaches on the inside language and becomes the dominant language of the family. For example, a Marathi-speaking family residing in Madhya Pradesh (another state in India) where the societal language is Hindi. Marathi is spoken at home in the first few years of the child’s life but later a stage is reached when the child and the parents start speaking in Hindi at home instead of Marathi. Similar is the case when an Indian family stays abroad in the United Kingdom or the United States where the societal language is English. Initially, the parents speak in their MT with the child, but later a change occurs when English is being spoken with their children at home. English language interspersed with Marathi words is spoken leading to a loss of mother tongue in the children and parents as well.

**Can you think of more examples like the above and observe the consequences of the loss of MT?**

### *Second Language (L2)*

**Second language**, on the other hand, can be interpreted in different ways. One interpretation could refer to the chronology of learning, the language learned second, that is, any language learned after acquiring the mother tongue. Learning a second language can also take place at different stages in life. One, at an early stage when the language command is still rudimentary, and the other, in adult life when the L1 acquisition process is nearly complete or has slowed down considerably. Or it may take place in between these two points as well. Secondly, this term is used to refer to the level of language command in comparison to the primary or dominant language. In the second sense, “second language” can indicate a lower level of actual or believed proficiency. But there are exceptions and that is not actually the case in real-life situations. An individual may have acquired a

language later in life but is constantly using it for all professional and social purposes because of which he/she becomes proficient in that language. These types of examples are usually seen in countries like India where each state has its own regional language, which is a dominant channel of communication. Having understood the connotations of L1 and L2, let us now look at the various theories of learning and their impact on the teaching methodologies of the English language.

### **Behaviorists' View on L1 Acquisition**

We know that until the end of 1960, the views of language learning were derived from the theory of learning in general. The dominant school in psychology, which informed most discussions on language learning, was behaviorism. The two important concepts that this theory dealt with were “habits” and “errors.” Behaviorists (Thorndike, 1932, Bloomfield, 1933, Skinner, 1957) considered language as a set of habit formation and, hence, felt that language could be learned by imitation and reinforcement. According to them, whenever a stimulus was provided to learners, they were expected to respond in the same manner. If the desired outcome was obtained, the response would get further consolidated when learners were rewarded. Theories of habit formation were, thus, theories of language learning, which could be applied to understand language learning.

Clarifying this concept further, meeting someone calls for a certain kind of response (behavior) would/could be a greeting. And if the greeting is understood, it means that the desired response was obtained. If the response was appropriate, it would be reinforced with a reward that helped to strengthen the association. In case the communication was not appropriate, the learner would have to abandon the response in favor of another acceptable one.

In learning the first language, the child learns a set of new habits as he/she learns to respond to the stimuli. It was said that the children mastered their mother tongue by imitating utterances produced by adults and thus either got rewarded or punished. In this manner, the children built up patterns or habits that constituted learning the language.

### **Impact of the Behaviorist Theory on SLA**

It was believed that SLA also proceeded in a similar manner. Imitation and reinforcement were tools by which the learner identified the stimulus–response associations, which constituted L2 habits. It was felt that language could be broken into parts (various stimulus–response links) and learning could take place when these links were systematically practiced and mastered. Habit formation theory thus dominated second language acquisition until the 1960s.

However, another perspective on this theory of learning was regarding the **errors** that were committed while learning a second language. According to behaviorists, old habits, that is, L1 habits intruded into the process of learning L2 habits. Learners already had a set of well-established responses in their mother tongue (L1) and learning the second language involved replacing the well-established habits with a set of new ones.

The notion of *interference* thus becomes central to the behaviorist account of SLA. According to Lado (1957), if structures in the second language were like those of L1, learning would take place easily, but, if structures were realized differently, learning L2 would be difficult, and an error was likely to occur:

We know from the observation of many cases that the grammatical structure of the native language tends to be transferred to the foreign language ... we have here the major source of difficulty or ease in learning the foreign language ... Those structures that are different will be difficult.

(Lado 1957, pp.58–59, cited in Dulay et al.1982, p.99)

For Ellis (1985), it was the result of what was called “proactive inhibition” (Ellis, 1985, p. 22). “Proactive inhibition” meant the way in which previous learning inhibits or prevents the learning of new habits. L2 learners are hypothesized to experience difficulty in acquiring target language forms that are different from first language forms. But, it is possible that the structure used for expressing the intent is similar to in the first and second languages. In that case, learning will take place because the realization device is the same in both languages. An example will make this clear.

### Example:

An English learner learning French as a second language wants to say “I am twelve years old.” But he/she is likely to say *J’ai dous*, which means “I have twelve years old.” The same structure in German could be said as “*Ich bin wolf Jahre alt*,” which means “I am twelve years old.”

#### Structure in English (L1)

(1) I am twelve years old

#### Structure in French (L2)

(1a) *J’ai dous*  
(I have twelve years old)  
(e.g., of negative transfer)

#### Structure in German (L2)

(1b) *Ich bin wolf Jahre alt*  
(I am twelve years old)  
(e.g., of positive transfer)

You can see from the above example that the meaning of the structure in French is different from that of the English structure. The meaning of the structure in German being the same as that of English, according to the behaviorists; therefore, the German structure would be easier to learn than the French because the English structure acts as a facilitator to learning German (the structure being the same) while it acts as an inhibitor in the other (the structure being different).

Behaviorists predicted that from the first language to the second language, either positive or negative transfer would take place. It could be a negative transfer as in the case of French (sentence 1a) or it could be a positive transfer as in the case of German (sentence 1b). These errors were considered **undesirable** because they thought that these habits were likely to become systemic resulting in non-learning of L2. To sum up, this view maintained the following:

- Errors represented a failure to learn a new set of habits.
- Errors, if allowed to continue, would become a set of habits since language learning was considered habit formation.
- Errors were caused by interference whereby features of L1 were carried over or transferred into the L2 by the learner.

Table 3.1 Phonetic Stress and Change in Meaning

Word	Phonetic Transcription	Meaning	Category of word
present	<sup>1</sup> prez(ə)ntl	gift/point in time	noun
present	/pri <sup>1</sup> zents/	to deliver/give	verb
concert	<sup>1</sup> kɒnsət	performance	noun
	kənsə <sup>1</sup> t	with great effort	verb

Source: Author

Researchers like Lado and Fries stated categorically that reasons for errors made by learners could be predicted by comparing systematically the language and culture to be learned with the native language and culture of the learner. The theory of **Contrastive Analysis** states that a systematic analysis of L1 and L2 (Target Language) in terms of the **level of the sound system** (vowels, consonants, stress placement or intonation), **word formation** (inflection, derivation, compounding etc.), **syntax** (word order, agreement concord, transformations etc.), and **semantics** (assigning meanings to utterances and conversely, creating utterances to convey particular meanings) can offer a complete explanation of the causes of errors and is also likely to predict the errors learners are most likely to make. Taking an example from the Indian context, let us look at some errors Hindi (the national language of India) speaking learners are likely to make while learning English.

If we compare the phonological systems of Hindi and English languages, we find that there are several sounds in English that are not there in Hindi—like the sounds represented by the symbol /ʒ/ in words like treasure, leisure, and pleasure. Similarly, the vowel sounds represented phonetically as /ei/ and /əu/, day, weigh, and home, stone, respectively, have no equivalence in Hindi. This means that the Hindi-speaking learner will face difficulty in mastering these sounds.

A contrastive analysis of both languages further shows that Hindi has no system of stress placement on different syllables of words, which is an important feature of the English language. Because of this feature in English, if stress is altered in certain words, they acquire a different meaning; for example, see Table 3.1.

#### *Can you add some more words to the list?*

On the syntactic level, it is observed most Indian languages including Hindi do not have a parallel system of articles. The result is that students are unable to master the rules governing the use of definite, indefinite, and zero articles. As a teacher, when we notice their written work, we come to know that they hardly use any articles while writing.

Even at the level of question formation, we can see differences. Notice the set of sentences given below:

#### *English*

He is going

*Where* is he going?

*Why* is he going?

*When* is he going?

*Hindi*

Vo jaa rahaa hai

vo *kanhaa* jaa raha hai?vo *kaab* jaa rahaa hai?vo *knyuu* jaa rahaa hai?

If you observe how the question form is constructed from an affirmative in Hindi, only the question word is inserted after the subject of the sentence. The other word order remains the same. But in English, when question forms are constructed two changes take place.

First, there is an addition of a question word at the beginning of the sentence; and second, there is a change in the order of the words. The position of the subject undergoes a change and is moved after the auxiliary verb. The Hindi speakers face problems in learning this structure. After adding the question word, these students fail to change the word order of the rest of the sentence. Despite teaching the rules, the Hindi speaker continues to say, “Where he is going?” or “Why he is going” instead of the correct forms, “Where is he going?” or “Why is he going?”

Contrastive analysis thus helps us to understand and identify the possible areas in which the learner of a second language is likely to face problems. However, with this theoretical input, teachers can prepare suitable teaching materials, plan drills, and exercises so that problem areas can be addressed and learners can learn the second language effectively and appropriately.

This school of language learning came under severe criticism as the fields of linguistics and psychology witnessed major developments. Linguistics saw a shift from structural linguistics that was based on the description of the surface structure of a large corpus of language to generative linguistics, which emphasized the rule-governed and creative nature of the human language. In psychology, the pre-eminent role of the environment in shaping child’s learning and behavior, as argued by Skinner, lost ground in favor of the more “developmentalist” views of learning, such as Piaget’s cognitive developmental theory, in which it was argued that it was the inner forces of the child in interaction with the environment that results in language learning (Piaget, 1970; Piaget and Inhelder, 1966; Piatelli-Palmarini, 1980).

**Think Reflect and Write—1**

1. Which concepts of language learning were considered important by the Behaviorists?
2. Explain the treatment of “errors” in L1 and L2 acquisition.
3. Explain the concept of “interference” as observed by L2 theorists.
4. Observe your classroom and note down the problematic areas your students face while learning the second language. Do your students face problems in those areas while learning Language 1? State reasons for your answer.
5. Consider the different aspects of your mother tongue and contrast it with the learning of a second language. While learning the second language which areas did you find problematic? Give examples.

## **Mentalist View on L1 Acquisition**

The claim of the mentalist that acquisition of L1 was based on the learner's internal factors was drawn from the works of several psychologists and linguists, of whom the claims and observations made by Chomsky (1966) and Lenneberg (1967) were prominent and served as a framework for future investigations. The key concepts of the mentalists' view were "the critical period" and the "creativity of learners."

### *Critical Period*

The concept of "critical period" was propounded by Lenneberg (1967). He emphasized that learning a language required biological prerequisites, which he called the "critical period." This is a technical concept, which originates in embryology and biology where it was observed that certain developmental events could happen only for a limited period and that has a specific closure after which the organism in question has "missed its chance." He argued that the child's brain was specially adapted to the process of language acquisition, but this innate propensity was lost as maturation took place. He used the results of studies of aphasia (loss of language function due to brain damage), which showed that total recovery of language functions was not possible once puberty was reached.

The biological argument was that until puberty/adolescence, the two hemispheres of the cerebral cortex do not acquire lateralization that characterizes the adult brain. Having received a neurological sanction, he further argued that there was an "age of resonance" during which language acquisition took place as a generic heritage. Lenneberg's work thus provided empirical and theoretical support for the concept of a "built-in capacity" for language as a part of every human being's biological endowment.

According to the mentalists, language acquisition was a universal process, which meant that

1. There was a sequence of development (incremental nature of acquisition).
2. There were factors that determined how acquisition took place.

Research conducted in the 1960s on first language acquisition (FLA) revealed that there was a **fixed sequence of language development** through which all learners pass to achieve adult competence. What were the stages of development? What sequence of learning did learners follow? Aitchison (1989) summarized the stages as given in Table 3.2.

These stages are not language specific, although their actual realization obviously is. How the child constructs internal rules and how he/she adjusts from stage to stage is an internal mechanism, common to all learners; however, one is not aware of what actually these mechanisms are.

### *Creativity of Learners*

With Chomsky's criticism of Skinner's Verbal Behavior in 1957 came the notion of the creativity of children. He stressed the fact that in language learning, learners were active contributors and minimized the importance attributed to imitation and reinforcement. He claimed that children have an innate faculty, which he called Language Acquisition Device (LAD), which guides them in the learning of a language. The LAD contained

Table 3.2 Stages of Language Learning

<i>Language Stage</i>	<i>Beginning Age</i>
Crying	Birth
Cooing	6 weeks
Babbling	6 months
Intonation patterns	8 months
One-word utterances	1 year
Two-word utterances	18 months
Word inflections	2 years
Questions, negatives	2 years 3 months
Rare or complex constructions	5 years
Mature Speech	10 years

“Universal Grammar,” that is, a set of innate linguistic principles that comprised the “initial state” and that controlled the form which the sentences of any given language could take. Also, the children possessed a set of discovery procedures for relating the universal principle to the data provided by exposure to the natural language.

According to Chomsky (1966), the LAD did not shape the process of acquisition. The input the child receives triggers Universal Grammar with the help of which it produces sentences. Children create new sentences which they have never learned before. For example, utterances such as “Mummy goed,” “chair there,” are the result of internalization of rules rather than mere habit formation. Given the complexity of the abstraction of rules, whether it is the formation of sentences, questions, or the use of prepositions, it is amazing how the learners master them given the limited amount of input provided.

The concept of “errors” also received a different treatment from Chomsky. Children did make errors that were corrected only for their linguistic forms and not for the value or meaning they embedded. It was also observed that these corrections had very little effect on the development of language structure. The child would be able to utter correct grammatical structures only after the internalized rules were mastered. This revolutionary approach to the study of language propounded by Chomsky provided great impetus to the study of language acquisition.

### **Impact of the Mentalist Theory on SLA**

SLA research received a great boost from two landmark articles: “The Significance of Errors” by Pit Corder (1967) and Larry Selinkers’ “Interlanguage” (1972). These and other studies emphasized the systematic development of a second language featuring L2-specific regularities such as “Interlanguage developmental sequences.” The studies concerned investigated the acquisition of “progressive-ing,” “plural-s,” “possessive-s,” and “third person singular present-s,” which revealed the existence of a unique L2 development order. This proved significant as it confirmed that L2 development needs to be seen as an independent area of inquiry and not always through the lenses of L1 studies.

### **Cognitive Maturity and Superior Literacy**

The neurological explanation given by Lenneberg (1967) on language development was subsequently challenged by Krashen (1973). He argued that cortical lateralization of the

brain occurs much earlier, that is before the age of five, without any evidence of loss of any abilities (Krashen 1975, 1981).

If we reflect on the development of a second language in a child, he/she does not have to start from “tabula rasa” of knowing nothing about the language. The child has undergone the process of learning the language once. Most importantly, these learners already have within themselves a linguistic system. They are older, more mature than L1 learners, and therefore have advantages that age confers on them in terms of working memory, conceptual and social development, command of speech, styles, etc. They are also likely to have enhanced metalinguistic knowledge, a larger repertoire of learning techniques and problem-solving skills, and increased mental capacity to deal with abstract concepts, especially grammatical rules. Much of the maturation process then is transformation. It is not a sudden change but a continuous process. His/her language continuum (Universal Grammar) is in a state of constant development growing toward “adult formal operational systems.”

### Issue of Errors

An important issue that comes to the forefront when one deals with SLA is the issue of “errors.” Corder (1967) first suggested that a better understanding of language learning would come from a more systematic investigation of learner error by discovering the “built-in-syllabus” of learners. He was the first researcher to suggest that errors did not originate in the L1. The predictions that language errors originate due to the interference of L1 seemed to be unfounded as the majority of the errors showed that errors could not be traced to L1.

The logical question was that if errors could not be traced to L1, then from where did they originate? The characteristics of errors were not like TL or L1, therefore researchers concluded that their source must be internal, that is within the learner. By 1972, Selinker came up with the notion of “**interlanguage**,” which referred to the language produced by learners, both as a system that can be described at any point in time resulting from systematic rules and as a series of interlocking systems that characterized learner progression. In other words, it emphasized two fundamental notions:

1. The language produced by learners is a **system** obeying its own rules.
2. It is a **dynamic system**, evolving over time.

He postulated the view that second-language utterances of learners do not conform to adult speech, nor are they exact translations of the native language. They differ from the TL in systematic ways yet, they are not randomly produced. “The relevant data of the second language learning must be the speech forms which results from the attempted expression of meaning in second language” (Selinker, Swain and Dumas, 1975). Errors, which were considered as signals of non-learning of L2 by the behaviorists, were now not viewed in isolation but considered inevitable, valuable aspects of learning, evolving out of the developing interlanguage.

The fluctuating nature of the emerging language system was termed “transitional competence,” “idiosyncratic dialect,” “learner language” by Pit Corder (1981), or approximative system by Nemser (1971).

Interlanguage research revealed that the learner’s degree of proficiency can legitimately be conceived as a “system” created by the learner himself/herself, which is distinct from



L1 and L2. The system is not invariant although it may have relatively fixed defects, which are usually referred to as “fossilization.” (Detailed account of interlanguage and fossilization is dealt with in another section.)

### Think, Reflect, and Write—2

1. What was Lenneberg’s argument relating to L1 acquisition?
2. How were learners considered active contributors in the learning process?
3. What is interlanguage and how does it function?
4. How is the issue of “errors” linked with the concept of interlanguage?

### Social Theories

A new strand of thinking developed in which theorists viewed language learning in social terms. Certain theorists were of the view that language acquisition was the result of the interaction between the learners’ mental abilities and the linguistic environment. The Swiss psychologist, Jean Piaget’s work (1970) attained importance because it offered a broader scope of understanding of language acquisition. The Developmental Interactional approach assumed that language learning was dependent on several factors—social, linguistic, maturational, biological, cognitive, etc., which affected the course of development (a detailed account of this theory can be read elsewhere in the book). Vygotsky (1986), a Soviet psychologist, was also of the opinion that these factors helped language learning and the interaction between children and adults continually developed and modified these factors.

Social interaction begins from the time the baby is born and the child’s language development begins in terms of the functions they want to express. According to Halliday (1975), initially the functions can be grouped into six categories, which simultaneously and gradually develop into three adult functions. They are as follows:

1. Interpersonal—relating to people.
2. Ideational—communicating ideas to other people.
3. Textual—relating one piece of language to the other.

In L1 acquisition, social interactionists emphasize the significance of instances when parents/adults/caregivers provide speech of a special nature called “**motherese**” or child-directed speech. If one observes the characteristics of the language spoken by adults with babies, one notices that grammatical structures are simplified, baby-talk vocabulary is used, and a lot of structures and sentences are repeated. Questions that are frequently framed and used are: (Sentences B and C are in the Hindi language that denotes how a mother would use the Hindi language with the child).

- a. What are you doing dear?
- b. Kya kar rahi ho beti?
- c. Asie nain karte bete.
- d. Troubling mummy, bad girl!

The intonation is exaggerated, there is extra loudness in the voice and the tempo of language is slow with long pauses. The conversational structure seems to assign an interactive role to the young child even before he/she has become a speaking participant. For example,

- e. What is my baby doing? Has she got up?
- f. Here! Don't cry, let me change your clothes.

As the child grows older and begins to use language, the language of the elders becomes elaborate.

There is also evidence to suggest that “motherese” also affects the rate of acquisition of the language (Cross, 1977, 1978; Ellis and Wells, 1980; Barnes et al, 1983). These studies suggest that the way mothers talk with their children influences the rapidity with which they acquire the language. However, the key input is interactional rather than formal. It is the mother's choice of discourse to use questions, commands, clarifications, or acknowledgements, which provide the right kind of input to foster L1 development.

Another important factor responsible for L1 acquisition is the **quality and quantity of input** encountered by the child. The behaviorists were of the view that linguistic environment was important in terms of stimulus and response. The mentalist minimized the role of input and explained language development primarily in terms of the learner's internal processing system. The interactionist view sees language development as the result of both the input factors and innate mechanisms. Language acquisition according to them was derived from collaborative efforts of the learner and his/her interlocutors and involves a dynamic interplay between external and internal factors. Thus, the role of linguistic environment in L1 acquisition seems to serve more than a trigger to activate the innate processing mechanisms, leading to an interactionist interpretation of development.

### Think, Reflect, and Write—3

1. What are Halliday's views on the acquisition of the language functions by the child?
2. How can “motherese” be characterized? How does it help to acquire the language?
3. Collect samples of language used by mothers of children of 0-to-1-year-olds and 3-to-4-year-olds. Point out the distinction between the two types of language used.
4. According to the social–interactionist theory of language, which are the factors responsible for L1 development?

### Impact of the Interactionist Theory on SLA

SLA research reveals that L2 learners encounter the second language in a variety of situations. If one could categorize the various situations, it could broadly be termed as **natural**, that is, picking up language through encounters at work, etc., and **artificial**, that is,

learning through instruction of one kind or another. According to Long (1993), L2 learning encompassed the acquisition of languages “by children and adults learning naturalistically or with the aid of instruction ... in second or foreign language settings”. The most obvious difference between the naturalistic and the formal language learning contexts is the quality and quantity of language input that is available to the learners.

Learning L2 in **naturalistic settings** is likely to be influenced by many variables such as the topic of conversation, the age of participants, children, adolescents, or adults, and also the proficiency of learners. The language thus acquired is not static or has a fixed set of features, but dynamic, ever changing according to the situations it is put to use. This also means that the language acquired has both formal and functional characteristics, which Long (1981) called “input” and “interactional,” respectively.

Though L2 acquired in naturalistic settings resembles “motherese,” yet there are notable differences between the two in regard to the input and the interactional features. Freed (1980) observed that the distribution of language functions was not the same. Motherese displayed a high proportion of questions and instructions whose main functional intent was to direct the child’s behavior while the language acquired in naturalistic settings had a higher proportion of statements whose intention was mainly to exchange information.

Let us now turn our attention to the other context of L2 acquisition, that is, **language acquired through instruction**. Language in the classroom has been the area of interest for many years now. Studies have been motivated by the fact that successful learning outcomes may depend upon the amount of language input, the type of language used by the teacher, and the type of interactions occurring in the classroom.

It is obvious that an enormous gap exists between the **amount of language input** in L1 acquisition environment and the classroom learning environment. L1 acquisition is characterized by constant immersion, which is “contextualized, appropriate, meaningful communication” (Brown, 2000). The L1 learner is constantly surrounded by L1 speakers and is highly motivated to communicate, while the L2 learner is exposed to L2 only for certain hours in a week in a classroom. This is true of Indian classrooms where our learners are exposed to L2, English, for a fixed period. In regional medium schools learners are exposed to L2 only for one hour per day to a maximum of four hours per week while learners from English medium schools are exposed to English for four to five hours per day to a maximum of 30 hours as other subjects are also taught in English unlike the regional medium students. This limiting effect of insufficient instruction has been explicitly stated by Lightbrown and Spada (2006):

One or two hours a week – even for seven or eight years will not produce advanced second language speakers. This “drip-feed” approach often leads to frustration as learners feel that they have been studying for years without making much progress.

Even the **quality of language input and learning experience** that learners are exposed to needs to be taken into consideration. Different age groups need different types of input and practice opportunities. In order to capitalize on their implicit learning capacity, they should be engaged in tasks that offer hands-on meaningful activities and an abundance of naturalistic input that they can access because learners seem not to benefit much from the teaching of explicit rules and tasks that require inductive/deductive reasoning skills and abstract thinking (Nikolov and Djigunovic 2006). Unfortunately, these are the types of tasks that tend to make up the bulk of standard L2 instruction all over India.

Not only the input but even the **nature of language use** differs in both contexts. The L1 learner has no externally imposed syllabus (though Corder may say that there is a built-in syllabus), L2 learners follow a commonly laid down syllabus by the policymakers and suggest that language is acquired in a linear and orderly fashion. There is no specific textbook for acquisition of L1, whereas L2 learners are constricted by the topics and structures in the prescribed textbook. Children learning L1 focus on the “truth value” of the language (Brown, 2000), whereas language teachers often focus on the accuracy of grammatical forms at the expense of factual correctness (Willis, 2001). Hofstede (1986) found that the classroom setting itself is intimidating and impedes meaningful classroom interaction contributing to the formation of individual attitudes and beliefs about language learning that can affect outcomes.

**Teaching practices** vary around the world and those who acquire L2 artificially in the classroom may be exposed to teaching methods ranging from grammar translation to task-based learning by teachers who are not native speakers. This is not the case with L1 acquisition. Parents simplify when they interact with their children, while in artificial teaching situations, teachers stick to the language prescribed in the textbook, which sometimes is not to the level of the learners. This results in learners losing interest in the language and ultimately not learning it. The interaction hypothesis however mentions that what is necessary for language acquisition is not sampled language but simplified interaction (Long, 1981).

Researchers such as Brown (1973) and McNeill (1966) conducted studies on the grammar that children produced and concluded that children should not be **treated as mini adults but as individuals having an independent system of their own**. Their utterances and production of language were a result of the cognitive processing of rules underlying languages. While learning they are bound to make errors, and therefore, their language cannot be considered as a defective version of the adult language. For example, a child’s utterances, “mummy biscuit” or “mummy chair,” were not poor attempts to imitate adult talk but construction and production of proper sentences according to the child’s own rules.

Second language teaching has often attempted to recreate L1 learning conditions in the L2 classrooms mostly in terms of using only a single language or having simple interaction between students and teachers or between students. Students barely differ in their acquisition of the first language so far as the main features of the spoken language are concerned. They all learn phonology, vocabulary, and grammar appropriate for their dialect, class, age, gender, etc. What marks them apart from L2 learners is extreme, individual differences in terms of motivation, attitude, learning styles, learning strategies, cognitive style, personality, and all the other factors (Skehan, 1989; Dornyei (2006).

The general assumption is that the overall success rate of L2 acquisition is poor compared to the rate of L1 acquisition. Bley-vroman (1989) sums up the crucial difference between L1 and L2 acquisition as under:

The lack of general guaranteed success is the most striking characteristic of adult foreign language learning. Normal children inevitably achieve perfect mastery of the language; adult foreign language learners do not ... one has the impression of ineluctable success on the one hand and ineluctable failure on the other (1989, 42–44) .

This view has been shared by a number of SLA researchers. Ellis summarizes nine differences between L1 and L2 acquisition using Bley-vroman’s argument (1988): (Table 3.3).

Table 3.3 Differences between L1 and L2 Acquisition

Sr. No.	Feature	L1 Acquisition	L2 Acquisition
1	Overall success	Children normally attain perfect L1 mastery	Adult L2 learners are unlikely to achieve perfect L2 mastery
2	General failure	Success guaranteed	Complete success rare
3	Variation	Little variation in the degree of success or route	L2 learners vary in overall success and route
4	Goals	Target language competence	L2 learners may be content with less than target language competence or more concerned with fluency than accuracy
5	Fossilization	Unknown	Common plus backsliding, that is, return to earlier stages of development
6	Intuitions	Children develop clear intuitions about correctness	L2 learners are often unable to form clear grammatical judgments
7	Instruction	Not needed	Helpful or necessary
8	Negative evidence	Correction not needed and not necessary	Correction is generally helpful or necessary
9	Affective factors	Not involved	Play a major role in determining proficiency

Source: Author

**Think, Reflect, and Write—4**

1. From your classroom experience, explain with the help of examples how interactional functions are taught to acquire L2. How do these differ from L1 “motherese?”
2. How is L2 acquisition different in the instructional mode as compared to that in the naturalistic setting?
3. Ellis has summarized the differences between L1 and L2 acquisition. Briefly explain each one of them by giving examples from your own classroom experiences.

**Impact of Theories on the Teaching of English**

The behaviorists were instrumental in establishing the basic principles and tenets of the structural approach to language teaching. The theory offered a model of language learning that upheld the pedagogic principles of **spaced, controlled, and meaningful repetition**. Vocabulary was graded based on frequency counts and graded readers to support the reading method, systematic teaching drilling of structures of the language were considered important. The syllabus and materials were produced centrally and “scientifically” by experts, taking into account learners’ cultural, cognitive, and linguistic needs and expectations. However, with the mentalist influencing language teaching practices underwent a change. Repetition and practice gave way to hypothesis formation and

Table 3.4 Substitution Table

<i>My Friend</i>		<i>Known</i>	<i>In Mumbai</i>		<i>Ten Years</i>
	has	lived			last June
Your sister	have	played	German	since	April
		taught	rice	for	July
His brother		eaten			
She		run			
I					

Source: Author

problem-solving. For example, the substitution tables that were used to practice language patterns were considered mindless by mentalists, but the same tasks in a different way that enabled learners to think were more or less acceptable to the mentalists. The following substitution table makes the child *think* about the formation of correct grammatical sentences (Table 3.4).

If students tried to produce sentences mechanically, they were likely to produce grammatically incorrect sentences like

1. *My friend have lived in Mumbai since ten years.*
2. *Your sister has eaten German for ten years.*

The kind of substitution table given above made the child think of the meaning the sentences would reveal. Even the teaching materials favored by the mentalists required the learners to form their own rules based on which language could be learned. This also meant that syllabi and teaching materials could no longer be rigidly controlled. The old maxim of learning one by one was no longer sacred. The learner may be confronted simultaneously by a variety of learning problems and therefore such an environment needs to be presented to them. Consider the following examples:

Example 1: My wife is angry with me. *She* always complains that *I* pay more attention to *my* books than to *her*. But she doesn't know how much I love *her*.

The above example could take another form.

Example 2: But she doesn't know how much I love *her*. *She* always complains that *I* pay more attention to *my* books than to *her*. My wife is angry with me.

The two tasks are different now. In the first task, learners are required to supply only the pronouns. In the second task learners are asked to re-arrange the sentences in the proper sequence as well as supply the missing pronouns. The learner is forced to grapple with two tasks, creating a kind of tension, also keeping the learner mentally alert. It is believed that a more varied exposure to language patterns enables learners to perceive the interrelationships existing in language more readily and thus increasing the awareness of how language works. The older principle of graded and selected language items does not permit the learner to perceive language in its totality.

This also results in teaching language being a more **creative and flexible** activity. It is believed that the learner be given independence to use the language, even if it involves making errors. Making errors therefore was not a bad habit but was regarded as evidence of creative language use. The learner was encouraged to experiment with language and

try to learn through errors. Thus, the mentalist/cognitivist approach puts the **focus on the learner** rather than on the teacher. The teacher becomes the facilitator to help create an environment of learning, to unravel the hidden, unobserved rational processes within the learners.

If one tries to look at our language classrooms, one sees that our students come from different linguistic and cultural backgrounds. Therefore, with the interactionist model, the focus shifted from the pure abstract rules to the making of meaning. This brought into prominence the concept of **communicative competence** (Dell Hymes, 1972) where situations and domains of use were the categories that decided the appropriacy of language. Fluency replaced the notion of grammatical correctness and meaning-based study replaced form-focused study. In the classroom, the focus was on the following:

- Teaching communicative competence along with linguistic competence.
- Adopting analytic and not synthetic approach to language teaching.
- Teaching processes as well as their forms.
- Learning by doing it.
- Considering mistakes as examples of creativity.

This view gave rise to the Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) paradigm, which presently some schools and colleges are practicing. But in certain places in India, schools still follow the structural method of teaching resulting in learners' knowing the rules of the language and not knowing its use.

Think, Reflect, and Write—5		
Categories	Behaviorists	Cognitivists
control	undesirable	
error		
exposure		
grammar		
practice		
role of learner		
role of teacher		
syllabus		
grading items		
any other		

**Factors Affecting L2 Acquisition**

The emphasis of theory and praxis in second language learning in the late 19th century and the greater half of the 20th century was mainly on the behaviorist ideas of association between stimulus and response. It viewed the mind as a “tabula rasa”—blank slate and considered language learning as a mechanical process of habit formation. This view of B.F. Skinner was challenged by Noam Chomsky in 1959. According to him, Behaviorism simplified the learning process and underestimated the role of creativity in the human

mind. According to him, a child has a remarkable capacity to “generalize, hypothesize and process information in a variety of very special and highly complex ways ... which may be largely innate or may develop through some sort of learning or through maturation of the nervous system.” This shift had a tremendous impact on research in both the first- and second language learning. The learner rather than the teacher or the materials became the focus of study. The learner began to be viewed as an active participant in the process of learning. In teaching more and more emphasis began to be given to those exercises, which would help learners to reason, induce, and internalize the rules that govern the target language. Another important consequence of this was that the output of the learner began to be considered independent of the learner’s first or second language it started being considered as “approximate system” by Nemser (1971) or interlanguage by Selinker (1972) or transitional competence by Pit Corder (1971). Some researchers were also of the view that there were some other factors that were responsible for second language learning. Those other factors are elaborated below.

**Age:** Many psychologists believed that there was a “critical period” in children when they learned the languages at their best. The reason given was the flexibility of the brain and that in adults their abstract mode of thinking interfered with their language learning process. Adults also did not have the same peer pressure and they were less willing to give up their well-established social identity. Seliger (1978) was of the view that language learning abilities were not lost totally, in fact they were reduced. However, there are some researchers who are of the view that adult learners are better learners than children, because they have a purpose to learn the language.

**Sex:** Several studies of first and second language studies have shown that girls are better learners than boys. Trudgill (1972) believed that women are socially and economically insecure, and therefore they compensate for it linguistically. However, another researcher Satyanath (1982), while researching on Kannadiga women in Delhi found that women are linguistically sounder than men because they have to interact with society numerous times in a number of different ways. However, in research conducted on foreign language learning, very few studies have been conducted and a study conducted by Burstall (1975) revealed that it was linked to socio-economic condition of the learners.

**Intelligence:** This component is usually understood as the ability of a learner to understand, comprehend, think, and take decisions in any learning situations compared to other learners. This is not a static component in learners but variable across all learners even given the fact that other factors are equal. There are many standardized tests to measure the intelligence quotient of learners. Studies have been conducted to measure the positive or the negative effect of intelligence on learning languages, which also depends on the extent whether learners have an **aptitude** to learn languages, which refers to the ability to infer grammar rules, recognize sound patterns with which how easily the learner can learn a language.

**Cognition:** Every learner has an independent cognitive style of learning a language. The learners could be categorized into different types of cognitive styles.

### *Field Independence and Field Dependence*

Though a psychological concept, these two terms can be used in the context of language learning. A student can be considered **field independent** if the learner has the capacity to process information independent of its context. These types of students are likely to



have greater communicative and conversational resourcefulness and greater negotiation skills, which would help in interaction and thus language development through interaction. **Field-dependent** student, on the other hand, cannot consider an event of interaction separate from its context.

### *Reflection*

Another cognitive style refers to students being either impulsive or reflective in nature. When presented with any learning situation, the impulsive are more faster but at the same time they are likely to be less accurate. Reflective students, on the other hand, take time to understand the problem, are slower, and are more accurate in their solution.

### *Categorization Styles*

Learners categorized into **descriptive–analytical** concentrate on a single detail common to all objects; a **categorical–inferential** style focuses on the class of objects whereas **relational–contextual** focuses on a common theme or function. Each of these cognitive styles has its own effect on second language learning. However, a lot of studies need to be undertaken in order to significantly point out exactly how cognitively the learner learns a second language.

### *Personality*

Personality traits are also seen as influencing second language acquisition. Successful learners are said to be more extrovert, flexible, and tolerant of ambiguities. Bartz (1974) found that traits of introvertness, soberness, and self-sufficiency strongly correlated with oral components of communicative competence. He was further of the opinion that students with traits of imagination, placidness, and low anxiety tended to score higher on written components of the communicative competence test.

### *Attitude*

Attitude is an individual's response or an "evaluative reaction" (Gardner 1985) to a situation based on the individual's beliefs or opinions. Applying this notion to the learning of a second language, if the attitude of the students is positive toward the language, the learner is likely to learn the language quickly and vice versa. Take the case of English in India. For a very long time after independence, the English language was considered a symbol of colonial dominance, and hence educational institutions were not positive toward teaching the language, which rubbed off on the students as well. However, today this perception seems to be changing probably because the IT boom not only affected our country but also established English as an international medium of expression.

### *Motivation*

The concept of motivation in second language acquisition is individualistic in the sense that it is on the learner to strive and work to learn a language because of the "desire

to do so” (Gardner 1985). In a sense, attitude and motivation seem to be interrelated. If the learner does not desire to learn a language, then he/she is not likely to have the correct attitude toward it nor would there be self-motivation to learn the language. According to Gardner and Lambert (1972), there are two types of motivation: **integrative** and **instrumental**. Those learners, who learn the language to integrate with the people of the TL group, understand their culture, music, films, and so on, and are able to participate with them are said to be **integratively motivated**. Those learners learning a language for utilitarian objectives, for example, obtaining admission in a particular course, or for professional advancement, or gaining personal advantage are said to be **instrumentally motivated** to learn the TL. If one looks at learning English in India today, apart from it being taught as a second language across all educational institutions, it can be said that learners are more instrumentally motivated to learn than integratively motivated.

### Think, Reflect, and Write—6

1. Observe about 10–15 students in your class and categorize them into different cognitive styles. Also, observe their talk with their peers and find out which other factors contribute to the learning of the second language.
2. Interview a group of 15–20 students of Std. X and find out whether their purpose of learning English is instrumental or integrative.

One can thus observe similarities as well as differences between L1 and L2 learning. To sum up, these are:

1. L2 learning settings are more varied than L1 settings.
2. L2 learners are older therefore cognitively more mature. L2 learners have different motivations and attitudes than L1 learners.
3. Unlike L1 learners, L2 learners already have a linguistic system in place when they start learning L2.
4. The child’s language is a system of its own rather than a small fragment of the adult system.
5. Learning L1 is more than learning just syntax and vocabulary of the language. L1 use goes hand in hand with the child’s needs and interests.
6. Whenever there is relationship between cognition and language development, language depends upon cognition.
7. The child’s use and learning of language is partly determined by mental capacity.
8. Even if the rate of progression varies, all children go through particular stages in language development.
9. The child learns to adapt language use to particular situations.
10. Adults adapt their speech in systematic ways when talking to children.
11. Teaching of English underwent changes according to the changes in various theoretical assumptions.

**To Summarize**

1. All children go through the same process of language development. Progression of learning is differential.
2. There are different categories of language learning theories—Behaviorist, Cognitive, and Social.
3. According to Lenneberg, there is a critical learning period for learning any language.
4. Settings for learning L2 are more varied than settings for L1 learning.
5. L2 learners already have a linguistic system in place unlike L1 learners.
6. There are many factors that affect L2 acquisition.

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## 4 Phonology and Morphology

### Phonology

A unique characteristic that we humans possess is the ability to communicate with other fellow beings through language, that is, words and sentences, which are graphically represented by alphabets. However, we need to know that we do not produce or utter words. We produce “speech sounds” that are structured together in various ways to form the words we utter. We need to break this string of sounds into its smallest unit and call it a **phoneme**. Phonetics, thus, is the study and science of speech sounds. When we produce speech sounds, different parts of our body are involved in their production. They are

- Respiratory system
- Phonatory system
- Articulatory system

When a sound is uttered, it travels to the listener as sound waves. The listener then interprets them as sounds. In short, the air we breathe is modified in many different combinations to produce different types of sounds—the vowel and the consonant sounds. Before we go into the details of these sounds, let us first go back to the speech mechanism and understand how different organs of our body help us to utter sounds.

### Speech Mechanism

#### *The Respiratory System*

All the sounds we make when we speak are the result of muscle contraction. The **muscles in the chest** that we use for breathing produce the flow of air that is needed for almost all speech sounds. When they expand, we inhale (breathe in) air, and when they contract we exhale (breathe out). The air that we inhale and exhale is the basis for the production of sounds. At the time of exhaling, the lungs force the air up the **trachea** to the **larynx**.

#### *The Phonatory System*

**Larynx** is situated in the upper part of the trachea. It is a muscular structure, and the front part of it can be felt in the neck. It is commonly called the “Adam’s apple.” This structure is more pronounced in men than in females. The larynx contains a pair of muscular folds called the **vocal cords**. These are placed horizontally from front to back, joined at the front but separated at the back. The space between the cords is called the

**glottis.** The vocal cords can assume numerous positions because they are separated at the back. The three main positions, which are important for the production of speech sounds, are the following:

1. When we breathe, the position of the vocal cords is wide open, there is a lot of gap between them, that is, they are in **open position**. This allows free flow of air to pass upwards without vibrating the glottis. Large number of speech sounds are produced when the vocal cords are in this position. The sounds that are produced when the vocal cords are wide apart are called **voiceless sounds**.
2. The second position that the vocal cords assume is one in which they are held loosely together, that is, in **semi-open position**. When the vocal cords are in this position, the pressure of the air forcing itself upwards makes the glottis vibrate. The sounds thus produced are called **voiced sounds**.
3. The third position is when the vocal cords are held very tightly together, that is, they are in a **closed position**. In such a position, the air cannot force itself upwards and when it actually does, there is an “explosion-like sound.”

### The Articulatory System

All the other organs involved before the pent-up air from the larynx meets the outside air either through our oral or nasal cavity are a part of the articulatory system. Let us understand in brief each one of them.

The **pharynx** is a tube that begins from the top of the larynx to the root of the tongue. At its top, it is divided into two: one part being at the back of the oral cavity and the other being at the beginning of the way to the nasal cavity. If one looks in the mirror with one's mouth open, one can see the back of the pharynx. The muscles of the pharynx can modify the shape and size of the pharyngeal cavity, which greatly affects the quality of the sound produced.

The **lips** are the outermost organ of the oral tract and have an important part to play in the production of sounds. Many sounds of Hindi/English are produced either when lips are completely closed, or partially open, or by the shape they assume. When pressed together sounds **p, b** are produced; when in contact with the teeth **f, v** are produced; and when rounded **u:** is produced. Sounds in which the lips are in contact with each other are called **bilabial**, while those with lip-to-teeth contact are called **labiodental**.

The **upper and lower teeth** also contribute to the production of sounds. Most speakers have teeth to the sides of their mouths, back almost to the soft palate. The tongue is in contact with the upper side teeth for most speech sounds. Sounds made with the tongue touching the front teeth are **θ, ð** and are called dental.

The **alveolar ridge** is between the top front teeth and the hard palate. You can feel its shape with your tongue. Its surface is much rougher than it feels and is covered with little ridges. One can only see these if one has a mirror small enough to go inside one's mouth, such as those used by dentists. Sounds made with the tongue touching here are **t, d, n** and are called **alveolar**.

Beyond the alveolar ridge, there is a hard bony surface, which we can feel when we move our tongue. This is the **hard palate**, and some sounds are produced when our tongue touches this part. It is also called the “roof of the mouth.” The consonant sound **j** in “yes” is made with the tongue close to the hard palate. This sound is called **palatal**.

The **soft palate** or the **velum** is often called the “roof of the mouth.” This is soft and at the far back of our mouth and can be felt when we move our tongue toward the roof of

the mouth and further back. The other important thing about the soft palate is that the tongue can touch it. When we produce sounds, the tongue is in contact with the lower side of the soft palate, and we call these velar consonants. The sounds made are **k**, **g**.

The **uvula** hangs at the very end of the soft palate and is like a dangling fleshy pendant. The back of the tongue can contact it to produce certain sounds.

The **tongue** is the most flexible of all organs of speech and a very important articulator. It can move into many different places and assume different shapes. It is usually divided into parts though there are no clear dividing lines within its structure. If one opens one's mouth and sees in the mirror, one can see that the part of the tongue that lies behind the lower teeth is the tip of the tongue; the part that lies opposite the teeth ridge is called a blade; the front of the tongue lies opposite the hard palate; and finally, the part lying opposite to the velum or the soft palate is the back of the tongue.

The **nasal tract** also contributes to the production of the sounds. In the production of certain sounds, the oral tract is completely closed and hence air from the lungs is unable to pass through the mouth. It has no choice but to pass outside through the nose. While air is exhaled from the nose, the sounds **m**, **n** are produced.

Let me end this section by defining **passive** and **active articulators**. Active articulators are those organs of speech that can move, and passive articulators are those that cannot move. For example, the tongue and the lower jaw are movable while the upper jaw is not. The soft palate is both an active and a passive articulator. The next section deals with the classification and description of the various sounds that are produced with the help of passive and active articulators. The speech organs described earlier are represented in Figure 4.1 in the form of a diagram.

### Think, Reflect, and Answer

State whether the following statements are true or false:

1. The sounds of English are produced by inhaling air into the lungs.
2. To produce voiceless sounds, like the initial sound in the English word *sick*, the vocal chords must vibrate.
3. To produce an oral sound, like the initial sound in the English word *blue*, the soft palate must be raised.
4. When we define "vowel" and "consonant" with reference to their function in a particular language, we define them in phonetic terms.
5. When the glottis is closed, no air can escape through it.
6. In the production of nasal sounds, there is no closure of the oral passage.
7. The lips are kept wide apart in the production of all English consonants.

### Classification and Description of Speech Sounds

The study of phonetics primarily falls into the discipline of linguistics. But as teachers of the English language, it is necessary to know those aspects of educated English that are necessary for an English classroom. The model used is RP (Received Pronunciation), which has received a lot of support for the teaching of correct pronunciation to speakers of other languages.



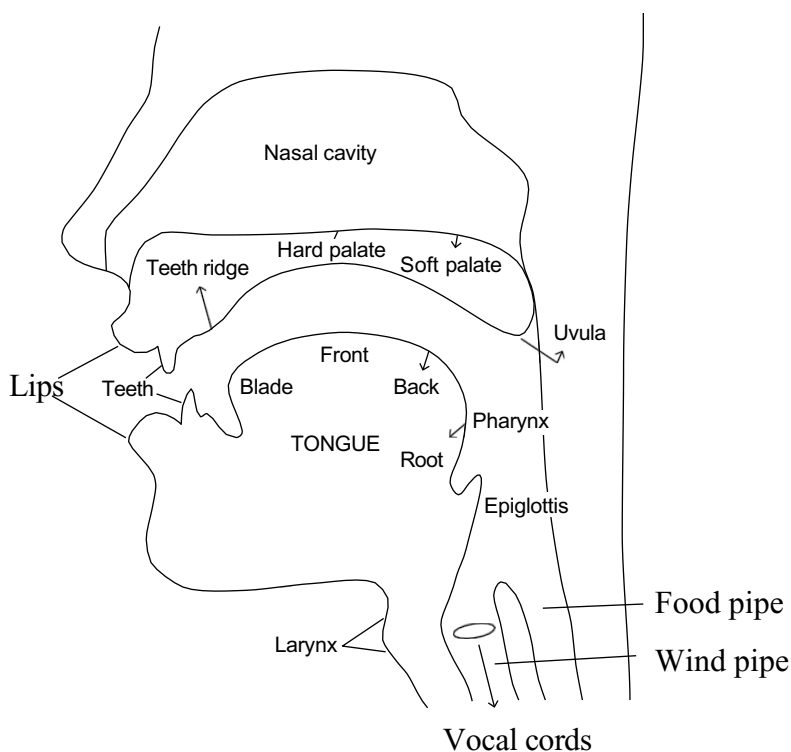


Figure 4.1 Organs of speech.

Source: Tickoo (2003).

Let us understand some fundamental concepts related to speech sounds before categorizing them:

1. There is a poor correlation between the sounds and letters of English. This causes a lot of confusion because several letters often represent the same sound or the same letter is often represented by different sounds. For example:
  - i. The letter A stands for different sounds in car /a:/, wall /:/, bat / /, and hate /ei/.
  - ii. The consonant sound /f/ is represented by three different letters as in fuss, tough, graph.

We all know that English has 26 alphabets a, b, c, d, ..., x, y, z. But in standard British English (RP) there are 44 different sounds in the English language. These are based on different positions, passive and active, articulators take when air is being exhaled. These 44 sounds are categorized into three types: consonants, vowels, and diphthongs.

2. Speech sounds can be voiced or voiceless. Sounds produced when the glottis/vocal cord is wide open are called **voiceless sounds**, and those sounds produced when the vocal cords are vibrating are called **voiced sounds**. If we want to know which sounds are voiced and which voiceless, we can keep our palm on Adam's apple

and utter a sound. If Adam's apple vibrates, that sound is voiced, and if it does not vibrate then it is a voiceless sound.

3. Speech sounds are broadly classified into vowels and consonants. Vowels and consonants are popularly defined with reference to the letters of the alphabet. Thus, the letters "a e i o u" are called "vowels" and the rest are "consonants." In phonology, this definition is misleading because **vowels and consonants are essentially categories of speech sounds**. In phonology, we define vowels and consonants with reference to their production. A **vowel** is that sound which is produced when the oral passage is unobstructed so that air can flow from the lungs to the lips and beyond without being stopped, without having to squeeze through a narrow constriction which would cause friction.

On the other hand, a **consonant** is a sound that is produced when air from the lungs is completely stopped or is forced through a narrow constriction causing audible friction. An example will make it clear:

In the English word "bar," the vowel is represented by the letters "ar," which is produced when the mouth is wide open. The air passes from the lungs to the outside without any obstruction. This sound therefore is a vowel sound. The sound "b" is produced when the lips at first completely close the air passage and then release the air.

There is obstruction of air before its release, and because of this the resultant sound "b" is called a consonant.

The English language has 44 sounds out of which there are 20 vowel sounds and 24 consonant sounds. All vowels and most of the consonant sounds are voiced. We shall now discuss the place and the manner in which each sound is produced.

### *English Vowels*

There are 20 vowels, and of these 12 are pure vowels and 8 are diphthongs or glides. Of the 12, 5 are long vowels and the rest are short. Length is not the only difference. In most cases, the difference is qualitative compared to quantitative. Figure 4.2 shows the place where these vowels are articulated.

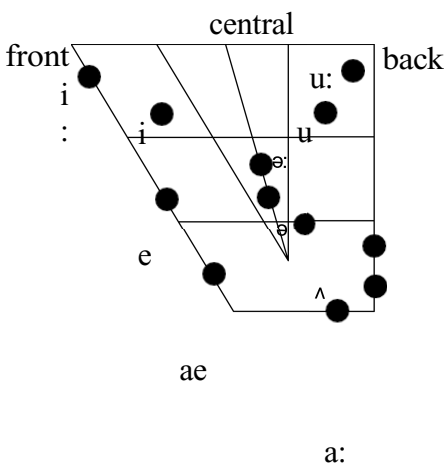


Figure 4.2 The vowel chart.

Source: Tickoo (2003).

From Figure 4.2, it is understood that 4 of the 12 vowels are **front vowels**. They are so called because in their production/articulation, the front of the tongue is raised in the direction of the hard palate. The vowels articulated are **i:, i, e, æ**. There are five **back vowels**. During their articulation, the back of the tongue is raised to the direction of the soft palate in such a manner that there is a wide gap for the air to pass out without friction. The back vowels are **u, u:, ʊ, ɔ:, ɑ:.** There are three **central vowels** **ɜ:, ə, ʌ.** In their articulation, the tongue is raised in the direction of that part of the roof of the mouth where the hard and the soft palate meet.

The vowel symbols and the keywords are as follows: see Table 4.1.

### *Diphthongs*

Glides or diphthongs are vowels in whose articulation the tongue starts in the position required for articulating on particular vowel and then moves in the direction of the position required for articulating a different vowel (Table 4.2).

Three diphthongs glide in the direction of the vowel / i/. They are /ei/, /ai/, / ɔi/ (Figure 4.3). Two diphthongs glide in the direction of u; they are /əu/ and /au/ (Figure 4.4). Three diphthongs glide in the direction of /ə/; they are /iə/, /uə/, and /eə/ (Figure 4.5).

*Table 4.1 Pure Vowel Sounds*

<i>Sr. No.</i>	<i>Pure Vowel Sounds</i>	<i>Keyword</i>
1	i:	beat
2	I	bit
3	E	bet
4	Æ	b̄at
5	ɑ:	b̄ar
6	ʊ	c̄ot
7	ɔ:	caugh̄t
8	U	pūt
9	u:	fōod
10	ʌ	but
11	ɜ:	bird
12	ə	about

*Table 4.2 Diphthongs*

<i>Diphthongs</i>		
1	eɪ	late
2	aɪ	ride
3	ɔɪ	boy
4	əʊ	go
5	aʊ	now
6	iə	hear
7	eə	pear
8	ʊə	poor

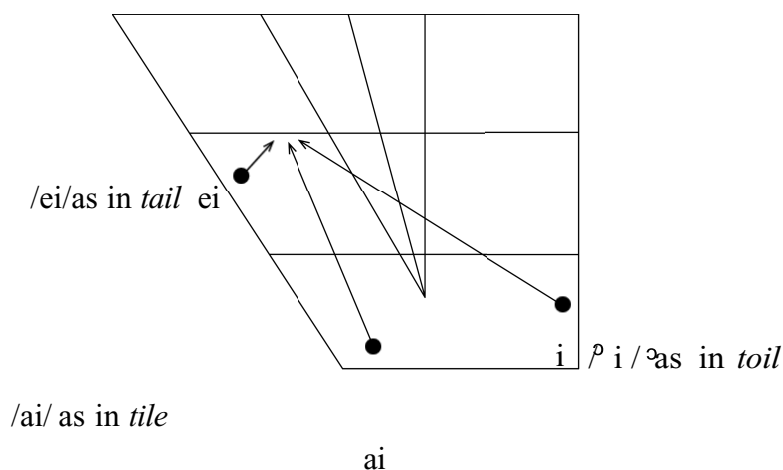


Figure 4.3 Closing diphthongs gliding to /i/.  
Source: Tickoo (2003).

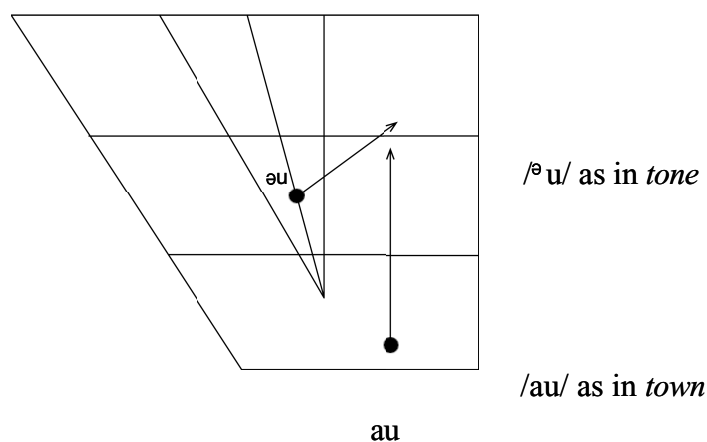


Figure 4.4 Closing diphthongs gliding to /u/.  
Source: Tickoo (2003).

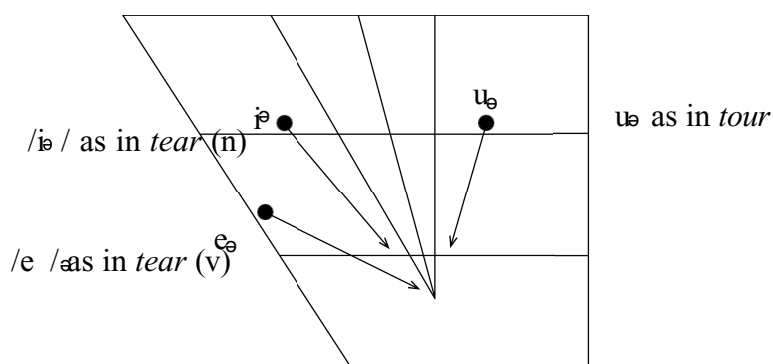


Figure 4.5 Centering diphthongs gliding to /iə/, /eə/, /uə/.  
Source: Tickoo (2003).

**Think and Reflect**

Give two words as examples for each of the following vowel sounds and transcribe the word to understand its correct pronunciation.

**Teaching English as a Second Language**

<i>Sr. No.</i>	<i>Sound</i>	<i>Word</i>	<i>Transcription</i>	<i>Word</i>	<i>Transcription</i>
1.	i:				
2.	e				
3.	æ				
4.	ai				
5.	u				

<i>Sr. No.</i>	<i>Sound</i>	<i>Word</i>	<i>Transcription</i>	<i>Word</i>	<i>Transcription</i>
6.	ɑ:				
7.	əʊ				
8.	ʌ				
9.	ɔi				
10.	ɔ:				

Complete the following table by filling the words in the initial, medial, and final positions:

<i>Sr. No.</i>	<i>Pure Vowel Sounds</i>	<i>Initial Position</i>	<i>Medial Position</i>	<i>Final Position</i>
1	E			
2	Æ			
3	ɒ			No word in this position
4	ʌ			
5	ʊ			
6	i:			
7	ɑ:			
8	ɔ:			No word in this position
9	ɜ:			
10	ə			
11	I			
12	U			
<b>Diphthongs</b>				
1	eɪ			
2	aɪ			
3	ɔɪ			No word in this position
4	əʊ			
5	aʊ			No word in this position
6	ɪə			
7	eə			
8	ʊə			

## Consonants

There are 24 consonant sounds in the English language, which are divided into 6 categories.

### Plosives

A plosive sound is articulated in three stages. In the first stage, the articulatory organs come together to make firm contact not allowing the air to pass out. In the second stage, the air in the lungs gets compressed, and in the third stage, the air is released with an explosion owing to the sudden parting of the articulatory organs. In this manner, six plosive sounds are articulated. According to the figure given on the following page, they are:

1. **Bilabial /p/ and /b/**—In the production of these sounds, the upper and lower lips are tightly closed, and the vocal cords are wide apart. The soft palate is raised to shut out the nasal cavity so that the air does not pass out through the nose. The compressed air is then released with a lot of force (Table 4.3). Example:

<b>p</b>	pen, copy, happen
<b>b</b>	back, baby, job

2. **Alveolar /t/ and /d/**—In the production of these sounds, the blade of the tongue makes a firm contact with the alveolar ridge, the lung air is compressed behind the closure, and the velum is raised to shut off the nasal passage. With the release of the closure, the compressed air is released with explosion. Example:

<b>t</b>	<i>tea, tight, button</i>
<b>d</b>	<i>day, ladder, odd</i>

3. **Velar /k/ and /g/**—In articulating them, the back of the tongue first makes firm contact with the soft palate, which is raised to shut off the nasal passage. When removed, the compressed air from the lungs is released suddenly with plosion. Example:

<b>k</b>	<i>key, clock, school</i>
<b>g</b>	<i>get, giggle, ghost</i>

In all three categories, the former sound is voiceless while the latter is voiced.

### Affricates /tʃ/, /dʒ/

Affricates are articulated when the tip and the blade of the tongue touch the alveolar ridge, with the rims of the tongue making contact with the upper side of the teeth, creating a closure. At the same time, the front of the tongue is raised toward the hard palate, and the soft palate is raised to shut off the nasal passage. The closure is released slowly,

Table 4.3 Classification of the Consonant Sounds

Place	Bilabial	Labiodental	Dental	Alveolar	Post-alveolar	Palato-alveolar	Palatal	Velar	Glottal
Manner									
Plosive	v  vd p d	v  vd	v  vd	v  vd t d	v  vd	v  vd	v  vd	v  vd k g	v  vd
Affricate						ʧ d ʒ			
Nasal								ŋ	
Lateral	m			n l					
Fricative		f v	θ ð	s z		ʃ ʒ			h
Frictionless continuant					r				
Semi-vowel	w						j	w	

Source: Tickoo (2003).

with the air escaping with friction through the narrow passage/stricture. The sounds thus produced are **palate-alveolar** and they are:

<b>tʃ</b>	<i>as in church, match, nature</i>
<b>dʒ</b>	<i>as in judge, age, soldier</i>

The former sound is voiceless while the latter is voiced.

### *Nasal Consonants /m/, /n/, /ŋ/*

They are three in number. These are produced when there is complete closure of the mouth as in the articulation of plosives. The difference between the plosives and these sounds is that the soft palate is lowered and the air passes through the nasal passage. All three are **voiced**.

Example:

<b>m</b>	<i>more, hammer, sum</i>
<b>n</b>	<i>nice, know, funny, sun</i>
<b>ŋ</b>	<i>ring, anger, thanks, sung</i>

Of the three, **/m/** is a **bilabial consonant** articulated with two lips making a firm contact; **/n/** is an **alveolar consonant** articulated with the tip of the tongue making a firm contact with the soft palate; and **/ŋ/** is a **velar consonant** articulated with the back of the tongue making a firm contact with the soft palate.

### *Fricatives /f/, /v/, /θ/, /ð/, /s/, /z/, /ʃ/, /ʒ/, /h/*

Fricatives are articulated when there is no closure in the oral tract as in the case of plosives, affricates, and nasals. The articulators are brought sufficiently close to each other so that the air produces audible friction in passing through the narrow gap between them. There are nine fricative consonant sounds.

1. **Labio-dental Fricatives /f/, /v/:** They are articulated when the soft palate is raised, shutting off the nasal passage. The lower lip makes light contact with the front upper teeth, leaving a narrow gap through which the air escapes producing audible friction. The vocal cords are wide for /f/ to be voiceless, while they vibrate to produce the voiced /v/ sound.
2. **Dental Fricatives /θ/, /ð/:** They are articulated when the tip of the tongue makes light contact with the inner surface of the upper front teeth. The air from the lungs passes through the narrow gap between the tip of the tongue and the upper front teeth causing audible friction. The sound /θ/ is voiced while /ð/ is voiceless.  
Example:

<b>θ</b>	<i>thing, author, path</i>
<b>ð</b>	<i>this, other, smooth</i>



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3. **Alveolar Fricatives /s/, /z/:** For the articulation of these sounds, the soft palate is raised shutting off the nasal passage, and the tongue tip and the blade of the tongue make light contact with the teeth ridge. The air passes through the narrow space between the tongue and the teeth ridge. The sound /s/ is voiced while /z/ is voiceless. Example:

s	<i>soon, cease, sister</i>
z	<i>zero, music, roses, buzz</i>

4. **Palato-alveolar Fricatives /ʃ/, /ʒ/:** For the production of the sound, the tip of the tongue makes light contact with the alveolar ridge and the front of the tongue is also raised toward the hard palate. The sound /ʃ/ is voiceless while /ʒ/ is voiced. Example:

ʃ	<i>ship, sure, nati<u>o</u>nal</i>
ʒ	<i>pleasure, vision</i>

5. **Glottal Fricative /h/:** To produce this sound, the soft palate is raised. The air from the lungs escapes through a narrow glottis with audible friction. Example:

h	<i>hot, whole, ahead</i>
---	--------------------------

### *Lateral Approximant /l/*

Only one sound belongs to this category. In its articulation, the tip of the tongue makes firm contact with the alveolar ridge and blocks the oral passage of air in the center of the vocal tract. The sides of the tongue are lowered to allow the air to escape along the sides of the tongue without any friction. Example:

l	<i>light, valley, feel</i>
---	----------------------------

### *Approximants /r/, /j/, /w/*

They are called approximants because in their articulation the stricture is of open approximation. All three are voiced sounds.

In the articulation of /r/, the tip of the tongue is brought near the rear part of the teeth ridge leaving sufficient gap for the air to escape without friction. The soft palate is raised, vocal cords vibrate, and therefore, it is a voiced sound. Example:

r	<i>right, wrong, sorry, arrange</i>
---	-------------------------------------

### *Approximants /r/, /j/, /w/*

They are called approximants because in their articulation the stricture is of open approximation. All three are voiced sounds.

In the articulation of /r/, the tip of the tongue is brought near the rear part of the teeth ridge leaving sufficient gap for the air to escape without friction. The soft palate is raised, vocal cords vibrate, and therefore, it is a voiced sound. Example:

r	<i>right, wrong, sorry, arrange</i>
---	-------------------------------------

In articulating /j/, the front of the tongue is first raised toward the hard palate but not so close as to cause audible friction. The tongue then moves immediately to the position of the following sound. The soft palate is raised to shut off the nasal passage and the vocal cords vibrate. The sound /j/ is called a voiced palatal semi-vowel. Example:

j	<i>yet, use, beauty, few</i>
---	------------------------------

The sound /w/ is also a semi-vowel. In its articulation, the back of the tongue assumes a position necessary for articulating a vowel and then moves immediately to the position of the following sound. In its articulation, the lips are rounded and vocal cords vibrate. Example:

w	<i>wet, one, when, queen</i>
---	------------------------------

All consonants with their illustrative words are given as follows: see Table 4.4.

Table 4.4 Consonants with Illustrative Words

Sr. No.	Consonant Sounds	Initial Position	Medial Position	Final Position
1.	/p/	pin	spin	ship
2.	/b/	bit	clubs	hub
3.	/t/	take	stone	lit
4.	/d/	day	heads	lid
5.	/k/	key	sky	talk
6.	/g/	go	eggs	bag
7.	/tʃ/	chain	fetched	teach
8.	/dʒ/	jail	barged	large
9.	/m/	main	small	sum
10.	/n/	nail	snake	shine
11.	/ŋ/	No word in this position	things	sing
12.	/l/	late	slate	tell
13.	/f/	fan	sphere	half
14.	/v/	view	thieves	live
15.	/θ/	thin	months	bath
16.	/ð/	then	bathes	clothe
17.	/s/	sit	taste	loss
18.	/z/	zoo	buzzed	lose
19.	/ʃ/	ship	wished	fresh
20.	/ʒ/	No word in this position	division	rouge
21.	/h/	hat	behave	No word in this position
22.	/r/	run	shrewd	No word in this position
23.	/w/	win	swim	No word in this position
24.	/j/	yes	tune	No word in this position

### Consonant Clusters

We have looked at the individual consonants and the vowels of the English language, and now we need to see how these can be combined in various ways with one another to form numerous words. When we refer to sequences of consonants that occur within a **syllable**, we generally call them consonant clusters. Let me define what a syllable is.

**Syllable:** Though many attempts have been made to define a syllable, no exact definition has been arrived at. However, to clarify, **the phonemes of language combine to form a higher unit, which is called a syllable. A word comprises either one syllable, or two syllables, or many syllables, based on which we call them monosyllabic, disyllabic, or polysyllabic words.** Every word can be identified and divided by the number of syllables it has. For example, the words “rock” and “reply” have one and two syllables, respectively, whereas words such as “hesitate” and “introduction” have multiple syllables. How can we count the number of syllables in a word or divide a word into syllables? The easiest way to do this is to count the number of vowels in the word. **There would be as many syllables in a word as there are vowels.** The word “rock” has only one vowel sound (rɒk) *and hence it is monosyllabic and cannot be divided*, while “reply” (ri-plai) has two vowel sounds (one pure vowel and another diphthong) and hence can be divided into two parts/syllables. It is a disyllabic word.

To go back to the consonant cluster, if two consonants are found together at the beginning or end of the syllables, that sequence is called a consonant cluster. For example in the word “school” (sku:l), the consonant sounds /s/ and /k/ are at the beginning of the syllable hence the sequence /sk/ is a consonant cluster. In the word “bask” (bɑ:sk), the same consonant cluster is at the end of the word. The structure of the different types of syllables possible in English is as follows: see Table 4.5.

C: Consonant sound

V: Vowel sound

A point to note is that the English language permits the combination of up to three syllables at the beginning of the word (serial number 7) while, at the end, a combination of up to four consonants is permitted (serial number 16).

Table 4.5 Consonants Clusters

Sr. No.	Structure	Words as Example	Sr. No.	Structure	Words as Example
1.	V	Eye, a, I, ear	9.	CCCVCCC	Strands, splints, strengths
2.	VC	Eat, ache, all	10.	VCC	Apt, aunt, east, ached
3.	CV	Hay, saw, tea	11.	CVCC	Tax, bent, watched, chance
4.	CVC	Bun, pit, miss	12.	CVCCC	Lapsed, next, text, danced
5.	CCV	Stay, sky, play, cry	13.	CCVCC	Stamp, frank, crest, pruned
6.	CCCV	Stray, spree, straw	14.	CCVCCC	Twelfth, prompt, stamped
7.	CCVCV	Stream, stroll, squad	15.	CCVCCCC	Prompts, glimpsed
8.	CCCVCC	Strained, sprint	16.	CVCCCC	Texts, tempts

Source: IGNOU Block 3 MEG 4 Aspects of Language.

**Think, Reflect, and Answer**

1. Give two examples for each of the following:
  - a. *ss* pronounced as /z/
  - b. /ʃ/ represented by *si*
  - c. /θ/ becoming /ð/ in the process of pluralization
  - d. The past suffix pronounced as /ɪd/
  - e. The possessive suffix—'s pronounced as /z/
  - f. The letter *l* being silent
  - g. The letter *b* being silent
  - h. *ch* pronounced as /ʃ/
  - i. /j/ spelled with the help of the letter *u*
  - j. /w/ occurring in words containing no *w* in the spelling
2. Give two pairs of words to distinguish between each of the following sounds:
  - a. /z/, /dʒ/
  - b. /s/, /ʃ/
  - c. /v/, /w/
  - d. /b/, /v/
  - e. /tʃ/, /dʒ/

(More exercises can be found in the next section, “Classroom Practices” under “Teaching Pronunciation”.)

**Rhythm, Stress, and Intonation**

The next important aspect of language, which a teacher should know, is how the speech flows. Standard English is characterized by a rhythm, which rises and falls in certain tone patterns that constitute its intonation. These two features, rhythm and intonation, are very important for successful communication. The characteristic rhythm of English speech lies in the **stress** (also called accent), which is placed on certain syllables in the word. Let us take an example to understand this.

The sentence “After supper rest a while” contains the following seven syllables:

ST—Stressed syllable, UST—Unstressed syllable

<i>Af</i>	<i>ter</i>	<i>sup</i>	<i>per</i>	<i>rest</i>	<i>a</i>	<i>while</i>
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
ST	UST	ST	ST	ST	UST	ST

The below sentence has alternately one stressed and one unstressed syllable. However, not every sentence follows the abovementioned pattern. What is definitely true is that stressed and unstressed syllables follow at regular intervals. For example:

Ram	went	to	the	mar	ket
1	2	3	4	5	6
ST	ST	UST	UST	ST	UST
		T	T		

Ram	went	to	the	mar	ket	yes	ter	day	to	buy	clo	thes.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
ST	ST	UST	UST	ST	UST	ST	UST	ST	UST	ST	ST	UST

In the first sentence, out of six syllables, three are stressed and three unstressed, while in the second sentence, out of 13 syllables, 7 syllables are stressed while the rest unstressed. This shows that stressed syllables come at regular intervals, and while speaking, the speaker passes from one accented (stressed) syllable to another at a regular rate of time, whatever the unaccented syllables he/she must utter. This shows that English is a “stressed-timed language” (Balasubramanian 1981).

### Functions of Word Stress

Word stress (accent) has a definitive **function** to perform.

1. Word stress helps to distinguish between the grammatical function of words that have identical spelling. For example:

Word	Noun/Adjective (Transcribed)	Verb (Transcribed)
Absent	'æbsənt	əb'sent
Compress	'kɒmpres	kəm'pres

You can see from both the examples just given that when the grammatical category of the word is a noun, the stress falls on the first syllable, while when the grammatical category of the same word changes to a verb, the stress shifts to the second syllable. **Stress depends on the part of speech the word is used as.**

2. Sometimes the word stress is associated with the morphological structure of the word, that is, the way the word is derived, either with the help of prefixes or suffixes. The stress shifts as longer words are derived from smaller words and change their grammatical forms. For example:

Root Word	Derivative	Derivative
a'cademy	aca'demic	acade'mician
'diplomat	di'plomacy	diplo'matic

The preceding table shows how, using suffixes, stress shifts from the first to the second syllable and further to the third syllable. Well-defined rules govern the use of accents in words that are inflected. **The word endings -ic, -ical, -ically, -ial, and -ially are accented on the syllable preceding the suffix.**

- Word accent also helps to distinguish between some compound words and noun phrases (adjective + noun, or noun + noun) and certain verb and adverbial collocations. For example:

Compound	Noun Phrase/Verb–Adverbial Collocations
'blackbird	'black bird
'copperplate	'copper 'plate
'put-on	'put 'on
'walkout	'walk 'out

**In most compound words, the accent falls on only one syllable.**

### Intonation in English Speech

Intonation is the musical quality that accompanies speech. It is created through rhythmic changes and distinctive pitch changes known as tones. Primary tones either fall or rise. The ability to vary intonation contours is important in expressing a diversity of intellectual and emotional meanings, and attitudes.

Intonation is the variation of pitch or the rise and fall of the voice. The voice is said to rise when it moves from a lower note to a higher note and vice versa. To say it differently, it is the patterns of variation in the pitch of the voice that constitute the intonation of a language. What is the **form** and **function of intonation**? Let us first consider the **functions** intonation performs. In English, intonation performs three functions: Grammatical, Attitudinal, and Accentual.

#### Grammatical Function

- It helps to distinguish a statement from a question when two statements are grammatically identical. For example:
  - He 'came here 'yesterday (statement)
  - He 'came here yesterday (question)

The difference between the two sentences is only that of intonation.

Similarly, it also helps to distinguish between a command and a request when two sentences are grammatically identical.

- 'Open the 'windows (command)
  - 'Open the windows (request)
- Intonation helps the speaker to divide longer utterances into smaller relevant groups or tone units. A simple sentence could constitute one tone unit but a complex one will have to be divided into smaller tone units. Example:  
In 'summer/when e'lectric supply fails/'most people use e'mergency lamps/

#### Accentual Functions

Intonation also enables a speaker to focus the listener's attention on aspects of the message that are most important. In order to do this, the speaker can make that part of this utterance prominent, which conveys the meaning he/she wishes to highlight. For example, in the following dialogue, the speaker A places emphasis on the tonic group "second one."

A: Can you 'help me 'solve this/problem?

B: 'Which one?A: The 'second one.

### Attitudinal Function

Intonation is also a means of conveying our attitudes and emotions. The grammar of the sentence does not reveal the speaker's attitude, whether it is of politeness, assertiveness, anger, pain, etc. Intonation signals these emotions with the help of the tone.

- a. The student complained against the teacher.

Basically, it is a matter of fact statement but with the help of changed intonation, it can become a question, a doubt, a surprise, or an expression of total disbelief.

### Forms of Intonation

Intonation takes on five different forms as the pitch of the voice changes in several ways and has many directions. The most important of these are four in number, each with what they represent:

- Falling tone—assertion, finality [↘]
- Rising tone—prompts to say more [↗]
- Rising–falling tone—strong feeling of approval, disapproval, or surprise [↗↘]
- Falling–rising tone—limited agreement, response with reservation [↘↗]

Let us look at each one separately and for what they are used.

#### Falling Tone

In this tone, the pitch of the voice falls from high to low, giving the impression of finality. No explicit appeal is made to the listener, yet it is not necessarily impolite. If the tonic symbol denotes a falling tone, then before the tonic syllable it will be marked as [↘].

The following types of sentences are usually said with a falling tone.

1. *Statements* (neutral, assertive, and matter-of-fact complete statements)—They're ar'riving to↘morrow.
2. *Commands*—'Put that gun ↘down.
3. *Invitations*—'Do come 'in and sit ↘down.
4. *Exclamations*—'What a 'beautiful ↘scenery!
5. *Wh-questions* (neutral, intended to be neither polite nor impolite)—'Where has he ↘gone?
6. *Tag questions*—You're 'going with ↘us, ↘aren't you?

#### Rising Tone

In this tone, the pitch of the voice rises from high to low. This tone conveys the impression that the utterance is incomplete, and something is to follow. Before the tonic syllable, it is marked as [↗]. This tone is commonly used for the following:

1. Yes/no or polarity-type questions—Are they 'coming to /tea?
2. Alternative questions—Do you like /tea/coke/or /lime juice?/
3. Requests—Could you 'tell me 'what time the 'train leaves?
4. Repetition questions—We're invited to dinner to /morrow/What did you say?

### Rising–Falling Tone

The pitch of the voice rises from mid/low level to high/mid and then falls again to mid/low level. This tone is marked by the symbol [^]. This tone is generally used for the following:

1. Statements (showing enthusiastic agreement)—(Are you go'ing to help me?) Of ^course.
2. Exclamations (expressing sarcasm)—(I've been /thinking about you.) Oh ^really (sarcasm)
3. Questions (showing suspicion, indignation, mockery)—What has he been ^upto? (suspicion)

### Falling–Rising Tone

The pitch of the voice falls from high/mid to mid/low level and then rises to more or less the same level as that of the beginning. This tone is used for some special functions and is marked with the symbol [v]. This is used for the following:

1. Statement (partial agreement and a kind of reservation on the part of the speaker)—  
It is very well written. ^True  
(Can I come and see you?) You can come to^morrow.
2. Statement (intended to be a warning/reproach)—It's 'no good ^lying about it.
3. You 'musn't come ^late.

### Think, Reflect, and Answer

Read the following sentences carefully and identify whether they have the Falling Tone, Rising Tone, Falling–rising Tone, or the Rising–falling Tone. Also identify the functions that it performs.

1. Oh, it's absolutely disgusting.
2. You can come tomorrow. (I am not free now.)
3. I'll dump your luggage here. Careful. (concern)
4. Have you finished your work?
5. Shall we take the trans-rail or the cruise?
6. Could you come here for a moment?
7. Who told you?
8. She's rather late, isn't she?
9. Open the shutters.
10. He's always punctual.
11. Absolutely, fascinating.
12. May I invite you to dinner next Sunday?



## Conclusion

Finally, reading this chapter you must have understood the reason behind writing this chapter in a detailed manner. For a teacher, it is not just important to have knowledge of many words without being able to correctly pronounce them. All students look up to their teachers as role models. Therefore, to know how to speak with the correct emphasis so that the meaning reaches the students and to pronounce each and every word with a correct accent is sending the right signals to the students of how to speak, which they can emulate. The chapter therefore emphasizes speaking with the right tone, pronunciation, and stress on words and chunks of words, so that students can be effective communicators.

### To Summarize

1. Phonetics is the study and science of speech sounds.
2. Phoneme is the smallest unit of a sound.
3. Speech mechanism of every human and how sounds are produced due to the release of air from the mouth and the nose.
4. The English language has 44 sounds.
5. Sounds are categorized as consonants, vowels, and diphthongs or gliders.
6. Different consonant sounds, how they are produced, and how they need to be pronounced.
7. Different vowel sounds, how they are produced, and how they need to be pronounced.
8. Different diphthongs, how they are produced, and how they need to be produced.
9. Advantages of rhythm, stress, and intonation in our speech.

## Morphology

The word “morphology” means the study of the structure of words and forms an integral part of the discipline of linguistics. The question arises, why should we know about this element in language teaching? The reason for getting acquainted with this area is because we deal with language, which is made of words or a combination of words.

A language is said to be alive because of the constant upgradation of its vocabulary content. Many words remain in use for several years, many die because they are no longer in use, and many change their original meaning because generation after generation they are put to new use, and as a result their meanings undergo change. If we try to define what a “word” is, it possesses the following. It is

- Made up of a series of sounds,
- A unit of speech when it is a sound or a series of sounds,
- A single morpheme or a combination of morphemes, implying that the smallest unit of a word is a morpheme, and
- A meaningful element of the language.

Every word has a **phonological** and an **orthographical** shape, which is purely physical. The **orthographic shape** is denoted by the alphabets of the language, this means that the spelling of any word is its orthographical shape, and the **phonological shape** is the way the word is pronounced. However, the orthographic representation of a phonological word is never a straightforward, one-to-one representation. Sometimes two or more phonological words are represented by the same orthographic word. For example, take the orthographic word “read.” This represents two phonological words /ri:d/ and /red/. It is also possible that one phonological word may represent two orthographical words; for example, /mi:t/ is represented as “meat” and “meet.” Thus, phonological and orthographic words are regarded as purely physical shapes made up of sound and spelling.

When we learn words as a part of language, what kind of information do we get? To put it in other words, what kind of information does a word embody and disseminate? A word is associated with different kinds of information and this information is embodied in a complex manner. Let us see what a word constitutes in the following sections.

### *Phonetic/Phonological Information*

Every word has a certain sequence of sounds, which we understand when pronouncing it. For example, the word “tree” has three sounds that are structured together /t/+r/+ i:. The sound /t/ and /r/ are joined to make the sound /tr/. This is a consonant cluster (refer to the section on phonology of this book) followed by the vowel sound /i:/.

### *Morphological Information*

It refers to the internal structure of the words and the relationship among words. Certain words can be broken up into a number of meaningful parts while certain words cannot be broken. Each part of the word is called a syllable. Thus, in the English language we have one-syllabic words, two-syllabic words, trisyllabic words, and polysyllabic words. For example, the word “tree” cannot be broken down into any meaningful parts and thus is a one-syllabic word. But “trees,” the plural form of the word “tree,” is a disyllabic word, that is, it contains two syllables— “tree,” the base word, and “s,” the addition made.

### *Syntactic Information*

When every word is learned, we also learn how that word fits in the overall structure of the sentences in which it can be used. For example, we know that the word “reads” can be used in a sentence like “Suresh reads a book,” and the word “readable” (derived from the word “read”) can be used in a sentence like “This book is readable.” We may not know what parts of speech the words belong to, that is, “reads” is a verb while “readable” is an adjective, but we know the usage of both the words. Thus, the word helps us to understand the relationship among the internal parts of the sentence.

### *Semantic Information*

Every word embodies within itself a meaning or several meanings, which we learn. For example, to know the word “brother” is to know that it is a “male sibling.” For example, “Rahul is my brother.” In addition, we may or may not know the extended meaning

of the word “brother,” such as in the sentence, “Rakesh is friendly and helpful, he’s a ‘brother’ to me.” Here the extended meaning is embedded in the word “brother.”

### *Pragmatic Information*

Each word is governed by certain rules of use. Not only are the meaning(s) important but we also know how to use it in the context of a situation, a discourse, or a conversation. For instance, the word “brother” not only refers to a male sibling but is also considered a conversational exclamation, as in “Oh brother! What a mess!” Similarly, the word “hello” is primarily used as a greeting but it is also used to call someone, or draw the attention of someone, or some students who are inattentive. The pragmatic meaning embedded tells us the use of words/phrases/sentences in the actual context of discourse or conversation.

### **Classification of Words**

Words basically can be divided into two types: simple and complex. **Simple words** could be said to be those words that are one syllabic, that is, which cannot be broken into meaningful parts like “tree,” while **complex words** like “trees” can be broken into two or more meaningful parts (tree + plural ending “s”). The **basic parts of a complex word**, that is, the different building blocks, that it is made up of are called a **morpheme**. Each of the following plural nouns is made of two morphemes: base morpheme plus the plural morpheme.

- a. boys            boy + s
- b. rakes           rake + s
- c. rushes        bush + es

Morphemes thus are the **minimal units of word building in a language**; they cannot be broken down any further into recognizable meaningful parts.

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Morphemes are further categorized which are graphically represented in Figure 4.6.

It is clear from the above figure that morphemes can be divided into two categories: **free** and **bound** morphemes.

Those morphemes that can independently stand on their own are called **free** morphemes; for example, *boy, girl, open, dress, etc.*

- a. The *boy* fell down.
- b. The *girl* is dancing.
- c. Kindly *open* the door.
- d. The *dress* is beautiful.

In each of the abovementioned italicized words, the meaning is inherent that any reader or listener can understand. These words are not dependent on any other linguistic element.

A bound morpheme cannot stand independently on its own and must be attached to other morpheme. For example: *-er, -s, -ed.*

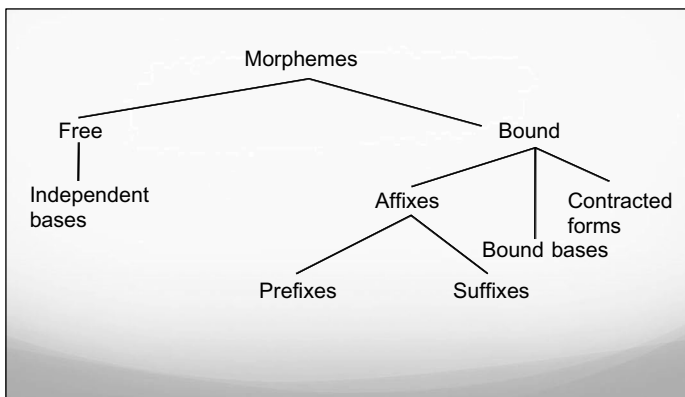


Figure 4.6 Categories of morphemes.

Source: Mujumdar (2001). Adapted from Akmadjan et al. (2001).

If one analyzes the word “undressed,” it would be as follows:

*un + dress + ed*  
(*Bound + free + bound*)

Certain bound morphemes are known as affixes, others as bound-base morphemes. **Affixes** comprise **prefixes** when they are attached to the beginning of another morpheme (“un-” in undressed) and **suffixes** when attached to the end of another morpheme (“-ed” in undressed). The morpheme to which an affix is attached is the **base** or the **stem** morpheme. Thus, in the word “trees,” tree is the stem to which the bound morpheme (suffix) “s” is added.

It should be noted that all bound morphemes are not affixes or bound bases. In English, there are certain **contracted** or shortened forms. The word “will” can be written as:

*They will go*, or  
*They’ll go*.

The form *’ll* is a bound morpheme as it cannot be used independently as a word. Other contractions in English include *car’s*, *I’d*, and several other forms of auxiliary verbs.

### Free Morphemes

You would have understood by now that each word is a free morpheme or a combination of free and bound morphemes. To take this point further, every sentence is made up of words that are either free or bound morphemes. If you study Figure 4.7 carefully, you will understand that free morphemes are further subdivided into **lexical** and **functional** (Akmadjan et al. 2001).

All nouns, adjectives, and verbs that carry the content of the message in the sentence are lexical-free morphemes. They are content words and are called open-class words. For example:

- a. The *girl* dances gracefully. (Noun)
- b. The girl is wearing a *beautiful* dress. (Adjective)
- c. The girl *dances* gracefully. (Verb)

The words “girl,” “beautiful,” and “dances” are lexical morphemes.

Every sentence also has some other words to establish relationships. These words usually fall under the category of functional morphemes as they have specific functions to perform. For example, **conjunctions**, **articles**, **prepositions**, and **pronouns** have specific functions to perform in a sentence. These words are called close-class words. For example, in the following sentence:

He went to the market but did not buy anything.

- a. *he* is a pronoun
- b. *to* is a preposition

All the italicized words are functional free morphemes.

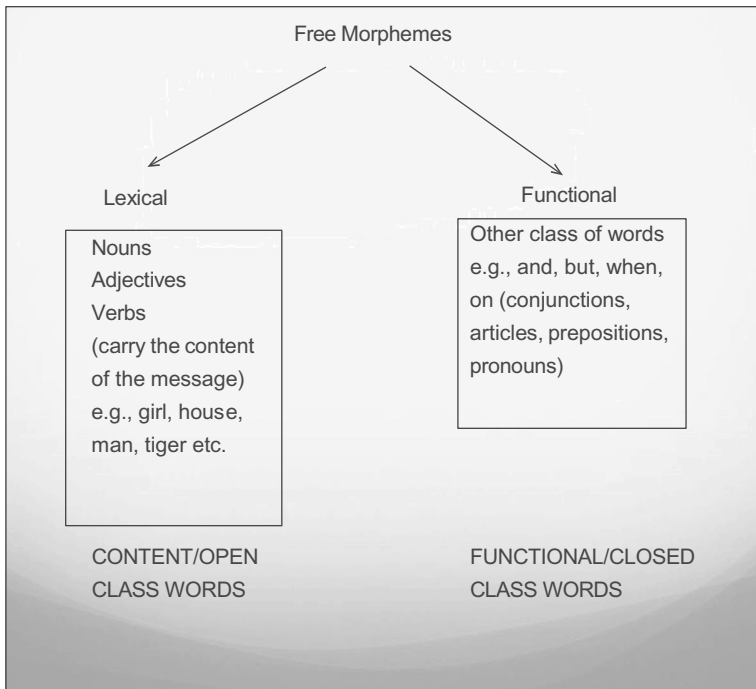


Figure 4.7 Free morphemes.

Source: Mujumdar (2001). Adapted from Akmadjan et al. (2001).

- a. *the* is an article
- b. *but* is a conjunction

## Bound Morphemes

Let us now try to understand how bound morphemes are classified. Look at Figure 4.8, which is self-explanatory (Yule 1985).

You can see that bound morphemes are divided into two types: inflectional and derivational. Those affixes that show different categories of words such as singular, plurals, verb forms, and so on are called inflectional morphemes. From the abovementioned examples, -s, -es, -ing, -er, and -est are inflectional morphemes. You should also note that “-s” creates a plural word as well as shows the function of possession.

On the other hand, derivational morphemes are those which when used with other morphemes make different categories of words. In the example given earlier,

good (adjective) + -ness = goodness (noun) care (noun) + -ful = careful (adverb)

Let us look at the morphological analysis of the sentence, in Figure 4.9—*The child’s wildness shocked the teachers*. You will realize that whichever sentence we construct can be deconstructed to its minutest detail. It helps us as teachers to understand how sentences are constructed with the help of words, how words are derived to convey meaning, and finally how words interrelate with one another to convey meaning.

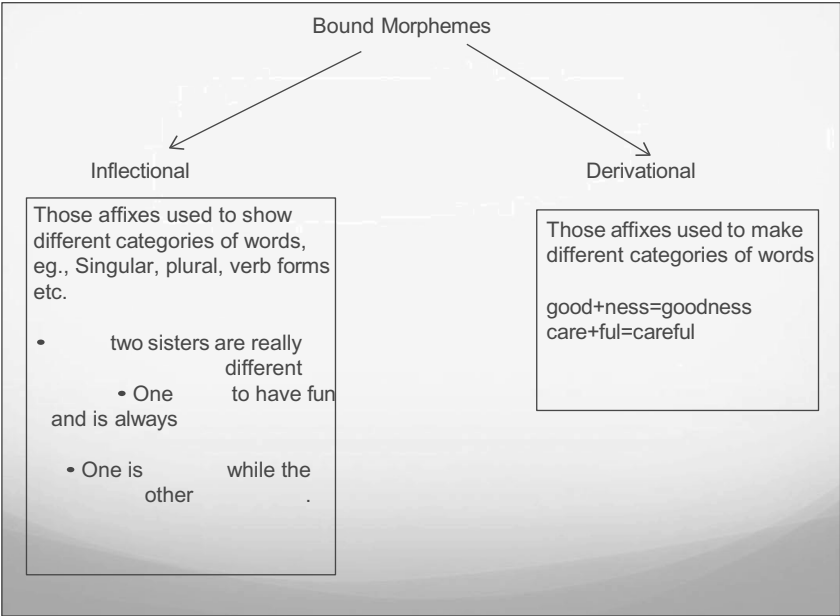


Figure 4.8 Bound morphemes  
Source: Mujumdar (2001). Adapted from Akmadjan et al. (2001).

Morphological Analysis				
The child's wildness shocked the teachers				
The	child	-s	wild	-ness
functional	free (L)	bound (I)	free (L)	bound (D)
shock	-ed	teach	er	
free (L)	Bound (I)	free (L)	Bound (D)	
s - Bound (I)				

Figure 4.9 Morphological analysis  
Source: Mujumdar (2001). Adapted from Akmadjan et al. (2001).Note: L, Lexical; I, Inflectional; D, Derivative.

**Think, Reflect, and Answer**

1. What is the basis for the classification of morphemes into:
  - (a) Free and Bound
  - (b) Grammatical and Lexical
2. What kind of morphemes are realized as
  - (a) Function words,
  - (b) Content words,
  - (c) Affixes
3. Complete the following table identifying the elements representing free and bound morphemes in the following words:

Sr. No.	Words	Free Morpheme	Bound Morphemes
Example	Pesticide	pest	cide
1.	Postmodernist		Post/
2.		pack	Pre/-ed
3.	Manhood		
4.	Expedite		
5.			-er
6.	Embedded		

**Processes of Word Formation**

As mentioned at the beginning of this section, new words continue to enter the language in numerous ways, thus making the language evolve. Some of the common processes of word formation are given further.

***Borrowing***

One of the most common sources of new words entering any language is the process of borrowing. History tells us that the English language in the Old English period borrowed a lot of words from German, Latin, and Scandinavian, while in the Middle English period, many French words were adopted by the language. To give a few examples, today, the English language has borrowings from Dutch—*dope*, Persian—*lilac*, Italian—*piano*, German—*pretzel*, Arabic—*sofa*, Tahitian—*tattoo*, Japanese—*tycoon*, Turkish—*yogurt*, Bantu—*zebra*, and so on. We are all also aware of the fact that many Indian words such as *jungle*, *brahmin*, *pajama*, and so on have also become a part of the English language.

***Coinage***

This is the least common process of word formation. The source of this process began by inventing “trade names” for commercial products. To cite a few examples, *aspirin*, *nylon*, *vaseline*, *xerox*, *kleenex*, and *teflon* are invented product names, but they tend to become everyday words in the language because of their regular use.



Words such as *Kleenex* and *Xerox* represent brand names of products—*Kleenex* is a brand name for facial tissues, and *Xerox* is the name of a corporation that produces well-known photocopying *machines*. *Accent* and *Verna* are the names of cars. If you notice how these are used today, *Xerox*, the brand name, has vanished, instead it has come to be used to describe the process of photocopying in general, or the names of the cars themselves become common nouns as depicted in its use as follows:

I xeroxed my certificate.  
I took the Accent to the university.

*Compounding*

Another process for making new words is by compounding, in which individual words are joined together to form new words. For example, the word “lighthouse” is formed by two words—“light” and “house.” Both words share the same part of speech, that is, both are nouns. Likewise, certain words in the category of nouns, adjectives, prepositions, and verbs can combine with each other to form new words.

Look at the table given below: Table 4.6.

Compounds are not limited to a combination of two words. Three words joined together can also form compound words. For example, bathroom towel rack and community center finance committee are compounds involving a combination of three and four words respectively.

*Blending*

The process of blending involves the combination of two separate forms to produce a single new term. The new word is usually formed by taking the beginning of one word and joining it with the end of the other word, which becomes the daily vocabulary of the people. For example:

Telex	teleprinter + exchange
Motel	hotel + motor
Infomercial	information + commercial
Edutainment	education + entertainment
Infotainment	information + entertainment
Brunch	breakfast + lunch
Cafetorium	cafeteria + auditorium
Smog	smoke + fog
Modem	modulator + demodulator

A recent addition to this category is *Hinglish*, which is a blend of Hindi and English.

Table 4.6 Conjugation of Compound Words

<i>Noun</i> + <i>Noun</i>	<i>Adjective</i> + <i>Noun</i>	<i>Preposition</i> + <i>Noun</i>	<i>Verb</i> + <i>Noun</i>	<i>Adjective</i> + <i>Adjective</i>	<i>Noun</i> + <i>Adjective</i>	<i>Preposition</i> + <i>Verb</i>
landlord chain smoker snail mail	high chair blackboard wildfire	overdose underdog underarm	go cart swearword scarecrow	red hot icy cold bittersweet	sky blue earthbound skin-deep	oversee overstuff underfeed

### Clipping

New words are also formed by shortening a longer word, which perhaps sometimes is more difficult to pronounce. For example, the word “facsimile” is known to us by the word *fax*. The clipped forms of the words are easy to pronounce and use. Some other common examples are:

Ad	advertisement
Flu	influenza
Phone	telephone
Pub	public house
Plane	aeroplane/airplane
Fridge	refrigerator

### Acronyms

Certain non-existing words enter the vocabulary list. This results from technological changes that are taking place around us. For example, words such as radar, laser, and CD are basically acronyms. That is, they are shortened versions of complete words.

Radar means	radio detecting and ranging
Laser	light amplification by stimulated emission of radiation
CD	compact device
PC	personal computer
OT	operation theater

However, in everyday use, the speakers quickly forget the longer version, and the acronym itself becomes a new independent word. New acronyms such as *PIN* (Personal Identification Number) and *ATM* (Automatic Teller Machine) have gained popularity very quickly and are regularly used by people today without thinking of their meaning.

### Conversion

When a word is used for another function by which the grammatical category of the word changes, it is called conversion. In this, two processes are involved—“category change” and “functional shift.” A number of nouns in the English language such as chair, bottle, butter, and vacation are now being used as verbs also.

Example:

- a. I *bottled* the newly made tomato sauce yesterday.
- b. The Dean *chaired* the session at the conference.
- c. Have you *buttered* your toast?
- d. He was *vacationing* in the US when the news of his promotion was announced.

This process can also be reversed. Many verbs can become nouns depending on their usage. Example:

- a. Kindly take a *print* of the document.
- b. I *guess* the exams are getting postponed due to elections.

### Derivation

The most common way to form words is by adding “something” to the main word. Take, for example, the words *misunderstand* and *misunderstanding*.

- a. Mis + **understand**
- b. Mis + **understand** + ing

In the two words just stated, you can see that the main word is “understand” to which something is added either in the beginning (mis-) or at the end (-ing). The word which is highlighted in bold is called the “root” or the “base” word, which has an inherent meaning embedded in it.

The part which is placed **before the word** is called a **prefix**. The part which is placed **after the word** is called a **suffix**.

When you add a prefix or a suffix to a root word, a new word is formed with a different meaning or even a different category of word. For example,

- c. un + fortunate = unfortunate
- d. nation + al = national
- e. un + national = unnational
- f. beauty + ful = beautiful

In the examples mentioned above, you can see that “fortunate” and “national” are positive words, but when the prefix “un-” is used, it becomes negative and its meaning changes. The spelling of “unnational” also undergoes a change.

When the suffix “-ful” is added to “beauty,” the category of the new word formed changes. Beauty is an abstract noun, while beautiful is an adjective.

### The Prefix

Prefixes are derived from Latin or Greek roots and have their own meaning. Let us look up the dictionary and see what the following prefixes mean:

<i>Prefix</i>	<i>Meaning</i>
un	denoting the absence of
mis-	badly, wrongly, having a negative force
pre-	before in time, place, order, degree
anti-	opposed to

Prefixes can also be categorized according to number/quantity, size/degree, time/order, attitude, and reversive. Look at the following table: (Table 4.7).

Table 4.7 Different Categories of Prefixes

<i>Negative/Reversive</i>	<i>Quantity/Number</i>	<i>Size/Degree</i>	<i>Time/Order</i>	<i>Attitude</i>
A-	Mono-	Arch	Pre-	Co-
Il-	Uno-	Mini-	Post-	Counter-
Im-	Bi-	Super-	Ex-	Anti-
Ir-	Centi-	Semi-	Re-	Pro-
Un-	Multi-	Hyper-	Fore-	
Mis-	Poly-	Sub-	Vice-	

Source: Jain Charul in Achar et al. (2010).

You can add some more prefixes to all the above categories. Find out the roots of each prefix.

### *The Suffix*

Like the prefixes, the use of the suffix does not change the meaning of the word. Instead, the new word made belongs to another category. Take the example (f) *beautiful*. It comprises two parts: *beauty* and *-ful*. The word *beauty* is a noun, but when it combines with *-ful* to form *beautiful*, it becomes an adjective.

Other examples of the abovementioned are:

Paint (verb) + -er = painter (noun) Slow (verb) + -ly = slowly (adverb)

Exercises on prefixes and suffixes are given in the chapter on teaching vocabulary.

### **Think, Reflect, and Answer**

- Can you identify different word formation processes involved in each of the underlined words?
  - When I was ill, I went to see the doc, not a vet.
  - These are new skateboards from the Dee Designs.
  - Shiela still parties every Saturday night.
  - Do you have a xerox machine?
  - Can you get this document xeroxed?
  - I like this old sofa, it's nice and comfy.
  - Can you FedEx the books to me today?
  - Ask the coolie to reserve the seat for me.
  - I'll come to the party after filling the gas.
  - It's easier to withdraw money from the ATM.
- Identify the prefixes and suffixes used in the following words:  
carelessness, disagreement, ineffective, refillable, unfaithful, illegitimate, nationalistic, unsurprisingly, unfaithfully, downloadable

(More exercises can be found in the section *Teaching Vocabulary*)

## Conclusion

To sum up, teachers should be aware of the principles of word formation so that they can help their students in vocabulary acquisition. Teachers can apply this knowledge to know the origins of the words and detect changes in word classes. They can teach the students how to develop vocabulary suitable for academic contexts by helping them break complex words into their constituent parts, which will assist them in using their knowledge to construct and deconstruct word meanings in text. Once the students know these rules, it will help them understand the way in which words can be put together in sentences and paragraphs. This would also help in developing oral and written proficiency in students.

### To Summarize

1. Morphology means the study of the structure of words and forms.
2. Morpheme is the smallest unit of a word.
3. Morphemes are categorized into free and bound morphemes.
4. There are various processes of word formation.
5. Using prefixes, suffixes, blending, and compounding are the most common word formation techniques.

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## 5 Developing Listening and Speaking Skills

### Listening Skills

Test yourself on listening before you go into this chapter.

Mark each of the following statements. If you agree, mark it with a tick (✓); if you disagree, mark it with a cross (X); and if undecided, mark it with a question mark (?).

<i>Teacher Beliefs and Notions</i>		
1.	Listening is a passive skill.	
2.	Listening is a receptive skill.	
3.	Listening is the same as hearing.	
4.	Students should never listen to a tape for more than two minutes.	
5.	A tape of natural English confuses students.	
6.	Listening is very important for elementary students.	

We spend most of our time listening to various sounds. We hear people talking around us, television and music shows, news, the chirping of birds, the sound of the traffic, and so on. Despite spending so much of our time listening, do we really know “How we listen?” The act of listening comes as naturally to us as the act of breathing, so nobody attaches too much importance to it. It is taken for granted and is, therefore, often the most neglected of all the skills. Whatever be our notions, listening is very challenging, and in this chapter we shall explore how listening works and the techniques we could use in our classrooms to make our students effective listeners.

Generally, language skills are categorized into productive and receptive skills. Some of you may have thought that listening is a passive skill, but the fact is that listening and reading are **receptive skills** while writing and speaking are **productive skills**. Reception means to receive and understand. We receive sounds and make meaning of the heard sounds by connecting them with the information previously known. Since listeners combine what they hear with their own ideas and experiences, they make meaning in their minds of what they listen to. Listening is thus an active skill. The assumption that listeners only decode messages is a misnomer. According to Buck (1995), “meaning is not in

the text (what one hears) but is something that is constructed by the listener based on a number of different knowledge sources,” making listening meaning based.

### **Is Listening the Same as Hearing?**

In the beginning of the chapter, we read that we hear numerous sounds all the time, but do all of them register in the mind? No. Many sounds are thrown out of our mind while some are retained, made meaning of, and understood. When we only hear sounds but do not make meaning, it is called hearing, and when we decode the sounds and understand the meaning, it is called listening. Let me help you clarify this concept with the help of two small dialogues. (The characters in the below and subsequent dialogues have Indian names as these worksheets and tapescripts were prepared for Indian classrooms).

#### **Dialogue 1A**

(Gita is watching the news on the TV)

Brother: Didi, what's the TV like?

Gita: Yes, dear!

Brother: Didi, I asked, what's the news on the TV?

Gita: I'm sorry, I really don't know.

#### **Dialogue 1B**

Suresh: Hi! I'm Suresh, and I'm in third sem BCA. Are you new?

Radha: I'm Radha, me too in first sem BCA.

Suresh: Hey! ... that means I'm your senior.

Radha: Hi..., glad to know you. Looking forward to your help in the future ....

Suresh: We'll keep meeting....

Radha: Bye, see you.

Suresh: See ya.

In Dialogue 1A, Gita is hearing sounds, but she is inattentive; hence, she is not in a position to tell her brother about the news that is being broadcast. In Dialogue 1B, the situation is different. Radha is listening and understanding what Suresh is asking and responding appropriately. Thus, speaking and understanding what is being spoken through listening are closely related to each other.

### **Think, Reflect, and Answer**

1. Over a period of one day, make a list of the various sounds you hear and categorize them into conversational sounds, background sounds, environmental sounds, and informational sounds.
2. Listen to the three conversations and state which conversation is an example of hearing and which is an example of listening.
  - A. What's your name?
  - B. My name?



- A. Yes, yours.  
 B. I am staying in Alkapuri.  
 A. Are you going to college?  
 B. Yes, I'm.  
 C. Can you pay my fees?  
 D. I'm going to the market first.
3. Announcer: The train to Puri will arrive on Platform 2 at 10.45 hours.  
 Passenger: (asks another passenger) On which platform?  
 Announcer: The train to Puri will arrive on Platform 2 at 10.45 hours.  
 Passenger: Thank God! I'm standing on the right one!

Having understood the difference between hearing and listening, let us move forward and focus on how we listen. If we know the process and are convinced, then only can we teach our students with conviction. A question that constantly nags a teacher is, "We did not learn listening skills then why should listening skills in the English language be taught to students?" The answer lies in the fact that in India and in many other Third World countries, the English language is not the mother tongue of students. In India, it is a second language taught in educational institutions, where students are **not always exposed to the language for 24 hours**. As a subject, in government schools, students may be exposed for one hour a day or in an English-medium school for a maximum of about five to six hours a day. Whatever may be the timeframe of exposure, the English language being different from our Indian languages in terms of phonology, morphology, and syntax, it needs to be taught to our students. As teachers teaching English as a second/ international language, we need to teach our students listening skills because:

- Listening happens in real time. It means that people must listen and comprehend immediately. There is no time to review words and phrases as can be done while reading,
- Listening happens during a conversation, which requires immediate spoken responses.

### The Listening Process

How do we understand what others are saying? Or, to use more technical words, how do we understand the spoken discourse? or, how does the input get processed?

There are two different kinds of processes involved in understanding what is being said by others. Depending upon the way learners attempt to understand what they hear, it is bottom-up processing and top-down processing.

### Bottom-Up Processing

It refers to the use of incoming input for understanding the message. As soon as the data is received, it is analyzed at various successive levels of organization—sounds, words, clauses, sentences, texts—until meaning is arrived at. **Comprehension is viewed as a process of decoding**. The input is scanned for familiar words, and grammatical knowledge is

used to work out the relationship between elements of sentences. An example will clarify this further. Imagine that someone utters the following sentence:

The person I sat next to on the train this morning on the way to work was telling me he runs a Thai restaurant in the Orbit Mall. Apparently, it's very popular now.

To understand the meaning using bottom-up processing, we have to mentally break the sentence into different meaning groups, which guide the listener to understand the underlying core:

- The guy
- I sat next to on the train
- This morning was telling me
- He runs a Thai restaurant in Orbit Mall
- Apparently it's very popular
- Now

If we break the sentence into different meaning groups, it helps us to identify the underlying meaning of the sentence. The meaning groups mentioned above would mean:

*I was on the train. There was a person sitting next to me. We talked. He said, he runs a Thai restaurant. It's in Orbit Mall. It's very popular now.*

The lexical and grammatical knowledge of the listener helps her/him to divide the utterance into appropriate meaning groups, and the speaker also assists in this process of meaning-making through intonation and pauses.

**Bottom-up processing proceeds from sounds to words to grammatical relationships to lexical meanings, etc., to a final message.**

### Top-Down Processing

Top-down processing, on the other hand, refers to the use of background knowledge to understanding the meaning of a message. Background knowledge plays an important part in meaning-making. It may be previous knowledge about the topic of discourse, the knowledge may be situational or contextual, or it may be knowledge in the form of **schema** or **scripts** (general information based on previous learning and life experiences), or **textual schema** (awareness of the kinds of information used in a given situation). For example, look at the following sentence:

I heard on television there was a big earthquake in Gujarat last night.

On recognizing the word “earthquake,” a set of questions is generated to which we want responses or answers.

- Where exactly did it occur?
- How big was it?
- Did it cause a lot of damage?
- Were many people killed or injured?
- What rescue efforts are underway?

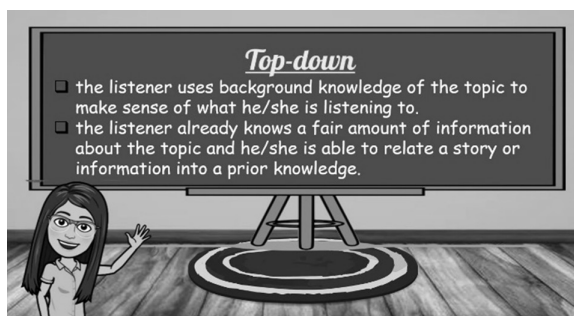


Figure 5.1 The top-down approach.

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These questions guide us through the understanding of any subsequent discourse that we hear, and they focus our listening on what is said in response to the questions. All the experiences we encounter every moment/hour/day are stored in our mind as **schema** or **mental representations**. Over the years, we have knowledge of thousands of topics and concepts and their associated meanings and links to various other topics and concepts. By applying this prior knowledge about things, concepts, people, and events to a particular utterance about a specific topic or topics, comprehension proceeds from the top to the bottom. The actual discourse heard is used to confirm expectations and to fill out details (Figures 5.1 and 5.2).

### To Summarize

Knowing these cognitive processes at work, how should the teacher go about it in the class?

### Principles of Listening

The best way to teach listening to our students is **not to lecture** them on how to listen but to give them hands-on experience in **making them listen**. Second, it is important that students **learn to adopt listening strategies** that can assist or enhance their comprehension. Finally, devise activities and tasks that will enable them to sharpen their listening skills. To develop listening skills of our students, the following principles need to be kept in mind:

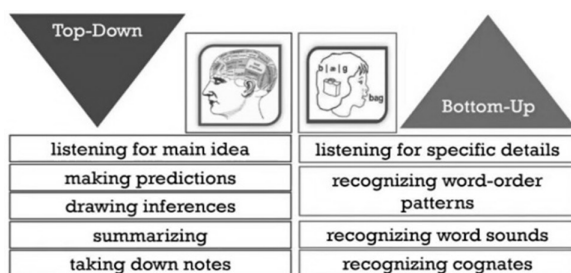


Figure 5.2 Difference between the top-down and the bottom-up approach.

Source: [https://www.google.com/search?sca\\_esv=d6c2da0847de0b9a&rlz=1C1CHZN\\_enOM1003OM1003&xsrf=ADLYWllzui\\_SeLUyyn7YhZ2D5v21LICZPg:1716213233565&q=images+of+top+down+and+bottom+up+listening+strategies&uds=ADvngMjEobAA7GqVExr3wH9GqxlrG6Q7qexqZjhJSUweDeZWdYh1xdS6T3zMqtwRyQAEAIN9JMWfqPvHifr0ZIJDEEA VvhmjSax2RE3R0z9K3LyaAH7XCh2XbIV5PyG\\_nX6cYPMo6QvT5z-XnEEweXNydGC-NZ8DGJQK37pThk42VoQJFOrmYaKz50AfwDrmZ8UjGwdInZuVYXeUnrV4NYaWCiT-LdloxIRIDpc6bsTaZlSt5xT263cbFjXNbl2mSLuRLu3f6z\\_0hiONzDg3WfmFQxAKXRlgFRenTnqkBuAppF2JWF3b59X5-O1IGHZTkpvFa8xxLKRsxUbLs96W-65M0fJp-q1zrKuXnlLUpqJdR1emALji0Gys&udm=2&prmd=ivsnbmt&sa=X&ved=2ahUKewiMu5TBsjyGAxU-GTQIHbpFBnUQtKgLegQICxAB&biw=1536&bih=695&dpr=1.25#vhid=5\\_Ls4OGFSx77M&vssid=mosaic](https://www.google.com/search?sca_esv=d6c2da0847de0b9a&rlz=1C1CHZN_enOM1003OM1003&xsrf=ADLYWllzui_SeLUyyn7YhZ2D5v21LICZPg:1716213233565&q=images+of+top+down+and+bottom+up+listening+strategies&uds=ADvngMjEobAA7GqVExr3wH9GqxlrG6Q7qexqZjhJSUweDeZWdYh1xdS6T3zMqtwRyQAEAIN9JMWfqPvHifr0ZIJDEEA VvhmjSax2RE3R0z9K3LyaAH7XCh2XbIV5PyG_nX6cYPMo6QvT5z-XnEEweXNydGC-NZ8DGJQK37pThk42VoQJFOrmYaKz50AfwDrmZ8UjGwdInZuVYXeUnrV4NYaWCiT-LdloxIRIDpc6bsTaZlSt5xT263cbFjXNbl2mSLuRLu3f6z_0hiONzDg3WfmFQxAKXRlgFRenTnqkBuAppF2JWF3b59X5-O1IGHZTkpvFa8xxLKRsxUbLs96W-65M0fJp-q1zrKuXnlLUpqJdR1emALji0Gys&udm=2&prmd=ivsnbmt&sa=X&ved=2ahUKewiMu5TBsjyGAxU-GTQIHbpFBnUQtKgLegQICxAB&biw=1536&bih=695&dpr=1.25#vhid=5_Ls4OGFSx77M&vssid=mosaic)

1. The first point to keep in mind is to **expose students to two different ways of processing information—top-down and bottom-up**. If teachers think that they will first develop bottom-up processing skills followed by top-down processing skills, they are under a false notion. Both these types of processing have to be done in combination, giving plenty of tasks and activities in the classroom. The teacher could begin with bottom-up processing skills while students are very young so as to get them adjusted to hearing different types of sounds, pronunciation, understanding between different types of vowel and consonant sounds (refer to Chapter 4), at the next level recognizing vocabulary, grammatical relationships, stress, intonation transitions in discourse, and so on, depending on the objectives and goals the teacher has to achieve. However, as the child grows older the shift needs to be made to the top-down processing skills, so that meaning-making mechanism is triggered immediately on listening. Thus, **listening as an integrated skill** has to be focused on.
2. The students need to be **exposed to different types of listening**. That is, they need to be exposed to conversations, audio recordings, or textbook readings from where they have to understand the **gist** (often referred to as global listening), or some **specific information**, or **drawing inferences**, which is more of an abstract nature, or **predicting** the next move or information that is likely to follow.
3. If students are to be exposed to different types of listening, the teacher needs to devise and **teach a variety of tasks**. The listening tasks are usually undertaken when the students are hearing the texts and hence the teacher should remember that the task should not demand too much production. To write a summary of a task is definitely a challenging proposition in the time allotted to students, and hence a way out could be that three summaries are given and the students tick one of them. This is to drive home the point that tasks should be such that would enable students to understand and write answers in one/two words or in phrases. Students should be exposed to a wide range of tasks that deal with different types of texts, which

would allow students to respond differently. A variety of tasks included would also help student interests to be sustained.

4. Teachers should consider the **difficulty level and the authenticity of the text** used for the tasks. At the same time, the **language used in the text should be authentic and contextualized**. If a lot of stylized language is used, the students may not understand and the entire purpose of the listening task is likely to be defeated. Likewise, if the teacher is the resource person, the speed at which the teacher speaks attains significance; too fast or too slow a pace again is not likely to yield any result. According to Rost (2002), "By pausing the spoken input (the tape or the teacher) and allowing some quick intervention and response, we in effect slow down the listening process to allow the listeners to monitor their listening more closely." The listening materials also need to be authentic, that is realistic and relevant to the social situations so that students can relate to them. For example, if the text deals with a cultural phenomenon of the West to which our students are unable to relate, then the listening task perhaps would fail in its objective.

Teachers need to teach listening strategies to learners. The strategies include:

- Looking for key words.
- Looking for nonverbal cues for meaning.
- Predicting speaker's purpose by the context of discourse.
- Activating one's background knowledge (schemata).
- Guessing at meanings.
- Seeking clarifications.
- Listening for general gist.
- Various test-taking strategies for listening comprehension.

The above could be categorized as predicting, inferring, monitoring, clarifying, responding, and evaluating. Developing these in class would mean helping students to become effective listeners.

### **Classroom Practices**

Based on the principles mentioned here, the teacher now must prepare activities and tasks so that both top-down processing and bottom-up processing are developed in learners. Some classroom activities that focus primarily on bottom-up processing are dictation, cloze listening, multiple-choice questions after a text, and certain other activities that require close and detailed recognition and processing of input. The students could

- Identify pronoun references in a sentence.
- Recognize words that denote time reference in sentences.
- Distinguish between positive and negative statements.
- Recognize the order of words as they occurred in a sentence.
- Identify sequence markers.
- Identify key words that occurred in a spoken text.
- Identify modal verbs in a spoken text.

Teaching listening also includes teaching students **how to understand the pronounced** words, and hence, tasks on pronunciation should not be out of place, especially, certain activities on problematic sounds should be undertaken in the classroom that impact understanding the meaning of sentences.

Sample Tasks for Listening to Develop Pronunciation, for specific information, for note-making, and for map reading are given in Appendix 3.

### Teaching Speaking Skills

**Test yourself on speaking before you go into this part of the chapter.**

Mark each of the following statements. If you agree, mark it with a tick (✓); if you disagree, mark it with a cross (X); and if undecided, mark it with a question mark (?).

Teacher Beliefs and Notions		
1.	Teachers should always speak at a natural speed.	
2.	Choral pronunciation is useful for all classes.	
3.	Students need to know phonetics.	
4.	Stress, pitch, and intonation are best shown with your hands.	
5.	Stress is as important as grammar.	
6.	Conversation lessons need detailed preparation.	
7.	The best conversation lessons are usually about serious topics.	
8.	Avoid provocative remarks in speaking classes.	
9.	Group/pair work is often a good basis for conversation lessons.	

### Spoken Discourse versus Written Discourse

Speaking and writing are both productive skills. However, research in conversational analysis in recent years has revealed the nature of spoken language and how it differs from written (McCarthy and Carter 1997). These differences also reflect the different purposes for which both these skills are used. Let us first reflect on the features of spoken discourse and then move on to see the differences between the two. The **features of spoken discourse**, whether first or second language, can be characterized as follows:

- Composed of idea units (conjoined short phrases and clauses).
- May be planned (lecture) or unplanned (a conversation).
- Employs more vague or generic words than written language.
- Contains slips and errors reflecting online processing.
- Involves reciprocity (interactions are jointly constructed).
- Shows variation between formal and casual speech.
- Reflects speaker roles, purpose, and context.

Though speaking and writing both are productive skills, important **differences** between them are tabulated further in Table 5.1.

**Importance of the Spoken Discourse**

Generally, the success of language learning is evaluated on the premise of the oral proficiency of learners, and therefore it is taught as a linguistic item in English classrooms. It can be argued that in India a pattern of reading–writing syllabus is followed, which does not offer incentives for students to speak in class. Very few regional medium schools focus on speaking in English while others neglect it completely. On the other hand, in English-medium schools, emphasis is placed on speaking in English. Therefore, more often than not students of English-medium schools can speak the English language fluently while students of regional medium schools generally cannot. However, today speaking in English is considered a stepping stone to reach the upper level of social mobility, and hence the clamor for speaking the language. Many of our students go to Western countries to pursue higher education where English is the language of communication. Liberalization of markets has also seen many MNCs come to India, which provides many job opportunities for our students. In such a scenario, putting across one’s ideas in the English language does provide an edge to the careers of the people. Considering all the above aspects, it is important to teach our students how to speak in English so that they can compete with learners in the West, put forth their ideas, and also contribute to the creation of knowledge. Therefore, teaching this skill in the classroom is important.

*Learner Problems in Speaking*

If we analyze learners and the problems they face while speaking, we see that they

- Cannot sustain spoken interaction for longer periods of time.

*Table 5.1* Difference between Spoken and Written Language

	<i>Spoken Language</i>	<i>Written Language</i>
1.	Auditory	Visual
2.	Temporary	Permanent
3.	Spontaneous reception	Delayed reception
4.	Rhythm stress intonation	Punctuation
5.	Immediate feedback	Delayed or no feedback
6.	Limited planning and editing	Unlimited planning, editing, and revision
7.	Linear structure	Hierarchical structure
8.	Units of organization—word, phrase, clause	Unit of organization—sentence
9.	Context dependent, personal assuming shared background knowledge	Context independent
10.	Different accents, standard, nonstandard, regional varieties	Different writing styles, genres

- Do not have the required vocabulary to talk on common topics, therefore code-switching to MT is rampant.
- Ack communication strategies.
- Speak very slowly and take a long time to compose utterances.
- Cannot participate actively in conversations and discussions where TL is involved.
- Cannot construct correct grammatical sentences.
- Lack native pronunciation.
- There are frequent communication breakdowns and misunderstandings of meaning.

The reasons attributed to the above learner problems are systemic and can be bulleted as:

- The curriculum does not emphasize speaking skills.
- Teachers have limited proficiency level in the English language.
- Class conditions do not favor oral activities.
- Students have limited opportunities outside class to use the language.
- The examination system does not emphasize oral skills.

“Where there is a will, there is a way,” this maxim finds favor here. If the teacher wishes that she/he needs to devote some time every day in the class to develop the speaking skills of students, then a way can be made to do so. However, this space is not for discussing this issue, and hence I would like to move on to the next section, which perhaps is a little theoretical in nature. It deals with the concept of what a speaking classroom should be.

### **Think, Reflect, and Answer**

1. Apart from the differences mentioned earlier between speaking and writing, have you noticed any other differences between them? Make a list and analyze them.
2. Hear attentively to students conversing on any topic. Note its various characteristics and add to the list given earlier.
3. Observe your students when they speak in class and try to understand the problems they encounter. The problems could be individual. Make a list and analyze them.

### **Principles of Speaking**

One does not teach learners to speak the native language. It follows innately/automatically from exposure, which subsequently is reinforced by elders. However, the same is not the case while one is learning to speak English in a classroom situation. Earlier, speaking was considered as memorizing, repeating, and drill based. Over the years, the communicative method changed the grammar-based syllabi into a communicative one in which fluency of language became more focused. The **challenges** that the teacher faced were to **develop fluency, accuracy, and appropriateness of language**. More importantly, the **shift** needed to be made **from linguistic competence (mastery of the language) to communicative competence (knowledge of how to use English appropriately for a range of different purposes)**.



1. Generally, speaking is taught in two contexts—either as a second language or a foreign language. Teachers, therefore, need to **be aware of the differences between second language and foreign language learning contexts**. When a language is taught as a foreign language (FL), one has to understand that the language being learned is not the language of communication of the society. For example, India is a land of many regional languages, such as Marathi, Gujarati, Punjabi, Hindi, Tamil, and so on, according to the states it has been divided into. Therefore, if any Indian wants to learn Russian, French, or Japanese (languages of other countries), then these languages will be considered as foreign languages. To learn an FL is very challenging, because outside the classroom situation not many opportunities are present for its use. Generally, people learn an FL for some personal or official purpose. Either they have to visit the place for a long period of time, therefore they require it for functional use, or they may want to learn the language for the purpose of translating manuals, etc.

A language is learned as a second language (SL) where the target language is the language of communication in the society (as in India). SL learners are generally children of refugees, immigrants, international students, and so on. But in India the status of English is different. English was the language of the colonizers before and after Independence but **since 1963 it has been accorded the status of an associate official language by an Act of Parliament**. According to the three-language formula suggested by the Education Commission, across India, English is taught in schools and institutions of higher education as a second language. Usually, second language learners commit errors in grammar, vocabulary, and pronunciation while communicating in the TL because they already have a linguistic system within them, which interferes with the transfer of the new linguistic system (refer to Chapter 3).

2. In the classroom, the teacher should **practice both fluency and accuracy** depending on the objective of the lesson. **Fluency** is the extent to which speakers use the language appropriately and confidently, with few hesitations or unnatural pauses, false starts, or lack of vocabulary. **Accuracy** is the grammatical accuracy to which the learners adhere when they speak. The teacher must not develop one to the neglect of the other. Especially in the beginning and at the intermediate levels, it is important that teachers give plenty of opportunities to learners to use the language so that fluency gets developed. Making mistakes is a part of the process of learning a language that should be corrected subsequently.
3. Teachers should **provide intrinsically motivating techniques to speak**. The situations that the teacher provides in the classroom should be relevant to the interest and the level of the class. For example, in Standard IV if the teacher wants a conversation on the politics of the country, then the students are less likely to be inclined to participate. For them, sports, entertainment through video games, movies that are topics suited to their age, or even comic strips are likely to generate enthusiasm. The topic selected should deal with realistic situations with which students can relate. For example, if a state has no coastline and you give students to speak about how they spent their vacation on a beach, the students would not be able to relate to it. At the same time, the activity should not be too abstract for the students to feel totally disinterested. A picture or prompt could be given to speak so that the content is in a way built around it. Stimulating their thinking can generate interest in the topic. Discussing, showing pictures, and using predictive techniques could

also help in generating interest. A variety of topics need to be given to students because interest in all topics for students is differential. By using a variety of topics, the teacher can cater to the interests of all students by the end of the term.

4. At the **beginner level**, teachers should **provide opportunities to learners through pair/group work** that will help them to use language communicatively and **manipulate physical arrangements to promote speaking activity**. Teacher talk should be kept to the minimal, while students should be given ample time to practice in the TL. Speaking being interactive, pair work and group work lend themselves to learning the language.
5. At the **intermediate level**, teachers should plan **speaking tasks that involve students in negotiating meaning**. Interacting through speaking means understanding what others say and making others understand what you want to tell them. Therefore, at every step in speaking, descriptions, clarifications, explanations, and confirmation of information become necessary. Teachers should ensure that classroom activities involve **transactional and interpersonal skills**, and teachers should **personalize the speaking activities whenever possible**.
6. At the advanced level, activities should combine both fluency and accuracy, encourage learners to take risks while speaking, and provide opportunities to notice the “gap” while speaking.
7. Teachers should encourage the **use of authentic language in meaningful contexts** and **provide appropriate feedback and correction**.
8. Teachers should encourage the **initiation of oral communication** and the **development of speaking strategies**, which include:
  - Asking for clarification (what).
  - Asking someone to repeat something (pardon me?).
  - Using fillers (uh, I mean) to get time to process information.
  - Using conversation maintenance cues (uh-huh, right, yeah, ok, hmmm).
  - Getting someone’s attention (hey, say so).
  - Paraphrasing structures one can’t produce.
  - Appealing for assistance from the interlocutor.
  - Using formulaic expressions.
  - Using mime and nonverbal expressions.

Source: H. D. Brown. *Teaching by Principles: An Interactive Approach to Language Pedagogy*.

## Classroom Practices

To understand the premise on which to engage speaking classrooms, let us now actually look at the activities that could be undertaken in the class. There are numerous speaking activities to develop the speaking skills of students. These can be **grouped under three heads**: controlled, guided, and creative.

**Controlled activities** are primarily used for developing accurate language. For example, pronunciation drills can be undertaken so that students can learn to pronounce words like the natives. Similarly, drills on word stress or intonation patterns also fall under this category. Drills help learners connect sentence patterns with appropriate contexts of use (formal/informal ways of expressing commands), focus attention on an element of language (contrasting sounds such as the “i” and the “ee”), and serve to train learners in the

essential stages in psychomotor patterns. However, these need to be kept short, focused on a single point, serve communicative goals, and never be overdone.

**Guided activities** help in developing accuracy. Elementary-level drills undertaken should contribute to these activities. These should now move closer to real-life spontaneous speech. Repetitive drills and grammar-based tasks do not give way to unpracticed tasks that demand genuine interaction. At such a stage, question–answers form a very good technique, goals are defined, and at the same time guided responses are elicited from students. Further, enacting dialogues and role-play are also examples of these as they provide scope for creative production and use of language. Dialogues are generally used to keep the production of a certain structure in mind. When students place themselves in the role of characters, enact or dramatize, it is called role-play. While speaking, the speaker has the liberty to use different words as well as change certain structures if the message does not get distorted.

**Creative activities** are used at a higher level of learning. A planned progression from relatively easier items to more difficult ones may become necessary. Sequencing, picture stories, information–gap activities, simulations, communication games, debates, and discussions form a part of this category where free language is primarily used for expressing one’s opinions.

## Techniques Used in the Speaking Classroom

### *To Develop Pronunciation*

- *Main Criteria for Pronunciation:* Consistency and intelligibility. Teacher should follow a standard model and make sure that students approximate it. The model should be such that the standard set is achievable for the students.
- *Use Choral Repetition:* All the students of the class repeat simultaneously. It serves to bring the class together and refocuses the attention on the teacher. The entire class repeats, followed by rows, then pairs, and finally the individuals. It takes pressure off from the students who are inhibited and have a mental block. This is useful for stress and intonation practice.
- *Move Around the Room When Doing Choral Pronunciation:* While moving around the room, the teacher can hear the mistakes made. Also, the students remain alert and help them in concentrating.
- *Teacher Talk Should Be Bare Minimum:* It is not necessary to comment on the quality of the choral pronunciation. A nod of the head is sufficient. However, rewards in terms of good/excellent are important at all levels as they build confidence in the young learners.
- Articulation is an important first step followed by more practice as it helps in physically articulating the sound system.

You cannot teach speaking without teaching pronunciation. Teaching pronunciation is often neglected in the class because generally teachers are not trained in teaching pronunciation and therefore lack confidence in teaching it. If the teacher herself/himself does not believe in teaching pronunciation, then the commitment to teaching language is lost because one of the objectives of language learning is to enable students to speak fluently using correct pronunciation. Speaking and listening are not isolated skills but closely interrelated. Teaching students’ pronunciation through listening is therefore enabling

them to speak with the right kind of stress, intonation patterns, and pronunciation. Teaching pronunciation becomes all the more important because wrong pronunciation leads to misinterpretation of meaning and thus communication gets affected as is evident in the sample example given further:

1. *The bag is very heavy.* (bag is pronounced as beg)
2. *Samosa is a delicious snack.* (snack is pronounced as snake)

Pronunciation of words “bag” and “snack” will lead to misinterpretation of meaning. (Sample tasks are given in Appendix 4.)

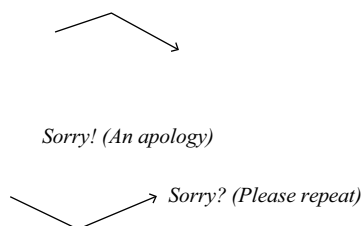
### *To Develop/Indicate Intonation and Pitch*

- Teach intonation by back chaining—in English sentences, the pitch movement at the end of the sentence is important for meaning. Students find it difficult to repeat long sentences after the tape or the teacher. In such cases, the teacher should break the sentences into various thought groups and build up sentences for students. For example, the sentence “Do you mind if I smoke?” could be back chained as follows:

Teacher: Smoke  
 Students: Smoke  
 Teacher: If I smoke  
 Students: If I smoke  
 Teacher: Mind if I smoke  
 Students: Mind if I smoke  
 Teacher: Do you mind if I smoke  
 Students: Do you mind if I smoke

- Don’t explain intonation, demonstrate visually, or on the board.  
 The teaching of intonation is usually effective when the teacher uses the simplest method of presentation. Hand gestures can be used to indicate where the sentence has a high pitch, low pitch, and which direction the pitch is moving in.

Take the example of the word “sorry” given below.” “Sorry” as an apology can be shown visually on the board by making marks of straight lines or angled arrows to emphasize the point being made with the help of an arrow.



These are useful in teaching individual intonation items. Basically, teachers should follow exaggerated presentations accompanied by simple hand movements or arrow drawings.

### To Develop Stress

Stress basically deals with words. Usually, those words are stressed on which the speaker wants to place emphasis.

- *Contrastive Stress*: A student can understand a stressed sound when it is heard in contrast to an unstressed sound. For example, if a student is hearing a question and a statement, he/she will be able to understand that the question usually has a rising tone, while a statement has a flat/neutral tone.
- *By Gesture/Choral Work/Black Board*: Dealt earlier in the section on pronunciation and intonation.
- *By Placing the Stress Mark*: The part of the syllable that is to be emphasized is marked. For example, in the word “about,” “bout” is to be stressed, hence the stress mark at the beginning of the syllable.

### To Develop Speaking

The **techniques** that can be used by the teacher to develop speaking of learners are as follows:

- *Role-Play*:  
Students are given particular roles to perform in the TL. For example, consider the following situation:

*Sujata was away on a Diwali vacation to Ooty, and on return saw that her house was burgled, and some cash and electronic devices stolen. Sujata goes to the police station to lodge a complaint. Role-play the parts of a police inspector and Sujata.*

In such a situation, two students role-play the part and lodge a complaint in the TL. Such activities help students to use language in real-life situations.

- *Simulations*:  
These are more elaborate than role-play. Props and documents provide a realistic environment for language practice. A teacher could devise an activity where a small shop is created in a mall and a customer goes to buy a pair of trousers. The teacher could first give a pre-task before the speaking activity in the form of listening to the following dialogue:

Salesman: May I help you?  
Customer: Yes, I'm looking for a pair of trousers.  
Salesman: What color would you like, sir?  
Customer: I'd prefer a black one.  
Salesman: And what size are you?  
Customer: Medium.  
Salesman: Here you are. The trial room's at the other end.  
Customer: Thanks.

(After the trial) What's the price like?

Salesman: ₹2,500.  
Customer: Aren't you offering any discount?  
Salesman: Not this time sir.  
Customer: Where do I pay?  
Salesman: At the cash counter.  
Customer: Thanks a lot for your help.  
Salesman: Welcome, sir.

The structures used in the above dialogue, such as “May I help you...,” “I’m looking for ...,” “I would prefer ...” could be written on the blackboard as a reference for students to read/use when they are simulating the activity.

### *Question–answers:*

Involving the class in question–answers, the teacher is paving the way for communication and interaction in the classroom. It involves students intellectually and allows the student opportunities to reflect on his inquiries and need for further information. An important point to note is that the teacher should frame questions according to the level of students. At the beginner level, questions may be used to reveal factual knowledge and objective data, but at higher levels, they should be thoughtfully framed so that the response from students is equally thoughtful having used the knowledge of the world.

The **three major functions of speaking** according to Brown and Yule (1983) are:

- Interactions
- Transactions
- Performances

Each of these speech activities is distinct in terms of form and functions, and requires different teaching approaches.

### **Features of Talk as Interaction**

It generally refers to the “conversation” between two/three people and primarily serves a social function. When people meet, they exchange greetings, engage in small talk, recount experiences, and try to develop a rapport. The **focus is more on the speaker and how they wish to present themselves** than on the message itself. Such exchanges are casual or sometimes very formal according to situations.

For example:

Harish: Hi Radha! Who’s that tall girl next to Suresh?  
Radha: That’s Revati. Didn’t you meet her the other day at the fresher’s party?  
Harish: I didn’t attend the party.  
Radha: Oh, I forgot! Then let me introduce her to you. Revati, Revati ... he’s Harish, our senior.  
Revati: Hello, Harish. Glad to meet you. I’m from Delhi, new to Baroda.  
Harish: Glad to meet you too. Am majoring in English.

Revati: That's great! We could fall back on you for help.  
 Harish: Any time. There goes the bell. I better hurry for my Elective class.  
 Radha and Revati: Bye—see you soon.

Another example of small talk is presented below:

Jimmy: Hi Mary.  
 Mary: Oh, hi.  
 Jimmy: How are you doing?  
 Mary: Umm doing well. How about you?  
 Jimmy: Not too bad. The weather is great, isn't it?  
 Mary: Yeah ... It's absolutely beautiful today.  
 Jimmy: I wish it's like this more frequently.  
 Mary: Me too.  
 Jimmy: So where are you going now?  
 Mary: Well ... I'm going to meet a friend of mine at the department store.  
 Jimmy: Going shopping ...?  
 Mary: Have to buy some gifts for my parents.  
 Jimmy: What's the occasion?  
 Mary: It's their anniversary.  
 Jimmy: That's great. You better get going. You don't want to be late.  
 Mary: See you next time.  
 Jimmy: Sure. Bye ....

The skills that need to be developed through sample tasks (Appendix 4) are to know how to open and close conversations, turn-taking, interrupting, reacting to others, joking, using the appropriate style of speaking, recounting personal incidents and experiences, making small talk, compliments, etc.

### Features of Talk as Transaction

It generally refers to situations where the focus is on what is said or done. **The central focus is on the message and making oneself understandable clearly to others.** A representative dialogue is graphically presented.

#### Conversation: Could you tell me?

Radha: Hello! I am Radha and new on the campus. Could you guide me to the nearest bank?  
 Geeta: Yes, of course! I am Geeta.  
 Radha: Hello, Geeta.  
 Geeta: There are two banks on campus, State Bank of India and ICICI Bank. Which do you want to go to?  
 Radha: State Bank of India.  
 Geeta: That's a little further ahead. Go straight on this road for about half a kilometer and take the first turn to the right. A hundred meters ahead you will see the bank to your left.

- Radha: Any idea about its working hours?  
 Geeta: It is open from 10.00 am to 2.00 pm.  
 Radha: Oh! Thanks. I have then a lot of time on hand. Hope I can open my account today.  
 Geeta: All the best. Hope to meet you again. Bye.  
 Radha: Bye. Hope to meet you too.

The main feature of this type of speech is that the focus is on information, and not on the participants; participants employ communication strategies to make themselves understood. There may be frequent questions, repetitions, clarifications, comprehension checks, negotiations, and digressions. Linguistic accuracy is not always important.

The skills involved are explaining a need or intention, describing something, asking questions, clarifications, confirming information, making suggestions, making comparisons, agreeing and disagreeing, etc. (Sample Tasks—Appendix 4)

### *Features of Talk as Performance*

This generally refers to a talk that is given before an audience, which transmits information. Examples of this could be delivering a lecture in the class, public announcements, speeches, or inaugural or farewell speeches. Such talks are closer to the written language and are often evaluated according to their effectiveness or impact on the listener. **The focus is both on the message as well as the speaker, there is organization and sequence, and importance is placed on both fluency and accuracy, but often it is more monologic.**

This type of talk requires a very different strategy. It involves providing models of speeches and audio/video recordings. Questions like the following guide the process of speaking:

- What is the speaker's purpose?
- Who is the audience?
- What kind of information does the audience expect?
- How does the talk begin, develop, and end?
- What kind of language/vocabulary is used?

### **Think, Reflect, and Answer**

Observe a speaking class and note the techniques the teacher uses to teach speaking/ pronunciation/stress/intonation to the students. Which of the techniques observed did you find effective and why?

According to you, which technique/s you used in class generated maximum results in speaking? Enumerate the steps you took for the benefit of other teachers.

What activities would you devise from this passage to teach speaking skills to your students?

Since the alligator is an amphibious creature, it needs a place to swim. The best place to keep such a pet is a fenced-in pond or a small lake. If a pond is not available, a larger metal swimming pool will do, provided that the water does not contain



a large amount of chemicals. Whether the alligator is kept in a pond or a pool, there should always be abundant vegetation surrounding the area. Although the alligator is not a herbivorous animal, it needs this heavy vegetation as camouflage and protection from the sun. The alligator is a cold-blooded animal. It cannot regulate its body temperature. Therefore, the temperature of the area surrounding it must be kept well above freezing, or the reptile will die. An alligator must have a natural environment, to survive in captivity

## Conclusion

Effective communication is a 21st century skill that all employers seek in their employees. Oral communication is the key to a successful career in public and professional life. This chapter will help teachers devise tasks so that students are provided with opportunities to use appropriate language at the appropriate time, to transact business, and to be fluent and accurate in speech while placing their point of view in front of an informed audience. In short, it will help students chart their professional and personal growth.

## To Summarize

1. Listening and speaking skills are interconnected.
2. Both top-down and bottom-up processing should be taught to the students as both perform different functions.
3. Through listening tasks predicting, inferring, monitoring, clarifying, responding, and evaluating should be developed, which would make students effective listeners. Developing these in class would mean helping students to become effective listeners.
4. Students should be given ample opportunities to speak in the class.
5. All activities should address special aspects of oral skills such as pronunciation, tone, stress, and rhythm.
6. All tasks should be devised and given according to the proficiency level of the students.
7. Tasks should be progressive—from controlled to free.
8. Tasks should enable students to transact business, perform in front of an audience, and interact with people.
9. Teachers should correct grammatical and vocabulary errors at the appropriate time while students are speaking.

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## 6 Developing Reading Skills

**Test yourself on reading before you go into this chapter.**

Mark each of the following statements. If you agree, mark it with a tick (✓); if you disagree, mark it with a cross (X); and if undecided, mark it with a question (?).

<i>Teacher Beliefs and Notions</i>		
1.	Reading provides training in speaking.	
2.	Reading helps in comprehending new language items.	
3.	Reading helps in comprehending larger issues.	
4.	Reading and writing are interconnected.	
5.	Reading helps in writing.	
6.	Reading is a passive activity.	
7.	Reading is an interactive activity.	
8.	Fluent reading is the same as reading comprehension.	

### What Is Reading?

Many people feel that reading as a skill is a simple process—readers decode (figure out how to pronounce) each word in a text and then automatically comprehend the meaning of the words as they do with their everyday spoken language. This is not actually what reading is. Then what is reading?

Reading is an interactive process. If one is reading the printed text, the reader is probably trying to relate it to their existing knowledge and understanding. The unfamiliar words are being understood and interpreted from the context, and the meaning obtained could be agreed or disagreed upon. A mental representation or a gist is generated, which serves as an evolving framework for understanding the subsequent parts of the text. The evolving meaning is further tested and mentioned, paying attention to inconsistencies that arise as they read and interact with the text. If they feel that they are losing the meaning while reading, they draw on a variety of strategies to readjust their understanding. While reading, purpose guides them; they take a stance toward the text and respond to the ideas that emerge from the conversation between the text and the self. This means that reading

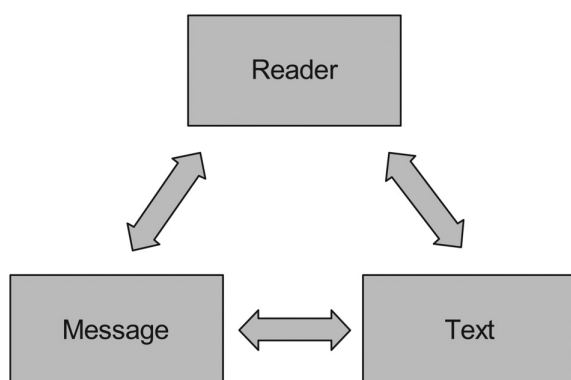


Figure 6.1 Reading an interactive activity.

Source: Author.

is **problem-solving**. While working on the printed page, making sense of the words and sentences, the reader uses the ideas, memories, and knowledge evoked by those words and sentences. This means that the reader uses two kinds of knowledge to gain meaning from the printed page: knowledge of the language system (KOLS) and knowledge of the world (KOW). In technical language, KOLS comprises knowledge related to sounds (phonology), words (lexis), and aspects such as spelling and the order of letters/words to form sentences.

The second type of knowledge is that of the world and that of the subject being read. Without KOLS, readers cannot relate the written symbols to their aural (spoken) equivalents, and without KOW, they cannot fully grasp the meaning in full or meanings that words gain in being parts of a topic (Figure 6.1).

From the above graphic, you can see that reading is an interactive activity. The objective of this triangular interactivity is to engage in thoughts, facts, and viewpoints written by the author on the page to arrive at the best meanings. Readers arrive at their own meaning by making use of the most effective and economical means that they have with them—KOLS and KOW.

### *Approaches to Teaching Reading*

The process of reading has been studied for many decades and researchers have come up with two/three models of reading: the bottom-up model and the top-down model.

#### *The Bottom-Up Approach*

The “bottom-up” approach stipulates that the meaning of any text must be “decoded” by the reader and that students are “reading” when they can “sound out” words on a page (phonics). It emphasizes the ability to decode or put into sound what is seen in a text. It ignores helping emerging readers to recognize what they, as readers, bring to the information on the page. This model starts with the printed stimuli and works its way up to the higher-level stages.

This theory hypothesizes that learning to read progresses from children learning parts of language (letters) to understanding the whole text (meaning). This theory explains reading as an activity in which sounds are matched to letters, or the reader builds grapheme–phoneme (letter–sound) relationships, Bloomfield (1933) thus stating that “the person who learns to read, acquires the habit of responding to the sight of letters by the utterance of phonemes.” It is like solving a jigsaw puzzle, examining each piece, and then putting them together to make a picture. It emphasizes the ability to decode or put into sound what is seen in a text. It ignores helping emerging readers to recognize what they, as readers, bring to the information on the page. **This model starts with the printed stimuli and works its way up to the higher-level stages. The sequence of processing proceeds from the incoming data to higher-level encodings.** This hypothesizing leads to enabling learners to decode, that is, recognize and memorize letters of alphabets, combine simple sounding words, and build word combinations and phrases toward larger and more meaningful units. Although the bottom-up theory of the reading process explains the decoding part of the reading process rather well, there is certainly more to reading than just decoding.

McCarthy (1999) called this view “outside-in” processing, referring to the idea that meaning exists on the printed page and is interpreted by the reader and then taken in. Teachers who believe that bottom-up theories fully explain how children become readers often teach sub-skills first: they begin instruction by introducing letter names and letter sounds, progress to pronouncing whole words, and then show students ways of connecting word meanings to comprehend texts. This type of reading makes readers passive recipients of information. Meaning resides in the text, and the reader has to reproduce the meaning.

### Limitations

This model tends to depict the information flow in a series of discrete stages, with each stage transforming the input and then passing the recorded information on to the next higher stage. An important shortcoming of this model is that it is difficult to account for sentence-context effects and the role of prior knowledge of the text topic because of the lack of feedback. The decoding model is inadequate because it underestimates the contribution of the reader who makes predictions and processes information. It fails to recognize that students utilize their expectations about the text based on their knowledge of the language and how it works (Eskey 1973) (Figure 6.2).

The above model was considered incomplete as it was felt that too much reliance was being placed on form. It failed to explain how readers constructed meaning, and Nunan in 1991 through his **top-down model** tried to make us understand how readers constructed meanings from the printed words.

### *The Top-Down Approach*

The theory that largely explains the “how” of reading is the “schema theory.” Schemata are usually referred to as the *building blocks of cognition*, which are used in the process of interpreting sensory data, in retrieving information from memory, in organizing goals and sub-goals, in allocating resources, and in guiding the flow of the processing system. Rumelhart (1977) has also stated that if schemata are incomplete and do not provide an understanding of the incoming data from the text, learners will have problems processing and understanding the text. This psycholinguistic theory is a process in which readers reconstruct meaning by using much more than the knowledge of letters, words,

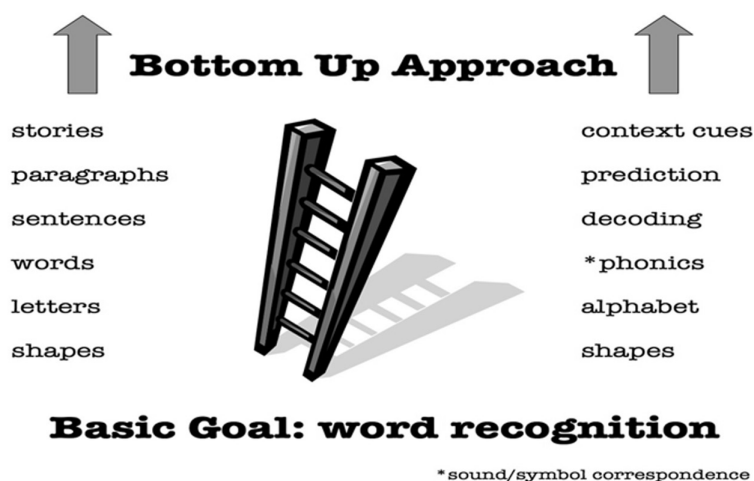


Figure 6.2 The bottom-up approach to reading.

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phrases, or even structures. They are able to understand because “they are able to take the stimulus beyond its graphic representation and assign its membership to an appropriate group of concepts already stored in their memories ... Skill in reading depends on the efficient interaction between linguistic knowledge and knowledge of the world” (Clarke and Silberstein 1977). In this approach, learners

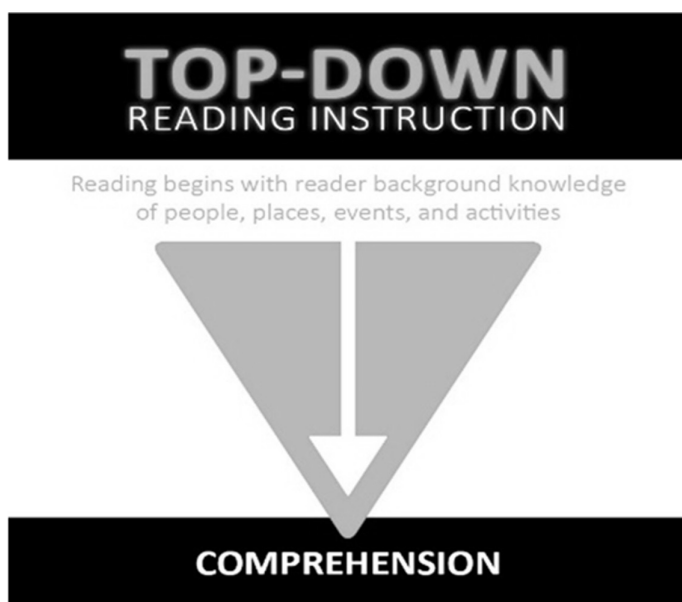
- Read large chunks of texts.
- Use prediction to guess meanings.
- Use previous knowledge to reconstruct meaning.

The readers sample the text for information and contrast it with their world knowledge (the knowledge they possess on the topic they are reading), helping to make sense of what is written. They make hypotheses, confirm, or reject them, make new hypotheses, and so forth. According to Goodman (1967), readers employ the following strategies to make meaning:

- Recognition–initiation
- Prediction
- Confirmation
- Correction
- Termination

The focus here is on the readers as they interact with the text. A graphical representation of this approach is seen in Figure 6.3.

Reading is thus viewed as an active process, which greatly relies on the readers’ ability to invest the text with personal meanings.



*Figure 6.3* The top-down approach to reading.

*Source:* [https://www.google.com/search?sca\\_esv=9384466e02e87e88&rlz=1C1CHZN\\_enOM1003OM1003&sxsrf=ADLYWILqYGrnLoV55cbq4to\\_HeYln5c47A:1716311872759&q=down+processing+images+top+down+reading+instruction&udm=2&uds=ADvngMh0WQE5eqx95bb-P17wD8yvX1dQdo2OK\\_gBVmDriMr2t8e4prBUafdj\\_3ZxjzM3F-WEMh1WqAMubUZp6ocTfPl9qsOugXrwX4Ld3ARCyBWu4imIFGWtEl7Ta6qHTUp-74ywWjpN11NKFBtoD1OZsAn6sdx1kOosx9IDRI\\_EyE7Lc\\_wBA8&sa=X&ved=2ahUKEwi-j\\_\\_7n5-GAxV7IDQIH56qA4lQgloDKAV6BAgUEBM&biw=1536&bih=695&dpr=1.25](https://www.google.com/search?sca_esv=9384466e02e87e88&rlz=1C1CHZN_enOM1003OM1003&sxsrf=ADLYWILqYGrnLoV55cbq4to_HeYln5c47A:1716311872759&q=down+processing+images+top+down+reading+instruction&udm=2&uds=ADvngMh0WQE5eqx95bb-P17wD8yvX1dQdo2OK_gBVmDriMr2t8e4prBUafdj_3ZxjzM3F-WEMh1WqAMubUZp6ocTfPl9qsOugXrwX4Ld3ARCyBWu4imIFGWtEl7Ta6qHTUp-74ywWjpN11NKFBtoD1OZsAn6sdx1kOosx9IDRI_EyE7Lc_wBA8&sa=X&ved=2ahUKEwi-j__7n5-GAxV7IDQIH56qA4lQgloDKAV6BAgUEBM&biw=1536&bih=695&dpr=1.25).

### **Limitations**

There is over-reliance on knowledge-based processing called schema interference.

They tend to emphasize higher-level skills as the prediction of meaning is done by means of context clues or background knowledge at the expense of lower skills like rapid and accurate identification of lexical and grammatical forms.

In making the perfectly valid point that fluent reading is primarily a cognitive process, they tend to de-emphasize the perceptual and decoding dimensions of that process.

This model is good for the skillful, fluent reader for whom perception and decoding have become automatic and not for the less proficient, developing reader. According to Weber (1984), a top-down model of reading is essentially a model of the fluent reader and does not account for all the needs of students who are acquiring reading skills.

### ***The Interactive Approach***

The two models cited above differ on account of the roles played by two types of knowledge. In their own way, both seem to have their own importance in the reading process. Theorists such as Rumelhart, Stanovich, and Eskey recognized the importance of both the text and the reader in the reading process. An amalgamation of the two approaches

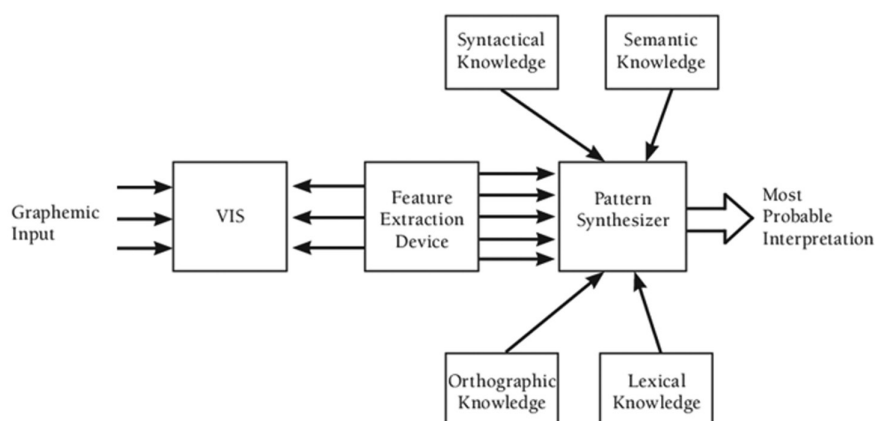


Figure 6.4 Rumelhart's interactive model of reading.

Source: Rumelhart (1977).

resulted in the interactive approach. Reading here is the process of combining textual information with the information the reader brings to a text.

The interactive model (Rumelhart 1977; Stanovich 1980) stresses both what is on the written page and what the reader brings to it using both top-down and bottom-up skills. It views reading as an interaction between the reader and the text.

The over-reliance on either mode of processing to the neglect of the other mode has been found to cause reading difficulties for SL learners (Carrell 1988, 239).

The interactive models of reading assume that skills at all levels are interactively available to process and interpret the text (Grabe 1988). In this model, good readers are both good decoders and good interpreters of text, their decoding skills becoming more automatic but no less important as their reading skill develops (Eskey 1988). The approach has been represented graphically in Figure 6.4.

One can even call this a metacognitive view of reading. The debate is no longer on "whether reading is a bottom-up, language-based process or a top-down, knowledge-based process" (Block 1992). It is the control readers execute on their ability to understand a text. Metacognition involves thinking about what one is doing while reading. Klein et al. (1991) stated that strategic readers attempt the following while reading:

- Identifying the purpose of the reading before reading.
- Identifying the form or type of the text before reading.
- Thinking about the general character and features of the form or type of the text. For instance, they try to locate a topic sentence and follow supporting details toward a conclusion.
- Projecting the author's purpose for writing the text (while reading it).
- Choosing, scanning, or reading in detail.
- Making continuous predictions about what will occur next, based on information obtained earlier, prior knowledge, and conclusions obtained within the previous stages.



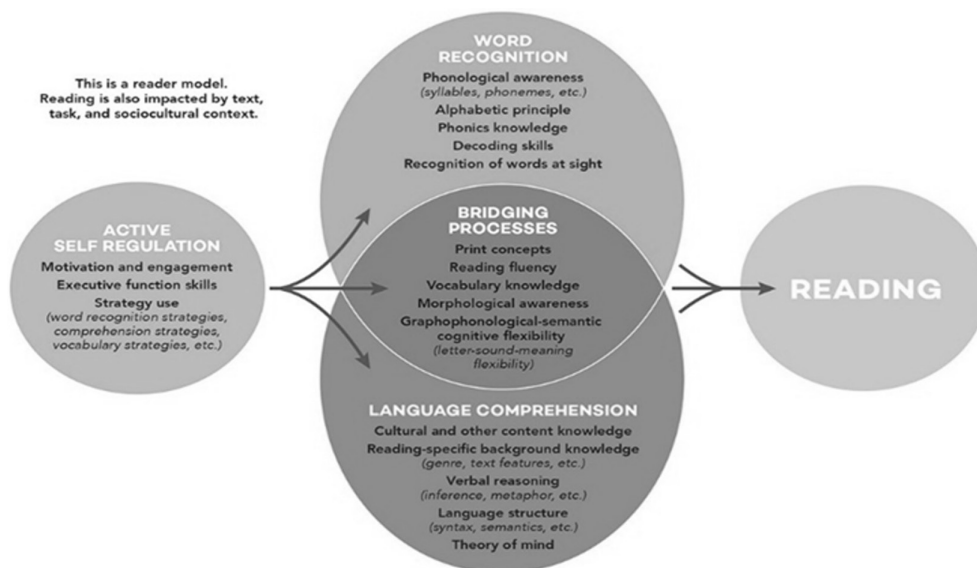


Figure 6.5 Active model of reading.

Source: The Active View of Reading © 2021 Nell K. Duke & Kelly B. Cartwright. *Reading Research Quarterly* published by Wiley Periodicals LLC on behalf of the International Literacy Association.

### Active Model of Reading

A new model has been proposed by Nell Duke and Kelly Cartwright (2021). They argue that the reader does not simplistically use only decoding and language comprehension. The reader adds self-regulating techniques to make meaning. The **active model** of reading expands to include that the reader “uses neurocognitive skills to attend, plan, organize, strategize, and remember how to read a text” (Figure 6.5).

#### Components of Reading

One understands that reading is a complex process. Several components are identified that need to be considered in the teaching of reading toward recognizing this complexity. To develop the reading abilities of the learners, the teacher should keep in mind

- Establishment of varied and rich vocabulary.
- Development of phonological processes.
- Provision of a framework for teaching comprehension strategies.
- Need to ensure that motivation and enjoyment of reading are key aspects of the reading process.
- Renewed focus on reading fluency.

The following components need to be developed by providing some background knowledge on each and by outlining practical opportunities for their application in the classroom. Each component is an essential ingredient of a multidimensional definition of

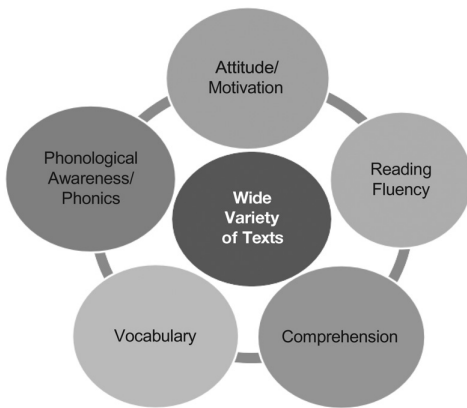


Figure 6.6 Components of reading

Source: Author.

reading and provides guidance for understanding how the reading process should be taught (Figure 6.6).

### Attitude

Motivation refers to a child's eagerness and willingness to read. From an early age, teachers can promote excitement and motivation to read by providing students with

- Interesting and rich texts.
- Choice of text.
- Authentic purposes for reading.
- Opportunities to explore, interact, and experiment with text.

The classroom environment should be supportive in which both the physical and cultural aspects encourage and create opportunities to use and combine printed, spoken, and visual matter in the texts for comprehension and understanding. Students benefit from an environment that allows them to feel confident in taking risks, in sharing texts, in responding openly to texts, and in working collaboratively with each other. Motivation is critical to ensure children develop both the skill and the will to engage in literacy activities. According to Beers (2003), "social and emotional confidence almost always improves as cognitive competence improves." Here is a graphic that gives some idea as to how to motivate and create an attitude of learning toward reading (Figure 6.7).

### Fluency

"Fluency is the ability to read aloud with expression to demonstrate an understanding of the author's message" (Department of Education and Training in Western Australia 2004). According to Mc Kenna and Stahl (2009), the three key components of reading fluency are:

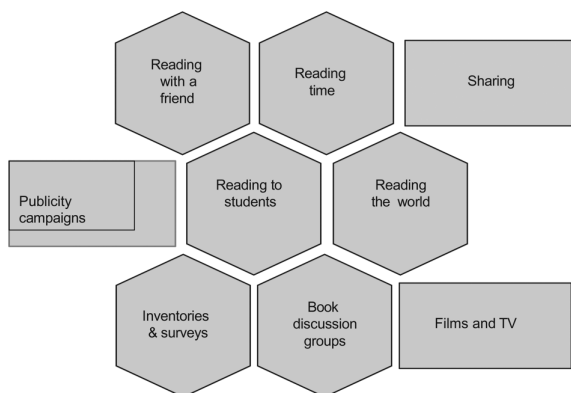


Figure 6.7 Ideas for motivating the reading.

Source: Author

- Accurate word recognition
- Automaticity
- Appropriate rhythm and intonation of speech

Each component contributes to comprehension in a different way. Students should **accurately recognize the words** to improve reading. It is usually said that they should achieve about 90–95% of accuracy levels. **Automaticity** is the ability to read words without conscious decoding. This type of reading allows readers to read words fluently so that they can concentrate on comprehending the text. Mental energy is required for decoding meaning, therefore if students are unable to decode quickly, then very little mental energy may be left for comprehension. **Rhythm and intonation** are also referred to as prosody and concern the ability to read with some sort of inflection. Prosody indicates a child's level of understanding about the parts of speech contained in a sentence, which is a lower order form of comprehension. How can fluency be developed? Here are some ideas: (Figure 6.8).

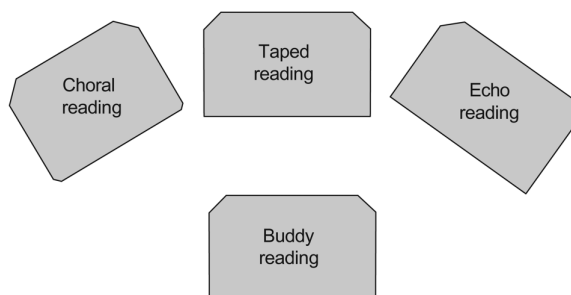


Figure 6.8 Developing fluency in reading.

Source: Author.

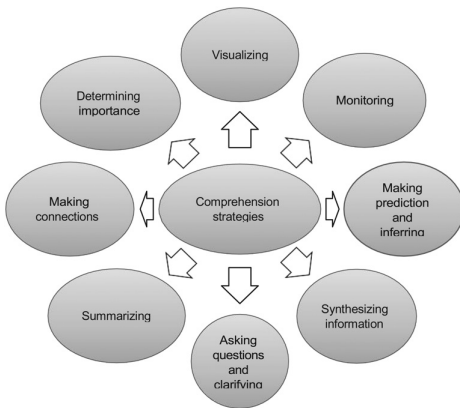


Figure 6.9 Comprehension strategies.

Source: Author.

## Comprehension

The teaching of reading needs to include a range of comprehension strategies. Comprehension strategies can be defined as “mental processes” that good readers use to understand a text. These strategies need to be explicitly taught toward developing independent readers who engage meaningfully with text. The process of comprehension begins before we start to “read” and continues even after the “reading” is finished. Good readers use pre-reading strategies like previewing the text and use post-reading strategies like summarizing in addition to the many strategies they use to make meaning during “reading” itself. Strategies should be introduced and mastered individually. However, over a period the child should develop a repertoire of strategies, which they can independently draw on when reading. Comprehension strategies will be dealt with in detail in the next section (Figure 6.9).

## Vocabulary

Vocabulary consists of words we understand when we hear or read them (“receptive vocabulary”) and words we speak or write (“expressive vocabulary”). We build vocabulary by picking up words that we read or hear and through direct instruction from teachers or other professionals. Mehigan (2009) suggests that “learning, as a language-based activity, is fundamentally and profoundly dependent on vocabulary knowledge—knowledge of words and word meanings.” According to him, there are four types of vocabulary that are often mentioned by researchers:

- Listening vocabulary—the words we need to know to understand what we hear
- Speaking vocabulary—the words we use when we speak.
- Reading vocabulary—the words we need to understand what we read.
- Writing vocabulary—the words we use in writing.

He claims that these categories are significant because the source of children’s vocabulary knowledge changes as they become more familiar with the written word.

There is a strong correlation between vocabulary and reading comprehension. Students who come to pre-school or junior infants with a rich and varied vocabulary tend to have a better understanding of the texts they read and, as their reading comprehension increases, their vocabulary knowledge expands accordingly. Conversely, pupils who begin school with limited vocabulary knowledge may struggle with reading comprehension, which in turn can limit their vocabulary growth. For effective language instruction, he says, teachers need to provide rich and varied language experiences, foster an awareness and love of language and words, directly teach individual words, and teach word-learning strategies.

Beck et al. (2002) categorize vocabulary into three main layers or tiers. **Tier one** words consist of basic words such as nouns, adjectives, and verbs which occur at the very basic level of reading. The reader should not know the grammatical part of the word but at least the meaning of the words such as boy, sky, blue, red, and so on. **Tier two** words are those which are high-frequency words used by mature readers. Words contain multiple meanings and increase descriptive vocabulary, which are important for reading comprehension and oral communication. **Tier three** words occur in specific domains such as curriculum subjects, hobbies, occupations, geographic regions, technology, weather, and so on. They are not used very often (low frequency words) but are required for the content of that subject, for example, words such as condensation, equator, sculpture, painting, and so on. Let us look at some activities that can support the development of building vocabulary: (Table 6.1).

#### *Phonological Awareness/Phonics*

Phonological awareness is a central part of learning to read. It is an aural and oral skill that is unrelated to intelligence. Although it is very different to phonics, it is an important precursor to learning phonics effectively (Savage 2008). What is the difference between the two? **Phonological awareness** is the ability to recognize, combine, and manipulate the different sounds of spoken words, while **phonics** is the combination of morphemes

*Table 6.1 Activities to Support Vocabulary Building*

<i>Activity</i>	<i>Purpose</i>	<i>Examples</i>
Small words in big words	Organizing alphabets to form meaningful words	Caterpillar Cat, pillar, pill, liar, lie, etc.
Forming lexical groups	Select one word from the text. Forming three or four synonyms for the word, order the words from simple to advanced.	Scorching/sunny/sultry/humid Wet/drizzling/showery/rainy
Compound words	Break compound words up into their components.	Light + house, back + waters, butter + fly
Multiple meanings	To draw children's attention to the multiple meanings of words	<b>Cross</b> —an emotion (to be angry) —a mark to denote wrong (x) <b>Green</b> —color/jealousy (emotion)
Word taxonomy	List of words arranged in alphabetical order pertaining to a particular topic or subject area.	Fairy—fantasy/imaginative/ magic/magical wand
Word wall	Can be used to display high-frequency words, word families, names, and other vocabulary. <a href="http://www.carlscorner.us.com">www.carlscorner.us.com</a>	

*Source:* Adapted from *The Reading Process*—PDST.

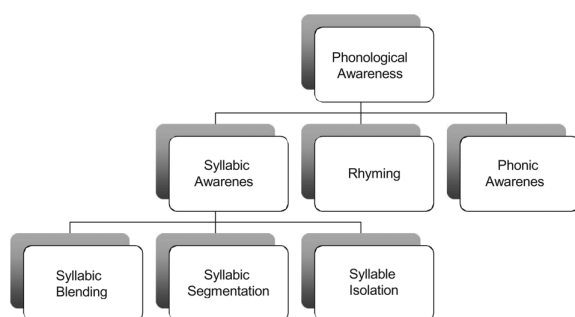


Figure 6.10 Phonological awareness through reading.

Source: Adapted from *The Reading Process*—PDST.

(letters) in written language and phonemes (sounds) in spoken language, and how to use these correspondences to read and spell.

**Phonological awareness** involves syllabic awareness, rhyming, and phonemic awareness. What do these terms really mean?

As the graphic denotes, it involves syllable blending, segmentation, and isolation (Figure 6.10).

**Syllable blending** means when a teacher demonstrates a particular word breaking it up into syllables. Take for example the word “beautiful.” The teacher breaks it up into “beau-ti-ful,” pronouncing each syllable with one-second interval between them. The teacher repeats a couple of times before asking students what the word was. **Syllable segmentation** means when the teacher presents the words for segmentation by showing real objects or pictures, or by simply saying the word and asking the students to segment it, for example, windowsill. Kinesthetic reinforcement is sometimes used, that is, students use their two hands to clap for the first syllable, touch their shoulders for the second, touch their head for the third, and so on. However, I am not aware whether such a technique is used in the Indian classrooms to teach syllabic awareness. **Syllable isolation** means presenting two-syllable words, which also happen to be compound words, for example, postman, playtime, playground, and so on. The words are presented orally, and the students are asked to say the first part or first syllable on its own before advancing to the second syllable. The teacher then proceeds to two-syllable words that are not compound words, for example, teach-er, ta-ble, and so on, and asks the students to say either the first syllable or the second syllable only. Syllables can then be isolated using three- or maybe four-syllable words.

## Rhyming

The teacher says a word and tries to make rhyming words from them. For example, the teacher says “b-at.” After choral repetition, the teacher substitutes the first sound /b/ with /m/, /p/, /k/, or /r/, so that they understand the rhyming words. The teacher further gives oral practice to distinguish between the vowel sounds. For example, distinguishing between the sound *bat*, *bed*, *bird*, *bead*, and so on. All these words begin with the same consonant sound /b/, but they have different vowel sounds, creating a distinction in their pronunciation, which students should know.

## Phonic Awareness

This means understanding and distinguishing the consonant sounds from the vowel sounds. Students should be made to understand that there is no one-to-one correlation between the sounds of the English language and the spelling of the words. In English, sounds are 44 in number, whereas there are only 26 alphabets. They should also be made to understand that while they are speaking their message is likely to get misinterpreted if the pronunciation of words is incorrect. For example, in the learning stage, if the student pronounces *sheep* as *ship* and *field* as *filled*, then when the student says, “The ship is grazing in the filled,” it becomes a totally incorrect sentence having no meaning though grammatically it is correct.

## Phonics

This brings us to the teaching of phonics to our students. As mentioned in the earlier paragraph, systematic phonics instruction should be provided to our students. Phonics is a method of instruction that teaches students correspondences between graphemes (letters) in written language and phonemes (sounds) in spoken language, and how to use these correspondences to read and spell.

Research tells us that phonics should be taught early in a systematic and structured way. The following are key aspects of phonics that need to be taught and can be subsequently assessed using printed text:

- Knowledge of the sounds of letters and letter clusters.
- Ability to use analogies to identify unknown words (e.g., identify “sat” if “cat” is already known).
- Ability to use the initial sound and context to identify a word.
- Ability to identify the initial and final sounds in a word.
- Ability to blend sounds into words.
- Ability to apply knowledge of letter patterns (e.g., long vowel sound in consonant–vowel–consonant [CVC] words).
- Ability to self-check whether an attempt is meaningful.

The following graphic shows a suggested sequence of teaching phonics to our students (Figure 6.11).

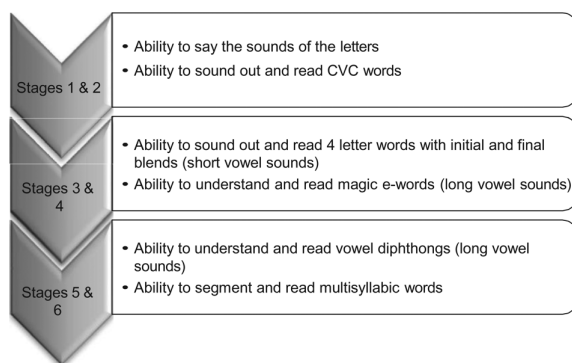


Figure 6.11 Sequence of teaching phonics.

Source: Adapted from *The Reading Process*—PDST.

### Strategies for Reading Comprehension

The repertoire of comprehension strategies varies. The diagram further places these strategies into three levels, ranging from the lower order, the literal type to the higher order evaluative type. It is recommended that comprehension strategies should be taught according to the various levels and grades of the class (Figure 6.12).

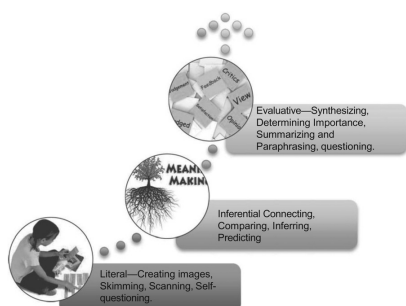


Figure 6.12 Strategies for reading comprehension.

Source: <http://www.pdst.ie/sites/default/files/Reading%20Booklet%20-%20to%20circulate.pdf>.

### Making Connections

- Learners make personal connections from the text with something in their own life (text to self).
- Learners make a connection with what they have read somewhere (text to text).
- Learners make a connection with what they have heard somewhere or with a real-life situation (text to the world).



### Making Predictions and Inferring

Description	Example Questions/Statements
<p>Learners use information from graphics, texts, and experiences to anticipate what will be read/viewed/heard and to actively adjust comprehension while reading/viewing/listening.</p> <p>Learners identify and draw inferences using prior knowledge about a topic and information that they have gathered and then make predictions.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• What do you think will happen next?</li> <li>• What words/images do you expect to see or hear in this text?</li> <li>• Why do you think that?</li> <li>• What helped you make that prediction?</li> <li>• Were my/your predictions accurate? How did you confirm my/your predictions?</li> <li>• Have you read/seen/heard about this topic anywhere else?</li> <li>• How will “X” react to what “Y” said?</li> <li>• Could “X” have reacted in a different way? How?</li> </ul>



**Visualizing**

<i>Description</i>	<i>Example Questions/Statements</i>
Learners create a mental image from a text read/viewed/heard. Visualizing brings the text to life, engages the imagination, and uses all the senses.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• What pictures have you created in your mind while you were listening to the text?</li> <li>• Can you describe the mental image formed?</li> <li>• How will the mental image you have formed help me to understand the text?</li> </ul>

**Asking Questions and Clarifying**

<i>Description</i>	<i>Example Questions/Statements</i>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Learners pose and answer questions that clarify meaning and promote a deeper understanding of the text.</li> <li>• Questions can be generated by the learner, a peer, or the teacher.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• What in the text helped you know that?</li> <li>• How is this text making you feel? Why is that?</li> <li>• When you read/viewed/listened to that text, did it remind you of anything you know about?</li> <li>• Why did it remind you of that?</li> <li>• What did the composer of the text mean by ...?</li> <li>• Whose point of view is this? What points of view are missing?</li> </ul>

**Summarizing**

<i>Description</i>	<i>Example Questions/Statements</i>
Learners identify and accumulate the most important ideas and restate them in their own words.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• What things will help me in the text—list, note-taking, mind map, annotations, etc.?</li> <li>• What are the main ideas and significant details from reading the text?</li> <li>• How would you tell the person in a few sentences what you have read?</li> <li>• What is the main theme? How is it connected to the outside world?</li> </ul>

**Synthesizing Information**

Synthesizing takes the process of summarizing one step further. Instead of just restating the important points from the text, synthesizing involves combining ideas and allowing an evolving understanding of the text. It is defined as “[creating] original insights, perspectives, and understanding by reflecting on text(s) and merging elements from text and existing schema.” Thus, synthesis is the most sophisticated of all comprehension strategies, combining elements of connecting, questioning, and inferring. With this strategy, students move from making meaning of the text to integrating their new understanding into their lives and worldview (Table 6.2).

Table 6.2 List of Reading Strategies

	<i>Reading Strategy</i>	<i>Description</i>
1	Predicting	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Helps activate prior knowledge.</li> <li>Based on clues in the text (pictures, subtitles, etc.).</li> </ul>
2	Connecting	Connecting prior knowledge to new information.
3	Comparing	Thinking more specifically about connections they are making, e.g., how is this different to...?
4	Inferring	Taking information from a text and creating their own interpretations beyond the literal level.
5	Synthesizing	Piecing information together as students read a text to keep track of what is happening.
6	Creating images	Creating sensory images to assist with overall comprehension of a text.
7	Self-questioning	Providing a framework for active learning as students engage with the text to find answers.
8	Skimming	Glancing quickly through material to gain an overall view of the text.
9	Scanning	Glancing through a text to locate specific details, e.g., names, dates, etc.
10	Determining importance	Prioritizing the most important information from a phrase, sentence, paragraph, chapter, or whole text.
11	Summarizing	Reducing larger texts to focus on important elements.
12	Paraphrasing	Restating/rewriting text in one's own words using key words to capture the main focus.
13	Re-reading	Creating opportunities for deeper understanding, word identification, and developing fluency.
14	Reading on	Skipping unfamiliar word(s) and reading on to provide sufficient context to determine unknown word/phrase.
15	Adjusting reading rate	Slowing down to comprehend new information, or speeding up to scan for key words.
16	Sounding out	Using knowledge of letter-sound relationships to decode unknown words.
17	Chunking	Breaking multisyllabic words into units larger than individual phonemes.
18	Using analogy	Transferring what they know about familiar words to help them identify unfamiliar words.
19	Consulting a reference	Using a dictionary, thesaurus, reference chart, or glossary to help find word meanings/pronunciations.

Source: Adapted from *First Steps Reading Resource Book*.

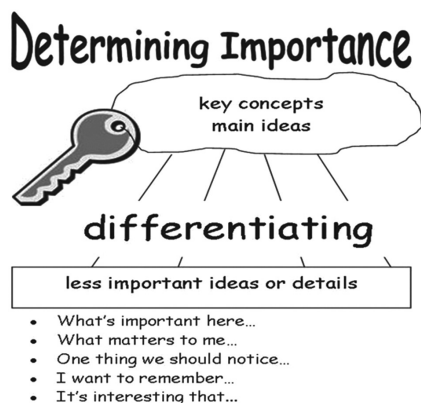
*Determining the Importance*

Figure 6.13 Determining the Importance

Source: [https://www.google.com/search?q=determining+importance+of+ideas+in+reading-+images&tbm=isch&tbs=rimg:CWnu66jM-1xhIjhBDgkeZNxCo3o\\_137HxTNg5z-10297FXwGNrW\\_15aOC54Jop6qL119C8vb6AoAuZFk\\_1ey6qifpEemyoSCUEOCR5k3EKJET6cf8HldKR6KhIJej\\_1fsfM2DkRvsNNIF7MXgMqEgnP6XTb3sVfARFqGEfd07NinioSCY21b\\_1lo4LNgEd9eCX8u-gxjKhIjminqovUj0LwRgxNI74uRs4MqEgm9voCgC5kWTxEbN9r5VQn0TioScd7LqqJ-kR6bEaGA5dEvfZxU&tbo=u&sa=X&ved=0ahUKEwj59e-c1IDWAhWOJlAKHXIMCDMQ9C8IHw&biw=1280&bih=632&dpr=1#imgsrc=ae7rqMz7XGET3M](https://www.google.com/search?q=determining+importance+of+ideas+in+reading-+images&tbm=isch&tbs=rimg:CWnu66jM-1xhIjhBDgkeZNxCo3o_137HxTNg5z-10297FXwGNrW_15aOC54Jop6qL119C8vb6AoAuZFk_1ey6qifpEemyoSCUEOCR5k3EKJET6cf8HldKR6KhIJej_1fsfM2DkRvsNNIF7MXgMqEgnP6XTb3sVfARFqGEfd07NinioSCY21b_1lo4LNgEd9eCX8u-gxjKhIjminqovUj0LwRgxNI74uRs4MqEgm9voCgC5kWTxEbN9r5VQn0TioScd7LqqJ-kR6bEaGA5dEvfZxU&tbo=u&sa=X&ved=0ahUKEwj59e-c1IDWAhWOJlAKHXIMCDMQ9C8IHw&biw=1280&bih=632&dpr=1#imgsrc=ae7rqMz7XGET3M)

Learners continually sort through information and prioritize it.

### Example Questions/ Statements

Teachers should assist in analyzing by asking questions such as:

- What do bullet points in the text represent?
- Identify transitional markers. How do they help in prioritizing/organizing the information?
- Identify textual clues that help in prioritizing information.
- What function do strong and weak verbs perform in the text?

## Monitoring

Description	Example Questions/Statements
Learners stop and think about the text and know what to do when meaning is disrupted.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Is this making sense?</li> <li>• What have you learned?</li> <li>• Should you slow down or speed up?</li> <li>• Do I need to reread/view/listen?</li> <li>• What can help you fill in the missing information?</li> <li>• What does this word mean?</li> <li>• What can I use to help me understand what you are reading/viewing/hearing?</li> </ul>

### To Summarize

1. Reading is a meaning-making activity.
2. Reader uses two kinds of knowledge to interpret meaning from the printed page: knowledge of the language system (KOLS) and knowledge of the world (KOW).
3. Reading involves bottom-up approach, top-down approach, and interactive approach.
4. There are numerous reading strategies.

## All tasks related to reading skills can be accessed in Appendix 5.

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## 7 Developing Writing Skills

**Test yourself on writing before you go into this chapter.**

Mark each of the following statements. If you agree, mark it with a tick (✓); if you disagree, mark it with a cross (X); and if undecided, mark it with a question (?).

<i>Teacher Beliefs and Notions</i>		
1.	Writing comes naturally to all.	
2.	Writing well is a cumulative outcome of mastering many skills.	
3.	Writing is an inborn gift.	
4.	There is only one writing process that all students should follow.	
5.	Reading and writing are interrelated.	
6.	Learning to write well takes time and effort.	
7.	Writers know what they have to say before they start to write.	
8.	Writing is a process of discovery.	
9.	Writing and rewriting is a constant search for what one wants to say.	
10.	Revision is key to good writing.	
11.	Writing is rewriting.	
12.	Writing is just the correct arrangement of words according to a set of rules.	
13.	Writing is non-linear, exploratory, and generative.	

### What Is Writing?

Writing is considered one of the most demanding and complex skills in the English language. It is a myth that writing comes naturally to any student who can listen, speak, and read. Unlike listening and speaking, which come naturally to any person, writing is a skill that needs to be taught. In the classroom, it is not just placing a word according to a set of rules. It is the discovery of meaning. As the writer writes and rewrites, depending on the meaning that he/she wants/intends to convey, words are used accordingly. Writing, hence, is not a linear activity but generative and exploratory.

What does “writing” or “composing” mean? As mentioned earlier, within the classroom, it may appear to be a set of rules and models for the correct arrangement of

pre-existing ideas or it may be regarded as “productive generation of sentences” (Raines 1985), but the act of writing itself is a highly complex, cognitive skill in which a variety of mental procedures are used to process information, articulate ideas, and intentions (Hayes 1980). **It is a highly goal-oriented, intellectual performance, involving both thinking and strategic action.**

Recent research on writing has provided us insights into the process of writing. Earlier, the act of writing was considered linear involving a series of stages (Rohman 1965), separated in time, and characterized by the gradual development of the written product. But now it is considered **non-linear, exploratory, and generative** through which writers **discover and reformulate their ideas as they attempt to approximate meanings** (Zamel 1983).

The meaning of “writing” always meant and continues to mean the piece of writing that the student has produced (the product). Emphasis was always on the product; however, in recent years, the focus has shifted from the product to the “process,” that is, how the child writes—the use of a particular word or a particular grammatical construction by the student to convey his/her thoughts. Thus, for any child to write effectively means that he/she should master the techniques of writing to convey his/her intended meaning. What then is the writing process?

### The Writing Process

All writing aims at clear and efficient communication. But what goes into clear and efficient communication? If one considers writing as a process, immediately the diagrammatic representation of producing a piece of writing by Ann Raines (1985) comes to our mind.

Figure 8.1 clearly illustrates the complex group of sub-skills that go to make a piece of writing coherent, effective, and communicative (Figure 7.1).

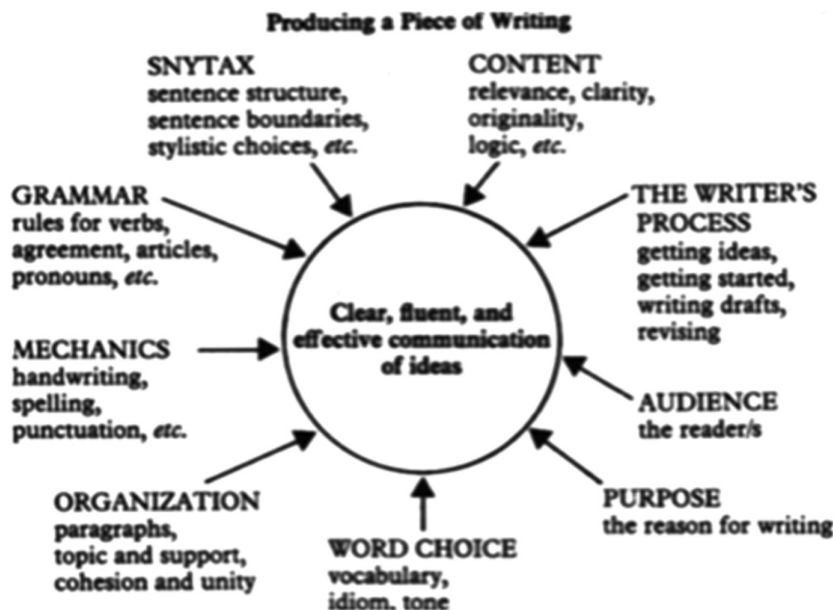


Figure 7.1 Producing a piece of writing.

Source: Ann Raines (1985).

The importance of the knowledge of mechanics such as handwriting, spelling, punctuation, or producing correct grammatical sentences cannot be undermined, but equally important is the generation of ideas, their organization, articulation, and having once articulated them, revisioning what has been written. Therefore, we can say that to undertake any writing activity, whether it is writing a message, a letter, an answer, a paragraph, or an essay, each learner needs to undergo the processes of:

1. Planning and generating ideas.
2. Organizing ideas.
3. Articulating ideas.
4. Revising the written text.

The above stages **appear to be linear**, but they **are not**; they do not follow one after the other. Each stage overlaps the other to such an extent that the process of writing becomes cyclical. Let me further clarify this.

Think for a moment that you are writing a letter to your friend describing an event you have organized in your school. You have planned and thought about what you are going to write. While you are in the process of writing, another idea/point/thought comes to your mind, which you would also like to share with your friend. At this stage, you have three options: either you write the new idea in a separate paragraph, or you merge it with another idea that you have written or are going to write, or you could write it as a complement to another idea. **The very fact that in one's mind planning occurs while one is writing confirms the cyclical process of writing.** At any stage of writing, at any point of time, another stage can overlap, which makes the writing process non-linear and generative, in which the main objective of the writer is meaning-making. The writer encodes the abstract thoughts/ideas/points in a language to communicate the intent/message/information to the readers.

Before one starts writing, it is important to ask oneself the following questions.

1. Why am I writing?
2. Who am I writing for?

This means, first, we need to establish the purpose of writing and, second, understand who is going to read it. These two aspects are very important because together they form the **writing context**. If these aspects are not kept in mind, then our writing remains an egocentric activity. It means that the piece of writing produced is not reader-friendly, and not directed toward the reader. As teachers, we need to make our students understand the importance of writing for an audience. We know that at the school/college level, they are writing to secure marks and pass the exam, but taking them through the process of writing will help them realize that in the future whenever and whatever they are writing, they must keep their audience in mind so that their writing is effective. Therefore, teaching them how to write is paramount.

#### **Think, Reflect, and Answer**

1. State the difference between “product” and “process” of writing.
2. Undertake the following writing activity.

Write a letter to your friend telling him/her about the study tour you took with your students. Note down your actual experiences while going through the process of writing. Write the sub-skills that you found easy and the ones you found difficult.

3. Looking at the diagram (Ann Raimes), according to you, in which areas do you think your learners would need your help the most?
4. Can you list some techniques, which you can use in the classroom to develop the sub- skills in writing of your students?

Let us now turn our attention and understand the actual writing process.

### *Planning and Generating Ideas*

Before we begin writing, the first step is to generate ideas of what we want to write drawing on personal knowledge, experience, and feelings. We can take the help of different techniques to generate ideas, for example, brainstorming, mind maps/brain patterns, pyramid patterns, listing, journal, loop writing, working outlines, and so on. A few techniques that can be undertaken in class are explained further.

#### *Brainstorming*

It is a spontaneous verbal activity excellent for generating content or for expanding ideas and perceptions about the topic. As a group activity, it is an icebreaker that helps students relax and see that each of them has something to contribute to the topic. Because of its unstructured format, students can speak whatever the brainstorming activity triggers in their minds. For ESL students, this technique helps learners to

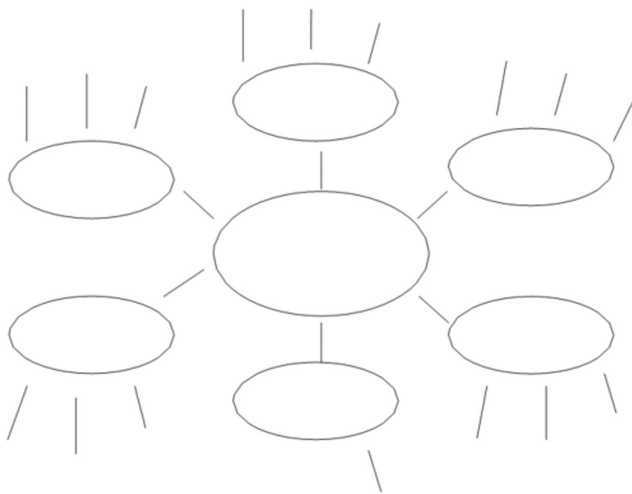
- Gain insights into others' points of view.
- Reinforce conversation and listening skills.
- Develop the practice of notetaking.
- Relax and develop rapport within the classroom.

Teachers should keep in mind that the topic for discussion should be established, discussion should be moderated and facilitated to be “on track,” and all learners should be encouraged to participate.

#### *Brain Patterns/Mind Maps*

It is a free association technique by which the writers, group or individuals, quickly record for five minutes whatever they know and feel about the topic in question using single words stemming from a central idea. It usually results in rough notes that require additional limiting and expanding. The advantage of this method is that writers quickly focus on main ideas and levels of importance; space permits easy addition of information; and key propositions are easily linked. First, a template is presented to understand the structure of mind maps (Figure 7.2).

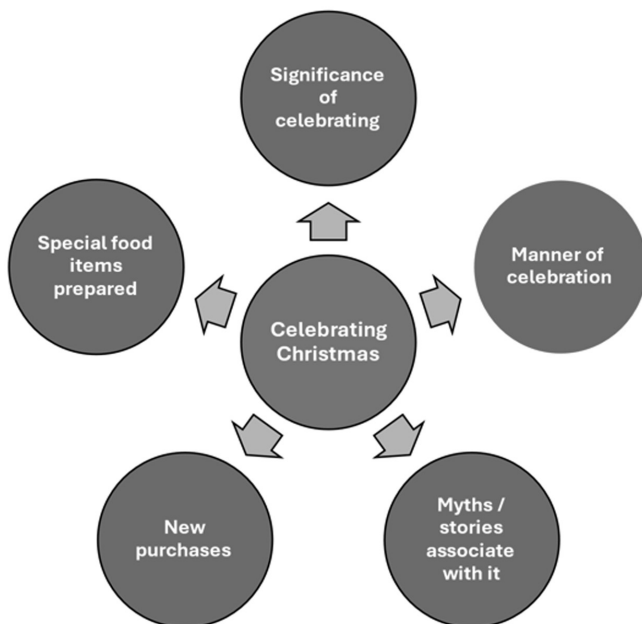




*Figure 7.2* Mind map template.

Source: [http://www.studenthandouts.com/01-Web-Pages/New%20Folder%20\(2\)/Brainstorming-Ideas.html](http://www.studenthandouts.com/01-Web-Pages/New%20Folder%20(2)/Brainstorming-Ideas.html)

Two examples are presented. Figure 7.3 presents how Christmas is celebrated while Figure 7.4 tell us about the season of spring. Both examples will enable you to understand it better.



*Figure 7.3* Mind mapping—celebrating Christmas.

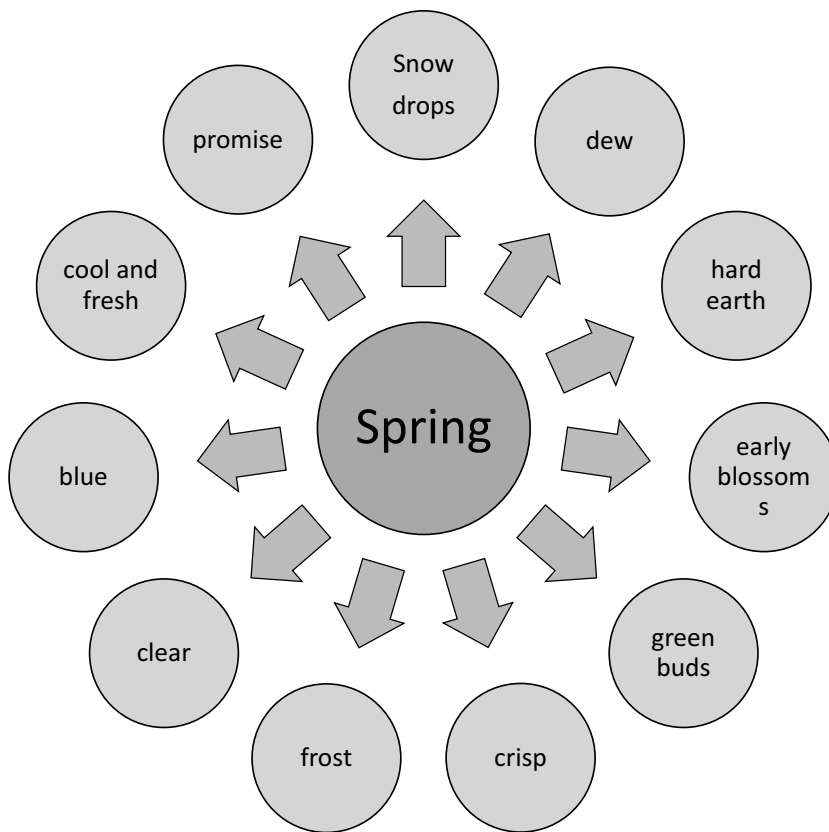


Figure 7.4 Mind mapping spring season.

### *Christmas*

Both the above examples demonstrate in different ways that generating mind maps before writing a composition is an extremely useful technique because: first, you understand what kind of ideas are generated, second, if similar ideas are generated you can combine them so that ideas do not get repeated, and third, the composition also gets a structured format.

### *Listing*

Listing is a free association technique that can also be controlled. An individual or a group can use it, and by this technique, the ideas can be listed very quickly. It helps writers to discover what is in their minds and what they know about the subject.

### *Loop Writing*

It is a more complex technique and involves students writing whatever comes to their mind. It is a semi-structured individual activity that requires writing for a certain period

without stopping, changing, or correcting. The writer then reads what he/she has written and draws the central idea from it, which becomes the starting point of the next loop. The advantages of this exercise are that writers learn by writing. It forces them to discover thesis statements (key sentence[s]) as concepts begin to emerge from each loop. Probably this activity would be better for students at the plus two level because, first, they are mature enough to understand what they wish to write on a given topic, and second, they have developed a good command of the language, here, English. The following diagram can help understand the concept of loop learning (Figure 7.5).

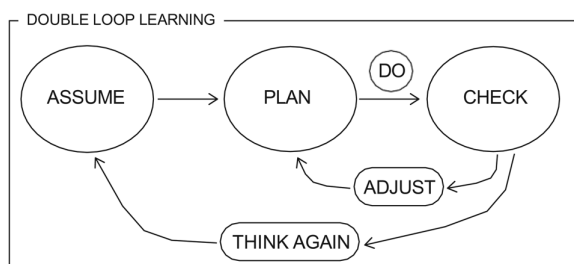


Figure 7.5 Concept of loop learning.

Source: [http://media.tumblr.com/tumblr\\_lmxpykvqdq1qildz2.gif](http://media.tumblr.com/tumblr_lmxpykvqdq1qildz2.gif).

Teachers should remember that it is an exhaustive exercise, hence the time given to students to undertake this activity would depend on the level and type of students in the classroom.

### Working Outlines

Working outlines are pictures of writing or graphics, which help writers to see the basic skeleton or form of what they plan to write. It is somewhat like the mind maps, explained earlier. With this form, writers can tie up ideas and see whether the main points need further explanation and/or supporting information. These outlines are structured yet flexible for they can easily be revised or reworked completely. These are advantageous for writers, groups as well as individuals, in the early stages of the development of writing skills because they involve the conventional ways of organizing ideas, including the development of thesis—beginning, middle, and end. The graphic or the picture form helps the students to visualize the parts of the writing and the structure more easily. A sample outline is given below (Figure 7.6).

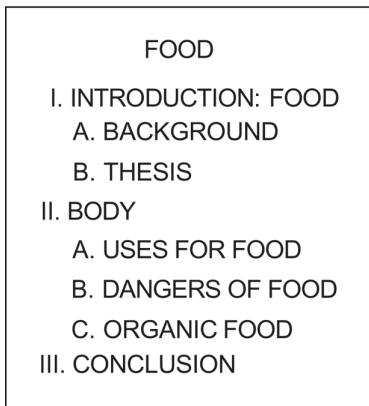
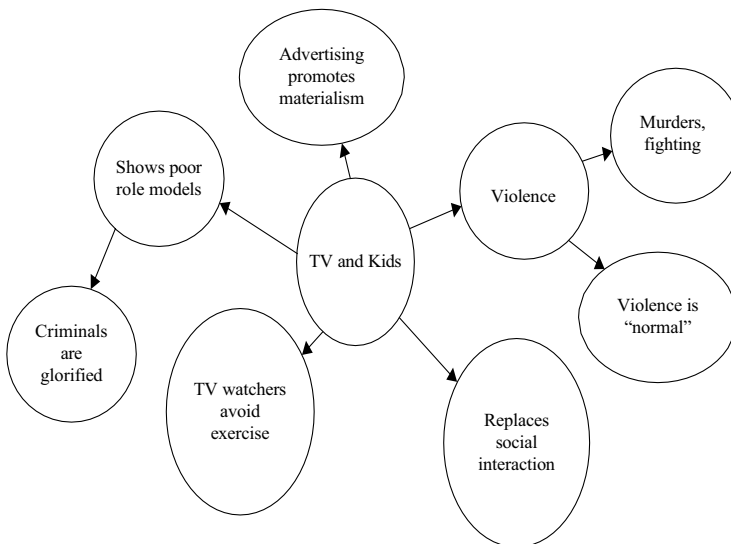


Figure 7.6 Diagram of a working outline.

Source: [https://www.google.com/search?q=image+of+outlining+in+writing&rlz=1C5CHFA\\_enIN549IN552&espv=2&biw=1280&bih=635&tbm=isch&imgil=0OplqzYBpUFMM%253A%253BVEBLtJAliaMHcM%253Bhttp%25253A%25252F%25252Fhigherupandfurtherin.blogspot.com%25252F2012%25252F09%25252Fhow-to-teach-your-childtooutline.html&source=iu&pf=m&fir=0OplqzYBpUFMM%253A%252CV EBLtJAliaMHcM%252C\\_&usg=haa4GLXTt1Jh4FFkjs4\\_5q\\_UrEM%3D&ved=0CDcQyjdqFQoTCMXx qpLQ7McCFU8yiAod91sDSQ&ei=xozxVcX2Cc\\_koAT3t43IBA#imgrc=U0giccSCWpLvKM%3A&usg=haa4 GLXTt1Jh4FFkjs4\\_5q\\_UrEM%3D](https://www.google.com/search?q=image+of+outlining+in+writing&rlz=1C5CHFA_enIN549IN552&espv=2&biw=1280&bih=635&tbm=isch&imgil=0OplqzYBpUFMM%253A%253BVEBLtJAliaMHcM%253Bhttp%25253A%25252F%25252Fhigherupandfurtherin.blogspot.com%25252F2012%25252F09%25252Fhow-to-teach-your-childtooutline.html&source=iu&pf=m&fir=0OplqzYBpUFMM%253A%252CV EBLtJAliaMHcM%252C_&usg=haa4GLXTt1Jh4FFkjs4_5q_UrEM%3D&ved=0CDcQyjdqFQoTCMXx qpLQ7McCFU8yiAod91sDSQ&ei=xozxVcX2Cc_koAT3t43IBA#imgrc=U0giccSCWpLvKM%3A&usg=haa4 GLXTt1Jh4FFkjs4_5q_UrEM%3D)

### Think, Reflect, and Answer

Look at the following diagram. Identify the main topic of the diagram. Write a few lines looking at the diagram. Make a working outline and write a few sentences interpreting the diagram.



*Organization of Ideas*

Once these ideas are generated, it is important to prioritize them, that is, which idea should be developed and written first and which second. Prioritization generally depends on every individual/learner because each learner has a different method of processing information. But at times there are certain topics in which certain ideas have to be written first. For example, if you are writing about the production of oil, then you have to write in the beginning how oil is brought to the surface of the earth and then write the distillation process. You cannot start writing directly about how it is purified and distilled.

*Articulating Ideas (Writing the First Draft)*

Once you have generated and prioritized ideas, the next stage is to encode these ideas in language. Generally, any piece of writing has three parts:

1. Introduction
2. Body or content
3. Conclusion

*Introduction*

The opening paragraph of any writing introduces us to the subject or the content of what one is writing. If one is writing an answer to a question, it could be the first two lines/sentences, which sets the tone of what is to follow. This is called the “hook.” The purpose of the hook is to attract the readers’ attention and motivate them to read on. The Introduction could begin with a definition, a question, a proverb, an anecdote, an example, or a universal truth, and so on. At the end of the Introduction, it is important to write a strong and clear thesis statement with two or three points, which tells the readers the different ideas that the writer is going to develop subsequently. The thesis statement is not necessarily written at the end of the Introduction. It could be written in the beginning or even in the middle of the introductory paragraph.

*Body/Content (Subject Matter of the Topic in Question)*

Each idea generated, prioritized, and written in the thesis statement must be developed and written in separate paragraphs. The separate paragraphs written form the body/content/subject matter of the writing piece. Generally, a paragraph contains about eight to 10 sentences. Shorter paragraphs may be used to emphasize a particular point while longer ones concentrate on a particular idea. A good paragraph makes clear the meaning of an idea, elaborates it, and examines it critically. The paragraphs are usually developed by **adding details, examples, and anecdotes to the main topic sentence**. The content of the paragraphs could be developed in various ways depending on what the writer intends to tell the reader. However, the **three basic requirements of a good paragraph are:**

- Unity
- Coherence and cohesion
- Emphasis

### Unity

A paragraph is usually built around a topic sentence—a sentence, which states the main theme of the paragraph. The topic sentence should be developed in an orderly manner, and it usually occurs either at the beginning, middle, or at the end of the paragraph. There are several ways in which the unity of the paragraph can be developed and maintained. Some of the techniques which students can use to develop their writing are given further, but there is no hard and fast rule that only these must be used. The students can use it as it is, or modify it, or they are at liberty to combine any number of techniques if their purpose of conveying the intent is achieved. Different ways of achieving unity in a paragraph are as follows:

1. *Inductive Order*: In this, the writer moves from particular statements to general statements. The writer gives details, arguments, or illustrations, leading finally to the conclusion.
2. *Deductive Order*: This is the most popular technique used by writers. The movement of the writing is the reverse of the inductive order. It is from the general to the specific. In other words, the writer states an idea through the topic sentence and then illustrates and substantiates it to reach a conclusion.
3. *Time Order*: This is the natural order of narration in which one event leads to another.
4. *Comparison and Contrast*: This order is especially useful in writing about two subjects. Comparison and contrast can take place within a single paragraph where every sentence compares and contrasts the subject, or it can be developed in paragraphs where one paragraph is devoted to one aspect of the subject.
5. *Enumeration*: The order is used in narration with the use of markers such as “first,” “second,” “finally,” and so on.
6. *Space Order*: This is useful when the writer wishes to write about the location or description of a particular place or object.
7. *Exposition*: This technique is used to explain how to perform an operation, or how to operate a machine. The emphasis is more on definition, explanation, and comments rather than illustration.

### Coherence and Cohesion

Coherence and cohesion devices are linking words that bind the text together to make it a complete whole. **Coherence** literally means “sticking together.” The elements of coherent writing are the words and the information they convey. In a paragraph, every sentence should logically follow from the one preceding it. Every sentence should be linked to one another (with the one that was written before and the one which is to follow) in such a way that readers can follow the flow of thought easily from sentence to sentence and paragraph to paragraph. This provides unity to the paragraph that can be achieved with the use of devices such as pronouns, repetition, synonyms, connectives, and so on.

1. *Pronouns*: The use of pronoun serves as a reminder of the noun in the earlier sentence, thus maintaining continuity of thought.
2. *Repetition*: Repetition of key words and phrases in a paragraph serves as an emphasis on the writer’s point of view. Too much repetition can also be monotonous.
3. *Synonyms*: If the use of the same word is causing monotony in the paragraph, then using the synonym (words with similar meaning) is a good variation.

4. *Connectives*: These are words or phrases that usually occur at the beginning of a sentence to show the relationship between the new sentence and the one preceding it. Some of the connectives commonly used are—and, but, or, therefore, next, further, moreover, however, and so on.
5. *Antonyms*: Using the “opposite” word can also create sentence cohesion, since in language, antonyms share more elements of meaning.
6. *Parallelism*: It is the repetition of sentence structures, clauses, or phrases. This technique is the oldest, most overlooked, but probably the most elegant method of creating cohesion.

**Cohesion** means linking ideas together within sentences with the help of vocabulary and grammatical structures. Cohesive devices are words and expressions that show relationships between parts of text and ideas, such as cause and effect, time, addition, or comparison and contrast. If these devices are not used, then there is no flow of text; the ideas seem jerky as if they are placed there without any logical reason. Using these devices, within the paragraph, the sentences are united and these paragraphs together make the text a complete whole.

*(Coherence and cohesive devices with examples and tasks are given in Appendix 6.)*

### *Emphasis*

Emphasis means prominence; it means making important points stand out in the paragraph. This is an important aspect of writing because when a person reads a paragraph, the reader should at once know what the writer is writing about. There are five devices that help to give proper emphasis to significant ideas in a paragraph.

1. *Balance*: Balance means to make various parts of the sentence parallel to one another, that is, equal importance to be given to two or more ideas in a statement. It could involve single words, phrases, clauses, or even whole sentences.
2. *Emphatic Position*: This device is used to give emphasis to the most important idea in the paragraph. It is usually the last sentence of the paragraph.
3. *Emphatic Words*: The use of certain words can also emphasize the writer’s point of view.

Apart from the above devices, repetition, expansion of ideas, and contrasting are other tools, which can be used. (These are discussed in the previous paragraph.)

4. *Revision*: Revising means to “relook” or “revisit” what has been written. After the first draft is written, the writer needs to read it, make necessary changes, and rewrite the draft again. The question is which areas should the learner “relook?” When we say revising, it is generally understood to look at the grammatical and spelling errors. However, that is just one part of it. Revising is done at the following two levels:

### *Level 1*

#### *Checking Whether*

- Ideas generated are on the topic on which writing is undertaken.
- Ideas have been organized according to their importance.

- A clear thesis statement is written which includes two/three points.
- Supporting details are written in each paragraph to develop them individually.
- Appropriate transitional words are used to interconnect the sentences within the paragraph.
- All paragraphs are interconnected with each other with the help of transitional words.
- Conclusion is written.

### Level 2

Checking errors in

- Subject–verb agreement.
- Wrong grammatical verb forms.
- Pronouns and their antecedents.
- Run-on sentences.
- Fragment sentences.
- Spelling errors.

Corrections at both levels are not done separately, that is, one after the other; both of them are interconnected to such an extent that one cannot be separated from the other. For example, if an idea has not been properly supported with details, then, while writing on those details attention has to be paid to the grammatical construction of sentences. If the grammar of the supporting sentences is not correct, the meaning of the details given will not prove effective. Therefore, we cannot really distinguish one level from the other.

The following diagram depicts the cyclical model of writing and the role “revision” in it (Figure 7.7).

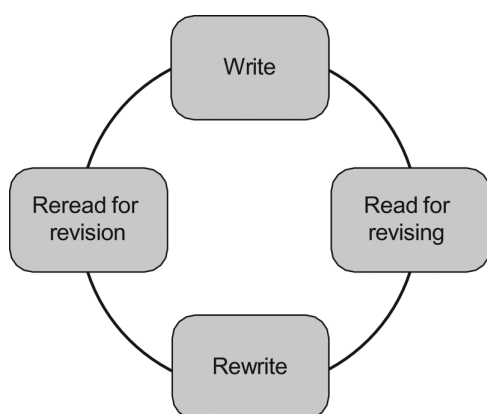


Figure 7.7 Cyclical model of writing and the role of revision.

Source: Vanikar and Mujumdar (1995).

Revision is a cyclical process, and as teachers, we need to undertake this activity in the classroom; we need to teach students the process of revising one’s own piece of writing. The writer needs to undertake a critical reading of the written text and diagnose/find out



the mistakes he/she has made. Then he/she needs to apply meaning-making strategies (cognitive) and reader-based strategies (affective) to the text. **Meaning-making/cognitive strategies** are those strategies which when used solve some intellectual tasks. The learner must determine the problem and then reorder materials or combine them with ideas. The strategies vary from the simple recall of materials/information to the highly original and creative ways of combining, synthesizing, and segmenting information/materials. These are used to develop the content/body/subject matter of the piece of writing. Some of the strategies useful for students and which **should be taught** to the students are:

- Adding/deleting/combining/segmenting sentences.
- Restructuring/substituting sentences.
- Expansion of clauses/phrases.
- Use of similes and metaphors.
- Order shift of sentences.
- Addition of verbal visuals/pictures.

**Reader-oriented strategies (affective level strategies)** are those strategies which when used help writers to reorient and recreate their text to suit reader needs. The strategies when used describe change in interest, attitudes, values, and opinions. They also emphasize feeling tone(s) and degree(s) of acceptance or rejection. Applying these strategies helps the reader to understand the writer's point of view. Some of the strategies that students can use to revise their text are:

- Addition/deletion of paragraphs.
- Order shift of paragraphs.
- Combining paragraphs.
- Addition of a concluding paragraph/sentence.
- Addition of question tags.
- Use of proverbs/quotes.
- Addition/deletion of examples.
- Addition of personal experiences/facts/background knowledge.
- Clarifying concepts.

When the learner is satisfied that the content is completely developed, that is he/she has written everything that he/she intended, then only the activity of **editing and proofreading** needs to be undertaken. This means that the time has come to relook the draft for spelling errors and incorrect grammatical constructions. If editing is done immediately after writing the first draft, the focus of the writer shifts from making meaning to language correction. This undue focus on language at an early stage of writing is likely to result in the written piece not being communicative or suitable to reader's needs. Once the content is fully developed, the focus can then shift to the grammatical aspect of the written piece of text.

Many students do not revise their written work because they assume that whatever they have written is clear to the reader as well. Some are lazy to revise their work, while **most of them do not revise** their written work because they **do not know how to do it**. The **duty of the teacher**, therefore, is to **teach students how to revise their written work**. If this is undertaken as a classroom activity, it will help learners to write in a communicative manner, which at present is lacking in their writing.

*Exception to the above Premise*

However, one needs to remember that process writing is not suitable for all types of writing that one must undertake at various points in time. For instance, journalists are not able to follow the process approach. They do not have that kind of time to write drafts after drafts. They must write their reports in real time in the form of an inverted pyramid, presenting at first the most newsworthy details questioning the “who,” “what,” “when,” “where,” “why,” and “how” of the news followed by important details and then stating background information—different kind of an organization than the writing of an essay/paragraph. Thus, the use of the process approach, therefore, may not be applicable here. It varies with the nature of the writing task/activity involved.

It is likely that while learning a foreign language, the learner may have just enough time to acquire a functional command of the language, and not master it. In such cases also, process writing may not be useful as it consumes a large amount of time. The emphasis in such cases is to familiarize the learner with conventions of various genres in the shortest possible time.

The teacher, before teaching writing through the process approach, needs to ensure at which level of learning this pedagogical tool could be applicable. In the long run, to take the learners through the process approach is to make them effective writers.

*Conclusion*

Once you have developed the content of the topic, it is important to summarize what you have written. Like the Introduction, Conclusion could also be of various types. It could be kept simple by summarizing and restating the main points, or you could even write the limitations, constraints, or even write one’s own point of view. A proverb, an anecdote, or a rhetorical question could also be used to sum up the entire content of what is written.

**Different Forms of Writing**

In the last section, we looked at the writing process and the different stages that a student goes through, though not in a linear manner. Cohesive devices are integral to the act of writing, and they bind the text together. The details of all the cohesive devices are given in Appendix 6.

Different kinds of writing activities are undertaken. We may be writing a letter, filling out an admission or a reservation form or even writing a paragraph by looking at a visual, a flow chart, or by reading a map. Each type of writing generally follows the same process learned earlier, but they are different in structure, content, and language use. That means letter writing is not the same as essay writing or filling up a form. Each is distinct in its own way. Students also need to know these different forms of writing. We cannot just give a task based on any one of them and ask them to write. They require our support; we need to facilitate them so that they can write. **It is important therefore to teach students the differences in the various forms because understanding differences means meaning-making, making them learn how to write.** Let us look into the various forms of writing activity that teachers can undertake in the classroom to develop the writing skills of their students. Teaching them various forms of writing, such as filling up of forms, reading a map, understanding a visual, keeping diaries, writing conversations/

dialogues, letters, paragraphs/essays, reports, and so on constitute the **traditional and the non-traditional** forms of writing.

### *Filling of Forms*

This is a common activity that each one of us has to do in our daily life, whether it is to seek admission in school, college, reserving/canceling a berth on a train, or booking/canceling a flight ticket, opening or closing a bank account, depositing transferring money, and so on. For numerous purposes, one has to fill out forms. If the form is duly filled, it gets accepted or else it gets rejected, that is, if the form is incomplete or not filled properly then the work for which it is filled remains undone. Therefore, filling in forms is a very important activity.

### *What Are Its Salient Features?*

To fill a form, one does not need to produce a long piece of text running into pages. You require **information** which, at the most, is two or three words. Or, if it is an address, then it may be about two phrases/clauses at the most. The important point to note is that the vocabulary used must be **accurate**. The most common example of this type is the label that every book has, revealing the identity of the student or denoting the ownership of the book.

Name:	Rucha D. Ketkar
Class:	X B
School:	Delhi Public school, Vadodara

Source: Author

You can see from the above example that very accurate information is required.

More detailed information is required when you wish to take membership of a swimming club. Look at another example:

Name:	Rucha D. Ketkar
Age:	11 years
Date of birth:	20.09.2000
Father's name:	Dev G. Ketkar
Father's occupation:	Service
Address:	A-25, Gajanan Society, Ellora Park, Vadodara
Name of the school:	Delhi Public School
Sports:	Badminton, table tennis
Hobbies:	Reading books, listening to music

Source: Author.

In the above example, you can see that a lot of personal information is written which are pure facts, precise, and accurate. No extra information is provided apart from what is asked.

## Information Transfer

This is another type of writing activity in which a learner is required to write a paragraph, reading and interpreting a graph, a chart, a table, or giving directions based on a map. This transfer of nonverbal skills to verbal form (writing a paragraph or report) develops composing or writing skills in learners. It is an important study skill, which helps learners develop analytical faculties and is particularly useful to them in their study of subjects such as mathematics, science, history, and so on. In fact, form filling is also a type of information transfer if the form is being filled in while listening to the text being spoken.

Let us understand this with the help of an example. The following is the description of Rucha's school (same example as above) and this description is being transferred into a graphic form.

## Sample Text

*I study at Delhi Public School. In front of my school, there is a park named Atmajyoti Park and behind there is a huge playground where Garba festival is held. To the left of my school there is Big Bazaar, a huge supermarket; next to it is the Centre Square Mall. On the right of the school is a big building, which houses the famous Meridian Hospital.*

The graphic prepared will look something like the picture drawn below (Figure 7.8).

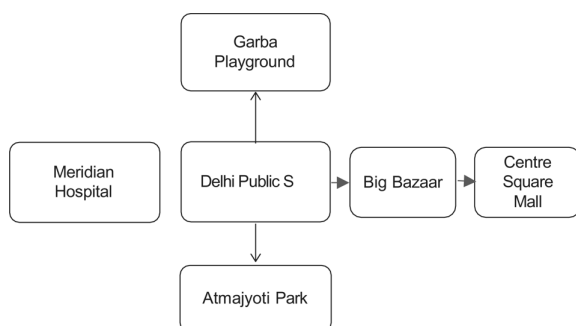


Figure 7.8 Example of information transfer.

Source: Author.

Another example of information transfer could also be that some points are given as below and using the points, the students must write a different kind of text.

You are visiting Baroda (an important tourist destination in western India) for the first time and have visited several tourist places. Write a letter to your friend describing the beauty of the places given in Table 7.1.

*Table 7.1 Information Transfer (Points to Text)*

<i>Place of Interest</i>	<i>Description of Place</i>
Laxmi Vilas Palace	Residence of the Maharaja Sayajirao Gaekwad
MS University	Educational institution
Champaner	UNESCO Heritage site
EME Temple	Made of metal used for making defense aircraft
Aurobindo Ashram	Place of Shri Aurobindo's residence (one of the great philosophers of India)

### Picture Composition

Pictures are a great resource for developing the writing skills of learners. This can be used at all levels—beginning to the advanced level. Andrew Wright lists several advantages of the use of pictures.

#### *Pictures*

- Motivate learners by making them a part of the narrative,
- Bring the real world into the classroom and provide a context for language learning,
- Help to provide various responses; can be interpreted or responded in various ways according to the level of learners,
- Provide information that could lead to conversation, discussion, storytelling, and various other skills,
- Provide scope for meaningful and authentic use of language.

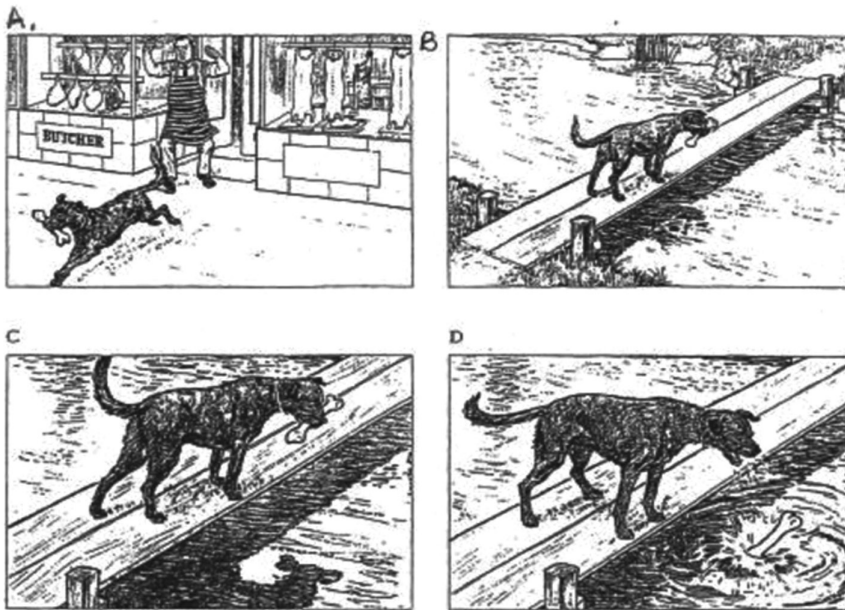
Though pictures can be found everywhere, in newspapers, magazines, comic books, textbooks, story books, and so on, the most important point to note is that all pictures are not suitable for all levels of learners. The intellectual level of learners needs to be kept in mind while selecting pictures; tasks then need to be prepared based on the selected picture.

Let us look at the below task, based on pictures to help learners develop their writing skills.

#### Task 1

All of us are familiar with the story presented in the image given further. Ask learners to speak a few sentences based on each picture. Help students build a story on these pictures. This type of activity can be used for learners at the lower level. First, it could be a group activity, but later the story must be written at the individual level.

## Answer Questions on a Story: Dog Story



Source: Byrne (1967). (More tasks can be accessed from Appendix 6.)

## Diaries

A diary is a personal record of the events, feelings, and emotions that a person encounters in daily life. Therefore, the entries are usually individualistic and personal. We do not need to write complete sentences. Some words/phrases in the form of points/notes are sufficient clues of what the writer wants to note. Thoughts and feelings are often expressed in a disconnected manner as they flash through the mind. Often abbreviations are used, and hence in a diary entry, one does not find complete sentences. At times, ambiguity or even a disconnected thought process is observed. Let us understand this form of writing activity with the help of a task.

Given further is a page from Anjela's diary. Note that she has written her events of the day in form of points. The writing task would be to rewrite this diary entry in the form of a continuous paragraph.

*Woke up at 7—mom not at home—granny says gone to the hospital—worried—dad comes home at 8—leaves me at school—I want to go to hospital, dad says “no”—evening dad pick me up from school— all smiles—we go straight to hospital—how nice to see mom—oh! baby brother, so soft, cuddly like a doll—I’ll call him JoJo—I am big sister now—today happiest day of my life.*

This kind of activity allows for writing complete sentences. All the sentences need to be linked with cohesive devices so that a coherent paragraph is written.

## Letters

All of us write letters for various reasons. We may write letters to our cousins, friends, and relatives, or we may even write letters to people whom we do not know, yet with who we want to communicate. Today, in the technological age, even sending emails is a type of writing a letter. The purpose of every letter is to inform, invite, enquire, complain, congratulate, express sympathy, order goods, and so on. Every letter has a writer, a reader, and a situation. Depending on the purpose, writing letters can be divided into two types: formal and informal.

**Formal letters** are written for business purposes, for example, complaint letters, application for a job, ordering products, enquiring prices of products, interview call letters, appointment letters, seeking permission, and so on. These letters are usually written to people whom we do not know on a personal level or whom we have not met at all, or have met for business reasons, or those people who hold a higher designation than us. For example, a teacher/student writing to a principal/teacher at a school would write a formal letter, and not an informal one. Then the structure of a formal letter is presented (Figure 7.9).

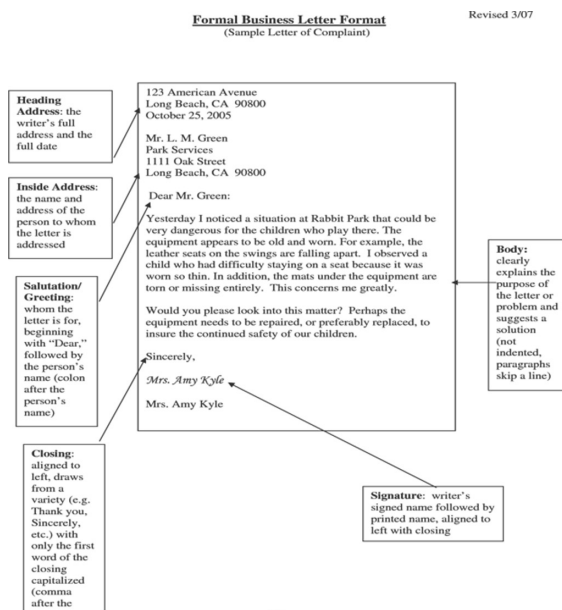


Figure 7.9 Formal business letter.

Source: [https://www.google.com/search?q=image+of+a+formal+letter&rlz=1C5CHFA\\_enIN549IN552&espv=2&biw=1280&bih=635&tbm=isch&imgil=LJRN3EPALugNYM%253A%253BZLRc2HyNIEBloM%253Bhttp%25253A%25252F%25252Fwww.goodletterwriting.com%25252Fformalletters.html&source=iu&pf=m&fir=LJRN3EPALugNYM%253A%252CZLRc2HyNIEBloM%252C\\_&usg=HrdTNYLZ4hlpu8RBsZCaJHHx1v8%3D&ved=0CDwQyjdqFQoTCKT\\_h\\_WEjsgCFceWiAodHRcOJg&ei=SxEDVuStDcetogSdrrriwAg#imgdii=LJRN3EPALugNYM%3A%3BLJRN3EPALugNYM%3A%3BOQ-Ef8RVUx8rOM%3A&imgsrc=LJRN3EPALugNYM%3A&usg=HrdTNYLZ4hlpu8RBsZCaJHHx1v8%3D..](https://www.google.com/search?q=image+of+a+formal+letter&rlz=1C5CHFA_enIN549IN552&espv=2&biw=1280&bih=635&tbm=isch&imgil=LJRN3EPALugNYM%253A%253BZLRc2HyNIEBloM%253Bhttp%25253A%25252F%25252Fwww.goodletterwriting.com%25252Fformalletters.html&source=iu&pf=m&fir=LJRN3EPALugNYM%253A%252CZLRc2HyNIEBloM%252C_&usg=HrdTNYLZ4hlpu8RBsZCaJHHx1v8%3D&ved=0CDwQyjdqFQoTCKT_h_WEjsgCFceWiAodHRcOJg&ei=SxEDVuStDcetogSdrrriwAg#imgdii=LJRN3EPALugNYM%3A%3BLJRN3EPALugNYM%3A%3BOQ-Ef8RVUx8rOM%3A&imgsrc=LJRN3EPALugNYM%3A&usg=HrdTNYLZ4hlpu8RBsZCaJHHx1v8%3D..)

Informal letters include all correspondence between friends, members of the family, relatives, and so on, within and outside the country. Emails are considered both formal and informal modes of communication because they are written for business as well as personal purposes. This form of writing is dealt with separately in this unit. Given further is the structure of an informal letter (Figure 7.10).

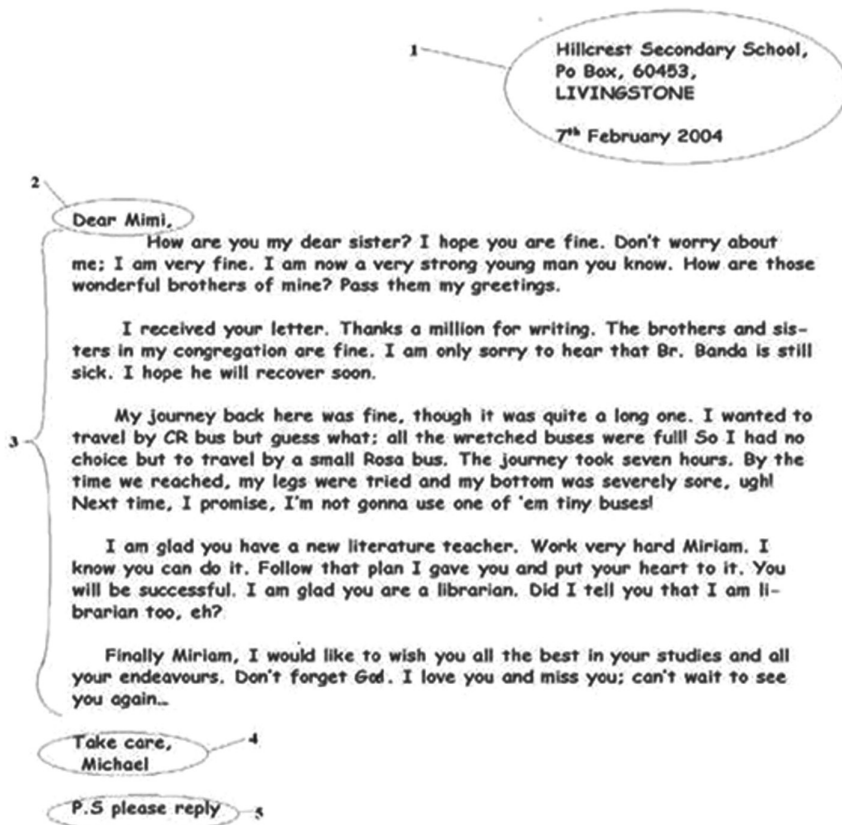


Figure 7.10 Informal letter.

Whether you write formal or informal letters, there are certain aspects that are common to both. Look at both the letters critically. Now, tabulate the differences between the two of them.

## Email Writing

In this age of globalization, the fastest tools of written communication are the email and fax. Electronic mail, often abbreviated as e-mail or email, is a method of exchanging digital messages. It has numerous advantages. It is fast, cheap, simple, efficient, and *environmentally* friendly because it saves tons of paper. It is also versatile because through email



one can send pictures, PowerPoint slides, etc., or other files. Another advantage of email is that it is easy to prioritize and filter. Unlike regular modes of written communication, one does not need to read, review, and scan all mails, and last, if the receiver's email ID is correct, rarely does it go astray.

On the other hand, one of the biggest disadvantages of email, like any written tool of communication, is it can become impersonal and can thus be misunderstood. Hence, it becomes necessary for the writer of an email to know its format, structure, etiquette, and language (Figure 7.11).

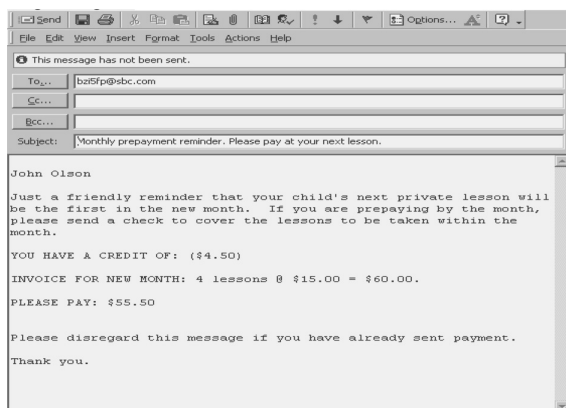


Figure 7.11 Structure of an email.

Source: Achar et al. (2011).

An email message consists of two components, the message *header* and the message *body*, which means content. In the message header, along with the receiver's name, there are names of people to whom copies of the message are sent. They are called carbon copy (cc:) and blind carbon copy (bcc:) fields. If there is an attachment to the mail, an icon representing the attachment can be seen. The addresses in the "cc:" fields are of those people who need to know about the subject but are not required to act on the contents. The "bcc:" field is useful where carefulness is required. People in this field are hidden away from other recipients in the "To," "cc:," and "bcc:" fields.

In emails, the **subject line** plays a very important role in prioritizing emails. Hence, one should take utmost care in writing the subject line. The subject line should be brief, which should provide a clue to the contents of the message. If the message is urgent one can begin the subject line by writing "Urgent:" or if it is an invitation, then you can even write "Invitation:" followed by the subject line.

The structure of an email is also known as the **body of the message**. It may be very similar to that of an informal letter. The essential parts of a message body are:

1. **Greetings:** Many people do not use a greeting/salutation in an email. In informal letters, it is advisable to use words such as "Hi!," "Hello," and "Dear" followed by the receiver's first name. "Good morning" and "Good Afternoon" do not make sense with email but one must be aware of the cultural differences. For example, if an Indian child writes to his grandfather, he/she must not write "Hi, Kirpal bhai!"

2. *Body*: This is the main body of the letter. It includes the message that the sender wants to convey to the receiver. It is often developed into paragraphs or short points.
3. *Closing*: There are three sub-parts to the closing of an email, namely, pre-closing, closing, and identification. The pre-closing and the closing must correspond with the degree of intimacy with the receiver. Identification is necessary because at times the sender's email ID does not reveal his/her name and the receiver might mistake the mail for spam or junk mail. The following table shows how salutation should correspond with pre-closing and closing.

<i>Salutation</i>	<i>Pre-closing</i>	<i>Closing</i>	<i>Identification</i>
Hi, Lekha,	See you soon; Hear from you soon; Tons of love	Best wishes; All the best; Cheers,	Sender's name
Hello, Mukesh,	I look forward to;	Regards; Kind	Sender's
Dear Nilam,	Looking forward to hearing from you	regards	name

4. *Signature*: Default signatures should be used only in official correspondence. They are not required in informal mail.

### *Language Used in an Email*

Language use in an email may greatly vary according to different contexts, the subject matter, and even the senders. In formal contexts like job applications, language may be more formal and similar to that of formal letters. In informal contexts like chatting between friends, language use may tend to be less formal and more intimate.

The following letter is an example of an informal invitation through email:

Hi Everyone,

My suggestion is, let's have a pot-luck dinner and bring snacks and soft drinks.... Please RSVP as soon as you can so that I can estimate how many people will be here and what everyone will bring.

Eagerly waiting for your response...

Amy

### *Etiquette in an Email*

In any mode of communication, a certain code of conduct has to be maintained. Since email has now emerged as a popular and powerful tool for communication, one must observe etiquette while using it.

The following are some pointers for informal emails:

1. Summarize your message in the subject line.
2. Keep your message precise and focused.
3. Avoid using all capital letters (uppercases). Use of capital letters is an equivalent of shouting.
4. Do not write anything you would not like to say in public. This mail can be forwarded easily and hence may put one in an embarrassing situation.

5. Use a smiley or emoticon to make sure that your statement or comment is not misunderstood.
6. Do not send or even respond to chain letters.
7. Abbreviation usage is quite widespread with email. To save keystrokes, users have traded clarity for confusion. Some of the more common abbreviations are listed in the table below.

<i>Abbreviation</i>	<i>Meaning</i>
LOL	Laugh out loud
BTW	By the Way
FYI	For your information
TTYL	Talk to you later
TC	Take care
TYT	Take your time

For more abbreviations you can go to: [http://www.serveronfire.com/Internet\\_Guide/abbreviations.htm](http://www.serveronfire.com/Internet_Guide/abbreviations.htm)

8. Avoid “flaming.” Flaming occurs when one sends messages with angry or aggressive content.

## Reports

A report is usually a technical document presenting information in a logical, orderly, and precise manner. The purpose of the report is to inform the reader about things that they do not know, hence all details need to be included. But at the same time, unnecessary details need to be avoided. This ensures **the completeness** of the report.

The report should be **accurate**. Hence any false information should be avoided.

There should be **clarity** in the report. It should be clear enough for the reader to understand and take action if necessary. The language should be simple; jargon and technical language should be avoided.

The salient features of a report can thus be summarized as under: A report is

- Brief, accurate, complete and clear.
- Usually written in third person.
- Includes only relevant details—there are no digressions.
- Avoids emotional overtones.
- Ideas are logically arranged.
- Language is simple, jargon is avoided.

## Techniques of Writing

The earlier section dealt with different types of writing that we write. The writer can choose from different techniques/forms to express his intent depending on the purpose of the writing. This purpose is informed if certain questions are answered such as:

- Why is the writing task being undertaken?
- Is it for entertainment?

- Is it for informing readers?
- Is it for presenting one's point of view?
- Is it for persuading the readers to accept one's points of view?

Answers to the above questions influence the type of choices the writer makes of the form he/she wants to adopt. This is a crucial decision the writer needs to take depending on how it is accepted by the readers. It means that the writer must **choose the right manner** to express his/her intent. For example, the writer may want to inform the reader of a situation. For this, expository technique is better than a narrative way of informing, or perhaps narrative could also be a part of the expository. If the writer needs to argue a point, then he/she can choose the argumentative form of writing. The writer has the prerogative to choose the kind of technique he/she wants to use to express his/her thoughts to suit the reader's needs and expectations. Choosing the appropriate technique is important; however, equally important is using appropriate vocabulary to convey the intended meaning.

Each technique/form has a unique structure, and it is important to know the distinctions between them. Let us look at some of them, which are useful for our students.

### *Descriptive Writing*

Descriptive writing involves the description of people, places, objects, or events using appropriate details. An effective description usually contains a sufficient and varied elaboration of details that are usually sensory and selected to describe what the writer sees, hears, smells, touches, and tastes. These paint a picture in the minds of the readers so that they become an integral part of the visual process. Word pictures are created that make writing more interesting, easier to understand, and contribute and support the topic the writer is describing. The use of these details also paints pictures of feelings and emotions.

How can students write an effective description? Some cues are given further that could be taught to them.

- Establish the intent, that is, how does one want the reader to feel.
- Choose two to three details to help create the atmosphere one wishes them to experience.
- Show! Don't Tell! This can be done by replacing linking verbs (is, are, were) with action verbs.
- Using figurative language such as analogies, similes, metaphor, to make real, but powerful comparisons.
- Choosing precise language and noting sensory details.
- Using specific adjectives, nouns, and strong action words to give life to the picture instead of general adjectives, nouns, and passive verbs.
- Descriptive writing is well organized based on the foundation of chronology (time), space (location), and prioritization.

### **Example of Descriptive Writing**

#### *A Friendly Clown*

On one corner of my dresser sits a smiling toy clown on a tiny unicycle—a gift I received last Christmas from a close friend. The clown's short yellow hair, made of yarn, covers its ears but is parted above the eyes. The blue eyes are outlined in black with thin, dark

lashes flowing from the brows. It has cherry-red cheeks, nose, and lips, and its broad grin disappears into the wide, white ruffle around its neck. The clown wears a fluffy, two-tone nylon costume. The left side of the outfit is light blue, and the right side is red. The two colors merge in a dark line that runs down the center of the small outfit. Surrounding its ankles and disguising its long black shoes are big pink bows. The white spokes on the wheels of the unicycle gather in the center and expand to the black tire so that the wheel somewhat resembles the inner half of a grapefruit. The clown and unicycle together stand about a foot high. As a cherished gift from my good friend Tran, this colorful figure greets me with a smile every time I enter my room.

*In the above paragraph, observe how the writer moves clearly from a description of the head of the clown (in sentences two, three, and four), to the body (sentences five, six, seven, and eight), to the unicycle underneath (sentence nine). Notice also how the concluding sentence helps to tie the paragraph together by emphasizing the personal value of this gift.*

Source: [grammar.about.com/od/developingparagraphs/a/samdescpors.htm](http://grammar.about.com/od/developingparagraphs/a/samdescpors.htm).

### ***Expository Writing***

Exposition refers to an act of explaining something or making it clear. The aim of the writer in expository writing is not primarily to narrate or describe; it is mainly to explain—facts, ideas, or beliefs. The writer must assume that the reader has no prior knowledge of the topic being described. Hence, every little detail must be written. This type of writing is distinct in terms of purpose, design, and function of language.

Techniques that can be used in expository writing are:

- Explanation of a process
- Use of examples
- Reasons in support of a statement
- Comparison and contrast
- Classification
- Restatement
- Definition
- Analogy
- Cause and effect
- Analysis

Expository writing involves different organizational patterns some of which are graphically presented further. The first example is the description. Olympic games in Paris are going to be held very shortly. Since most of you must be familiar with the Olympic games, the description of the logo is being given below.

### **Description**

The Olympic symbol consists of five interlocking rings. The rings represent the five continents—Africa, Asia, Europe, North America, and South America from where athletes

compete in the various events. The rings are colored red, black, yellow, blue, and green. At least one of these colors is found in the flag of the countries whose athletes come to participate in the games.

### Comparison

The modern Olympics is unlike the ancient Olympic Games. Individual events are different. While there were no swimming races in the ancient games, there were chariot races. No female athletes competed in the games while all athletes were males. Of course, the ancient and the modern Olympics are also alike in many ways. Some events like the javelin and discus throw are the same. Today, people are of the opinion that cheating, professionalism, and nationalism in modern games are a disgrace to the Olympic tradition. But ancient Greeks say that cheating, professionalism, and nationalism were also rampant in ancient times (Figure 7.12).

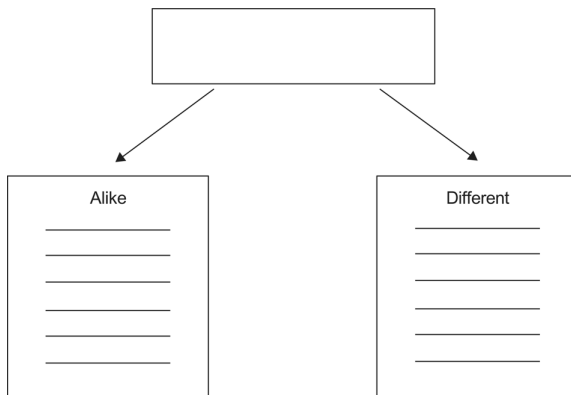


Figure 7.12 Comparison of points.

Source: Author.

### Cause and Effect

There are several reasons why so many people attend the Olympic Games. Or watch them on tele vision. One reason is tradition. The name Olympics and the torch and flame remind people of the ancient games. People can escape the ordinariness of daily life by attending or watching the Olympics. They like to identify with someone else's individual sacrifice and accomplishment. National pride is another reason an athlete's or a team's hard-earned victory becomes the nation's victory. There are national medal counts and people keep track of how many medals their country's athletes have won (Figure 7.13).

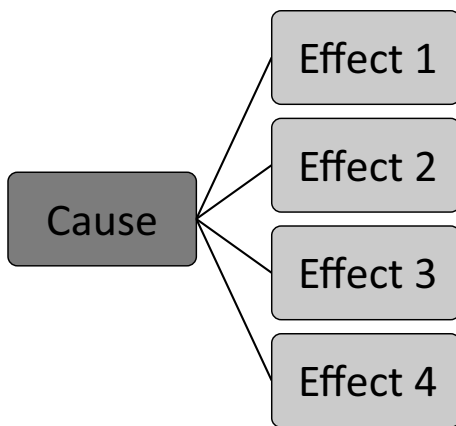


Figure 7.13 Cause and effect.

Source: Author.

### Problem and Solution

One problem with the modern Olympics is that it has become very big and expensive to operate. The city or country that hosts the Games often loses a lot of money. Stadiums, pools, and playing fields must be built for the athletic events; housing is needed for athletes who come from all over the world. And all of these facilities are used for only two weeks! In 1984, Los Angeles solved these problems by charging a fee to companies who wanted to be the official sponsors of the games. Companies like McDonald's paid a lot of money to be a part of the Olympics. Many buildings that were already built in the Los Angeles area were also used. The Coliseum, where the 1932 Games were held, was used again, and many colleges and universities in the area became playing and living sites.

One can thus see that expository writing along with its different organizational patterns is used in our daily life. Usually, any article from a book, magazine, or newspaper is of an expository nature where the objective of the author is to inform the reader of the topic being written. Even at schools, students have to submit assignments, which usually are of an expository nature. Therefore, students need to be taught how to write this form of writing.

### Narrative Writing

Narrative writing is an account of a sequence of events, usually in a chronological order. It can take various forms including personal essays, biographical sketches, and autobiographies in addition to short stories and plays. This type of writing could also be purely objective as in most scientific and technical writing. It can be used by highly imaginative scientists, scholars, and historians. Many historians narrate historical events bringing the past to the present for the benefit of the readers.

Narrative writing helps to "loosen up" and write naturally. "Telling" or "listening" to stories is so enjoyable that learning to write down adds comfort to the writer. But

“telling” a story is different from “writing” a story. If the narrator forgets certain points, he/she can always add them later, but in writing, the writer has to keep in mind the characters, theme, role played by each character, expressions, tone of voice, etc. Most importantly, the flow of the story should be maintained while keeping the readers in mind. A completely developed narrative fiction has a central theme that is introduced at the beginning, followed by its development, an eventful middle, and memorable end.

Adopting this form of writing, the author needs to bring to life his subject by

- Using “Wh” questions—who, what, where, when, why, and how, which would make the basic story structure realistic and exciting.
- Using concrete vivid language to show readers what is happening.
- Using visual elements to involve readers.

### **Persuasive Writing**

This type of writing is all about trying to convince the reader to change their opinions and sway them with logic, moral appeals, and emotional language. The author places an argument and then tries to convince the readers of the writer’s point of view. It also involves convincing the readers to perform an action. Effective persuasion in the written form is accomplished through a combination of a clearly expressed position that is supported by various examples and evidences. The elements that can build an effective persuasive paragraph are the following:

- Establishing facts—to support an argument.
- Clarifying relevant values for the readers.
- Prioritizing editing and/or sequencing the facts and values.
- Forming and stating conclusions.
- Persuading readers that conclusions are based upon facts and shared values.
- Having the confidence to persuade.

Strategies to write persuasive writing are as follows:

1. Using repetition.
2. Using metaphors, analogies, and similes to relate writing to something that the reader can relate to so that acceptance is immediate.
3. Using a story or anecdote to make readers understand your point of view.
4. Addressing objections.
5. Quoting famous people.
6. Using rhetorical questions.
7. Using predictions or questions in conclusions so that readers’ thinking is activated.

I would like to end this section by writing about **argumentative writing** as it bears similarity to persuasive writing. But there are distinct differences between the two, which are tabulated in Table 7.2.



Table 7.2 Distinction between Persuasive and Argumentative Writing

<i>Persuasive</i>	<i>Argumentative</i>
1 Objective <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>To “win” the reader over to the author’s side.</li> </ul>	Objective <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Present a valid argument and allow the reader to adopt a position either to agree or disagree with the writer’s position.</li> <li>Accept it as another point of view that merits further thought and discussion.</li> </ul>
2 <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Only one side of the issue is presented/debated.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Both sides of the issue are presented—one to substantiate one’s own position and to refute the opposing argument.</li> </ul>
3 <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>In organization, a basic essay format is followed.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Statement is made followed by claims and counterclaims.</li> </ul>

Use of the first person is not advisable, but the use of statistics, expert quotations, and other evidence can be used for supporting or for rebuttal. It should be noted that if information from other sources is used, the source needs to be acknowledged otherwise it may amount to plagiarism. A separate chapter on plagiarism is included in this book.

The writer thus has a repertoire of forms to choose from to express his/her intent. However, the point that needs mentioning is that these forms are not “watertight compartments” in which there is no space for other forms to mingle and integrate. Just as to teach language a teacher cannot afford to use only one approach/method, disregarding the others, similarly, the boundaries of these forms are porous, and a writer can **use an eclectic approach** to convey thoughts and ideas. For example, a writer may choose to write a narrative in which a description of certain aspects highlights the entire sequence of events. The narrative mode thus forms an outline in which description becomes an integral component, each retaining its distinctiveness and identity.

### Writing Strategies

Effective instruction starts with meaningful writing tasks that integrate a variety of skills, build competencies, require critical thinking, and employ appropriate resources. Look at the figure given below (Figure 7.14).



Figure 7.14 Writing strategies.

Source: Author.

As mentioned at the beginning of the chapter, writing is not just placing words according to a given set of rules. It involves orchestrating the use of appropriate structures, vocabulary, organization skills, punctuation, cohesion of sentences at the paragraph level, and using all the techniques such as defining, explaining, providing examples to consider whether the meaning or the intent is being conveyed to the audience. This also means that sub-skills of writing need to be taught to the students but ultimately it is to be seen that students can combine them to write a coherent and cohesive piece of text. **Writing needs to be taught to the students and taken up as an activity in the classroom and not given as homework. Looking at the writing, teachers can provide meaningful feedback to the students that they can incorporate into their revised text.**

**What is meaningful feedback?** The section on revision, early in this chapter, discussed the kind of feedback teachers need to provide on student writing. However, to make it clearer, it is graphically presented in Figure 7.15.

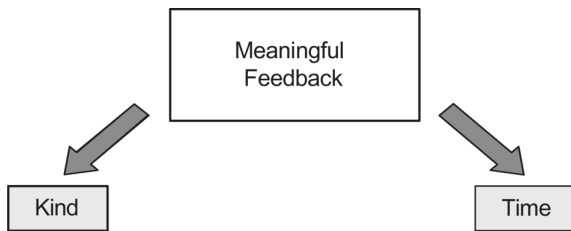


Figure 7.15 Meaningful feedback.

#### *Focus on Organization*

- Focus on developing content.
- Focus on using cohesive markers.
- Focus on the use of examples, personal experiences, etc.
- Focus on coherence.
- Focus on use of appropriate words.

*Source:* Author, 37th RELC Conference, 2002.

As a *Common Reader* and Editor in the First and Second drafts  
 (Raising the issues of Content, Style, Consistency, and Organization)  
 As a *Proof Reader* in subsequent drafts (Focusing on accuracy)

The test of a coherent piece of writing is when the reader understands what the author is trying to convey. The reader will understand the meaning only when there is an amalgamation of all the necessary sub-skills. This can happen only when the students are taken through the process of writing multiple drafts of the same piece of writing. In this collaborative effort, teachers first teach sub-skills through integrated tasks and make the students use them. Teachers then give feedback on students' writing, which they incorporate in their subsequent drafts. All writing strategies thus should be used by teachers in this cyclical process of writing Read–Write–Revise (graphically discussed earlier in the

chapter) to develop the writing skills of students. These strategies are universal; they can be used at all levels—primary, secondary, and tertiary. It is the teacher who has to decide how to go about developing the writing skills of students.

### To Summarize

1. Writing is a highly goal-oriented, intellectual performance, involving both thinking and strategic action.
2. Writing can and should be taught in the classroom.
3. Writing tasks should be relevant and contextual.
4. Teachers need to follow the process approach to writing.
5. Writing strategies must be taught through integrated tasks and used in class through a written piece of text.
6. Teachers must provide meaningful feedback on student writing to develop their writing skills.
7. Cohesion and coherence are integral to any writing. Using cohesive devices makes the text “flow.”
8. Teaching students how to write in different genres would help them to undertake different kinds of writing in their future life.

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## 8 Syntax and Developing Grammar Skills

Before starting this chapter on teaching grammar, let me explain a little about syntax and its relationship to grammar.

### Syntax

As future teachers of the English language, it is important to know the meaning of “syntax.” Just as morphology is the study of words and phonology is the study of sounds, similarly, syntax is the study of sentences and their structure in the English language. The word “syntax,” originally derived from Greek, means “putting together” or “arrangement,” and when applied to language it means sequencing or ordering the elements in the sentence(s). Let us historically look into this linear arrangement of words.

Prior to 1950, this study acquired a lot of significance, and its study was undertaken under the broader approach of structuralism. Basically, structuralism, as propounded by Ferdinand de Saussure, analyzed human phenomena such as language, literature, and culture. Structural linguistics viewed this as a structured system with mutually interrelated elements such as phonemes, morphemes, words, and phrases. Within this broader area of structural linguistics, a particular school of the analysis of linguistic data emerged from the United States of America, under the intellectual leadership of Leonard Bloomfield, called the descriptive linguistics. The objective of this approach was to describe all observable elements of the structure of the language. Descriptive linguistics was highly empiricist and asked the question of **what** the linguistic data were and **how** they were structured. They never asked the question of **why it occurred the way they did**. Analysis of language was done based on breaking down sentences into clauses, phrases, words, and so on, which came to be called the **IC Analysis or the Immediate Constituent Analysis**. This was also based on the premise that language acquisition is a stimulus–response, and the human mind had no role to play. An example of IC Analysis is given further will clarify the concept.

### Immediate Constituent Analysis

The purpose of Immediate Constituent Analysis was to understand the way sentences are structured, as well as discover the deep meaning of the intended sentence and perhaps how it might be better expressed. In the example, the sentence has been broken down into its numerous constituents (Figure 8.1).

The sentence “My dog Aristotle bit the postal carrier on the ankle” has been broken down into subject, predicate, noun phrase, and verb phrase. Further, as shown in the

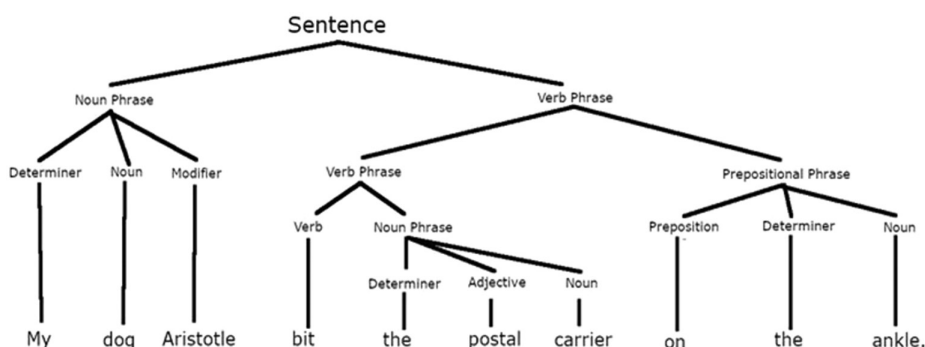


Figure 8.1 Immediate constituent analysis.

Source: Nordquist, R. 2019.

above graphic, verb phrases are further divided into determiners, adjectives, prepositional phrases, etc., until they cannot be broken down further. The question is, what purpose does it solve? The most important purpose is to identify the structure of a given sentence, discover its meaning, and explore alternative ways of expressing the meaning.

However, Noam Chomsky, who came up with the view of generative grammar, challenged this view by the middle of the century. He argued that since only human beings can use language in a creative manner, the human mind is bound to be involved in the production of language. He further elaborated that there are certain innate characteristics in humans that allow them to learn a language. These innate characteristics are language-specific, or the rules of the language operate at an abstract level, which fall under the rubric of **Universal Grammar**. The study of language thus allows one to understand the organization of the thought process of the human mind. It allows us to understand the deeper meaning that lies underneath the linear structure of words. Syntax, thus, was not only the constituent analysis of sentences, but it came to occupy a central position in generative linguistics. Then what is the relationship between grammar and syntax?

**Syntax** refers to the system of rules, the order of words and phrases to form a proper sentence in a particular language. It is a system that tells you which word should be placed first before another word to make complete intended sense. Look at the following three sentences.

1. The news of passing the test was conveyed **happily**.
2. **Happily**, the news of passing the test was conveyed.
3. The news of passing the test was **happily** conveyed.

In all three sentences, only the position of the word “happily” has changed. This change in the position of the word “happily” has changed the meaning of the sentences. This is what syntax brings to the meaning of the sentence.

Grammar, on the other hand, is a methodical study of a particular language that includes the rules related to syntax, morphology, phonology, and semantics. These rules help to construct and frame proper sentences that reveal meaning. There are two types of grammar: **Prescriptive grammar** that contains a set of rules that determine the correct use

of language that is vocabulary, spelling, syntax; and **Descriptive grammar** that logically examines why language is used. Before we proceed further into the teaching of grammar, let us understand the key differences between syntax and grammar (Table 8.1).

Table 8.1 Difference between Syntax and Grammar

<i>Syntax</i>	<i>Grammar</i>
Syntax implies the set of rules that define the way in which words and phrases are organized, to make coherent sentences.	Grammar refers to the study of word classes, their conjugation, functions, and relation in a particular sentence.
Syntax is a part of grammar, indicating the way in which the words are sequenced to create sentences.	Grammar is a branch of linguistics, which is concerned with syntax, morphology, semantics, and phonology.
Syntax tells you how to arrange the words in a sentence, based on the declarative, interrogative, negative, affirmative, or exclamatory sentence.	Grammar is all about creating a logical and meaningful sentence. It will tell you how language works and how words are used.
Syntax is the study of the principles and processes whereby words and other components of sentence structure are put together to create grammatically correct sentences.	Grammar helps you to understand the laws of language and the appropriate way of using the language both in speech and in writing.

Source: Adapted from <https://keydifferences.com/difference-between-syntax-and-grammar.html>.

In conclusion, the syntax is inclusive in grammar teaching. When we say that we are teaching grammar, we not only teach the rules of syntax but also position the words according to the meaning they need to convey to the audience. So let us first test ourselves about grammar teaching and move forward.

### Test yourself on grammar before you go into this chapter.

Mark each of the following statements. If you agree, mark it with a tick (✓); if you disagree, mark it with a cross (X), and if undecided mark it with a question (?)

<i>Teacher Beliefs and Notions</i>		
1.	Most grammar rules have exceptions.	
2.	It is best to give a rule before you do practice exercises.	
3.	Examples are more important than rules.	
4.	Knowing a rule does not mean you can use the language better.	
5.	Students need to know terms such as <i>present perfect</i> , <i>imperative</i> , etc.	
6.	The third person-s is really not important!	
7.	Fill-in exercises are best done orally.	
8.	All students need both oral and written practice.	
9.	Free practices are best omitted unless students do them well.	
10.	Grammar will always be the “boring bit” of a language course.	

To teach grammar or not to teach grammar of a language has been the topic of many debates across the world. The argument put forth is that we do not teach the rules of L1, so why one should teach the rules of L2? L1 rules get internalized because of exposure to the language right from the birth of a child, but that is not the case with learning a second language. In countries like India where there are as many official languages as there are regions, if the second language is learned in a natural setting, then automatically the rules of the second language get internalized. For example, a child born in a Marathi-speaking family in the state of Gujarat where the regional language is Gujarati, will pick up the rules of the Gujarati language from birth because the societal language is Gujarati. But when we talk of English as a second language, this argument does not hold good because English in India, though an associate official language of the country, is learned in classroom settings. The exposure to the English language for students studying in regional medium schools is very limited (6 hours per week) as compared to the students studying in English-medium schools (approximately 36 hours per week as all subjects are taught in the English language), and therefore the necessity of teaching the English language.

The point now is **what to teach** and **how to teach it**.

Let us first begin by defining the meaning of “grammar.” It is generally thought of as rules that govern the ordering of words in each sentence structure. *Longman Dictionary of Applied Linguistics* defines grammar as “a description of a structure of a language and the way in which units such as words and phrases are combined to produce sentences in the language” (Richard, Platt, and Weber 1985). The rules of grammar state that for a correct grammatical construction “the subject should be followed by a verb, followed by an object” (SVO construction). Strictly adhering to the above-mentioned SVO construction, the following sentences are grammatically correct sentences, though sentence “1b” may not appeal to human reasoning:

- 1a. The dog bit the man.
- 1b. The man bit the dog.

Let us consider the following two definitions:

Grammar may be roughly defined as the way language manipulates and combines words (or bits of words) to form longer units of meaning.

Grammaring is the ability to use lexico-grammatical structures accurately, meaningfully, and appropriately.

(Larsen-Freeman 2003)

Both definitions when analyzed reveal that grammar is not only about placing words within a stipulated structure to form sentences but an element of “meaning” is embedded in the structure. The “-ing” form in the definition by Larsen-Freeman (2003) also reveals that grammar is not static but dynamic, evolving with changes in language use.

### *Basic Concepts in Grammar*

Many grammarians distinguish between **Prescriptive** and **Descriptive** grammar. Both kinds of grammar are concerned with rules—but in different ways.

**Prescriptive grammar** is a set of rules and examples dealing with the syntax and word structures of a language, usually intended as an aid to the learning of that language. It lays down rules of what is right and what is wrong as certain people think it should be used; for example, learning when to use words such as *their/there*, or how to name parts of speech, or what a prepositional phrase is, and so on. It also lays down rules like not to start a sentence with a conjunction, or not to end a sentence with a preposition, and so on. It does not accept any change in language.

**Descriptive grammar**, on the other hand, is a systematic study and description of a language. It is called descriptive because it describes what native speakers are doing with the language and tries to build a set of rules that will model on the same behavior. It sets out to describe the way people use the language; there are no hard and fast rules in this type of grammar. The main aim of this type of grammar is on the behavior of language; changes in the language are acceptable.

This brings us to the question of what to teach in grammar. There are two types of knowledge that learners need to know: Declarative and Procedural.

**Declarative knowledge** is the knowledge about something. This knowledge enables students to describe the rules of grammar and apply them in pattern practice drills. Knowing this, students can identify parts of speech for related words and place the correct word with endings in practice. For example, from the word “care,” students can make the words “careful” and “carefully,” but they are unable to use these words in appropriate places in lengthy pieces of spoken or written discourse—in speech or in paragraphs and essays. It is noticed that L2 learners may be able to state the grammar rule correctly but may fail to apply the rule while speaking. Many a time we have heard the expression:

*Drive carefully on the road.*

The only positive of this knowledge is that it enables students to know the language rules. In this type of knowledge, the **focus is on forms—word endings and syntactic categories**.

**Procedural knowledge** is **how** to do something. It enables students to apply the rules of grammar to communication. Let us take the example of the word “please.” Not only is this word used to make requests, but the tone of the imperative sentence changes with its use as in the following sentences

- 1a. Complete the work immediately.
- 1b. Please complete the work immediately.
- 1c. Complete the work immediately, please.

On analysis, we understand that the word “please” separates formality from authority. Sentence 1a is authoritative, while 1b is assertive, and 1c is more pleading.

Learners use this knowledge clearly and correctly through communicative practice and inductive strategies without knowing the rules. The use of these rules requires higher-order thinking skills and critical analytical thinking for developing the meaning of grammatical forms for productive use. The **focus is on use and meaning and helps develop fluency over accuracy**.



### **Declarative Knowledge**

Focus on form

### **Procedural Knowledge**

Focus on use and meaning

Develops fluency

Requires analytical thinking and use of grammar rules

## **Principles of Teaching Grammar**

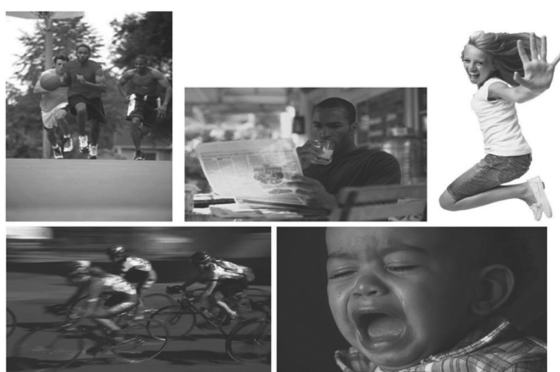
### *Integrating Inductive and Deductive Methods into Teaching*

The use of deductive and inductive method depends on the grammar point being taught. In **deductive teaching**, the teacher explains the grammar rules followed by a set of exercises designed to clarify the grammar point and help learners master it. In **inductive learning, teaching** the abovementioned process is reversed. Examples are provided to the learners through samples of language and through the process of guided discovery allowing students to discover the rules.

Carefully study the given activities:

### *Activity 1*

In Activity 1, students have to identify and match the following activities by looking at the pictures given below: girl jumping, boys cycling, boys playing basketball, baby crying, drinking tea, and reading the newspaper.



Source: Microsoft Word clip arts.

### *Activity 2*

In Activity 2, students listen to the following conversation, relate it to the pictures, and practice similar types of conversations using different activities from those given above.

**Ria:** What are you doing over the weekend?

**Satish:** I'm going cycling.

*Ria:* Oh, really? Where?

*Satish:* On the Al Amerat trail route.

*Ria:* That sounds like fun.

Which of the above-mentioned teaching sequences is an example of the deductive and inductive approach? Which grammar point is being discussed?

*Use Tasks That Make Clear the Relationship between Grammatical Form and Communicative Function*

When one teaches a grammar item, the tendency of the teacher is to present it in isolation as grammar is considered an abstract system of rules. Isolated sentences given as grammar tasks fail to give learners a proper context for the grammar point. Consider the following two tasks:

*Task 1*

Look at the following three sentences. Understand the tense of each sentence according to the action words. Make the sentences in past tense.

1. Yesterday James went to the market.
2. Ahmed wants to buy a pair of trousers.
3. Lily has seen a beautiful dress in the Orbit Mall.

*Task 2*

Fill in the blanks by choosing the appropriate verb form from the options given in the brackets:

Yesterday, James \_\_\_\_\_ (goes/is going/went) to the market. He \_\_\_\_\_ (was wanting/wanted/ is wanting) to buy a pair of trousers which he \_\_\_\_\_ (has seen/saw/had seen) in the Orbit Mall.

If the students are presented with the sentences as Task I to understand the concept of tenses, then these isolated sentences may not make any meaning to some of the students. On the other hand, the same sentences if placed in a context, the students would be able to understand the grammar of the sentence from the context and understand the concept of tenses. Therefore, while teaching, **the teacher should present the grammar in a context that makes clear the relationship between the grammatical form and the communicative function.** Task 1 does not give students any insights into the communicative context in which they should use the past tense form of the verbs. The key is to **show why** that form is used.

*Focusing on the Development of the Procedural Rather than the Declarative Knowledge*

As explained in the earlier section, declarative knowledge is knowing the language rules while procedural knowledge is being able to use the knowledge for communication.

As explained earlier is the fact that students may have declarative knowledge but do not know how to use it and vice versa. Learners need to know both kinds of knowledge, and therefore it becomes important for teachers to provide activities and tasks so that both types of knowledge are developed.

## Classroom Practices

### *Traditional Method*

In traditional teaching, the emphasis is on the relationship of the classes of words, parts of speech, and how these classes of words function grammatically at the sentence level. Look at the following two examples:

#### *Example 1*

What parts of speech are the bolded italicized words in the following sentence?

*London* is a *city* in the *United Kingdom*.

All are nouns which can be subdivided into proper nouns and common nouns.

#### *Example 2*

Look at the bolded italicized words in the following sentences and state the function they perform: Paris is a *city* in France.

Sarah bought a *town house* in Muscat. Stop here for a real *Muscat* experience.

All the italicized words are still nouns, but they do not perform the function of nouns. Their function has changed and so has the meaning.

**Traditional method** of teaching is done with the help of textbooks, with different stages following one after the other as given in the following graphic: (Figure 8.2).

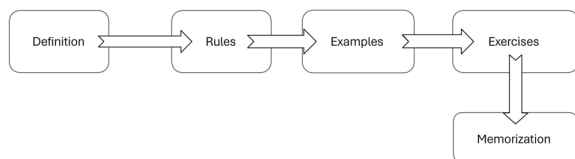


Figure 8.2 Traditional method of teaching grammar

Source: Author

It is assumed that the methodology followed, like the one cited earlier, along with focused practice results in the learning of grammar items, which can be graphically represented as follows: (Figure 8.3).

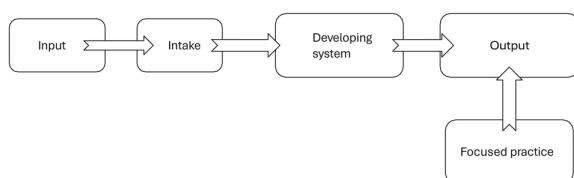


Figure 8.3 Focused practice of teaching grammar.

Source: Author.

According to Lee and Van Patten (2003), traditional approaches to teaching grammar are problematic as they require students to produce output immediately as demonstrated in the diagram given above. While production does help with fluency and accuracy, it does not mean grammar has developed in the internal system. While internalizing, an implicit system is created within every individual, which is dependent upon the input, which is again both comprehensible and meaningful. Whatever may be the merits of this method of teaching, there are certain limitations which cannot be ignored.

This method

- Fails to distinguish between the way words are formed and how it functions in a sentence.
- No attempt is made to analyze grammar as a tool of communication.
- No connection is made between connecting sentences for written and spoken discourse.
- Fosters rote learning.
- Educational principles are compromised.

The least interesting and cumbersome process of learning the grammar of a language.

### Functional-notional/Situational Method

This approach focuses on how **form**, **meaning**, and **use** are interrelated, and how they need to be developed in all four language skill areas communicatively. Generally, this approach deals with three basic questions:

1. What does it mean?
2. When/Why it is used?
3. How is a given utterance or sentence formed?

The main objective of functional grammar is to explain language in terms of what people do with it and how they use the language in live contexts. It is the use of language to perform a **function**, which is a kind of communicative act, the purpose usually being interaction, involving at least two people. Examples would be suggesting, promising, apologizing, greeting, and inviting. “Inviting” may include phrases such as “Would you like to ...?”, “I suggest...,” “How about ...?”, “Please ...,” and so on. This approach analyzes understanding grammar by looking at it in a communicative context in which it occurs. Here, two quotes by Larsen-Freeman (2003) hold good. She says,

“We need to see how far, meaning and use are systematically interrelated” and  
*“While grammar does indeed involve form in order to communicate, language users also need to know the meaning of the forms and when to use them appropriately.”*

As mentioned above, though the form of words is important, equally important is its use for meaningful communication. According to her, **grammar is simply not about form; it is about meaning as well. Grammar should not be thought about as a discreet set of meaningless decontextualized static structures but should be used to express meaning in an appropriate contextual situation.** Hence, she advocates teachers to work in a grammatical frame of reference which is given in Figure 8.4.

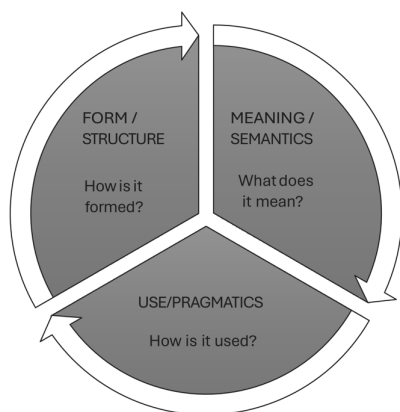


Figure 8.4 Teaching grammar through communicative context.

Sources: Adapted from Larsen Freeman (2001) and Celce-Murcia (1999).

As the pie diagram suggests, all wedges of the pie are not placed in any hierarchy. Teaching grammar must thus be **three-dimensional**: first concerning **form**, second concerning **meaning** it has to convey, and third the **pragmatic condition** depicting it, that is, when and why it is used. The arrows connecting one segment of the wedge with another are **not unidirectional** suggesting interconnectedness of all three dimensions. Despite the permeable boundaries, any shift in one of the dimensions is bound to affect the other two. Thus, it is important that teachers help students to “notice” the form and the meaning it is trying to convey. As Ryan (2001) states,

*We cannot implant rules into that network. Learners extract from the available information around them the regularities that form into their knowledge system. If this is the case, all that we can do is make them aware of some of these patterns ... under the assumption that if you have an awareness of them, then ultimately your pattern detector might function a bit more efficiently.*

Using situations/contexts, the teacher can help learners to “generate” several sentences of a **function** that is being performed. A **function** is a kind of communicative act and language is used to perform that act/function. Examples of functions are offer, request,

promise, advise, threat, instruction, apology, remind, expressing opinions, anger, and happiness. A **notion** is a concept or an idea. It may be specific, examples being dog, house, cat, and so on, or may be general, with examples being size, emotion, etc. It may also include past tenses phrases such as “a month ago,” “in 1990,” “last week,” and utterances using temporal clauses beginning with “when ...,” “before ...,” “after ...,” and so on. **Notions thus** are “meaning elements” that may be expressed through nouns, pronouns, verbs, prepositions, conjunctions, adjectives, or adverbs.

A table presented further explains how functions differ from situations and the **grammar points that can be taught by providing activities based on functions and situations** (Table 8.2).

Table 8.2 Grammar Point Taught Based on Functions and Situations

<i>Situations</i>	<i>Topics</i>	<i>Notions and Functions</i>	<i>Grammar</i>	<i>Vocabulary</i>
Getting to know someone	Tastes, hobbies	Inquiring, informing, greeting	Interrogative forms of verb (e.g., enjoy + -ing)	Swimming, sports, etc.
Reporting an accident	Road accidents	Time past, Narrating	Past tense	Road, car drive etc.
Shopping	Clothes	Describing Making requests	Modals, would, could, might	Clothes, adjectives of color, size
Planning a holiday	Travel, accommodation	Future time Predicting Suggesting	Future tense	Train, plane, etc. Hotel, camping
Asking about or describing a profession	Professions, activities equipment	Requesting information Describing activity	Yes/no questions Present tense	Farmer, secretary etc.

### *Advantages*

1. A situational context permits the presentation of a wide range of language items.
2. The situation serves as a means of contextualizing the language and this helps clarify its meaning. At the same time, the generated examples provide learners with data for induction of the rules of form.
3. Students can be involved in the development of the presentation as well as in solving the grammar “problem;” this makes it more communicative than a traditional grammar explanation. Moreover, if the situation is realistic, it is likely to be more interesting than a simple explanation.

### *Disadvantages*

1. If the mindset of students is not ready, they are unlikely to do the kind of cognitive work involved in the induction of grammar rules.
2. This kind of grammar teaching also takes more time than an explanation. It is argued that the time spent on presenting language can be utilized for language practice, which most students need.

3. It requires resourcefulness on the part of the teacher to conjure up situations that generate several structurally identical sentences, but who has also the means (and the time) to prepare the necessary visual aids.

The graphic below sums up the difference between traditional and functional grammar (Figure 8.5).

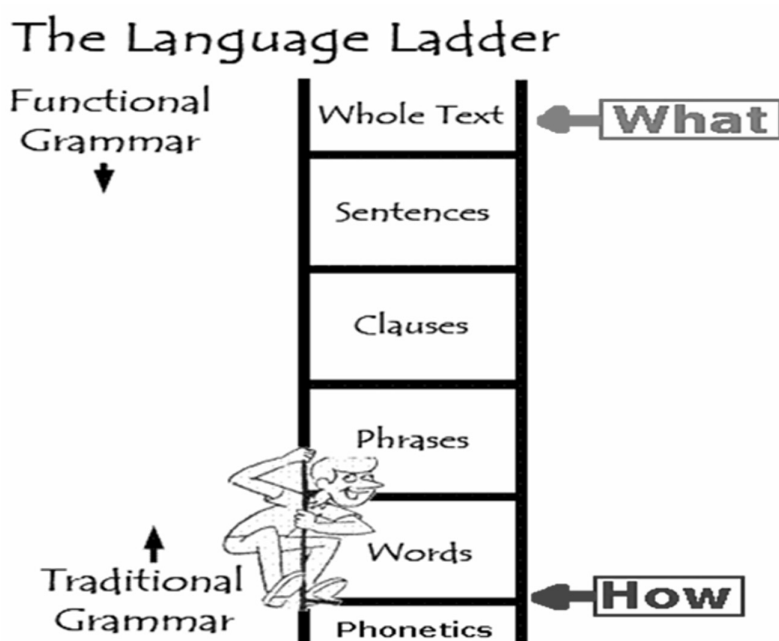


Figure 8.5 Difference between traditional and functional grammar.

Source: [https://www.google.com/search?q=functional+versus++traditional+grammar+-+images&rlz=1C5CHFA\\_enIN549IN552&tbn=isch&tbo=u&source=univ&sa=X&ved=0ahUKEwj6grOumN3UAhUMyWMKHd6hAHQQ7A-kIUA&biw=1280&bih=655#imgsrc=DbxQp6fTTMG3CM](https://www.google.com/search?q=functional+versus++traditional+grammar+-+images&rlz=1C5CHFA_enIN549IN552&tbn=isch&tbo=u&source=univ&sa=X&ved=0ahUKEwj6grOumN3UAhUMyWMKHd6hAHQQ7A-kIUA&biw=1280&bih=655#imgsrc=DbxQp6fTTMG3CM).

### Deductive Method

In the deductive method of teaching grammar, students are given rules, and they apply it to the examples. It is like the traditional method. The deductive method starts with the presentation of a rule and is followed by examples in which the rule is applied. The grammar rule is presented, and the learner engages with it through the study and manipulation of examples. For example, if the structure “present perfect” is to be presented, the teacher would begin the lesson by saying, “Today we are going to learn how to use the present perfect structure.” Then, the rules of the present perfect structure would be outlined, and the students would complete exercises, in a number of ways, to practice using the structure (Goner, Phillips, and Walters 1995: 135). In this approach, the teacher is the center of the class and is responsible for all the presentation and explanation of the new material.

The advantages and disadvantages of the deductive method can be understood as tabulated in Table 8.3.

Table 8.3 Advantages and Disadvantages of Deductive Approach

<i>Approach</i>	<i>Advantages</i>	<i>Disadvantages</i>
Deductive Approach	It gets straight to the point and can therefore be timesaving. Many rules can be more quickly explained than elicited, thereby allowing more time for practice and application.	Starting the lesson with a grammar explanation may be frustrating for some students, especially younger ones. They may not have sufficient <b>metalanguage</b> or may not be able to understand the concepts involved.
	It respects the intelligence and maturity of many students and acknowledges the role of cognitive processes in language acquisition.	Grammar explanation encourages a teacher-fronted, transmission-style classroom.
	It confirms many students' expectations about classroom learning, particularly for those with an analytical learning style.	Explanation is seldom as memorable as other forms of presentation, such as demonstration.
	It allows teachers to deal with language points as they come up rather than having to anticipate them and prepare for them in advance.	Such an approach encourages the belief that learning a language is simply a case of knowing the rules.

Source: S. Thornbury, *How to Teach Grammar*, Pearson Education ESL, 2000.

## Inductive Method

This method represents a different style of teaching where the new grammatical structures or rules are presented to the students in a real language context. An inductive method class starts with some examples from which the rule is inferred. The students learn the use of the structure through practice of the language in context and later understand the rules from practical examples. For example, if the structure to be presented is the comparative form, the teacher would begin the lesson by drawing a figure on the board and saying, "This is Jacob. He is tall." Then, the teacher would draw another taller figure next to the first saying, "This is Leena. She is taller than Sarah." The teacher would then provide many examples using students and items from the classroom, or anything within the normal daily life of the students, to create an understanding of the use of the structure. The students repeat after the teacher, after each of the different examples, and eventually practice the structures meaningfully in groups or pairs (Goner, Phillips, and Walters). With this method, the teacher's role is to provide meaningful contexts to encourage demonstration of the rule, while students evolve the rules from the examples of its use and continued practice (Rivers and Temperley). The advantages and disadvantages of the deductive method can be understood as tabulated in Table 8.4.



Table 8.4 Advantages and Disadvantages of the Inductive Approach

<i>Approach</i>	<i>Advantages</i>	<i>Disadvantages</i>
Inductive Approach	<p>Rules learners discover for themselves are more likely to fit their existing mental structures, making them more meaningful, memorable, and serviceable. The mental effort involved ensures greater cognitive depth, again ensuring greater memorability.</p> <p>Students are more actively involved in the learning process and are therefore likely to be more attentive and motivated.</p> <p>Working things out for themselves prepares students for greater self-reliance and autonomy.</p>	<p>Time and energy spent working out rules may mislead students into believing that rules are the objective of language learning.</p> <p>Students may hypothesize the wrong rule, or their version of the rule may be either too broad or too narrow.</p> <p>It can place heavy demands on teachers in planning a lesson.</p> <p>An inductive approach frustrates students who, because of personal learning style or past learning experience, would prefer simply to be told the rule.</p>

Source: S. Thornbury, *How to Teach Grammar*, Pearson Education ESL, 2000.

This method takes students from the known to the unknown, simple to the complex, concrete to the abstract, and particular to the general. They remain constantly alert and active making learning interesting. There is no room for rote learning, instead helps in developing reasoning and thinking capabilities in learners.

Teaching both the methods, deductive and inductive, depending on the grammatical teaching item is considered the best because it fulfills all educational principles of teaching sciences, languages, and social sciences. In both the methods, students practice and apply the use of the grammatical structure, yet each has its advantages and disadvantages in an EFL/ESL classroom (Rivers and Temperley 1978, 110). The **deductive approach** can be effective with students of a lower level, who are beginning to learn the basic structures of the language, or with students who are accustomed to a more traditional style of learning and expect grammatical presentations (Goner, Philips, and Walters 1995). However, it is less suitable for upper-level language students, for presenting grammatical structures that are complex in both form and meaning, and for classrooms that contain younger learners (Goner, Philips, and Walters 1995). The **advantages** of the **inductive approach** are that students can focus on the use of the language without being held back by grammatical terminology and rules that can inhibit fluency. The inductive approach also promotes increased student participation and practice of the target language in the classroom, in meaningful contexts. The use of the inductive approach has been noted for its success in EFL/ESL classrooms worldwide, but its disadvantage is that it is sometimes difficult for students who expect a more traditional style of teaching to induce the language rules from context and that it is more time consuming. Understanding the disadvantages and advantages of both approaches may help the teacher to vary and organize the EFL/ESL lesson, to keep classes interesting and motivating for the students (Goner, Philips, and Walters).

Some situations and the grammar points that can be taught through them are given in Table 8.5.

Table 8.5 Classroom Activities to Teach Grammar Points

<i>Situation/Context</i>	<i>Grammar Point</i>
Follow a recipe or instructions from a boxed cake mix to bake a cake.	Imperative verb form, present continuous tense
Give directions to another person to get to a store, the post office, or a bank using a map.	Present tense, non-referential “it”
Discuss plans for a class field trip to the zoo.	Future tense, if-clauses, conditional tense
Describe a past vacation, weekend, etc.	Simple past tense, question formation, forms of verb “to do,” word order in negation
Role-play a shopping trip to buy a gift for a family member or friend.	May, might, collective nouns and quantifiers (any, some, several, etc.)
Answer information questions: name, address, phone number, etc.	Present tense of verb “to be,” possessive adjectives
Tell someone how to find an object in your kitchen.	Locative prepositions, modal verbs (can, may, should)
Fill out a medical history form. Then role-play a medical interview on a visit with a new doctor.	Present perfect tense, present perfect progressive
Make a daily weather report.	Forms of verbs to be idiomatic expressions
Report daily schedules of people (in the class, buses in the city, airline schedules, trains, etc.)	Habitual present, personal pronouns, demonstrative adjectives
Extend an invitation over the telephone to someone to come to a party.	Would like ... object-verb word order, interrogative pronouns
Explain rules and regulations to someone, i.e., rules for the school cafeteria; doctor’s instructions to a sick patient	Modal verbs such as can, must, should, ought to; adverbs of time and frequency
Report a historical or actual past event and discuss conditions under which a different outcome might have resulted.	Past conditional and past perfect tenses if clauses
React to the burglary of your house or apartment in the presence of another person upon discovery (active voice) and in making a police report (passive voice).	Present perfect tense; Contrast between active and passive voice, direct and indirect object

### *Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT) Method to Teach Grammar*

It is an extension of the functional/notional/situational method in which communicative activities/tasks are given first for students to complete. Teaching grammar through tasks in situational contexts will pursue the appropriate practical use of grammar. The communicative task is a piece of classroom work which involves learners in comprehending, manipulating, or interacting in the target language while their attention is principally focused on meaning rather than form (Nunan 1989). They engage in logical thinking and Prabhu (1987) believed while undertaking the task learners learn the “form/structure.” They do not have to be taught separately. The tasks are usually done in groups, designed to their interest, and challenging the learners to use the language they already know and at the same time incorporate new items provided by input materials and the teacher. The procedure of TBL consists not of language items, but of tasks

requiring increasingly complex use of language involving a three-stage procedure—Pre-task, the task itself, and the post-task. The details of this approach to teaching are already explained in Chapter 2. One sample task is presented below. Other tasks can be accessed from Appendix 7.

### *Sample Task*

1. Complete the following paragraph by filling the appropriate forms of the words given in the brackets:

Taking an oil bath, in Ayurveda is equivalent to sunbathing. First, you must [1] \_\_\_\_\_ [wait] for a sunny day. Remember that an oil bath on a rainy day may not yield the [2] \_\_\_\_\_ [desire] effect. Modern science [3] \_\_\_\_\_ [dismiss] the role of oil bath in [4] \_\_\_\_\_ [maintain] the quality and color of the human skin. But people who [5] \_\_\_\_\_ [believe] in traditional practices promptly dismiss modern science and [6] \_\_\_\_\_ [go] ahead with their oil baths, twice a week. Before [7] \_\_\_\_\_ [take] an oil bath, one must [8] \_\_\_\_\_ [choose] the oil that will suit one's health. [9] \_\_\_\_\_ [Heat] the oil with some roots, seeds, and leaves forms a part of the preparation. To wash the oil, again, some roots and seeds [10] \_\_\_\_\_ [has + be form + powder]. Preparing this soap-water with the finest of ingredients is a fine art and the Indian housewife prides herself preparing it in the best possible way.

As one can see from the above task, context and meaning are very important for the students to understand the grammar form to be used. This communicative form of teaching may result in frustration at times for the teachers, but in the long run, students are bound to learn because ultimately the function of grammar is to help convey the intent of the writer or the speaker.

### **To Summarize**

1. There is a difference between syntax and grammar.
2. Grammar should be taught by integrating inductive and deductive methods.
3. Teaching grammar also means teaching how to express meaning.
4. Grammar should be taught using contextualized situations.
5. Task-based language teaching offers a powerful environment of learning.

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### **Further Readings**

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## 9 Developing Vocabulary Skills

**Test yourself on vocabulary before you go into this chapter.**

Mark each of the following statements. If you agree, mark it with a tick (✓); if you disagree, mark it with a cross (X); and if undecided, mark it with a question mark (?).

<i>Teacher Beliefs and Notions</i>		
1.	Vocabulary is not as important as grammar or other skills.	
2.	Learning of words is not linked to comprehension.	
3.	Vocabulary acquisition is memorizing word lists.	
4.	Active and passive vocabulary should be taught.	
5.	Both structure words and content words can be found in a single sentence.	
6.	Guessing words from the context is an excellent strategy for learning L2 vocabulary.	
7.	Presenting new vocabulary in semantic sets facilitates learning.	
8.	Use of translations to learn new vocabulary should be discouraged.	
9.	All important words have single meanings while the less important ones have multiple meanings.	
10.	Vocabulary should be taught both directly and indirectly.	
11.	Repetition and multiple exposures to vocabulary items are important.	
12.	Vocabulary learning should entail active engagement in learning tasks.	
13.	Dependency on a single vocabulary instructional method will not result in optimal learning.	

### Importance of Developing Vocabulary

To begin, let me quote Wilkins and Lewis. Wilkins (1972) wrote, “without grammar very little can be conveyed, without vocabulary nothing can be conveyed” (111–112). Further, Lewis (1993) stated, “lexis is the core or heart of language” (89). Both these quotes reflect the importance of teaching vocabulary in second language acquisition. This means that even if students’ grammar of the language is incorrect, he/she may be able

to communicate “something,” but if he/she does not have the required vocabulary, then communication is difficult or even “impossible.” This proves that knowing sufficient vocabulary is **key to communication** in the spoken or written form. Second, knowing sufficient words and using them in the appropriate context helps in **developing proficiency in a language**. Words are used in multiple situations and as students understand the meaning of the words and use them in different contexts, it develops fluency leading to greater comprehension. Vocabulary acquisition, therefore, is key to developing communication and literacy skills in students. Teaching vocabulary explicitly or directly should be prioritized in our teaching, which unfortunately is not done.

So, what is vocabulary? Does vocabulary mean only the **number** of words you know, the **spelling** of the words, or how words are **formed**? Before we discuss the classroom techniques of teaching vocabulary, let us address the following two basic questions:

1. What is vocabulary?
2. What does it mean to know a word?

### What Is Vocabulary?

Vocabulary is the knowledge of the meaning of words. It is one of those language aspects that must be learned while learning a new language. Vocabulary includes words that are complete in meaning like *boy*, *girl*, *net*, etc., not complete in itself, like, *un-*, *-ment*, *-ally*, compound words such as *post office*, *lighthouse*; idiomatic expressions such as *to harbor a grudge*, *a stitch in time saves nine*, and so on. To understand how a word is formed and its meaning, you have to refer to the chapter on morphology.

### What Does It Mean to Know a Word?

According to Tickoo (2003), knowing the word includes the following (writer’s emphasis):

- How **often** is the word used, **where** is it used, and **when** is it used?
- How is the word **spelled**, and how is it **pronounced**?
- To which **part of the speech** does the word belong to and what **function** does it perform?
- What is/are the **core meaning/s** of the word?
- What is the **root form** of the word, and which words can be **derived** by using prefixes and suffixes?
- Where can the new words derived be **used in a sentence** and in which grammatical pattern can they fit in?
- What are the **limitations to the use** of the words?
- What is the probability of **encountering** these words in writing or in speech?

Thus, the implications of teaching and learning vocabulary can be summed up in the quote of (Anderson and Nagy 1991):

Really knowing a word ... means being able to apply it flexibly but accurately in a range of contexts and situations. Thus, it can be argued that there is no knowledge addressed in school in which application is more crucial than knowledge of word meanings.

To sum up, having a large vocabulary is not important; the important aspect is to know how to use the **most appropriate word** in the **right context** and in the **right situation**. As the following figure depicts (Figure 9.1), knowing words is a cyclical process leading to greater comprehension that further enables students to acquire new words. So now, the next logical question is how can a teacher help students to acquire more vocabulary, which can be used in appropriate contexts?

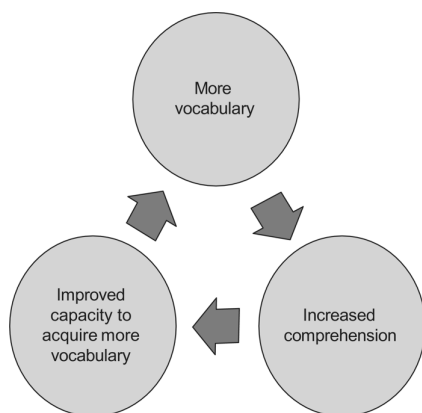


Figure 9.1 Importance of knowing vocabulary.

Source: Author.

Before a teacher embarks on the journey of teaching vocabulary to the students, it is important that the teacher understands certain distinctions between:

1. Structure/function words and content words.
2. Receptive words and productive words.
3. Connotative and denotative meanings of the words.

### Structure Words and Content Words

The teacher must understand and realize that all words are not the same. Words can be divided into two categories irrespective of the part of speech they belong to. The two categories are **structure or function words** and **content words**. Words that perform a function in the entire sentence are called **function or structure words**. They are small in number and form a closed group. The meaning of the sentences becomes clearer when these words are used. Look at the following words:

in the an to which but from between some any

When we read these words, we do not understand the meaning of these words. But if we use them in sentences, then we can understand their meaning. For example, look at the following two sentences:

- A. The book is the table.
- B. The book is under the table.

If you read sentence A, you understand that there is a book and there is a table. Another meaning emerges that the book itself is the table, that is, both the table and the book are the same. On reading the sentence, one really does not understand what exactly the relationship between the book and the table is. However, in the second sentence B, with the use of the word “under” before the table, the meaning becomes clearer. The word “under” denotes the relationship between the book and the table. The book that is referred to in sentence A is lying under the table, that is, it tells us the place where the book is, making the meaning clearer. The function of the word “under” is, therefore, to tell the reader the place of the book in relation to the table. As the word “under” performs a function, it is a function or a structure word. The word also belongs to the category of prepositions; therefore, by that definition, all prepositions are function words. Another characteristic of these words is that they cannot stand alone on their own, that is, they do not have meaning of their own. They must be used in a sentence so that their meaning is brought to the fore. If you notice, all articles, prepositions, and determiners are function words or structure words because they have no intrinsic meaning embedded in their word. Their meaning is understood only after they are used in sentences.

**Content words**, on the other hand, are those that have an intrinsic meaning of their own; they can stand alone without being used in a sentence. Look at the following words:

boy girl bench night slow jump beautiful

All the words mentioned above have a meaning of their own. Even if they are not used in any sentence, we understand what each word means. Such words whose meanings are understood without being used in sentences are called **content words** (content means meaning). By that definition, all nouns, adjectives, verbs, and adverbs are content words. Due to the explosion of information technology and new disciplines of study, nowadays a lot of new words are being added. Mostly, all words related to computers, technology, environmental science, and genetic studies are content words.

### Receptive Words and Productive Words

The second aspect to which the teacher needs to pay attention is the receptive and the productive words. What is the difference between the two? **Receptive** words are those whose meanings can be understood when one hears them or reads them. **Productive** words are those that are used to express oneself in writing or in speech. The teacher needs to ensure that students have a large amount of receptive vocabulary. When they read or listen, the words are already used in a context and hence the meaning must be known or inferred from the way they have been used. Students are not required to know the meaning of every word to understand the meaning completely. Therefore, having a large repertoire of words is important; the productive use of it comes gradually in speech and writing once the students understand their use in different contexts. The table given tells us how the receptive and the productive content are embedded in each word (Table 9.1).

### Connotative and Denotative Meanings of the Words

The teacher also should look into the connotative and denotative meanings of the words. These are two noteworthy methods of describing the meaning of the words. **The denotative** meaning of the word means precisely and **literally** what the word means, or one



Table 9.1 Receptive and Productive Content Embedded in a Word

<i>Aspect</i>	<i>Component</i>	<i>Receptive Knowledge</i>	<i>Productive Knowledge</i>
Form	spoken	What does the word sound like?	How is the word pronounced?
	written	What does the word look like?	How is the word written and spelled?
Meaning	word parts	Which different parts does the word have?	What word parts are needed to express the meaning?
	form and meaning	What meaning does this word form signal?	What word form can be used to express this meaning?
	concepts and referents	What is included in this concept?	What items can the concept refer to?
	associations	What other words does this make people think of?	What other words could people use instead of this one?
Use	grammatical functions	In what patterns does the word occur?	In what patterns must people use this word?
	collocations	What words or types of words occur with this one?	What words or types of words must people use with this one?
	constraints on use	Where, when, and how often would people expect to meet this word?	Where, when, and how often can people use this word?

Source: bk\_eldt\_vocabulary\_974.pdf (Original source: Nation, 2005. Wellington: Cambridge University Press. p. 27).

can say, the dictionary definition of the word. Connotative meaning, on the other hand, means the **negative and the positive associations, social overtones, emotional meanings, and cultural implications** that the word carries with it. Let us understand this with the help of an example:

Take the word “snake.” The literal meaning of the word is “a creepy, legless, venomous reptile usually found in the tropical and temperate forests.” This forms the denotative meaning. But one also associates “evil” or “danger” with the word “snake.” “Evil” and “danger” are the connotative meanings of the word.

You can see that the literal and its associated meanings are not separate. Both are embedded in the word itself—both are two aspects of the same word and both meanings coexist in the word. The teacher, therefore, must explicitly make the students aware of this distinction in meaning and help them to use the words denotatively or connotatively in different contexts.

I also wish to draw the attention of the teachers to certain words when categorized together can reveal degrees of meaning. For example:

- |           |      |               |
|-----------|------|---------------|
| 1. plump  | fat  | obese         |
| 2. skinny | thin | petite svelte |

Usually, one does not use the word “fat” for a baby. The word used is “plump,” which refers to “puppy fat,” which gets shed as the baby grows old. However, the word “plump” cannot be used for a man or a woman. The words used would be “obese/fat man/woman,” which have a negative connotation.

Similar is the case with the next category. If the words “skinny” or “thin” were used to describe a lady, then it would mean that she is likely to be a sick person; however, the use of the word “svelte” connotes a graceful-looking lady. Therefore, these nuances of meaning need to be made understood to the students so that they can use them in appropriate contexts.

### **Word-Building Strategies**

Given the importance of developing a large repertoire of vocabulary in learners, the need is to integrate systematic vocabulary instruction in the classroom. How can teachers go about doing this important task? A few classroom techniques are given further, which the teacher can use. This is by no means an exhaustive list; however, the teacher can build upon them, innovate, and devise her/his own techniques depending upon the level of the class he/she is teaching. The techniques that are generic in nature are discussed here. More classroom techniques with task types are discussed in the next section.

1. Varied opportunities for extensive reading.
2. Experiencing words in contexts.
3. Inferring word meanings.
4. Experiencing words through interrelated systems and associations.
5. Building good dictionary habits.

### **Varied Opportunities for Extensive Reading**

It is a well-known fact that reading not only develops the use of correct grammatical structures, but this technique helps in developing a corpus of words that can be subsequently used in various contexts. This means that the teacher needs to present opportunities (picture books in the beginning and, as they go to higher classes, graded books depending on the level of the class) for the learner to read books other than their textbooks so that they are exposed to a lot of new words. This will develop their spirit of inquiry to understand the meanings of the new words. At first, the teacher could even ask them to make a list of words they have not understood from a single page and then use the technique of inference or resort to the dictionary to understand what they mean. Once they understand the meaning, it will also help in comprehending the text they are reading. Subsequently, the words can be used depending on the context. Thus, one can see that this technique aids in distinguishing between receptive and productive words. This will help them to develop a corpus of vocabulary, which they can subsequently use.

Psychological impacts are also built in this technique. In the initial stage, the child feels that he/she has achieved something if he/she is able to read one page and understand what is written in it. This also brings in a spirit of competition among students to read more, thus indirectly building the confidence to read and adding to the world of vocabulary.

Another psychological impact is that the child is not reading these pages for “answering an exam” although the teacher may allot some marks for it as part of internal assessment. Therefore, this kind of reading is likely to bring in the pleasurable component, thus building a more positive attitude toward reading in the target language, that is, English.

Extensive reading, therefore, is the best possible way for learners to develop incidental vocabulary. Davies (1995) claims that an extensive reading program undertaken in class

“will make learners more positive about reading, improving their overall comprehension skills, and give them a wider passive and active vocabulary.”

### **Experiencing Words in Contexts**

Learning vocabulary in context helps students make connections for better comprehension. Extensive reading also allows learners to experience the meanings of words as different meanings emerge when they are used in different grammatical and semantic contexts. Therefore, words are best introduced as parts of different and meaningful units. Research evidence also states that “current pedagogical trends emphasize incidental or indirect learning by resorting to contextual cues” (Duquette and Painchaud 1996). However, guessing from the context is not always possible due to two reasons. First, the limited ability of the learner to infer, and second, texts are not always contextually rich. Therefore, a teacher must offer both contextualized and decontextualized learning activities.

Meanings of unknown words can be found using the dictionary. A dictionary offers definitions and multiple meanings, and the learner has to understand which meaning to choose depending on the sentences that are preceding and succeeding it.

Let us take an example to understand this better.

#### *Example*

Cities across the American West are being invaded by black bears foraging for food. As the urban sprawl pushes further into the forests and mountain ranges, the bears are turning to civilization for their sustenance and are becoming a common sight in populated areas.

*Source:* J. Wright (1998, p. 128).

Suppose the students are unable to understand the meaning of the underlined word “sprawl.” Looking up a dictionary, you get four meanings of the words:

1. To be stretched or spread out in an unnatural or ungraceful manner.
2. To sit or lie in a relaxed position with the limbs spread out carelessly or ungracefully.
3. To spread out or extend in a straggling or irregular manner as vines, buildings, handwriting, etc.
4. To crawl awkwardly with the aid of all the limbs; scramble.

Now, the point is which meaning should the learners choose? Understanding the meaning of the sentence preceding and succeeding it, learners should be able to guess that “urban sprawl” means that the town has grown in an unplanned manner, which is denoted in the third point.

### **Inferring Word Meanings**

Another aspect that is related to the previous point is that learners should not only infer meaning with the help of dictionaries and other sources but also with the help of affixes, prefixes, and suffixes. They should be able to break the word into its constituent parts and understand how the word is formed. The various techniques of word formation have

already been discussed in the chapter on morphology. Even if they do not know the exact meaning of the word, looking at and knowing the kind of prefixes or suffixes used, learners will be able to understand whether the word denotes a positive or a negative meaning. Let us understand this better with the use of an example:

### Example

Hardly any country in Asia is monolingual; most are bilingual and a few including India and Malaysia are multilingual. Many people in these countries speak two or more languages.

Source: Tickoo (2003).

Students who do not understand the meaning of the underlined words, *monolingual*, *bilingual*, and *multilingual* can first be guided by the words “speak two or more languages” to understand the approximate meaning. Further, to understand the exact meaning they need to know the meaning of the prefixes, “mono-” (one), “bi-” (two), and “multi-” (many) to understand the exact meaning. Once these strategies are taught to the students, then making inferences becomes an integral part of the reading activity. Everyday reading will help learners acquire a corpus of receptive and productive vocabulary.

However, inferring meaning is not always easy, and therefore Dorothy Brown (Tickoo 2003) has suggested a three-tier approach to make inferences:

- a. Definitions as clues.
- b. Schema or background knowledge as support.
- c. Contrast as support.

(All examples to explain the three points are taken from Tickoo [2003].)

### Definition

#### Example

*Left with only a little money for their stay in the temple town, the pilgrims looked for a dharamshala for a night's stay.*

If students do not know the meaning of the underlined word *dharamshala*, the clues that are provided to them in the sentence are “temple town,” “pilgrims,” “night stay,” and “little money.” From the above words, they can get the sense that the word “*dharamshala*” means an inexpensive place where pilgrims can stay for the night(s).

### Schema or Background Knowledge

#### Example

*The AAA on sale is in a quiet locality. It has three bedrooms, two bathrooms, and a large drawing room.*

The question in the above sentence is the meaning of AAA. The given information on the bedrooms, bathrooms, and drawing room can activate the prior knowledge in children that it is the description of an apartment. The phrase “in a quiet locality” also tells us that “AAA” is a kind of apartment, which is being talked about. So, here the

students' background knowledge is being tapped and activated to make them understand the meaning of "AAA."

## Contrast

### Example

*We find Robert very polite, but his neighbor says he is very rude.*

To understand Robert's nature, the technique of contrast is used. The contrast is between two words, "rude" and "polite," which is denoted by the word "but." If the students know the meaning of one word, or even if the teacher tries to make them understand the meaning of one word, then the meaning of the contrasting word becomes clear, and it is likely to be understood by them.

Thus, learners can infer meaning if such techniques are used by teachers in the classroom. Students do resort to memorization of meanings of words or antonyms; however, these techniques will always help them to approximate meaning and use them in an appropriate context. Inferencing thus can provide major support to the learners to enjoy their reading and devise their own ways of developing a corpus of vocabulary, which they can use on their own.

## Experiencing Words through Interrelated Systems and Associations

Most of the words belong to certain lexical categories such as nouns, verbs, adjectives, or adverbs. Lexical sets can also belong to processes, for example, all words denoting the process of preparing tea/coffee or even repairing a certain product or even kinship terms, such as *mother, father, uncle, aunt, brother, sister, niece, nephew, cousin*, etc. Semantic categories denote phrases, words, or clauses that reveal similar meaning. For example, "car" can also be denoted by using words such as "sedan," "suv," "salon," "the blue hatchback," and so on depending on the functions, model, and make of the car.

To make the students understand the relationships between words, graphic organizers can play a very important part. Take the example of the word "school" (Figure 9.2):

If we want our students to know all the words related to the word "school," then the above graphic organizer is very useful. This kind of visual helps the learners not only to

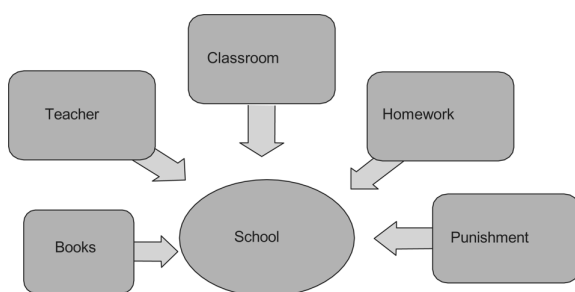


Figure 9.2 Mind map.

Source: Author.

retain the image but also to make a connection between the written words. It will also allow them to think and come up with words drawing from their schema or background knowledge and what they have experienced earlier. When undertaking this exercise, teachers should note that spelling at this juncture is not important.

Teachers should not reprimand the students for writing the wrong spelling. On the other hand, they should be congratulated for coming up with interrelated words because autonomous learning is taking place, and those words are being added to their receptive vocabulary.

(Two graphic organizers are given at the end of the chapter: one for the beginner level, and the other for the advanced level. The teacher is free to make necessary changes to the organizer to suit the level of the class.)

### Building Good Dictionary Habits

Though inferring meaning is a self-reliant technique, developing dictionary skills in students is equally important. Many teachers will ask why should we teach dictionary skills in this 21st century when students can surf everything online? Yes, it is very true that students can get all information online. However, one basic aspect which students will never get from any online dictionary is that a **book dictionary** is the “first reference book” that students learn to use. Once students understand the layout of a dictionary, then surfing through other reference books becomes easier. The dictionary organizes words alphabetically and groups them together using guide words. Using a hardcopy or printed dictionary helps students acquire broader vocabulary, teaches them the correct spelling, spelling patterns, and how to pronounce the words. Looking up one word exposes them indirectly to other numerous words, their meanings, uses, and other information. Unfortunately, this is not the case with electronic dictionaries. While using an electronic dictionary, if you surf for one word, only that word will pop up and hence the student loses the experience of encountering other words and their meanings, indirectly affecting reading comprehension. Needless to say that dictionaries are a good source of vocabulary building, but the teacher needs to be careful that students always do not use it as a crutch, otherwise learning autonomy, self-reliance, and confidence in students will be lost.

### *Classroom Techniques and Task Types*

#### *Using Realia/Objects*

Using realia or objects in the class is a very effective vocabulary developing technique. It is most useful at the primary level because at that level the students are not aware of all the basic words that they need to know. The teacher can begin by showing objects that are in the class itself such as desk, chairs, bench, blackboard, chalk, duster, bags, pencil, pencil box, lunch box, eraser, and so on. Some objects from outside can also be brought into the class such as leaf, sand, pebble, seed, and so on.

#### *Using Drawings and Pictures*

As students grow older, pictures and drawings are a great source for vocabulary development. Numerous words can be elicited from them by looking at the picture/drawing. If students are unable to get some words, then cues can be provided so that they can elicit



*Figure 9.3* Paddy cultivation in Bengal.

Source: <http://www.dreamstime.com/photos-images/indian-village-scene.html#details10697252>.

them. This could also be made in the form of a class competition, so that students are motivated to think, or draw from their background knowledge and come up with words that are in the picture/drawing. It is likely that some students may not know the exact word in English, but they may know it in their mother tongue. So, then what should the teacher do? Should the teacher allow the student to say the word in the mother tongue? Yes, according to me, the teacher should allow this because the concept of the object is formed in the mind of the student. It is only the question of giving it another name. If the teacher allows the student to say it in his/her mother tongue, he/she will never forget that word and is likely to use it in an appropriate context when the need arises. For example, look at the picture (Paddy Cultivation in Bengal, a state in India) (Figure 9.3).

The above picture can be tapped for different categories of vocabulary at various levels. Not only at the primary level for basic words but also at the advanced level, this picture can generate a lot of words where different cultures come into play. This aspect of using pictures as an important source is also discussed at length in the chapters on “Teaching Writing” and “Teaching Speaking.” It also lends itself to the understanding of various cultures in India, or for that matter cultures of the various countries that you choose the picture from, which students might be unfamiliar with. The teacher can use many such pictures from around the student’s world to generate vocabulary at various levels.

### *Texts*

Earlier in the chapter, I discussed the importance of extensive reading through which students can become self-reliant in gaining more vocabulary. Apart from the textbook that they read in class, how can the teacher develop vocabulary by bringing in texts from the outside? By preparing tasks on the texts, the teacher can easily prepare tasks on synonyms, antonyms, and different kinds of registers. The teacher can also help the students prepare compound words and new words with the use of affixes. These types of exercises will not only help them to develop a broad repertoire of vocabulary but also guide them on its uses in various contexts.

Some sample tasks and different types of tasks are given in Appendix 8. The tasks can be made more challenging or simple depending on the level of the class.

## Conclusion

Developing vocabulary in students is thus making them proficient users of language and independent effective communicators. Helping them to coin new words by using a range of suffixes and prefixes gives them a sense of autonomy and freedom for making new words. Finally, equipping them with a repertoire of words provides them with the confidence to use the words in an appropriate context.

### To Summarize

1. Developing vocabulary helps to build communication.
2. Words are categorized into function and content words. Each category has a major, own role to play in meaning-making.
3. There are numerous word-building techniques. Affixes and compounding are the most common.

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# 10 Online Teaching Methods, Assessments, and Feedback

Education has changed radically. Although it survived the first, second, and third industrial revolutions, the fourth brought with it a new set of rules—the new digital education. Online teaching and distance education evolved from offline to online settings, and with access to the internet and the onset of COVID-19, there was a distinctive rise in e-learning, whereby teaching is undertaken remotely and on digital platforms. Even before COVID-19, there was high growth, adoption, and investment in education technology, but since COVID-19, there has been a significant surge in the usage of language apps, virtual tutoring, video conferencing tools, and online learning software. The pandemic made it crucial that knowledge dissemination was extremely important across boundaries, taking into consideration new styles and dynamics, breaking down temporal barriers (everyone studies when they can/want), physical barriers (end of travel) or economic barriers, and of course individual learning pace. This new digital education required a fundamental change in the mindset of both teachers and students. Online platforms were the medium and learning was to take place by practicing and using tools and resources, which students could use immediately.

Many formats can be used to deliver online courses.

1. Synchronous online.
2. Asynchronous online.
3. Hybrid synchronous/asynchronous.
4. Hybrid in-person/online.

Synchronous online courses are conducted when students and teachers meet regularly at an appointed time via a video-based meeting platform like Zoom, MS Teams, or Google Meet. Teaching takes place as if the students are in front of the teacher. For this kind of meeting, the teacher has to prepare a lot of materials, share his or her screen, and show the slides in real time. This kind of teaching has been shown to lead to increased interaction between the teacher and the student (Aslan et al., 2019; McBrien et al., 2009; Syeda et al., 2020; Weiser et al., 2018).

In asynchronous classes, teachers pre-record videos and PowerPoint presentations and upload them along with course materials on the college LMS system. The students can view them at their own discretion and will. This allows for greater flexibility for the students, and it was a favored mode at the initial stages of the pandemic so that students could get acclimatized to the new system of learning (Wyatt, 2021).

Teaching “hybridly” was another mode of learning. This includes both the synchronous and asynchronous methods and in-person learning. Students were allowed to come

to the campuses and attend class, although the meetings were scheduled on online platforms and the materials were uploaded on the LMS. Many students started preferring this as it gave them more flexibility in terms of materials, and the one-on-one interaction with the teachers (Zhao & Watterson, 2021) helped them to better understand the course materials. This also showed that the students were willing to come back to the campus for studies, which they initially shunned due to fear of contracting the coronavirus.

### The Community of Inquiry Model

Whichever mode of teaching you may want to follow, certain principles need to be kept in mind while delivering online teaching to the students. The theoretical framework that is the basis of online teaching is The Community of Inquiry Model adapted from Garrison et al.1999 (Figure 10.1).

As you can see from Figure 10.1, the three important components of online teaching are Social presence, Cognitive Presence, and Teaching Presence. Let us explain each one of them:

**Teaching Presence:** This refers to designing and managing learning, providing subject-matter expertise, and facilitating active learning. Depending on the learning outcomes

## The Community of Inquiry Model

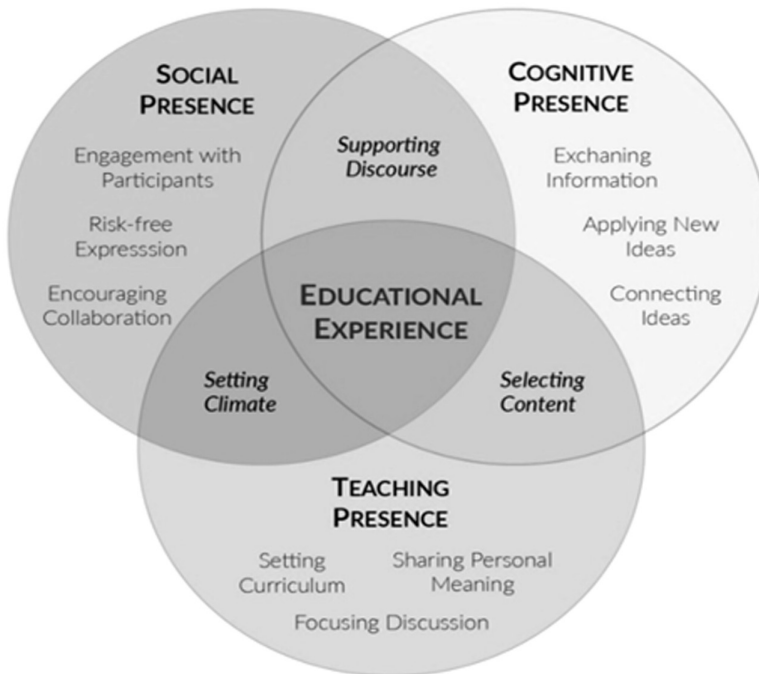


Figure 10.1 The community of inquiry model.

the instructor wants to achieve, activities, tasks, and materials are selected and taught/ explained or given to the learners. It involves facilitating learning experiences “to support and enhance social and cognitive presence for the purpose of realizing educational outcomes” (Garrison et al. 2000: 90).

**Cognitive Presence:** Refers to the extent to which learners are able to construct meaning through sustained reflection and discourse. Moreover, cognitive presence is the key element in critical thinking, a necessary element for higher levels of thinking and learning.

**Social Presence:** Refers to the degree to which learners feel socially and emotionally connected with others in an online environment. This involves the teacher to create authentic learning experiences for the students to develop their knowledge and thinking.

When all three are realized, it makes for a social–psychological dimension of computer-mediated communication for the learners, which would make the learning experience a pleasurable one for them.

As a classroom teacher, one does understand the importance of Teaching and the Cognitive Presence. But why should social presence be considered important and what is this social–psychological dimension? Let us reflect on the questions mentioned below. In a traditional face-to-face class, we see our students, and looking at them, we do understand some things about them. A week or two into the semester teaching, we start knowing them and understand if they are facing any issues, or it is likely that the students themselves may come and connect with us. But in an online teaching situation, do we know

- Who are our students?
- Who are we teaching?
- From where are they logging in?
- What challenges are they facing?
- What is their emotional or mental state when they attend our class?
- Which emotions/state of mental health do the messages or emails reflect?

Do you think we should try and find answers to all the above questions? Yes, we should. Because emotions play a powerful role in learners’ engagement and achievement and the role of emotions in online learning deserves special consideration (Artino 2012; Rienties & Rivers 2014). The reason it needs special consideration is that for many students, especially in Middle Eastern countries, going to college is the only social outing they have. If they are learning online, then there is no networking with peers, which leads to a lack of motivation to study, an extremely important prerequisite for e-Learning. Lack of motivation leads to a lack of interest in learning, resulting in low GPA and even failures. All this leads to low self-esteem, from which the student may not be able to recover soon. Therefore, it is important for the teacher to break this social isolation, which is likely to lead to insecurity and impede the learning process. All learners have different styles and possess different learner characteristics. Whatever the learning styles of the learners, the whole semester they need to be scaffolded, as given in Figure 10.2. This brings me to an important element in online teaching and that is communication.

**Communication** is the key, and as Figure 10.2 suggests, the teachers should reach out to the students to tell them that they are not alone. This is especially required for freshman students because they are new to the credit courses and the campus culture. If they begin their college life without face-to-face interaction with the teachers and student-to-student

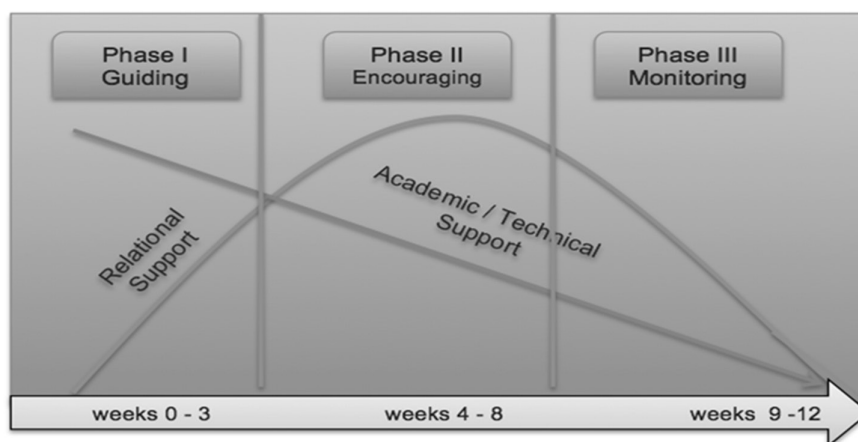


Figure 10.2 Scaffolding students the semester

Source: Author.

interaction, they are bound to get lost, feel neglected, and lose interest in studies. So, the first step is to develop rapport with the students. Even before the class begins and the course content is delivered, the teachers can email the students and introduce herself/himself to the class and ask the students to introduce themselves through a discussion post on the college LMS so that all students know each other. The teacher can also prepare a video with ground rules in terms of class behavior/class participation/working in groups/opening their cameras. A one-to-one chat during the first week can also help the teachers to understand them better and vice versa.

As teaching progresses, students continue to need academic and technical support. Even if teaching is done in real time through MS Teams or Google Chat or Zoom, they need to be emailed regarding their resources being posted on the LMS or a reminder needs to be sent for the next day's test or quiz, and so on. One method of keeping the students constantly engaged is using the flipped classroom method (details of this method are given at the end of this chapter). In this method, the materials to be taught in the class are previously given to the students through the LMS or via email attachments. Students must read these materials, and the real time of the class is spent clarifying the concepts using the questioning technique. A simple MCQ quiz can be given to test either their attentiveness in class or whether they have understood the concepts initially. Further, teachers can create discussion questions for understanding. These questions do not have a correct answer, but they must discuss it to find an answer and then defend their answers. This could be done by building communities and using breakout rooms. Building student communities really helps the teacher deliver the online teaching learning experience to the students. During teaching, when the teacher divides the students into groups and they are working, the teacher's presence is equally important. As you can see from Figure 10.3, the teacher can enhance their learning experience using the breakout rooms.

But students are not left only to themselves. They are constantly monitored. Whatever discussion they are having among them is posted on their discussion chat, which the teacher moderates. The teacher can even intervene and praise them for the right direction

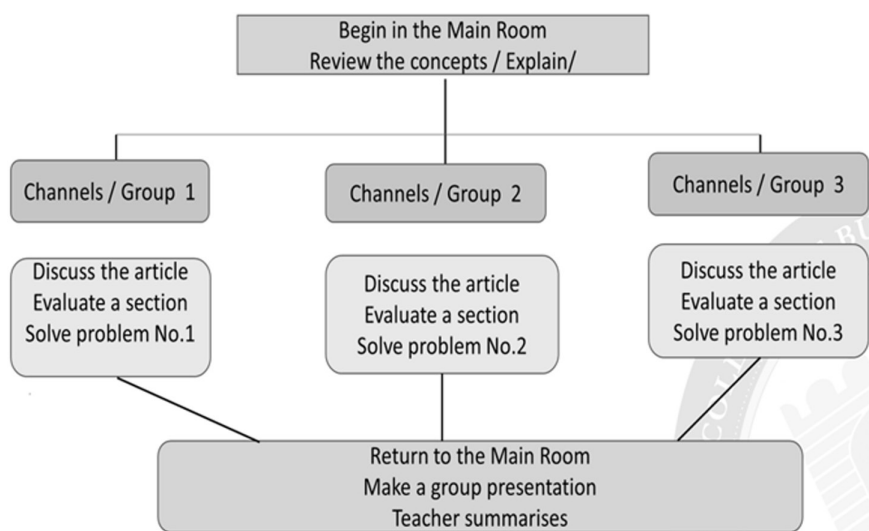


Figure 10.3 Building student communities.

Source: Author.

they have taken or suggest that they think differently if their discussion is not taking the correct direction.

This brings me to the next important element of online teaching, which is providing meaningful and high-quality feedback. One may argue that teachers spend their valuable time giving feedback on student assignments and tests, yet some students do not bother to incorporate the feedback into their subsequent drafts or some students do not even bother to collect their feedback. Then, what is the use of spending so much time on giving feedback? Whatever the case, feedback is an extremely effective tool for the students to improve on their weaknesses. How should the feedback be? It should be of high quality.

### *High-Quality Feedback*

Giving feedback is very important. The student must know where he/she needs to improve to avoid committing the same errors again, jeopardizing his/her GPA. Figure 10.4 shows the manner in which feedback should be given to the students.

From the above, it can be inferred that feedback should be specific, actionable, timely, personal, and ongoing. Each component has its own importance and contributes to the learning experience. Each assignment is different and is assessed using a rubric. Comments made for each student must be **specific** to that assignment, which also means that they should be personal to the student concerned. Yes, there are some general comments that can be used by many students, but there are bound to be exceptions. Hence, not only written comments but also oral/audio comments prove useful. We should remember that students cannot interact with us in person. So, if they hear our voices they are bound to feel “satisfied,” a **personal rapport** gets established and perhaps even the negative comment can have an effective reaction. Apart from the comments made, all feedback should be **actionable**. Students should be able to follow the comment and make the required

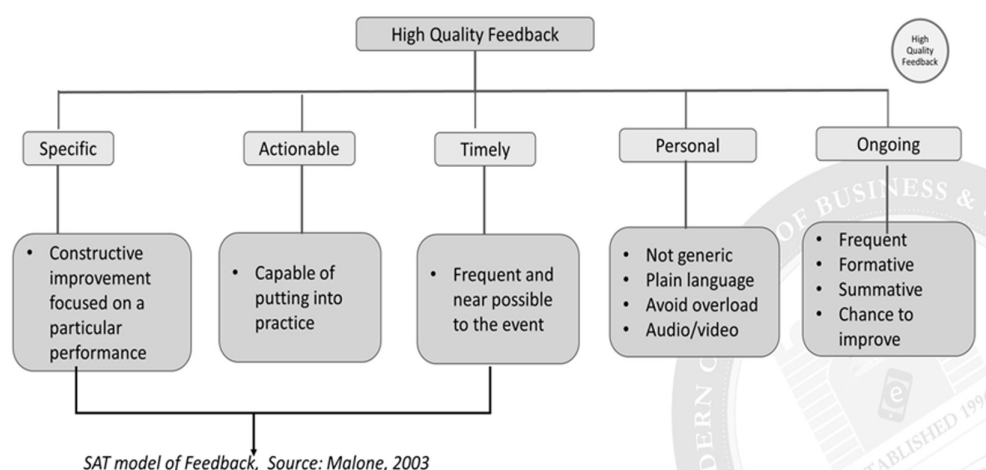


Figure 10.4 Constituents of high-quality feedback.

Source: Author adapted from SAT model.

changes in the text. Feedback should be given **in good time** for them to understand and make changes so that it adds to their learning. For example, if the teacher has asked the students to practice writing an argumentative essay before a test on the same essay type, he/she should provide feedback before the test and not after the test. If the feedback is given after the test, the student will not know what errors he/she has made and is bound to repeat the same mistake again. The feedback given after the test will be a waste of time and energy for the teacher, and for the student, nothing is added to the learning experience. Finally, feedback should not be a one-time affair; it should be **ongoing**. The teacher should not think, “Oh, I have already given the feedback; the students should know by now.” In a classroom situation, it does not happen as the teacher thinks. Students should be reminded all the time and feedback must be ongoing. The ongoing feedback comments will remind them that they have to make the changes. This type of feedback will enable the students to be active in class and help the teacher feel satisfied taking care of the students.

Going back to the model of the Community of Inquiry, the teacher should set up the classroom environment by deciding on the course topic according to the learning outcomes that have to be achieved and set up the activities and tasks that the students can do. The tasks should be collaborative so that all students can participate and voice their opinions. This would also help them to exchange ideas, connect ideas, and build new cognitive structures that they can use in other topics of the same course or in any other course. Teachers should not forget scaffolding. This will provide mental and academic support for the students. In short, active engagement is the key to successful online teaching.

### *Applied Methods of Online Teaching*

Though online teaching was a rage during the pandemic as all campuses had to be shut down, other possibilities emerged when the hybrid mode of teaching began to be used

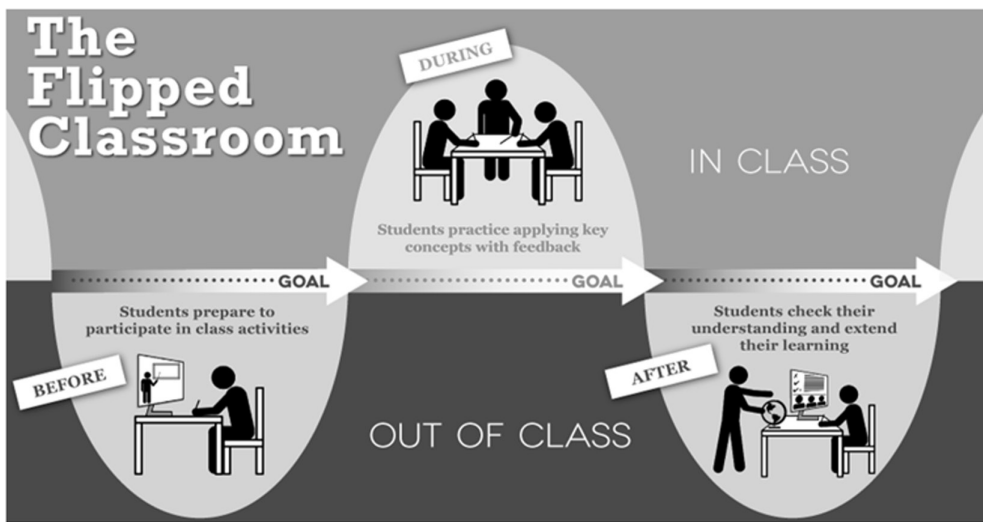


Figure 10.5 The flipped classroom.

Classroom Source: <https://ohiostate.pressbooks.pub/flippeddesign/chapter/what-is-the-flipped-classroom/>.

by HEIs and even schools. Though technology continued to be used for teaching, some institutes followed the blended form of learning or even used the flipped mode of learning. These two methods served two purposes. Technology was still the dominant medium for the dissemination of content; some face-to-face classes were organized for concept clarification, making presentations, and for the final exams. Both modes of learning offered flexibility in learning. Learners could learn at their own pace provided all tests and assignments were taken with the whole class. The characteristics of both modes of learning are given below.

### *The Flipped Classroom*

Flipped classroom learning is an improvised pedagogical learning approach offering learning at the individual level, providing a dynamic, student-centric, focused, and interactive way of teaching. Using this approach, teaching is designed with the intention of providing flexible learning and delivering professionally intentional content to the learners. The flipped classroom methodology reverses the traditional teaching process. It moves the lectures out of the classrooms and brings in the learning activities in the classroom to reinforce the concepts (Figure 10.5).

### *Characteristics of Flipped Classroom Approach*

The characteristics of flipped class can be summarized as “Learning first, teaching second” (Yan-Mei SONG 2016).

- In-class learning environments are highly structured. Instructors need to plan in advance how to keep the students engaged.

- Instructional materials and appropriate resources for familiarizing the content to students prior to the class sessions.
- Instructor has to identify suitable techniques/tools and administer them to supplement effective learning.
- In-class activities are designed in a manner that students solve problems, answer quizzes, and apply or retrieve the content that they have learned earlier through the materials provided (PPT/videos/reading materials, etc.).
- Students are greatly encouraged through frequent and continuous feedback.
- Micro class teaching method is followed—According to the teaching objectives, materials and videos focus on one knowledge point, making knowledge clearer. All activities, quizzes, and tests in class revolve around that one knowledge point.
- Students are responsible for their own learning.

### *Assessments Used in a Flipped Classroom Approach*

The flipped classroom approach is more decentralized and personalized, and the challenge therefore is to create assessments that provide reliable, actionable information about student learning in the various phases of the learning process. Technological tools used for assessments are Kahoot, Padlet, Edpuzzle, Socrative, Mentimeter, Poll Everywhere, etc. Other assessments that can be used are:

1. Short metacognitive activities to gather in-the-moment data on student activity.
2. Performative assessments are open-ended without having one fixed answer. They are complex, time-bound, and help understand whether the students have understood the concepts at a deeper level. They integrate two or more skills and therefore can be challenging for the students. Students have to be informed in advance of what is expected of them and how they will be assessed using a rubric. Examples of performative assessments are:
  - Presentations
  - Projects
  - Portfolios
  - Performances
  - Demonstrations
  - Debates

### *Resources/Tools Used*

The techniques adopted in teaching through the flipped classroom approach provide scope and opportunity for using different teaching and learning resources that can act as effective guides for achieving the learning outcomes. Resources and tools together may prove effective in delivering the objectives of the approach.

Some common resources that can be widely used based on the course level and assessment by the instructor depending on the objective and purpose are:

- a) Open education resource—textbooks, news articles, published short scientific material, journals, etc.
- b) Online quizzes, blog posts, debates, group discussions.
- c) Online free open-access courses or share recorded lectures.
- d) Sharing links to specific course written content through videos.



Tools that could be used along with the above resources are:

- Videos—self-recorded PowerPoint presentation, screenshot recording video, live or virtual recorded video
- Wiki-
- Padlet
- Podcasts
- TED-ED
- Poll Everywhere
- Socrative
- YouTube—sharing content video links

### Blended Learning

With the rapid increase in the use of technology in classrooms, blended learning is another e-learning method that combines traditional classroom methods with independent study. During the pandemic, many institutes followed this method. It catered to students learning according to their own pace, needs, and learning styles (Figure 10.6).

#### *Advantages of Blended Learning*

**Collaborative Learning Experience:** Collaboration increases between the teachers and the students through online platforms. Today, there are many online tools such as online discussion platforms, blogs, and instant messaging, through which students can connect with each other outside of the class and manage their learning.

**Increased Accessibility:** Increased connectivity has also resulted in students accessing materials from anywhere at any time. This has resulted in improved attitudes of students toward learning. Students are not limited to only the four walls of their classroom. This independence also results in students taking responsibility for their own learning.

**Better Communication:** There is increased communication between the teachers and the students. Online platforms for communication, as mentioned earlier, help the students to always remain connected with the teachers. This instills confidence in them that the teacher is always with them.

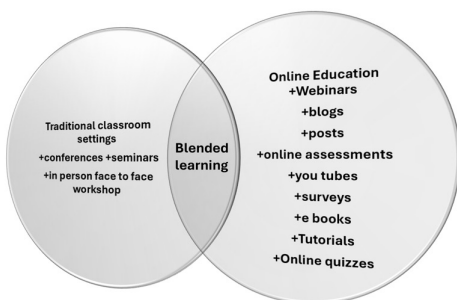


Figure 10.6 The blended learning.

Source: Author.

**Successful Skill Development:** Use of e-learning platforms helps students to hone their computer-related skills. More importantly, time-bound activity using discussion platforms and online material resources helps students to manage their time, think critically, and solve problems in collaboration with other group members.

**Successful Evaluations:** Better student evaluation takes place as online standardized testing tools are used. Students can grade themselves through the feedback system and improve on their weaknesses.

**Personal Approach:** Each learner has a different learning style. This method caters to each student's pace and learning style, creating a more comfortable environment for both slow learners and fast learners. If learners are struggling with a particular topic, they can reach out to their peers, web resources, or get help from their instructor.

### *Disadvantages of Blended Learning*

**Technological Dependence:** Technological dependence is mostly at the infrastructural level. First, the campus must be well-equipped 24/7 with wireless technology so that the students can access resources, have an online chat, or refer to blogs at any time. Second, the resources and tools that are made available to the students should be reliable and up to date for the use of the internet so that it creates a meaningful impact on the learning experience.

**Mindset of Teachers and Students:** In using technology, the issue of digital literacy arises. If the students are not sufficiently IT literate, then using online tools and resources can be a huge deterrent in the learning process. Teachers also should cultivate a positive mindset toward the use of technology. It is likely that teachers are also not well-equipped with IT skills; therefore, apart from training them, trainers could help them with its use until such a point that they feel confident using it themselves.

**Loss in Student Learning:** Students tend to study at the “*n*th” moment, which can prove detrimental to the entire learning process. If students do not read their materials, take part in online discussions, watch the videos and comment on them, and do not access materials at an appropriate time, it is likely that they will lag in learning. It is important that they do all the activities required at the appropriate time so that they are in sync with the teacher and the rest of the students.

Another aspect is the cognitive load that falls on students. Some students may be slow learners and may not be able to accept the dual challenge of coping with face-to-face instruction and online activities. For such students, learning becomes a burden that is likely to result in losing interest in studies and dropping out of education.

**Overload on Teacher:** It would be wrong to say that teachers will not be overloaded with work. No doubt, it is extra work for teachers as they have to choose the right topics for technology to be integrated. Not only this, but the right kind of blogs have to be posted on which the students can discuss freely online and the right kind of activities have to be devised on the online materials students are going to access. Most importantly, an appropriate ratio has to be established between online materials that students are going to access and those to be undertaken in the class.

### *Problem of Plagiarism*

An important aspect related to technology is the issue of plagiarism. When online resources are available 24/7, students are susceptible to “cut and paste” information for

their assignments. It is important, therefore, to set the rules beforehand. First, only credible sites need to be accessed to gather materials. Second, only paraphrasing and summarizing should be allowed, quoting from where they have taken the information. Third, while evaluating their online assignments, marks/grades/grade cycles should be deducted upon seeing the plagiarism reports. Today, many plagiarism software are available on open-access portals, which are free of charge. Students can submit their assignments on those portals and find out for themselves the kind of plagiarism they have done and redo their assignments before the final submission. This will enable them to write their assignments in their own words and, at the same time, take responsibility for their learning.

In conclusion, every methodology has its positives and negatives. According to the level of the class, it is up to each teacher to judge the amount of technology to be incorporated into class discussions. Negatives can always be minimized if the methodology is going to prove effective in the long run.

### To Summarize

1. New digital education requires a fundamental change in the mindset of both teachers and students. Tools and resources should be provided to the students that they could use immediately.
2. Many formats can be used to deliver online courses.
3. The three important components of online teaching are Social Presence, Cognitive Presence, and Teaching Presence.
4. When introduced to and in the initial stage of online learning, students need scaffolding over the semester.
5. Student communities need to be built so that they do not face isolation. Timely high-quality feedback is of immense importance as they would know where they are making errors.
6. Applied methods of online teaching are the flipped method and the blended learning approach.

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# 11 AI in Teaching, Learning, and Research

Historically, technology had taken the form of learning management systems, e-learning texts mainly to aid learning resources (Linn et al., 2014; Pellegrino & Quellmalz, 2010). Further, COVID-19 provided a huge catalyst by shifting education to various digital platforms, and since November 2022, with the release of ChatGPT (Generative Pre-trained Transformer) model to the public, there has been a paradigm shift in the education scenario. This shift and the use of AI tools is not limited only to education (Williams 2023; Tate 2023), but to sectors like engineering (Qadir 2022), journalism (Pavlik 2023), medical (Nisar and Aslam 2023; O'Connor and ChatGPT 2023), and economic and finance (Alshater 2022; Terwiesch 2023). ChatGPT, QuillBot, and Google Bard have revolutionized the teaching scenario by writing assignments, research papers, solving complex math problems, producing images, etc., challenging time-tested educational practices in teaching, learning, and assessments. We cannot wish away their applications; instead, we need to explore how it can be used to enhance the teaching learning scenario—students for learning, teachers for effective teaching, and researchers for research.

The integration of AI technologies, particularly ChatGPT, has brought new opportunities and vitality to traditional teaching processes and methods. As a natural language processing tool, ChatGPT's ability to understand and generate natural language, coupled with its strong conversational interaction capabilities, has resulted in the creation of personalized and high-quality learning content and services for students. This has greatly transformed learning processes and activities.

## AI and Teaching

In online teaching, teachers were overloaded with work and had to produce detailed lesson plans along with the activities they had to design. This proved to be challenging along with teaching and giving feedback. The use of ChatGPT has reduced the burden of the teachers. It assists in lesson planning and designs activities depending on the proficiency level of the learners. These chatbots also help in generating ideas on a range of topics. They help the teachers to meet their educational goals (Bonner, Lege, and Frazier 2023; Mohammed, 2023). They facilitate learning by recommending useful reading sources to construct ideas, giving feedback on students' work to enhance their language use and increasing their motivation for learning writing (Chan and Hu, 2023 ; Jeon and Lee, 2023). They also help in material development by creating passages that are well-suited to the needs of the learners for testing or for reading practice purposes (Bonner, Lege,

and Frazier, 2023; Jeon and Lee, 2023). To support what is stated above, links to two videos are provided which demonstrate how AI tools can be used to facilitate teaching. They show how these can help teachers save time and effort, making their work less burdensome.

Not only teaching, but these models help in assessment too. They can help in generating comprehension and expansion questions (open-ended or multiple-choice) and conduct formative assessments, providing immediate feedback (Khonke, Moorhouse, and Zhou, 2023). Studies of Mizumoto and Eguchi (2023) revealed that they could “efficiently grade essays with a certain level of accuracy and reliability.”

### AI and Learning

From the students’ point of view, using AI language models adds to their learning experience. Language is effectively learned when a lot of input is provided to the learner, the learner can assimilate and internalize it and then produce language in the form and type as required. This input could be in the form of texts, vocabulary, grammar structures, etc., even in its simplified form. Once the teacher has provided the input in class, it is likely that the students have not understood the concept or not understood the meaning of some difficult words or phrases. In a face-to-face class, we always say that the purpose of pairing the students or putting them into groups is that a student with some weakness in comprehending is likely to benefit from a lucid explanation of the concept in L1. We can say that the same function is provided by the AI models. Using ChatGPT supplements class teaching. After the teacher has explained the concepts in class, the student can seek further explanations of the concepts not understood, definitions of the words and phrases, and even increase the repertoire of vocabulary on certain topics. The students can ask questions and request English words to be translated into their L1 for a better understanding of the subject (Meniado, 2023; Klyshbekova, 2023). It provides feedback to the students on grammatical items, scaffolding the structural and language aspects to strengthen the use of language. It assists students in outline preparation, content revision, proofreading, and post-writing reflection (Chan and Hu, 2023; Su, Lin, and Lai, 2023). In this whole process of self-directed learning, they also develop critical thinking skills. When they write a prompt, ask questions, and seek answers, they need to discern whether the bot has given them the answer they require. They need to go back to classroom teaching and reflect on what they have been taught in class to find out whether the answer they have received is totally different from what the teacher has said or does it supplement what the teacher has taught in class. In short, it directs students to think critically, leading to learner autonomy, a long-standing complaint from educators that the students should develop on their own.

### AI and Research

Let us now turn our attention to how AI tools and ChatGPT can help in research. Artificial intelligence tools, especially ChatGPT—the language conversational model, have had a huge effect on research in the fields of medical sciences, computers, engineering, etc., where large amounts of data must be computed and interpreted. An article published in *Nature* emphasized the benefits of using these tools as they significantly reduced

the workload of researchers, allowing them more time to “conduct their experiments, promoting new innovations and achieving breakthroughs in multiple fields” (van Dis et al. 2023). Scientists must sift through large volumes of data and find out relevant information quickly by analyzing and summarizing them. It thus assists in data management faster than humans (Huang and Tan 2023). Ray (2023) in his study reveals how applications of ChatGPT in data processing and analysis also help in the following:

- (i) Natural language processing for data extraction from scientific literature.
- (ii) Summarization and synthesis of complex datasets.
- (iii) Automated identification of patterns and trends in data.
- (iv) Predictive modeling and forecasting.

This is so far as research in STEM courses are concerned. What about the subjects in Humanities or Social Sciences or Arts of which Language Learning is a part? Pack and Maloney (2023) in their studies reveal that ChatGPT can assist researchers by compiling and summarizing information on various studies conducted on the topic under research. Along with this, students can also take the help of AI tools and ChatGPT to narrow down a research topic or tweak the topic to an extent that reflects the perspective the student wants to research on. Narrowing on the topic can be done by continuously going through the feedback loop using the bot. Different kinds of prompts can be used to arrive at the perspective the student wants to research on. Further to this, an outline can be generated, and even within the outline, students can add and delete the points suitable to what they want to write their views on. Once the outline is established, the bot can also help the students if they want to know the resources they can refer to when writing their research paper. Lund and Wang (2023) in their study reveal that research scholars can use ChatGPT to get assistance in

1. Literature review—by identifying relevant literature related to the topic. It can even generate summaries of the articles provided key words are fed into the prompt.
2. Analyzing data related to social media posts or news articles, which are voluminous, and providing insights and identifying patterns in the data.
3. Translating language by machine so that researchers can access and understand research materials in multiple languages.
4. Automatically summarizing scientific papers, reports, or other documents, making it easier for researchers to stay up to date with the latest developments in their field.
5. Answering domain-specific questions makes it a powerful tool for scholars to find answers quickly and efficiently.
6. Generating text in a specific style or tone, which allows researchers to easily generate draft versions of research papers, grant proposals, and other written materials.
7. Citation and referencing of the resources can be accurately cited according to the style that they want to, e.g., MLA or APA or Chicago or Harvard.

In short, ChatGPT or language-based AI tools can help researchers generate knowledge. Critics of these AI tools have a different argument. They argue that if artificial intelligence tools are going to do all the work for students, then how are they going to learn the skills of summarizing and paraphrasing for writing their literature review? If they are going to analyze all data, then how are they going to use the different T tests or the Chi tests to arrive at their results? And finally, if AI tools are going to interpret

data, generate discussions, and even write the papers, has the student learned to conduct research and write a research paper? Well, for a layman the answer is no. However, one needs to understand that ultimately these are tools having no thinking capacity and have their own limitations. When given a prompt, at best they dive and sift through vast databases and come up with a probable answer that best fits into the prompt given. Once the knowledge is generated by these AI tools, it is for the students to discern and apply their critical thinking skills to find out whether the content generated is applicable to what was asked. Sometimes the information is inaccurate, out of context, and even biased (Huang and Tan, 2023; Ray, 2023) and of course the risk of plagiarism is always there, which is separately dealt with subsequently. Ray's study (2023) speaks about some inherent limitations of ChatGPT incomplete or outdated knowledge, long conversational context challenges, difficulty handling inappropriate or harmful requests, limited emotional intelligence, lack of personalized feedback, limited domain-specific expertise, inability to interact with external systems, difficulty handling multilingual queries, difficulty with non-literal language, limited creativity, overgeneralization, inconsistency in quality, energy consumption and environmental impact, difficulty capturing human intuition, lack of self-awareness, and the like. As mentioned earlier, we cannot do away and therefore, judicious use of these tools is the key. Students' over-reliance on this tool will gradually reduce their ability to think critically, explore, verify, and summarize actively. If this trend continues, it will greatly affect students' learning outcomes and development (Kasneci et al. 2023). It is essential therefore to teach students how to use these technologies correctly and effectively to ensure that their learning process is meaningful and efficient (Villasenor 2023). It is important to help them recognize the limitations and risks associated with this technology and help them "use Chat GPT correctly, transparently, and develop independent thinking and innovation skills necessary to adapt to future challenges and opportunities" (Ienca 2023).

### **Academic Dishonesty**

Development of AI technology brings new opportunities and challenges to education. A recent survey revealed that nearly 89% of American college students use ChatGPT to complete homework tasks, with 53% using the tool for writing papers. Additionally, 48% of students use ChatGPT during exams and 22% use ChatGPT to generate paper outlines (McGee 2023). However, it is worth noting that some students are not only able to successfully complete assignments using ChatGPT but also achieve high scores. A question that comes to the fore is how do students adhere to academic integrity while using AI tools? Isn't all this plagiarism? A text written by AI tools does not attribute to being plagiarized. If the entire text is written by AI tools without it being revised by the students, it can be considered a plagiarized text. What should be done to minimize the risk of plagiarism?

AI tools should be used only as supplements: The text should be reviewed to remove any biases, understand whether the context is clear, and to verify if the content is correct.

All sources should be correctly attributed: The students should ensure that all sources are correctly cited according to the style and requirements of the research paper. Sometimes it happens that the AI tool uses resources that are incorrect, invalid, outdated, or non-existent. Not only attributing sources correctly, but also the in-text citations and quotes used should be verified. Since AI tools have access to a vast reservoir of databases from numerous sources, it is important to verify whether the text generated has been



paraphrased or are the large chunks of text are “copy pasted.” This can be verified by using plagiarism software like Turnitin. Students can also supplement the text with multiple other resources to develop the extant research paper because one does not want a “mere reworded paper” (Huang and Tan 2023). Finally, it is important to revise, edit, and format the paper carefully. Editing is necessary for originality and accuracy, and formatting is required to adhere to the requirements of the journals where it will be published.

In conclusion, AI tools are not the end but the means to an end. Even when the product is in front, it is important to humanize it. Technologies can help students better master knowledge and improve learning efficiency. The knowledge generated needs to be given a final shape by the researcher, the creator. There can be progress when technologies and humans complement each other. It is important to take full advantage of technologies like Chat GPT, leverage and take advantage of the new opportunities it provides to education, while at the same time being mindful of the risks and challenges it poses. Integration of technology into research will help scientists in all disciplines to produce quality research that will positively impact society.

### To Summarize

1. Historically, technology had taken the form of learning management systems, e-learning texts mainly to aid learning resources. However, with the release of ChatGPT, there has been a paradigm shift in education.
2. Educators need to explore how it can be used to enhance the teaching learning scenario—students for learning, teachers for effective teaching, and researchers for research.
3. In the hands of the teachers, it is an effective tool for material development, testing and assessment, and creating reading and writing resources.
4. For learners, it provides a lot of input; they can assimilate at his/her own pace, internalize it and then produce language in the form and type as required. This input could be in the form of texts, vocabulary, and grammar structures. Students can seek further explanations of the concepts not understood, definitions of the words and phrases, and even increase the repertoire of vocabulary on certain topics.
5. In research, it can be used for literature review, analyzing data, domain-specific texts, citations, etc.
6. Educators need to be aware of the challenges it brings, like plagiarism, which need to be comprehensively addressed by each institution according to their policies and rules.

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## 12 Assessment and Evaluation

Teacher Beliefs and Notions		
1.	Assessment is just writing tests and using statistics.	
2.	A comprehensive final exam is the best way to evaluate students.	
3.	Scores on performance assessments are preferable because of their accuracy and authenticity.	
4.	Multiple-choice tests are inaccurate measures of language.	
5.	We should test only one skill at a time.	
6.	A test's validity can be determined by looking at it.	
7.	Issues of fairness are not a concern with standardized testing.	
8.	Testing has no relationship with teaching and learning.	
9.	Student writing is a valid instrument for testing writing skills.	
10.	Teachers should not be involved in preparing students for tests.	
11.	Multiple-choice questions (MCQs) are easy to create.	

### Introduction

I conducted a workshop on “Preparing Question Papers” a couple of years ago, and a teacher came up to me and said, “I am a teacher, my job is only teaching, I don’t set the final question papers, why do I need to know the nuances of designing a question paper/test? Why should I attend the workshop?” This question is like saying that I am recruited by the school/college for teaching, then why should I do administrative jobs when they are assigned to me? Language-wise, this is a valid question but if one looks at it functionally, it is not. The answer lies in the fact that **student assessment and evaluation are integral to any teaching–learning process, integral to any curriculum development. To understand the learning outcomes, students must be assessed and evaluated on what they have been taught. Classroom teachers undertake student evaluation by designing tests on what is taught to them in class.** Designing and setting tests is embedded in teaching to such an extent that it is impossible to segregate one from the other. Therefore, a teacher’s job is not only to teach, but to ascertain whether learning outcomes have been met with and this can be done only when they create tests and assess them on what they have taught in class. This brings me to the importance of testing and its relationship with teaching.

### Teaching–Testing Relationship

As mentioned earlier, the importance of testing in any teaching–learning scenario cannot be disregarded. The learning outcomes of the students can be measured through various assessment strategies depending on the purpose. However, at the very outset, two questions need to be addressed:

1. What is the purpose of testing?
2. For whom is testing important?

Both the questions are not exclusively separate, but complementary to each other. The primary purpose of testing is to **measure the language behavior of the learners**. All educational institutions have found merit in the scheme of continuous evaluation, and therefore, every teacher periodically, each semester must design tests and mark the scripts of the students. Second, testing must go hand in hand with teaching; that is, you cannot test students on what has not been taught in class.

**Testing is therefore important for both the students and the teacher.** Every teacher teaches so that students gain knowledge, skills, and competencies. This means that the teacher should know whether her/his teaching is effective. The teacher should know whether:

- Students are understanding/comprehending the content.
- Pace of the teaching needs to be altered.
- Methodology of teaching needs to be changed.
- Learning outcomes are met with.

Administering tests and interpreting the scores help the teacher to understand which students are facing difficulties and which students require special attention, thus helping the teacher to appropriately address individual students' weaknesses and provide remedial measures.

The purpose of classroom tests is also to give students an insight into what they have learned. For good performing learners, it acts as a motivator; it pushes them to focus more and fare better than what they have done earlier. However, for the average and weak students, it makes them aware of their problematic areas so that they can direct their energies toward developing them.

In classroom assessment, since teachers themselves develop, administer, and analyze the results, it provides feedback on the effectiveness of instruction and gives the students a measure of their progress. Student assessment thus

- Facilitates the teaching–learning process.
- Measures the teaching–learning process over a period.
- Diagnoses the students' learning strengths and weaknesses and helps make decisions about the students' progress as a group.
- Ranks the student's capabilities in relation to the whole group.
- Evaluates teaching methods.

This relationship between teaching and testing can be summed up using the visual from Brown's (2004) thesis on the subject: (Figure 12.1).

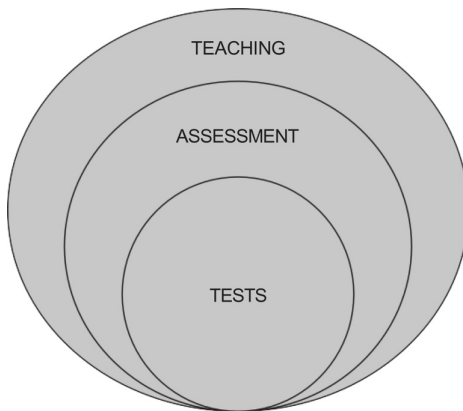


Figure 12.1 Relationship between teaching, assessment, and tests.

Source: D. Brown (2004).

According to Brown (2004), testing measures a student's performance on a given objective through a given instrument prepared for measuring that objective. As compared to testing, assessing is evaluating or appraise a learner's level during an ongoing learning process. The above diagram shows the differences in language teaching practice. Teaching overlaps assessment, measurement, and tests to evaluate learner competence. During the teaching–learning process, the teacher provides instructions along with assessment to evaluate how learners acquire and produce what they have learned in the class. Thus, assessment, measurement, and tests are interrelated to teaching.

### Different Types of Tests

As mentioned in the earlier section, tests are designed with certain objectives in mind. The objectives could be to test their proficiency level in the language or to find out the kind of aptitude they have before placing the students in a certain program, or trying to find out within the class the knowledge they have on a certain aspect of the lesson which is going to be taught, or even to find out how much they have learned or achieved in the given program or the individual courses. Given the various objectives and the different stakeholders taking the tests, they can be grouped under five categories:

1. Proficiency tests
2. Diagnostic tests
3. Aptitude tests
4. Achievement test
5. Placement tests

#### *Proficiency Tests*

The proficiency test is specially designed to measure the command the language learners have regardless of any training or learning they may have had. It measures the ability of a learner to apply the learned knowledge. Therefore, it is not based on any particular

course content learners may have followed. The measure is based on what the learners can do in the language in order to be considered proficient. There are standardized tests today, for example, the TOEFL of the United States or the IELTS of the United Kingdom and Australia that learners take to study in those countries. Clearing these tests means that students would be able to follow the language used by the academia in those countries. It is also a measure of the standard of language with respect to certain specified abilities. Within the classroom also, proficiency tests can be given to find out the language ability of the whole class.

### *Diagnostic Tests*

These tests are used to identify the students' strengths and weaknesses. They are primarily intended to find out in which areas teaching is particularly required. These tests serve to motivate and focus learner efforts by showing them their strong and weak points. However, one needs to be cautious while designing these tests for testing language proficiency. It may be relatively easy to design a test to diagnose their levels in speaking as opposed to their reading skills; however, it would be a herculean task to design a comprehensive diagnostic test in grammar as it involves numerous components. One cannot create different diagnostic tests for different aspects of grammar because the scores obtained on different aspects are likely to be challenged for reliability and validity.

### *Aptitude Tests*

Aptitude means an innate ability to do something. Language aptitude refers to the innate ability to learn languages. The test that measures the ability to learn a language is called a language aptitude test. That means, the scores obtained reveal whether the student has the ability to learn a language or not, thus helping the teachers to understand whether he/she is suitable for a certain course. For example, a student might take an aptitude test to help determine which type of career he/she might be best suited for.

### *Achievement Tests*

The purpose of achievement tests is to measure learned knowledge. Each grade level has a certain level of expectations, and testing is used to determine if schools, teachers, and students are meeting those standards. These tests show how successfully the students or a student has learned, and these tests are directly related to the learning outcomes. Generally, there are two kinds of achievement tests: one that is administered at the end of the course and the other that is given while the course is in progress. These tests are related to the course content taught in the class. The final test is administered at the end of the semester/academic year to find out how much the students have learned and covers the entire course taught. Progress achievement tests, on the other hand, are generally administered in the middle of the semester to gauge the progress students are making in the course.

Usually, teachers confuse an aptitude test and an achievement test. It is important to note that achievement tests differ from aptitude tests. The aptitude test, as mentioned earlier, is designed to understand whether a student is likely to be successful in a particular course. The achievement test, on the other hand, determines what a student knows about that particular course.

### *Placement Tests*

As the word “placement” suggests, these tests are used to place the students at different levels in the program that are most appropriate to their abilities. Most colleges use placement tests because their entering students can have very different skill levels. The scores obtained help to place students at different levels. Though there are some standardized placements tests that can be used, educational institutes usually design the test “in-house” to customize it depending on the objectives of the program, that is, according to the mission and vision of the institute. In-house tests are considered an accurate measure of the kind of students required for the institute.

Apart from the tests discussed earlier, it is important for teachers to know that there are some other tests that have contrasting characteristics. Knowledge of this is required so that if one test does not satisfy the required objectives of the testing unit, another that is appropriate can be used. The different kinds of tests are presented in a tabular form.

### *Different Kinds of Tests*

A	<i>Knowledge Tests</i>	<i>Performance (Skills) Tests</i>
B	Subjective tests	Objective tests
C	Productive tests	Receptive tests
D	Norm-referenced tests	Criterion-referenced tests
E	Discrete-point tests	Integrative tests
F	Language sub-skills tests	Communication skills tests
G	Direct tests	Indirect tests

Each of the tests mentioned earlier is discussed further.

### *Knowledge Tests versus Performance Tests*

**Knowledge tests** show how well students are knowledgeable about facts and information. These tests mostly test the content of subjects such as math, geography, and literature (to understand the plot). These tests are relatively easy to develop as the content is already present in the textbooks or in the materials that are used in the class. **Performance tests**, on the other hand, deal with the application of knowledge gained in the classroom in various contexts and situations. That is how students use the knowledge they have learned. Performance testing is much harder to create because appropriate situations need to be created to act as catalysts so that the minds of students are stimulated to produce appropriate language that can be used in the context.

### *Subjective Tests versus Objective Tests*

**Subjective tests** are those in which the questions are open-ended. These allow students freedom of expression in which they can organize their ideas and write their thoughts, choosing relevant grammatical structures and vocabulary they feel appropriate to convey their intent. That is, students must develop their answers in paragraph form. Essays, long answers, and short answers, which require them to write interconnected sentences to questions, fall under this category. These tests are usually used when:



- The group to be tested is small and the test is not to be reused.
- Students' skill in writing needs to be tested.
- Students' attitude toward learning needs to be explored rather than measuring their achievements.

**Objective testing** requires students to select the correct response from several alternatives that are supplied. The answer could be a word, a phrase, or even the completion of a statement. The testing items in this category include multiple-choice, true-false, matching, completion, and so on. Objective tests are appropriate when:

- The group to be tested is large and the test may be reused.
- Highly reliable scores must be obtained as efficiently as possible.
- Ascertaining impartiality of evaluation, fairness, and freedom from possible test-scoring influences is essential.

However, both kinds of tests measure and evaluate:

- Almost any important educational achievement a written test can measure.
- Understanding and ability to apply principles.
- Ability to think critically.
- Ability to solve problems.

More on these kinds of tests will be discussed later in the chapter.

### *Productive Tests versus Receptive Tests*

While learning a language, you develop both receptive and productive skills. When you receive language through reading and listening, you have to decode the meaning to understand the message. Designing tests to test whether students have comprehended the meaning through reading and listening are called **receptive tests**. Writing and speaking, on the other hand, fall under the category of productive skills because students must produce language to communicate their intent. Tests designed to test these language skills are called **productive tests**.

### *Norm-referenced versus Criterion-referenced Tests*

**Criterion-referenced** tests evaluate students against certain standards and goals set for the course. A test is prepared to test the objective and the entire class gets evaluated for that objective. For example, the objective of the course is to develop the reading skills of the students. That is, a reading skills test is designed to measure whether the class has achieved that course objective or not. This kind of test is called a criterion-referenced test. These tests classify students according to whether they can perform tasks (for example, as stated earlier) satisfactorily or not. Their performance is evaluated against a set criterion or standard, and they are declared "pass" or "fail." These tests therefore serve two important functions: first, they set meaningful standards in terms of what people can do which do not change with different groups of students, and second, they motivate students to attain those standards.

On the other hand, if a test is designed to compare an individual student's performance with that of other students in the class, then the test designed is called a **norm-referenced test**. These tests relate one student's performance to that of another student's performance.

### *Discrete Point Tests with Integrative Tests*

In **discrete point testing**, each item is tested individually, for example, a test specifically given only to test prepositions. Integrative testing, on the other hand, combines various language skills and aspects tested at the same time. For example, writing a paragraph is an example of **integrative testing** as it tests the organization of ideas, the use of vocabulary, and using correct grammatical structures to convey ideas. Even a simple test of dictation involves the students listening, writing, and, of course, writing correct spelling as well.

### *Language Sub-skill Tests versus Communication Skills Test*

Like the discrete point tests, **language sub-skill tests** assess different aspects of language separately. For example, to measure whether students can hear and understand the English language, phonic tests are given to evaluate whether they understand the difference between vowel, glider, and consonant sounds. On the other hand, evaluating a presentation is an example of **communication skills** in which the student is evaluated not only for his ideas but also for voice modulation, stress, and intonation patterns and how the words are pronounced. Communication skills test thus evaluates how students use language appropriately in a context.

### *Direct Tests and Indirect Tests*

Direct tests require the student to perform that skill which the teacher wants to evaluate. For example, if we want to test how well the students write compositions, they must be asked to write compositions, or if we want to know how well they can speak on any given topic, then they must give a presentation. In short, the tasks must be authentic for real-time language to be produced and evaluated. Direct testing is preferred when productive skills are to be tested. To test listening and reading skills, the test must be devised in a manner that will elicit accurate evidence to demonstrate that they have learned the skill given a particular standard. The primary goal of direct testing is that the items are nearly life-like situations. Direct testing is integrative, which means that students must apply numerous skills to accomplish that task. For example, as mentioned earlier, making a presentation involves brainstorming for ideas, writing out ideas, memorizing the speech and, while presenting, using the correct tone, modulating voice, pronouncing words correctly, and so on. **Indirect tests**, on the other hand, assess knowledge without authentic application. Multiple-choice questions, cloze items, and paraphrasing are some of the examples of indirect testing. Another example of indirect testing could also be used to identify a pair of rhyming words to test the pronunciation ability of students.

Not all teachers have to construct all kinds of tests that have been discussed earlier. However, as mentioned earlier, at some point, teachers do have to design tests. Given that teachers must design tests, what are the characteristics of a good test that can provide an accurate measure of the language behavior of students? The following are the

main points that should be kept in mind while designing tests to accurately measure language behavior.

### Characteristics of a Good Test

Every test designed has to be based on certain learning outcomes of the course, which in turn is based on the objectives of the entire program. But how does the teacher know that the test she/he has designed is an accurate measure of the language skills, or in simple language, how does one define a “good test?” It is important to note that good evaluation of tests helps teachers to measure student skills more accurately, and it also shows that they (teachers) are concerned about what they are teaching. Therefore, to be a “teacher-tester,” it is important to know the essentials of a good test. The test to be considered an accurate measuring instrument needs to be:

1. Valid
2. Reliable
3. Easy to administer
4. Easy to interpret results

The four points mentioned earlier are graphically presented in Figure 12.2. Each point is also discussed separately.

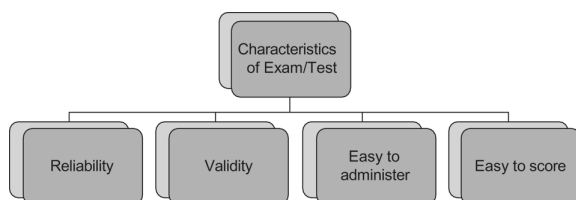


Figure 12.2 Characteristics of a good test.

Source: Author.

### Validity

*Validity refers to the degree to which evidence and theory support the interpretation of test scores entailed by the proposed uses of tests* (Standards for Educational and Psychological Testing. American Educational Research Association: 9).

The general concept of validity was defined as “the degree to which a test measures what it claims or purports to be measuring” (Brown 1996, 231). A valid test is one that serves best for a defined purpose. Let me give an example to further clarify this point. In language testing, there are two kinds of gap-filling exercises. One is called a “Cloze test” in which either the “fifth,” “seventh,” or the “nth” word is deleted. The students must read the paragraph and then understanding the context of what they are reading, they have to fill the gaps. The gaps can be filled with function words, content words, or even determiners depending on the context of the paragraph.

In another kind of a gap-filling test, either sentences or a paragraph with gaps is given and students have to fill only one kind of grammatical component, such as preposition, articles, verbs, and so on, or one kind of content words, such as adjectives, adverbs, and so on. The point to note is that the “Cloze test” (mentioned earlier) cannot be considered a valid test for testing grammatical skills because the objective of the test was to see whether students have gained proficiency in language and not knowledge of the grammar. Thus, the kind of tests to design and administer depends also on the objective of which component is to be tested.

The validity of any test can be broken into different constituent parts to make it an accurate measure of abilities (Figure 12.3).

As Figure 12.3 depicts, there are many aspects to a test being valid. A test is said to have **content validity** when it tests all the contents of the syllabus. Let me cite an example. Suppose the learning outcomes of a grammar course state that the students at the end of the semester will know passive structures and a semester end test does not test passive structures, then that test does not have content validity. If it is to be considered a valid grammar test, it should include a proper sample of all the relevant structures in accordance with the learning outcomes. Content validity is important because when the test measures what it is supposed to measure, then it is considered an accurate instrument of measurement. If course contents are unrepresented, then it is not an accurate test and if an inaccurate test is administered to the students, there is likely to be a harmful backwash effect.

**Criterion-related validity** usually includes validity strategies that focus on the correlation of the test being validated with some well-respected outside measure(s) of the same objectives or specifications. For example, if an institute wants to conduct a test to ascertain the English proficiency skills of students going into the master’s program, first they must design and administer the test to a group of students who have already completed their bachelor’s program. The results computed would then be correlated to the results of the proficiency tests, which are already standardized. If the correlation coefficient is high, then the test under consideration can be considered a valid measure of English proficiency skills. Criterion-related validity has two aspects: predictive validity and concurrent

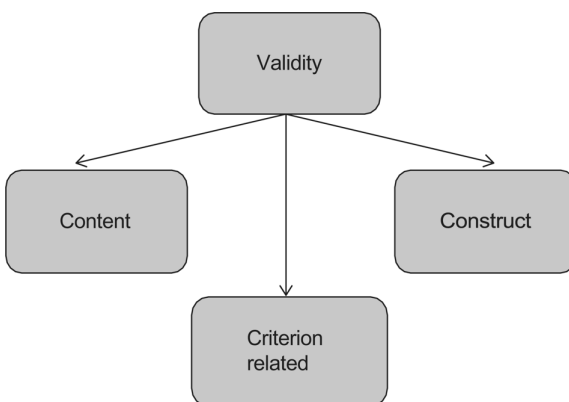


Figure 12.3 Kinds of validity.

Source: Author.

validity. **Predictive validity** refers to the degree to which a test can predict students' future performance. **Concurrent validity** is a measure of how well a particular test correlates with a previously validated measure.

A test is said to have **construct validity** if it can prove that it measures just those skills and abilities that it is supposed to measure. A "construct" refers to an attribute, proficiency, ability, or skill that happens in the human brain and is defined by established theories. These attributes are basically abstract, theoretical, and through tests they must be experimented upon and made practical. A test is said to have construct validity when it measures the construct it claims to be measuring.

Let me clarify by giving an example. If it is hypothesized that the ability to read involves numerous subskills and one of them is guessing the meaning of the words, then a test needs to be designed to test the skill of students for guessing the word meaning. If the test has a matching question that has the meaning and the words, in which students have only to match the meaning with the words, then the test will not have construct validity, and will not be considered a valid measure of testing the hypothesis that "ability to read involves guessing of the meaning of the words."

### **Reliability**

Reliability refers to the *degree to which test scores for a group of test takers are consistent over repeated applications of a measurement procedure and hence are inferred to be dependable and repeatable for an individual test taker; the degree to which scores are free of errors of measurement of a given group* (Standards for Educational and Psychological Testing, American Educational Research Association: 180).

A test is considered reliable if it consistently measures any groups at any given point in time. The test that produces one result on one day and another result on another day is not considered reliable. Let me make it clearer by explaining Table 12.1.

Another test is designed and administered to Groups A, B, and C at different times on the same day. You can observe that the variance in marks is very great; it is nearly 10 (38.5–48.4). As compared to Table 12.1A, the difference in the variance of scores is very large (A—2.5 and B—9.9). This means that the test given to Groups A through C is unreliable as it does not measure different groups consistently at different times.

As you can see, a test is designed and administered to Group A through Group E on two separate days and at different times. It is to be noted that the same test is administered on the next day to different groups at different times. When computed, the group scores revealed that there was a lot of similarity in the scores of the groups even if the test was administered at different times in one day. The variance was up to 2.5 marks (40.0–42.5) scored, which is justifiable because you need to consider other variables as well.

Reliability becomes a major concern at the end of the semester/year when different sets of examinations are prepared to offer different groups. To assess multiple sections of the same course, it is important that only one question paper is designed and given to the students in which all abilities are tested. Otherwise, the teacher must ensure that the same abilities are tested at the same level and that is likely to prove a great challenge to all the teachers.

Another aspect that emerges from the entire issue that requires every teacher's attention is the issue of **scorer reliability**. Many colleges and institutions of higher education have multiple sections of one course in which more than two teachers are teaching the course. While assessing papers, it is important to first compare the scores given by

Table 12.1 Comparing Reliability of Tests

Table 12.1A: Comparative Scores of Groups on Two Days

Groups	Date: September 11, 2022	
	Time	Group Scores out of 100
Group A	10.00 am	40.5
Group B	2.00 pm	42.0
Group C	6.00 pm	41.4
Groups	Date: September 12, 2022	
	Time	Group Scores
Group D	11.00 am	42.5
Group E	4.00 pm	40.0

Total Variance in Scores: 2.5.

Consider the following Table B.

Table 12.1B: Comparative Scores of Groups on One Day

Groups	Date: September 18, 2022	
	Time	Group Scores out of 100
Group A	10.00 am	38.5
Group B	2.00 pm	45.0
Group C	6.00 pm	48.4

Total Variance in Scores: 9.9.

teachers on the same test and find a median in them. This is to ensure that on one testing item, one teacher should not give very high marks while another teacher is giving low to very low marks. This means that scorer reliability must be ascertained so that all students get fair scores on the ability of their performance despite different teachers assessing the same test. Just as a test should be made a reliable measure of testing language behavior, similarly, marks given by teachers must be monitored so that students can be scored accurately based on what they have written.

### *Easy to Administer*

Despite the test being reliable and valid, sometimes it lacks the practicality of administration. A test must be such that can be administered with the help of the resources present and available in the educational institutions. For example, if a test requires new software or additional teachers to be recruited, then it becomes an impractical test. Alternatively, even within the given infrastructure if there are many anomalies, then the test becomes difficult to administer. For example, if proper seating arrangements are not provided, or if students are seated in a room that has no desks, tables, benches, or ventilation, or if students are seated in a room where a lot of noise from the outside comes in, or even students of the same group are seated in different floors of the institution from where

they have no access to supervisors to clarify their doubts, such factors are bound to affect the score of the students, leading to inaccurate measurement of their abilities. Another example could be that if listening tests are conducted in a room where there are hardly any acoustics, then the scores on listening can never be a valid and reliable measure of their listening skills. Before administering a test, therefore, all issues need to be taken care of so that students are not likely to get distracted while answering their tests/exams.

### *Easy to Score*

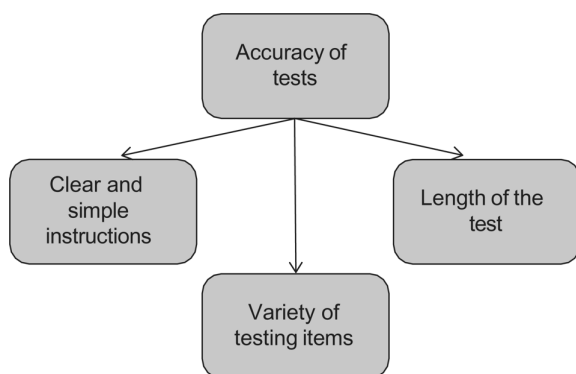
The tests also should be designed in such a manner that scoring also becomes easy. The word “easy” does not mean to give away marks easily, but as mentioned earlier, scorer reliability should be introduced where there are multiple sections of the same course and more than two teachers are teaching the same course, and the exam given is one. Even providing a detailed scoring key with acceptable answers will help teachers to score them without involving subjectivity. Teachers can either decide on a norm-referenced scoring or criterion-referenced scoring. Similarly, analytical scoring involving a language rubric can be used to test written components rather than the holistic way of scoring as it involves some kind of subjectivity. There are many views on this statement and the kind of scoring that could be used will depend upon the purpose of the test. However, what is important is to ensure that all students are scored fairly according to what they have written.

### *How to Make Our Tests Accurate?*

Even if a test is considered valid, all logistics are taken care of for its administration, all tests have undergone scorer reliability, and all model answers are available to the teachers, yet, any test cannot be considered accurate if it does not have the points depicted in Figure 12.4.

An accurate test should have:

1. Clear and explicit instructions.
2. Questions correlating to the length of the time allotted.
3. Variety of question types.



*Figure 12.4* Accuracy of tests.

*Source:* Author.

Along with what is mentioned above the students should be familiar with the format of the test and testing techniques that the teacher is going to use.

### Clear and Explicit Instructions

All oral and written instructions given in the test for every question should be clear and explicit. Simple language should be used which is devoid of jargon, so that the weakest of the student can understand what is demanded of him/her. If difficult language is used, then sometimes even the most intelligent of the students would not know how to answer the question. This also means that words having a multiplicity of meanings should be avoided, because the students are likely to interpret it in their own way, thus jeopardizing the reliability of the test. If the teacher is using a technical word, which has no alternative, then the meaning of the word needs to be made clear to the students in class (before the exam), so that when they see the test paper they are not confused. Let me make this clear with the help of an example.

Consider the following question in mathematics:

Evaluate the following expression and find the value

$$-(0.8)^2$$

Answer

$$= -0.8 \times 0.8$$

$$= -0.64$$

Here the meaning of the word “evaluate” is to determine or calculate the numerical value of a formula, function, and so on. The same word has a different meaning in English. Consider how the word “evaluate” is used in a question in a course in English literature:

Evaluate whether the decision taken by Georg was right or wrong. Support your answer by giving examples from the story you have read.

In this case, the word “evaluate” means to state the pros and cons of the decision taken and then to state your own reasons for what you think. Therefore, if one goes by the Revised Bloom’s Taxonomy (Anderson and Krathwohl 2001), the word “evaluate” in mathematics refers to a lower-order thinking skill while in English it refers to a higher-order thinking skill. The important point to note therefore is that if students are taking both the courses, Mathematics and English literature, then the teachers should make it clear to the students what kind of answer the question demands when such words are used.

Another example is provided in which students need to know the meaning of certain words before they can formulate answers to write.

### Example

*Define the italicized word in the sentence and provide an illustrative example in support of your definition.*



The above example could prove problematic for the students to understand of what they are supposed to do if they do not understand the meaning of the words “define,” “italicized,” and “illustrative example.”

All questions, therefore, whether written or oral, should have instructions that are in a language that is easy and simple for the students to understand. It is always a good idea to show other teachers the instruction you have written for the test, so that if the meaning is not clear or if some words require a change, then they can give suggestions, which the teacher can use other words to make the meaning clear. The teacher while writing instructions should avoid complex and convoluted sentence constructions, double negatives, and idiomatic language because it becomes difficult for the students to understand. Even when MCQs are designed, the teacher should never use absolutes such as “never” or “always,” which can lead to confusion. In other words, the instructions for answering any questions should be such that there is no ambiguity of meaning for the students and they can write what the teacher expects them to write for that question.

#### *Test Should Be According to the Length of the Allotted Time*

Every test is allotted a length of time in which students have to answer the questions given. For example, a 40-mark summative test at the end of the semester is usually given a 2-hour period in which the students must answer. It becomes important that the questions in the question paper should keep them engaged for 2 hours. The test does not become a reliable measure of assessment if the students finish the exam in 30 minutes, which is scheduled for 2 hours. This means that there is something wrong with the test given. This also brings us to a crucial point of the kind of questions a test should contain in order that it befits the length of time and be considered a reliable measure. The variety of questions and the different types that a test should contain are detailed further.

#### *Test Should Have a Variety of Question Types*

Even if a test fulfills all criteria of validity, it cannot be considered reliable if it does not have a variety of test questions. A test is considered a reliable instrument of measurement when it has all types of questions, that is, some number of subjective and some number of objective questions. This point needs to be kept in mind because every learner has different learning styles. Gardner’s multiple intelligence theory states (1993) that every learner can be classified under seven distinct intelligences. He argues, “the broad spectrum of students ... would be better served if disciplines could be presented in a numbers of ways and learning could be assessed through a variety of means.” The different learning styles are visual-spatial, bodily-kinesthetic, musical, interpersonal, intrapersonal, linguistic, and logical-mathematical. Keeping in mind the different learning styles of students, if only one type of question, either subjective or objective constitutes a test, then the test will not be considered a valid instrument of measurement because the language ability of all students is not being measured. Hence, a test to be considered a reliable instrument for measuring language behavior should constitute both objective and subjective types of questions. Figure 12.5 further depicts the different question types that teachers can use to make their tests reliable.

Broadly, questions can be divided into two types: one with fixed responses and the other with free or open responses. In free responses, you have questions that require

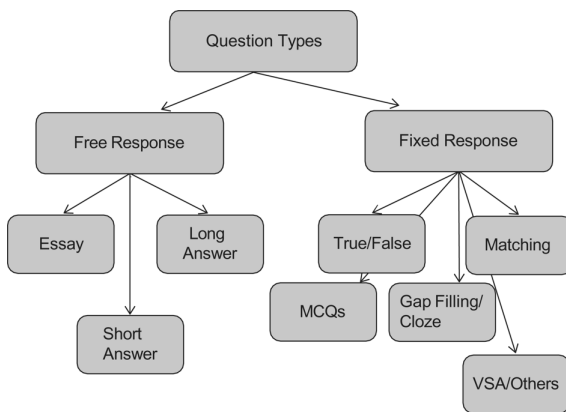


Figure 12.5 Different question types.

Source: Author.

students to write long answers that are in paragraph form. In fixed responses, the students have to answer in only one or two words, or match one word with its meaning, or synonym, or antonym.

### *Fixed Responses*

#### Multiple-Choice Questions

The basic structure of a multiple-choice question is that there is a stem and there are four options of which one is the correct answer while the other are distractors. The student has to identify the correct or the most appropriate response. For example,

1. India \_\_\_\_\_ Republic Day on January 26 every year.  
 i. is celebrating    ii. was celebrating    iii. Celebrates    iv. celebrated

In the above example, the sentence with the blank is called a stem while the three options i, ii, and iv are distractors, option iii is the correct answer.

The **advantage** of this question type is that the scoring is perfectly reliable, which means that there is no subjectivity in scoring. If the answer is correct, then the student secures full marks for the answer. **Another important advantage** of this type of question is that more items could be included for the students to answer in a given period of time than otherwise can be given. However, there are **limitations** too of this testing technique. The **most important disadvantage** of this is that the chances of students guessing the answers are more therefore it cannot be considered a reliable measure to test knowledge. **Second**, the technique severely restricts what can be tested. The reliability of a multiple-choice test lies in its distractors and distractors are very hard to find. Therefore, it is likely that sometimes a very important concept remains untested because of a lack of distractors. **Third**, the construction of a multiple-choice question is extremely difficult because it has to be absolutely “perfect.” It means that it has to be devoid of errors. Many a time

it is observed that these questions are fraught with errors like, more than one correct answer, no correct answer, clues in the options to which is the correct answer, the correct option is different in length to the others, ineffective distractors. **Finally**, preparing multiple-choice questions is extremely time consuming. The teacher does not get the satisfaction of having prepared “full proof” questions because there is always scope for improvement either in the “stem” or in the “distractors.”

Multiple-choice tests can be used to measure learning in grammar, vocabulary, reading, listening, etc.

### *Gap-filling*

In gap-filling questions, the students must fill the gaps given in the sentence to complete it. Sometimes clues are also provided so that the students are facilitated to use the correct word. These types of questions are easy to create and score. The challenge that the teacher sometimes faces in creating such tasks is that in some cases there could be more than one correct answer. Gap-fills can be used to test a variety of areas such as vocabulary and grammar, and are very effective at testing listening for specific words.

### *Cloze Test*

A cloze test is another kind of gap-filling exercise in which the fifth, or seventh, or ninth, or the “nth” word is blank so that the student can read the sentence and fill in the word that best suits the meaning in context. Before blanking the words, it is important to retain the first two sentences of any paragraphs so that the students get the context of what the paragraph is about and the kinds of words to insert. tests, what are the characteristics of a good test that can provide an accurate measure of the language behavior of students? The following are the main points that should be kept in mind while designing tests to accurately measure language behavior.

The difference between this and the gap-filling exercise mentioned earlier (a) is that in the cloze test, the students can **fill either** function words or content words while in the gap-filling exercise the students must **fill only** content or function words. Let me make this clear by giving two examples, one, by blanking words in individual sentences and another by blanking some words from the lines of a paragraph.

#### *Example A (Individual Sentences)*

1. Choose the most appropriate prepositions and complete the sentence given further:
  - The boys got down \_\_\_\_\_ the bus and are running \_\_\_\_\_ the beach.
2. Choose the most appropriate words and complete the sentence given further:
  - The boys got down \_\_\_\_\_ the bus and are \_\_\_\_\_ toward the beach.

Consider carefully the instructions written above in both questions. Instruction A is for filling in prep prepositions to complete the sentence, while instruction B is for filling in any word that is appropriate to make the sentence meaningful.

The answer for A is:

1. The boys got down **from** the bus and are running **toward** the beach. while the answer to B could be
1. The boys got down **from** the bus and are **running/walking/strolling/jogging/** toward the beach.

Each student is free to write the answer according to ones' own experience therefore for the second blank there could be multiple answers, which are all correct. Now consider the following example in the paragraph form.

### *Example B (Paragraph)*

1. **Complete the text by filling articles/determiners in the blank.**

As people get older, they lose some of their earlier enthusiasm. Mr Chowdhary, was a heavy smoker in his college days; he used to smoke between 40 and 50 cigarettes day. Now he is \_\_\_\_\_ chewer of pan and cannot stand the \_\_\_\_\_ smell of cigarette smoke!

2. **Complete the text by filling in the blanks with the most appropriate words.**

A sparrow built a nest in a field of sugarcane and now there were three tiny birds in it. One day the farmer went into his field with his young son. "I should cut down \_\_\_\_\_ cane tomorrow," he said. "\_\_\_\_\_ will ask three men \_\_\_\_\_ the village to help me." When \_\_\_\_\_ mother sparrow came back \_\_\_\_\_ the nest in the \_\_\_\_\_, the little birds told \_\_\_\_\_ of the danger. "We'll \_\_\_\_\_ to look for another \_\_\_\_\_ tonight," they said. "Not \_\_\_\_\_, little ones, he won't cut it tomorrow, that's certain."

In the first question according to the instruction given, the blanks can be filled in only with articles and determiners. But in the second question, the students must fill the gaps depending on the meaning. The answers given at the end of the chapter reveal that the students must fill in content words as well as function words to bring out the meaning.

One can observe from the two examples given earlier; the cloze type of question is more integrative as students have to process different aspects of language simultaneously. Giving a cloze test to the students can also be considered a good indicator of overall language proficiency. However, the teacher must provide practice to the students in class before it can be used as a test type. Cloze tests can be very effective for testing grammar, vocabulary, and intensive reading.

### *Matching*

In this kind of question type the student has to link the words from one column with the words in the other column. This could be individual words and definitions, parts of sentences, pictures to words, synonyms, antonyms, etc. This is an easy test to prepare and score. Matching exercises are most often used to test vocabulary.

### **True/False**

The student has to decide whether the statement is true or false. The student has to decide whether the statement is true or false.

*For example:*

*State whether the following sentence is True or False.*

Australia won the World Cup in Cricket in 1983.

For those students who haven't studied or read their lesson, this type of a question usually leads to guessing the correct answer. One way to counter this could be to give many statements so that guessing of answers could be averaged out.

This question type can be made slightly complex if justification is asked from the student even if the statement is true.

*For example:*

*State whether the statement is true or false and give reasons for your answer.*

1. White spaces are essential when writing a letter or a memo.

In the above sentence, whether the answer is true or false the student has to give a reason for it. The reason given by the student will lead the teacher to understand if the student has understood the concept or not.

This question type is mostly used to test listening and reading comprehension.

### **VSA/Others**

Another type of question in the fixed response type is Very Short Answer, which means that the student has to answer in two or three words. In this kind, the students are given an incomplete sentence that they must complete in two/three words. For example:

Complete the following sentences in two/three words.

1. \_\_\_\_\_ and \_\_\_\_\_ aspects are present in the story, "The Judgment."
2. The central idea of the poem, "Road Not taken," is the \_\_\_\_\_ one must take at some point in time of one's life.

The answers to the above statements are:

1. Autobiographical and historical
2. Hard choices

The difference between the abovementioned and "Fill the Gaps" question type is that the student has to know the content of the course he/she is studying. The scope of guessing the answers to this kind of question is minimized.

Yes/No-type questions also fall into this category.

### **Free responses**

Certain types of questions require free responses from the students. Multiple-choice questions, matching exercises, and true-false items discussed earlier are examples of selected

response test items, which require students to choose an answer from a list of possibilities, whereas essay-type questions require students to compose their own answer. John M. Stalnaker (1951, 495) defines essay-type questions as

A test item that requires a response composed by the examinee, usually in the form of one or more sentences, of a nature that no single response or pattern of responses can be listed as correct, and the accuracy and quality of which can be judged subjectively only by one skilled or informed in the subject.

Based on Stalnaker's definition, an essay question should meet the following criteria:

- Students are required to compose rather than select their response.
- Student responses must consist of more than one sentence.
- Answers allow different or original responses or patterns of responses.
- Answers require assessment by a competent specialist to judge the accuracy and quality of responses.

Long essay questions are not the only testing items that test students composing and organizing skills. Short answers to questions also require students to construct responses. However, essay-type questions require more systematic and in-depth thinking.

Long essay questions in which students are required to compose and write all that they think about the issue in question is considered by educators as "good" questions because they reveal students' abilities to reason, create, analyze, synthesize, and evaluate. Thus, the purpose of the essay-type question is to help students recall facts so that they can summarize the notes made, explain in detail major and supporting points, justify their position, compare, contrast, or illustrate, apply, or transfer previously learned principles/knowledge, and finally state one's opinion justifying with the help of examples. Thus, the purpose of using essay questions is to

1. Assess students' understanding of the subject matter and the ability to think on the knowledge gained.
2. Understand students' writing abilities.

In short, essay-type questions test the language proficiency of students in terms of composing sentences, organizing ideas, and developing them using supporting information, using language that includes grammar and vocabulary. This leads to developing critical thinking as it allows the students to question the issue and write accordingly, thus leading to learner autonomy.

### *Guidelines for Framing Essay-Type Questions*

An important aspect of assessment is that the teacher should make the students understand what is expected from them in the essay questions depending on the terms used in framing the questions (Revised Bloom's Taxonomy, Anderson and Krathwhol, 2001). For example, what is the student expected to write when the teacher asks a question, which reads like the following:

Analyze and explain the constituent parts of a cell.

For the above question, the student needs to know

- How the cell is formed?
- How many parts it consists of?
- How each part is interrelated with the other to form a whole?

This is an important aspect of teaching and assessment because the students should not be penalized for not knowing what they are supposed to write. As mentioned in the earlier section (test should have clear and explicit instructions), it is the duty of the teacher to tell the students the meaning of the terms (verbs) so that the students write the expected answer. If the teacher does not discuss the meanings in class and if the students are unable to write according to the requirements of the question, then penalizing them with less mark is not doing justice to them.

In conclusion, the teacher knows best the learning outcomes of the course, the language used in class, the concepts taught, and the level of the students. Therefore, designing a reliable and valid instrument for measuring the language behavior of students is the prerogative and the responsibility of the teacher teaching the course. If the teacher keeps in mind the main aspects of constructing a test, the scores obtained would also be an accurate measure of the abilities of the students, which could be generalized for future predictions.

#### To Summarize

1. Teaching and testing are intricately interlinked. It is a feedback mechanism for both teachers and students.
2. Test must be a reliable and valid measure for assessing the language behavior of students. It should also be convenient to score and easy to administer.
3. Use of different question types adds to the reliability of the score and measurement.
4. There are subjective and objective types of tests each having its own advantages and disadvantages.
5. Tests must be chosen depending on the purpose of testing and the learning objectives to be measured.

#### *Answers to the cloze test in paragraphs*

1. As people get older, they lose some of their earlier enthusiasms. Mr Shah was a heavy smoker in his college days; he used to smoke between 40 and 50 cigarettes a day. Now he is a chewer of pan and cannot stand the smell of cigarette smoke!
2. A sparrow built a nest in a field of sugarcane and now there were three tiny birds in it. One day the farmer went into his field with his young son. "I should cut down the cane tomorrow," he said. "I will ask three men from the village to help me." When the mother sparrow came back to the nest in the evening, the little birds told her of the danger. "We'll have to look for another place tonight," they said. "Not yet, little ones, he won't cut it tomorrow, that's certain."

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# 13 Building a Culture of Academic Integrity

The knowledge explosion that began in the 20th century has taken on a new dimension in the 21st century. COVID-19 further compounded this explosion when education went digital on various platforms. Educators earlier were always concerned about academic integrity more in terms of cheating in exams, but during the pandemic, it raised its head in a different form and dimension which is now furthered by AI language tools. The rampant use of these tools does not allow the teacher to detect and determine whether the student has plagiarized the assignment or written it himself/herself. Then how does one go about upholding academic integrity in education?

## What Is Academic Integrity?

Academic integrity is not a new phenomenon. C. S. Lewis (1943), the most influential writer of the 20th century stated that “*Integrity is doing the right thing even when no one is watching.*” According to him, though the values of good and bad, right and wrong are universal, they do not develop automatically in students. According to him these were the core values to be developed in humans, and therefore, the difference between them has to be taught through education. MacLean (2015) supported this view and said that “*Integrity is holding oneself to a high ethical standard because it is the right thing to do. Integrity is intrinsically motivated. It is self-imposed.*” His definition adds dimensions of being “intrinsically motivated” and “self-imposed.” Both definitions put together give what the educators are looking for in students today. They are looking for students who understand that “cut-copying-pasting” from other sources amounts to plagiarizing, which is wrong. This abstract value has become intrinsic, and students are strictly imposing it on themselves to progress in their learning. In short, academic integrity is the quality of being honest, being morally upright, and adhering to strong moral principles to prove accountable for one’s own actions.

## Core Values of Academic Integrity

The International Centre for Academic Integrity (ICAI) defines academic integrity as “*a commitment, even in the face of adversity, to six fundamental values: honesty, trust, fairness, respect, responsibility and courage.*” The core values are applicable to teaching, learning, scholarly activities, and related to the intellectual ideas of all stakeholders. Let us look at each one of them (Figure 13.1).



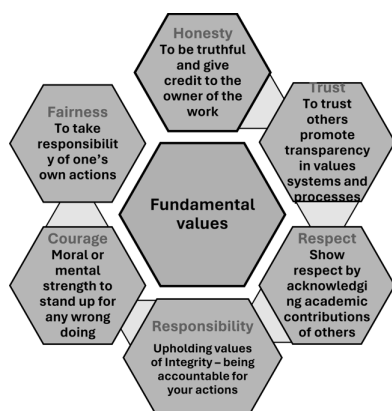


Figure 13.1 Fundamental values of academic integrity.

Source: International Centre for Academic Integrity (2021).

### *Honesty*

This value begins with every individual and expands into the larger community. As students, we continually seek knowledge from various sources.

In study halls and laboratories, in libraries, playing fields, and classrooms, cultivating and practicing honesty lays a foundation for lifelong integrity. Institutions also must commit to being honest with students, faculty, staff, supporters, and their broader communities, for honesty at the organizational level sets the tone for the overall academic endeavor (ICAI).

Adhering to honesty leads to trust.

### *Trust*

Members of the academic community must trust each other's academic contributions. Whether it is the teacher trusting the student or the student/researcher trusting the teacher or the supervisor, it encourages mutual understanding and enables us to collaborate, generate new ideas, and reciprocate each other's thoughts without fear. Trust can be achieved by promoting transparency in values, processes, and systems.

### *Respect*

In academic communities, respect means acknowledging the ideas and contributions of the peer group and valuing their opinions. This can be demonstrated by proper identification and citation of sources. A learning environment is created, which fosters active engagement through spirited and lively debates, leading to a shared collective responsibility of accepting each other's ideas and thoughts.

### ***Responsibility***

This means being morally, legally, and mentally responsible for one's own actions. It is an individual and collective responsibility to uphold values of integrity in scholarship, teaching, research, and service. Responsibility can be demonstrated by holding oneself accountable for one's own actions, following the institutional rules and code of conduct, creating personal boundaries, and model good behavior.

### ***Courage***

The value of courage means sticking to one's own convictions despite knowing that you might be in the minority. Researchers, students, and teachers must make choices in challenging situations that demonstrate academic integrity and allow them learn and grow. This can be demonstrated by a willingness to take risks and being undaunted in defending integrity.

### ***Fairness***

To be fair means to be impartial and treat all by the same yardstick. Teachers display fairness by treating all students equally. Students do all their work on their own, acknowledge the source if they have used outside resources, and follow the policies instituted by the institution. Fairness is demonstrated when all stakeholders take responsibility for their own actions, and institutions consistently apply rules equally to the staff, faculty, and students.

## **Why Is It Important to Cultivate This Value System?**

HEIs have always served society by providing them with human resources. They have been instrumental in building upon the foundation laid in schools and equipping students with the skills and competencies that the industry wants to see in the graduates they hire. Each institute strives to build certain attributes in their students, and through this learning process, they strive to pursue "lives of significance and responsibility" (*Sullivan and Rosin, 2008*). How can this be achieved in academia? Any breach in this integrity amounts to academic dishonesty and is known as academic misconduct. Before we move on to answer the question, let us delve into some details regarding the various forms academic honesty takes and the reasons why students resort to dishonesty in their academic careers.

## **Reasons Why Students Resort to Academic Dishonesty**

While speaking to faculty members of various educational institutes, a common refrain is heard, such as "many students have plagiarized," "students are using AI tools to write their assignments," "the ideas that they have written don't seem to be original," "the language they have used is not their own," etc., and many more similar refrains. This reveals that students are resorting to unfair practices to achieve their academic goals. The main reasons for this could be:

- Desire to get a good grade.
- Fear of failing—lack of confidence in one's ability.

- Procrastination—poor time management disorganization.
- Feeling disconnected from the course, instructor, or material.
- Disinterested in the assignment given.
- Belief that they will not get caught.
- Anxiety, depression, and other mental health problems.
- Confusion about what constitutes plagiarism and the current institutional policies on this issue.

If we break down these factors, we will see that there are some individual issues and some contextual factors. The most important **contextual factor** is peer behavior. Peer behavior provides normative support; they help each other in their assignments and copy from other assignments. Many peers do not consider it a breach of integrity when they copy-paste from their peers. When copying in examinations, students “do not consider cheating a serious transgression” (*The Fundamental Values of Academic Integrity*, ICAI, 1999). Students feel that cheating is considered acceptable and getting away and staying ahead.

McCabe et al. (1999) in their study consolidated some individual factors that could contribute to students breaching academic integrity. They are:

- Bored with the materials
- Disinterested in the course
- Gender and age
- Parental pressures
- Desire to excel
- Pressure to get a job
- Lack of responsibility
- Poor self-image
- Lack of pride
- Lack of personal integrity

Though this study was conducted in 1999, all the factors for breach exist even in this century. It happens that sometimes the students are not interested in the majors they are pursuing. Parental pressure may have made them opt for a particular major, or to give an example from the Sultanate of Oman, one of the Middle Eastern countries, the Ministry of Higher Education allots them majors according to their preferences. It is possible that the student has not received the major of their choice. Therefore he/she gets bored with the course materials. Of course, the Ministry gives them a chance to change their majors, but perhaps by that time, they are disinterested, or they have come so far in their academic career that they decide to stick to the original major because ultimately, they want to get a job. Some students feel inferior to others, resulting in a poor self-image which leads them to breach integrity, or some want to prove that they can do well in their assignments and exams by breaching integrity. Though these are some plausible reasons, they still do not give license to the students to breach integrity. These factors resulting in a breach take different forms, and the following behaviors are perceived:

- Contract cheating
- Ghost writing
- Artificial intelligence-based writing

- Text manipulation
- Source code plagiarism
- Impersonation
- Collusion
- Plagiarism

When students want to pass or get good grades at any cost, they resort to contract cheating or ghost writing. Experience has shown that students who do not have the language to express ideas in their own words but at the same time must clear the assignments of the course resort to the use of or even use AI tools. Even students with proficiency in language are using AI tools “just to save time.” Impersonation is an extreme form of academic breach and occurs when another student appears to answer the exams for the original student. Students resort to plagiarism in their assignments. Plagiarism also takes different forms, which is revealed in the following infographic (Figure 13.2).

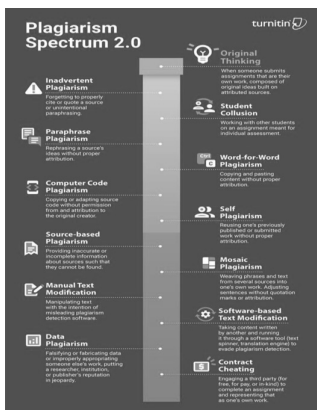


Figure 13.2 Different forms of plagiarism.

Source: <https://www.turnitin.com/instructional-resources/plagiarism-spectrum-2-0>.

Given the factors that cause the breach in integrity, how should the institutions move forward in cultivating the culture of academic integrity?

### Cultivating the Culture of Academic Integrity

All institutions need to develop holistic approaches to develop academic integrity in their students and staff. A three-dimensional approach needs to be taken. Each and every institute needs to have robust policies and procedures in place to address all types of breaches, along with the associated punishments. These must be disseminated to all stakeholders, and action must be taken on all breaches committed. In the classroom, faculty must build a rapport with students so that mutual trust and acceptance are established. Finally, the best practices in teaching and assessment should be adopted so that students do not have the opportunity to breach integrity. Given the scope of the book, I would like to delve into details of two aspects: how can we build a trustful classroom environment, and what should be our teaching and assessment practices (Figure 13.3).

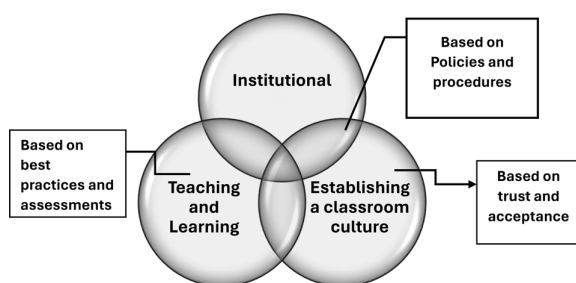


Figure 13.3 Cultivating academic integrity.

Source: Author.

### Establishing a Classroom Culture

All HEIs in their own way are developing the culture of academic integrity in their students. The most basic of all measures is to build a classroom culture of honesty, based on the foundation of mutual trust and acceptance. It cannot be done in a month's time, in a semester, or in a year's time. It is a long process—the complete academic journey of a student from the school level, which further consolidates when the student joins college/university. Students must be a part of this whole process and contribute 100% percent to achieve the trust and confidence of the educators that they have not breached integrity and can always be trusted upon. This value will stand in good stead when they start their professional careers and achieve success in it. How can we do that?

The first step toward establishing a culture of academic integrity in the classroom is to conduct orientation sessions. These sessions should be conducted every semester to communicate to the students the policies regarding dishonesty and encourage them to abide by these policies. They should also be informed about the consequences of not adhering to the policies and rules laid down by the college. The concept of plagiarism should be explained and discussed in detail, as this is the most common form of breach that students resort to in their academic journey. Explanation and discussion should revolve around how it is tied to academic integrity and outline the penalties that the student would be subjected to when he/she resorts to the breach.

The students should also be active participants in this whole discussion. They should have the freedom to ask questions, and this Q&A session is likely to help them to understand this concept in their own way. Another measure of student participation is to form student groups. These student groups convey the message to their peer groups about not indulging academic dishonesty. These groups also go into the classrooms and give a small presentation on why plagiarism should be avoided in tests and assignments.

Further to this, when any student breaches academic integrity, the teacher must act. It is important to support students, but it is equally wrong to keep quiet when students breach integrity by plagiarizing or copying in tests and assignments. Generally, all institutes ask students to submit their assignments through Turnitin, the plagiarism detection software. Benchmarked by international standards, each institute decides the percentage of plagiarism that the student can be pardoned for. When the teacher notices that the student has plagiarized their assignments, they are called, questioned, and asked for an explanation. Further, if the explanation is not satisfactory, the teacher must escalate it to

a higher level. While all this is happening, according to the college policy on plagiarism, marks are deducted from the student's assignment. The strong action taken against the erring student sends a strong message that academic integrity should not be breached.

This applies even to students cheating in exams. We have already mentioned why students resort to cheating in exams. Students who are caught copying are punished. They fail that course and must repeat it. This affects their GPA and their timeframe to graduate gets extended. It is important, therefore, to orient the students in all these aspects that are going to affect their academic progress if they breach integrity norms.

### *Teaching Practices and Assessments*

Tricia Gallant (2008) said

situate[ing] integrity practices within the goal of improving student learning [is] in essence shifting the focus from how educators could stop from cheating to how they could ensure students are learning.

This quote brings me to the aspect of **improving instruction**, a key component in the learning approach to enable students to learn the desired skills. As faculty, we must ensure learning strategies/activities are aligned with the achievement of the learning outcomes of our courses. Active learning is one of the instructional methods that faculty can engage in to reduce academic dishonesty. It builds on the constructivist learning theory (discussed in this book), which considers that students learn by connecting ideas and experiences that they already have lived through. This kind of learning eliminates the traditional activities like listening, reading, and memorizing, and instead includes a variety of activities like collaboration, applying knowledge, processing information, etc. It would engage students in learning by thinking, discussing, investigating, and creating. They will face challenges and struggle with complex questions, try to seek solutions, and explain them, defending their own positions. This would mean re-envisioning pedagogy and helping them learn skills and competencies. They would also be collaborating with their peers in all activities, leading to deeper learning. This instruction can be further enhanced by Socratic questioning, which will enhance critical thinking and reduce reliance on outside materials. An example of engaging in this type of methodology would be Problem-Based Learning and Team-Based Learning, which has been discussed in this book.

Even in written assignments, teachers can provide a list of web resources that students can use as additional help. They must ensure that students are taught and are using skills of note-taking, summarizing, and paraphrasing to reduce the instinct of “cut, copy, paste” from the resources. How to write in-text citations, how to quote, and how to prepare a reference list/bibliography according to the style followed by the institute needs to be taught. Students are bound to make errors but need to provide appropriate and timely feedback so that they can learn (discussed in detail in this book).

Institutions can also create resources and support services for their students, such as counseling centers, writing labs, tutoring centers, etc., to enable the students to work on themselves. This will help them gain self-confidence, which will enable them to gain control over their learning.

What kind of **assessments** should teachers design to reduce academic dishonesty? We mentioned earlier in this chapter that problem-based learning could be used as a method, or the constructivist mode of learning could be used to achieve desired learning outcomes.

Keeping in line with that, **alternate assessment types** should be used that test the higher-order thinking skills in students. Case studies could be given to them, and questions could be based on those, allowing them to use their HOTS and write the answers (McCabe et al. 1999). If a group project is given to them, presentations could be one assessment method where each student presents how each one has contributed to the project. If the group project is given with their interests in mind their interest or even allowing them to choose their topics, it will generate a lot of engagement, ownership, and motivation, which is likely to decrease indulgence in academic misconduct (Lang 2013).

**Reflective writing as an assessment** is a systematic, rigorous, disciplined way of thinking, with its roots in scientific inquiry. It is a meaning-making process that moves a learner from one experience into the next with a deeper understanding of its relationships with and connections to other experiences and ideas. It also requires attitudes that value the personal and intellectual growth of oneself and of others (Rodgers 2002).

Assessments that have short turnarounds are likely to lead learners to resort to academic dishonesty (Bretag et al. 2018). Sufficient time should be given to them. An ideal situation would be to ask the students the time they require. After this time, if the teacher observes examples of dishonesty, it is up to the judgment of the teacher to decide whether a particular student or the whole group should be penalized.

### Final Reflection

Building and establishing a culture of academic integrity is an integrated process. No doubt it is challenging, but it is bound to change over a period. It is a process of integrating educative reforms, intervention by the faculty, and prevention, supported by the College/University (Figure 13.4).

**Educative reforms**—changing the cheating experience into knowledge, making the students aware that cheating is an offense.

**Intervention** by the Faculty—Detection—Enforcing the rules that the students are already oriented to.

**Prevention**—Supported by college and university policies and procedures.

In addition to the above, teachers should also look at the pedagogy of teaching and use alternative assessment methods.

All the above will enable students to

- Make ethical decisions.
- Develop their skill-making capabilities.
- Enhance their metacognition.
- Increase their understanding of academic and professional integrity standards.

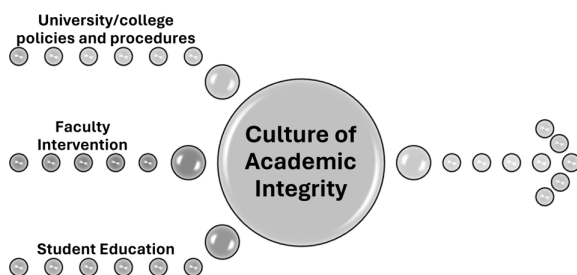


Figure 13.4 The way forward.

Source: Adapted from Rodafinos, A, Warwik, L., Robbie, D. And. (2016).

All HEIs are attempting a major cultural change, and successful cultural change requires patience and the ongoing involvement of students, faculty, staff, administration, institutions, and society at large.

### To Summarize

1. Academic integrity is the quality of being honest, being morally upright, and adhering to strong moral principles to prove accountable for one's own actions.
2. Students, staff, and faculty, all uphold the fundamental values of academic integrity.
3. There are many reasons why students resort to academic dishonesty. These reasons take up different forms.
4. What should the educational institutes do? Cultivate a culture of academic integrity. How can this be cultivated?
5. There are three pillars of cultivating academic honesty—institutional, teaching and learning, and cultivating a classroom culture.
6. The way forward—university policies and procedures, faculty intervention, and student education.
7. Students are to be made active participants in this whole process.

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## 14 Materials Analysis and Technological Aids

**Test yourself on the use of classroom materials before you go into this chapter.**

Mark each of the following statements. If you agree, mark it with a tick (✓); if you disagree, mark it with a cross (X); and if undecided, mark it with a question (?)

1.	Teaching and learning situation will not be complete unless it has its relevant textbooks.	
2.	Textbooks may hinder a teacher's initiative and creativity because of its set structure and sequence.	
3.	Textbooks are effective sources for teachers and learners because they are the products of experienced researchers and developers (Harmer 2001).	
4.	Textbooks are inadequate for supplying every learner's needs.	
5.	Textbooks provide an explicit framework, which clues teachers and learners into what they have done and what will be done.	
6.	Textbooks can reduce time in material preparation so teachers can devote more time to teaching instead of spending time creating in-house materials.	
7.	Topics in textbooks are irrelevant or uninteresting to actual classes that possibly cause learners boredom and a paucity of motivation.	
8.	For learners, they are perhaps the most important source of language input apart from contact with the teacher.	
9.	It scaffolds teaching and learning and provides guidance and negotiating points between teacher and learner.	
10.	Textbooks are merely collections of topics from which the teacher can pick and choose.	
11.	Authentic materials are good resources for language teaching	
12.	Information available on the internet should not be used in classrooms.	
13.	All websites carry credible information which can be used by students.	

## Introduction

How important are textbooks and what role do they play in the teaching–learning process for both teachers and students? Is analyzing a textbook important before use? These questions and many more aspects of textbooks interlinked with teaching are the focus of this chapter.

The most important factors for a teacher are students, a textbook, earlier the chalk and the board, and of course, today the laptops, tablets, or PCs, without which any teacher feels out of place in the class. We all know that the textbook is a reference point for both the teacher and the student. However, an important point to note is that both the students and the textbooks are **given** to the teacher. The teacher has no control over what is written inside the textbook. The teachers have to **teach** whatever is given/written in that book irrespective of the fact whether the teacher likes it or not or agrees with the views in it or not. If teachers have no control over the content, then whose responsibility is it to see that the textbooks are appropriate for the level of the students? Of course, it is the management's responsibility to ensure that the curriculum that is followed is represented by an appropriate text, which caters to the overall objectives that lead to specific learning outcomes. Here, material analysis plays an important part. This means that the resources given to the students, that is, the textbooks used, must be analyzed to verify whether their use will lead to the required outcomes. Textbook analysis, therefore, is the systematic analysis of the textual materials that include the structure, the focus, and special learning assets.

## Importance of Teaching Materials

What are teaching materials and why are they important? Teaching materials are a compendium of knowledge that are put together by a single author or a group of authors to teach learners a language or gain knowledge in any other subject or area. As this book deals with the teaching of the English language, I will limit myself to the use of materials used in teaching English as a second language.

Teaching materials can be grouped under one head, called a textbook and henceforth, the word textbook will refer to the teaching material used to teach language to students. A textbook/coursebook is generally prescribed, recommended, or used based on the preference of a teacher. Opinions vary on the usefulness of these books in the classroom; however, a majority of the textbooks/coursebooks are used in the classrooms as they are:

- Syllabus substitutes: they show what to teach and in what order to teach,
- Ready resources for tasks,
- Inexpensive source of materials to be used by the teacher and students,
- Compendium of tasks and activities which teachers may use or build upon in order to select or produce additional inputs,
- Primary source of support to students efforts to prepare for tests and examinations,
- Repositories of readable materials at the appropriate level,
- Models of learner's own language use.

*Source:* Tickoo (2001)

Despite its numerous uses in the classroom, **the** textbook is not the only means to the end. Textbooks are points of reference for the teacher and the student. It guides the teacher to

1. Understand material that is to be covered.
2. Teach the materials in progression of difficulty and chronology; that is, which component to teach first and which afterwards.
3. Organize her/his class as each lesson is carefully designed.
4. Use a particular methodology which is embedded in the textbook.
5. Undertake strategies in class to teach language.

For the students, it is a point of reference of the

1. Syllabus covered by the teacher.
2. Content of the aspects covered.
3. Content to learn in times of a test or examination.

In addition, a textbook helps parents to monitor what their child is studying in school. Given the usefulness of textbooks for both teachers and the students, an important point that emerges is that any book prescribed to provide knowledge to the students should be carefully selected by the management/teachers so that the learning objectives and course objectives are met. Teachers assume the text is “sacred” and follow it without thought or write it off as useless. Therefore, it is important that before prescribing a textbook, it should be analyzed in detail so that it becomes a ready reference for both the students and teachers, and more importantly, it becomes a relevant document for the purpose it is used for. Then how can a textbook be analyzed? The answers to these questions are attempted in the following section.

### *Textbook Analysis*

Textbook analysis is a systematic analysis of all the materials in the textbook, which include structure, content, methodology, and the tasks created for further learning. The analysis is a critical evaluation of the quality, meaning, and tasks it offers to reinforce concepts. No doubt teachers are of the view that textbooks need to be analyzed before they are used in classrooms, but the question that needs to be answered is what kind of analysis needs to be done? Which levels of analysis need to be followed?

Studies have pointed out that there are various opinions about analyzing textbooks. Littlejohn (1998) proposed three levels of analysis, which is graphically presented in Figure 14.1).

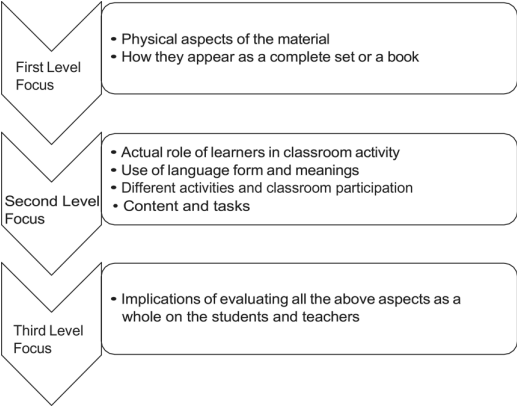


Figure 14.1 Levels of textbook analysis.

Source: Littlejohn (1998).

According to Littlejohn (1998), the textbook should be analyzed externally and internally.

*First Level:* Focuses on physical aspects of materials and how they appear as a complete set or book.

*Second Level:* Focuses on analyzing the actual role of learners in classroom activities, on the form or meaning, activities and classroom participation, and contents of the tasks.

*Third Level:* Focuses on implications derived from the content, teacher and student involvement, skills, effects, and impact of the materials.

McDonough and Shaw (2003) and McGrath (2002), on the other hand, provided a comprehensive two-level model of the external and internal evaluation for textbooks—**External** evaluation involves the ideology presented by the author/publisher through the cover pages, introduction, and table of contents while the **close/internal** evaluation involves in-depth analysis of the textbook in terms of materials and how the materials are suitable for the claims that the author/publisher has made. This view can also be graphically depicted as follows: (Figure 14.2).

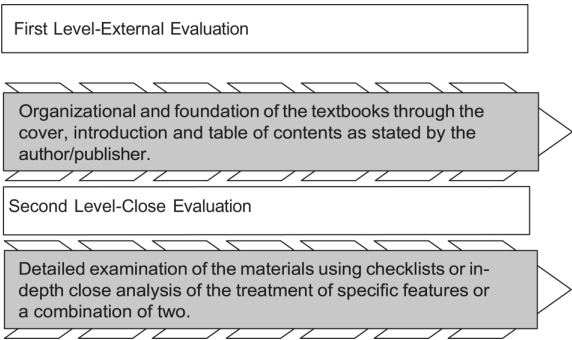


Figure 14.2 Internal evaluation of textbooks.

Source: McDonough and Shaw (2003) and Mc Grath (2002).

Whatever be the levels of analysis, no single textbook can be “perfect.” Analysis of any textbook or materials should have a standard criterion as the information in the book is going to “make or break” the student. It is difficult to arrive at one standardized criterion as the stakeholders are differential. The teachers teaching the course should analyze the textbook. The selected textbook should:

- Support the mission and vision of the educational institution.
- Consider the level of the students for which it is going to be used.
- Serve to achieve the designed learning outcomes.

### *Considerations for Analyzing and Evaluating Content*

While analyzing and evaluating textbooks certain criteria should be considered.

#### **Physical Layout**

The physical layout of the book is of importance as much as the content. Evaluation and analysis should be based on the following questions:

- Do the table of contents represent a logical development of the subject matter?
- Are the chapters and subsections well organized?
- Are there common organizational features among all the chapters that help students organize new information they learn? (For example, headings/subheadings, graphic organizers, tables, proposed objectives, etc.)
- Do pictures, graphs, and charts support/extend the text itself? Do they vividly illustrate the concepts covered?
- Are the captions present and helpful?
- Is the size of the print appropriate for the level of the students?
- Are there any “special features” at the beginning or at the end of the book that make the text especially useful?

#### **Content**

- Is the material an accurate, meaningful, and presented in an engaging manner?
- Are the questions asked before, during, and after the chapters mere recall questions, or do they stimulate students to think critically, apply concepts, draw connections across ideas, or apply to one’s own interests and experiences?
- Are the examples suitable for the level of the students and can they relate to them?
- Does the text include quotations from primary sources to support and add interest?
- Do the illustrations and examples fairly represent race, ethnicity, gender, and class? Are the representations of people non-stereotypical?
- Are multiple and diverse perspectives offered in relation to the content?
- Do the chapters contain opportunities for self-assessment? Are there multiple formats for self-assessment?
- Is the material expressed in multiple ways (e.g., words, illustrations, photos, etc.) to support different kinds of learners?

### **Chapter Summaries and Supplementary Materials**

- Are the objectives of the chapter stated at the beginning?
- Do the chapters contain study guides, summaries, or other special features to help review the major concepts during and/or after reading?
- Are the exercises appropriate for the level of the learners?
- Are there supplemental materials, such as workbook exercises, videos, activities, web resources, etc.?
- Do the supplemental materials require students to undertake tasks or activities that will further their skills or knowledge on the subject?
- Are suggestions and resources given for the teacher to supplement further exploration of the subject?

### **Vocabulary**

- Are technical terms highlighted, defined, and explained adequately for adolescent readers when they are first introduced?
- Are there an appropriate number of new terms introduced in each chapter?
- Are there relevant application examples of new terms?
- Does the text provide necessary background knowledge by reviewing or reminding readers of previously acquired knowledge or concepts?
- Is the readability of the text appropriate for the grade level for which it is intended?

### ***Potential Problems or Concerns***

What are the potential problems or concerns you might have for using this textbook?  
What are some suggestions for remedying the potential problems?

- For students (language, content, assessments, etc.)
- For teachers (too much material to be covered/too little information/too complex/too superficial treatment of the concepts, etc.)

### ***Overall Evaluation***

- List the overall strengths and problematic areas in the text as a whole.
- Would you recommend this text for use in your school/college/institution? Why or why not?

Source: Adapted from Julie Coiro <https://uri-englishlanguagearts.wikispaces.com/EDC+448+Literacy+Across+the+Content+Areas>.

Once the decision is taken, it becomes the responsibility of the teacher to use the text in class. This brings me to another aspect of materials and that is, apart from the textbook, which other materials can be used in class to support teaching. The materials that are used to support teaching are authentic materials and supplementary readers. Both are discussed briefly below.

### *Supplementary Readers*

Supplementary materials are needed for every classroom. They are used to support the textbooks that students use. A common practice in schools is to recommend supplementary reading materials that go with the textbooks. Generally, these readers are “not taught” in the class; students have to read it on their own and these materials are tested through class tests or in higher classes, or even in their final exams. The most important reason for the use of supplementary readers is to provide the students with richer and fuller experience of the language to gain true language competence. Usually, the glossaries at the end of the chapters and the end comments and notes of the authors help them in comprehending the text, thus making “silent reading” a rewarding experience for the students. Students at a young age feel a sense of achievement in reading these texts “without the help of teachers” thus instilling in them a sense of confidence in reading and understanding. Generally, the supplementary reader comes along with the textbook as a package, published by the publisher. However, if the teacher is given the responsibility of choosing a supplementary reader for the students, then every teacher needs to consider that they are interesting materials suited to the level of the learners’ language and cognition. Materials that can be used as supplementary reading are as follows:

- Readers specially written and published for young readers by publishing houses.
- Materials written in the local and national dailies, weekly magazines, journals, etc.
- Stories written by other students from different schools.
- Materials written by children and translated by them without the teacher’s help.
- Translated stories for children from other regional languages.

The above list is not comprehensive; the teachers have the freedom to choose any text that he/she finds suitable to raise the language competence of students.

### *Authentic Materials*

Authentic materials are those materials that are used in class to reinforce concepts but **are not written** especially for classroom use. Various researchers have different views about it on defining authentic materials. However, the common factor is that authentic materials provide exposure to real language as it is used in the society outside of the classroom. In short, any text used for any other purpose, if used in class to reinforce concepts, can be considered as an authentic material. Examples of authentic materials could be

- A travel brochure
- Text on a wrapper
- Information on medicine strips
- Instruction manuals
- Signs
- Advertisements
- Magazine pictures
- Postcards and greeting cards
- Product labels
- Recipes



- Menus
- Maps
- Transportation schedules
- Television schedules
- Comic strips
- Political cartoons
- Application forms

The above list is not exhaustive, and the teacher can use his/her discretion to use any outside material for reinforcing and developing language in class.

### *Advantages of Using Authentic Materials*

The use of authentic materials is advantageous for both the students and teachers. For **students**, these materials

- Expose them to situations outside of the classroom where they can engage in real-life discourse,
- Concepts studied in the class can be applied to the outside text, thus fostering critical thinking in students. Nearly all thinking skills (lower order and higher order) can be tapped through the materials.
- Motivate interest in them as the materials are related to their everyday use.
- Help them feel a sense of achievement when they apply themselves to the outside text.
- Help them understand the use of language in different contexts.
- Expose them to a multiplicity of meanings of different words when used in an academic vis-à-vis commercial context.
- Help them develop basic skills such as skimming, scanning, reading and listening for gist, note-taking, and many others.
- Expose them to different language styles which are not found in conventional teaching materials.

However, the disadvantages could be that they are:

- Culturally biased.
- Vocabulary may not be relevant to the students' needs.
- Structures may be too complex for them to understand because of which much of class time could be lost.
- Materials could be outdated very quickly as it depends upon market demand which may cause some concern to the students and teachers.

For **teachers**, the use of authentic materials is time consuming. **First**, they must identify and select materials based on the level of the class, and the learning outcomes; **second**, such materials need to be identified that reinforce certain concepts taught in class; and **third**, they must prepare tasks and exercises based on the materials for which they require skills in designing tasks. No doubt all teachers can design exercises, but while designing tasks they should keep in mind that the tasks created should have applicatory value, that is, the knowledge students have acquired needs to be put to use through these tasks and exercises. In other words, authentic materials should be used to foster higher-order critical

thinking skills because once the students move out of the classroom their application of the knowledge will be tested; if they cannot apply the knowledge learned, the entire purpose of using authentic materials will be defeated. Let me use an example to clarify the point:

If the teacher is using a travel brochure of any country as material in the class, the teacher should design such activities that, after undertaking the activities, the students should be able to plan a trip outside of the country to any tourist place. This means that the use of authentic materials should support a creative approach to teaching.

Apart from these, in today's digital age, internet provides "oceanful" of resources for the students. At a click of the mouse, all websites are available for their use. However, if the teacher is recommending that students read and gather information from the web pages, it is the teachers' duty to sift through them to ascertain that the websites have credible information; otherwise, students would be exposed to incorrect information. Even the videos aired through YouTube and other sites need to be heard and seen by the teachers first before they can be suggested and recommended to the students.

To sum up, textbooks are important source materials for the teacher and the students. Materials from outside, however, can supplement textbooks. They could be authentic materials used effectively to bring the real world inside the classroom, or they could be materials from internet sources, which are properly sifted before use. Along with the textbooks, the teachers have the freedom to choose and use materials in class that contribute to the development of language competence and critical thinking in students.

#### *Audio-Visual as Classroom Aid*

Since the past, audio-visual aids have been an integral part of language classrooms. In the 1920s–1930s, film strips, pictures, slides, and pass-around objects were usually used in class. Later, over the years, the character of visuals has changed and so has its use. Before the 1980s, when technology was not so developed, blackboard and chalk was the only resource used in the class to teach apart from the textbook. Subsequently, with the development of IT and the pandemic accentuated the importance of technology in our classrooms and today, it has become an integral part of the teaching learning experience.

#### **Importance of Learning Aids in the Learning Process**

Use of learning aids makes the learning experience rich and meaningful. Gardner (1991) in his multiple intelligence theory has stated that there are seven intelligences under which students can be categorized. That is, some students learn visually, some logically, some musically, and so on. For example, if a student is visually oriented, then if he/she is taught concepts with pictures, he/she will be able to understand the concept much better. Some students are used to listening to music while studying etc. Students have their individual learner styles and in class, it is not possible for the teacher to cater to the learning styles of every student. However, visual and audio together can create an impact on the learner. Going by this, when a teacher writes important points on the board, it is observed that students retain and understand those points better as they have seen it written on the board and heard its explanation. It is believed that nearly 85% of information is retained for over three days when audiovisual materials/aids are used as compared to either only verbal or visual aids used independently.

In support of the above information, Edgar Dale's (1969). The Cone of Learning presented further emphasizes the importance of audiovisual aids in teaching (Figure 14.3).

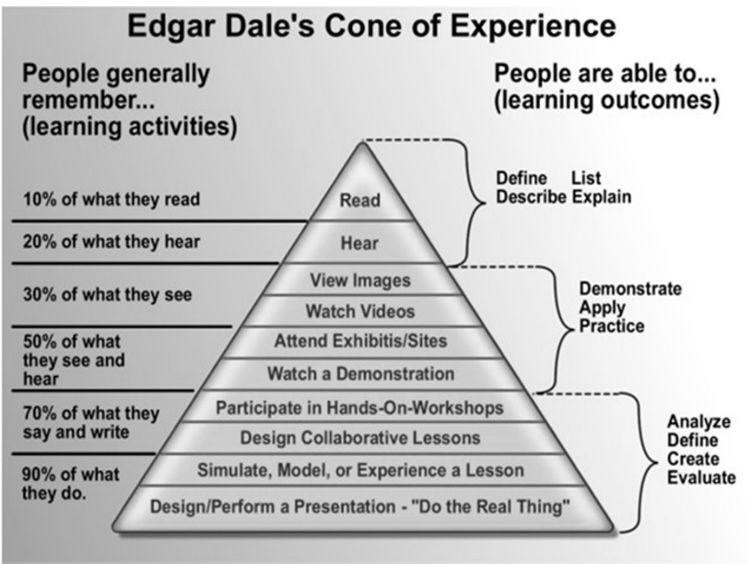


Figure 14.3 Edgar's cone of experience.

Source: Dale, E. (1946, 1954, 1969). *Audio-visual Methods in Teaching*. New York: Dryden Press.

According to Dale, active and passive learning takes place in the classroom. Passive learning takes place if the teacher only lectures in class (20% of what is spoken retained) and 50% retained of what they see and hear if it is a movie they are watching or looking at an exhibit. On the other hand, according to him, 70% to 90% of active learning takes place when the students are actively involved and are participating in the activities that they see and hear. That is, when the students have a visual experience of something and they create something new out of the already existing information, maximum learning takes place. Keeping this learning experience in mind, it is important to provide new impetus to the students, depending upon their mental capabilities.

Generally, the audiovisual aids used across schools, colleges, and universities fall under three broad categories (Figure 14.4).

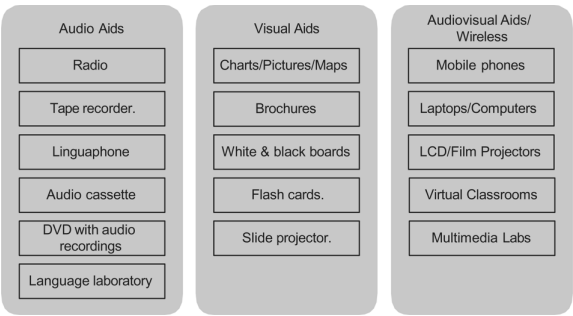


Figure 14.4 Audiovisual aids.

Source: Author.

You may feel that the aids mentioned above are old and not applicable in today's technological world. Though we have reached a stage of automation and robotics where AI is used in learning, most of our public schools are yet to be equipped with the latest technology and gadgets. Yes, I do agree that private schools have the resources to provide their students with the latest audio-visual aids to learn their materials and most of them do provide the learners with the best of experiences.

Educational media, whether they are the old ones or today's latest, all are tools for teaching and avenues for learning. Their function is to supplement teacher explanation, enhance effectiveness in classroom, have clarity of communication, and diversify the methodology of teaching. They

- Reinforce reading and lecture material.
- Aid in the development of a common base of knowledge among students.
- Enhance student comprehension and discussion.
- Provide greater accommodation of diverse learning styles.
- Increase student motivation and enthusiasm.
- Promote teacher effectiveness.

Use of visual aids makes teaching effective and conceptual. If the teacher only explains everything every time, it gets very boring for the learners. Therefore, using aids in the middle of an explanation or giving examples adds variety and interest to the class. This variety and interest can be sustained if the teacher uses some pictures, or some videos based on the topic of explanation or even as supplementary material/information.

It helps to grab the attention of the students, activating their minds. Students are good observers and hence whatever is being taught is retained better. It may also help motivate them to explore and search for more information either in libraries or through numerous credible search engines.

Using aids in large classrooms certainly aids teachers. Especially in India, when each classroom in colleges or even schools has more than 60 students per section, it becomes very difficult for the teacher to reach out individually to every single student. In such cases, aids act as a conduit between the teacher and the information.

Use of these aids enhances the energy level of teachers and students. The teachers are excited and motivated to give some new information to the students collated through various sources and so are the students to receive them because the means are different.

Finally, it provides students with a realistic approach and experience on how aids can be used. Students learn how to use aids while explaining which they indirectly imbibe noticing their use by the teacher. This indirect knowledge is likely to help them use it later in their life, while making presentations in higher education institutes or even at their professional level. Therefore, it becomes essential at the school and college level for the teachers to use the aids correctly so that the wrong students learn to use them correctly. I also wish to add here that sometimes these aids are made available to the teachers by the management, but teachers do not use them because they do not know how to use them. Looking at the future that students will have to use them at some point in time of their careers, teachers at school should be provided with training in how to use the aids and at what time in the lesson can they be embedded. More importantly, they should be taught how to prepare PowerPoint slides and use them in class. If the teacher is going to just copy the text on the slide and read the text, the entire purpose will be defeated because

the students are also going to do the same, which is the wrong way of using the slides. Therefore, the management can think of providing training in the use of audiovisual aids to the teachers. The teachers can always improvise on them to suit the level of the class.

### **Challenges of Using Aids in Classrooms**

Any use of technology is not devoid of problems. Some of the common problems are related to the maintenance of these aids. Technical problems arising in the gadgets need to be rectified immediately; if they are not repaired, they cannot be utilized optimally. All aids whether they are laptops, computers, projectors, or smart boards are expensive. Teachers not only have to handle them with great care, but the important thing is the timely and periodic maintenance of them. Another important point is that all these gadgets are operational due to electricity. In case there is an outage or like in India in any other country there is no regular supply of electricity, these cannot be operated. In short, using technology is fine, but complete reliance on technology is not right. Teachers need a backup plan to complete the lesson in case technology fails them at any point in time.

Bringing wireless gadgets into the classrooms causes major challenges in all colleges, universities, and even schools. When students bring mobile phones into class, ringing or when in vibrating mode the sound causes major distractions to the teacher and the students. Students are likely to use social networking sites, such as Instagram, Facebook, and so on while lectures are going on, thus causing distraction to the other students. To avoid these issues in the class, the teacher must make it clear at the beginning of the lesson that these gadgets need to be switched off during class hours. The camera installed in the phone also raises privacy issues. Nowadays, it has been observed that through mobile phones, Apple watches, and Google Glasses students are caught cheating in the examinations. These are some of the major issues that teachers are facing and must be nipped in the bud before they assume proportions that are out of reach. On one hand, we can see that technology can aid in teaching, but on the other, the same technology in the hands of some students gets abused which all of us must guard against. Therefore, a judicious use of technology is recommended for teaching and learning.

Today, no teaching is complete without the use of teaching aids whether they are physical realia or technological wireless gadgets. While using them we need to ensure that the aids are relevant and useful, the audio has clarity of sound, and the colors do not adversely affect the sight. The information provided must be accurate and the maps, charts, figures, or diagrams used should be large enough for the students to see, and the font should be readable to the backbenchers. They should also be logically arranged and must supplement the lesson plan. Whatever the teacher uses should enforce the concepts and intellectually stimulate the young minds, sustaining the interest and motivation in the learning process.

**To Summarize**

1. Teaching materials must be analyzed before being used to deliver the learning outcomes.
2. Supplementary materials and authentic materials are used to support textbooks and reinforce language.
3. Use of teaching aids makes abstract ideas concrete and are good substitutes for real objects thus making learning more effective.
4. Teachers should choose an appropriate aid depending on the mental level of the class.
5. Teachers need to invest time in preparing audiovisual aids for intellectually stimulating the students.

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# Appendix 1

## The Cognitive Domain (Original)

Category	Examples, Key Words (Verbs), and Technologies for Learning (Activities)
<p><b>Knowledge:</b> Recall data or information.</p>	<p><b>Examples:</b> Recite a policy. Quote prices from memory to a customer. Know the safety rules. Define a term.</p> <p><b>Key Words:</b> Arranges, defines, describes, identifies, knows, labels, lists, matches, names, outlines, recalls, recognizes, reproduces, selects, states.</p> <p><b>Technologies:</b> Bookmarking, flash cards, internet search, reading.</p>
<p><b>Comprehension:</b> Understand the meaning, translation, interpolation, and interpretation of instructions and problems. State a problem in one’s own words.</p>	<p><b>Examples:</b> Rewrites the principles of test writing. Explain in one’s own words the steps for performing a complex task. Translates an equation into a computer spreadsheet.</p> <p><b>Key Words:</b> Comprehends, converts, diagrams, defends, distinguishes, estimates, explains, extends, generalizes, gives an example, infers, interprets, paraphrases, predicts, rewrites, summarizes, translates.</p> <p><b>Technologies:</b> Create an analogy, participating in cooperative learning, taking notes, storytelling.</p>
<p><b>Application:</b> Use a concept in a new situation or unprompted use of an abstraction. Apply what was learned in the classroom to novel situations in the workplace.</p>	<p><b>Examples:</b> Use a manual to calculate an employee’s vacation time. Apply laws of statistics to evaluate the reliability of a written test.</p> <p><b>Key Words:</b> Applies, changes, computes, constructs, demonstrates, discovers, manipulates, modifies, operates, predicts, prepares, produces, relates, shows, solves, uses.</p> <p><b>Technologies:</b> Collaborative learning, create a process, material good, etc.), blog, practice.</p>
<p><b>Analysis:</b> Separates material or concepts into component parts so that its organizational structure may be understood. Distinguishes between facts and inferences.</p>	<p><b>Examples:</b> Troubleshoot a piece of equipment by using logical deduction. Recognize logical fallacies in reasoning. Gathers information from a department and selects the required tasks for training.</p> <p><b>Key Words:</b> Analyzes, breaks down, compares, contrasts, diagrams, deconstructs, differentiates, discriminates, distinguishes, identifies, illustrates, infers, outlines, relates, selects, separates.</p> <p><b>Technologies:</b> Fishbowls, debating, questioning what happened, run a test.</p>



<i>Category</i>	<i>Examples, Key Words (Verbs), and Technologies for Learning (Activities)</i>
<b>Synthesis:</b> Builds a structure or pattern from diverse elements. Put parts together to form a whole, with emphasis on creating a new meaning or structure.	<p><b>Examples:</b> Write a company operations or process manual. Design a machine to perform a specific task. Integrates training from several sources to solve a problem. Revises and process to improve the outcome.</p> <p><b>Key Words:</b> Categorizes, combines, compiles, composes, creates, devises, designs, explains, generates, modifies, organizes, plans, rearranges, reconstructs, relates, reorganizes, revises, rewrites, summarizes, tells, writes.</p> <p><b>Technologies:</b> Essay, networking.</p>
<b>Evaluation:</b> Make judgments about the value of ideas or materials.	<p><b>Examples:</b> Select the most effective solution. Hire the most qualified candidate. Explain and justify a new budget.</p> <p><b>Key Words:</b> Appraises, compares, concludes, contrasts, criticizes, critiques, defends, describes, discriminates, evaluates, explains, interprets, justifies, relates, summarizes, supports.</p> <p><b>Technologies:</b> Survey, blogging.</p>

### The Revised Cognitive Domain

<i>Category</i>	<i>Example and Key Words (verbs)</i>
<b>Remembering:</b> Recall or retrieve previously learned information.	<p><b>Examples:</b> Recite a policy. Quote prices from memory to a customer. Knows the safety rules.</p> <p><b>Key Words:</b> Defines, describes, identifies, knows, labels, lists, matches, names, outlines, recalls, recognizes, reproduces, selects, states.</p>
<b>Understanding:</b> Comprehending the meaning, translation, interpolation, and interpretation of instructions and problems. State a problem in one's own words.	<p><b>Examples:</b> Rewrites the principles of test writing. Explain in one's own words the steps for performing a complex task. Translates an equation into a computer spreadsheet.</p> <p><b>Key Words:</b> Comprehends, converts, defends, distinguishes, estimates, explains, extends, generalizes, gives an example, infers, interprets, paraphrases, predicts, rewrites, summarizes, translates.</p>
<b>Applying:</b> Use a concept in a new situation or unprompted use of an abstraction. Applies what was learned in the classroom to novel situations in the workplace.	<p><b>Examples:</b> Use a manual to calculate an employee's vacation time. Apply laws of statistics to evaluate the reliability of a written test.</p> <p><b>Key Words:</b> Applies, changes, computes, constructs, demonstrates, discovers, manipulates, modifies, operates, predicts, prepares, produces, relates, shows, solves, uses.</p>
<b>Analyzing:</b> Separates material or concepts into component parts so that its organizational structure may be understood. Distinguishes between facts and inferences.	<p><b>Examples:</b> Troubleshoot a piece of equipment by using logical deduction. Recognize logical fallacies in reasoning. Gathers information from a department and selects the required tasks for training.</p> <p><b>Key Words:</b> Analyzes, breaks down, compares, contrasts, diagrams, deconstructs, differentiates, discriminates, distinguishes, identifies, illustrates, infers, outlines, relates, selects, separates.</p>

<i>Category</i>	<i>Example and Key Words (verbs)</i>
<b>Evaluating:</b> Make judgments about the value of ideas or materials.	<p><b>Examples:</b> Select the most effective solution. Hire the most qualified candidate. Explain and justify a new budget.</p> <p><b>Key Words:</b> Appraises, compares, concludes, contrasts, criticizes, critiques, defends, describes, discriminates, evaluates, explains, interprets, justifies, relates, summarizes, supports.</p>
<b>Creating:</b> Builds a structure or pattern from diverse elements. Put parts together to form a whole, with emphasis on creating a new meaning or structure.	<p><b>Examples:</b> Write a company operations or process manual. Design a machine to perform a specific task. Integrates training from several sources to solve a problem. Revises and processes to improve the outcome.</p> <p><b>Key Words:</b> Categorizes, combines, compiles, composes, creates, devises, designs, explains, generates, modifies, organizes, plans, rearranges, reconstructs, relates, reorganizes, revises, rewrites, summarizes, tells, writes.</p>
<b>Creating:</b> Builds a structure or pattern from diverse elements. Put parts together to form a whole, with emphasis on creating a new meaning or structure.	<p><b>Examples:</b> Write a company operations or process manual. Design a machine to perform a specific task. Integrates training from several sources to solve a problem. Revises and processes to improve the outcome.</p> <p><b>Key Words:</b> Categorizes, combines, compiles, composes, creates, devises, designs, explains, generates, modifies, organizes, plans, rearranges, reconstructs, relates, reorganizes, revises, rewrites, summarizes, tells, writes.</p>

# Appendix 2

## Introduction to Classroom Practices and Techniques

Every aspiring English language teacher needs to be familiar with various classroom techniques, which he/she will be required to follow. These are not only classroom management skills but techniques in developing language skills of listening, speaking, reading, writing, and vocabulary and grammatical competence. This is not to say that these are sacrosanct, and they need to be followed without questioning them. The classroom and the students are the teacher’s domain and according to the level of the students, the teacher is free to use various approaches, methods, and techniques for skill teaching. How are these three terms different? Theoretically, we have already looked at its distinction in Chapter 2, however, let us understand them further in the classroom context. The table below further distinguishes these three concepts:

<i>Approach</i>	<i>Method (Plan)</i>	<i>Technique (Procedure)</i>
Theoretical positions about the beliefs of the nature of language and the wilderness of language learning (psychological and cognitive processes involved) and the applicability of both to pedagogical settings	A generalized set of classroom specifications for accomplishing linguistic objectives focusing on the goals of learning/teaching: <ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• Learner roles</li><li>• Teacher roles</li><li>• Role of instructional material</li></ul>	Specific types of exercise, tasks, and activities used in class for the purpose of achieving pedagogical goals
WHY	HOW	WHAT

You will understand from the above table that **approaches** are usually **abstract beliefs** of the educators or teachers that they feel would help in language learning. Different beliefs give rise to different types of **methods**, that is, the plan to teach language. For example, the behaviorist theory of language learning gave rise to the structural method of language learning, while the cognitivist theory gave rise to task-based language teaching. Based on the plan, the teacher works out a strategy for the activities she/he is going to undertake to teach students. The activity carried out by the teacher in the class is called a **technique**. For example, in a reading class the teacher after explaining asks questions to find out whether the students have understood the lesson. The question–answer session that the teacher carries out in class is a technique. Thus, the approach is a set of assumptions about language and language learning, a general view of how teaching should be carried out. Method is an overall plan for the orderly presentation of materials based on a selected approach, and technique is the implementation that is carried out in the classroom. Techniques must be consistent with a method and in harmony with the approach

as well. The table given below gives you an idea about the various techniques used in different methods:

<i>Sr. No.</i>	<i>Method</i>	<i>Techniques</i>
1.	Grammar Translation Method	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Translation</li> <li>2. Reading comprehension questions</li> <li>3. Synonyms/Antonyms</li> <li>4. Deductive application of rules</li> <li>5. Fill in the blank exercises</li> <li>6. Memorization</li> <li>7. Use words in sentences</li> <li>8. Composition</li> </ol>
2.	The Direct Method	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Reading aloud</li> <li>2. Question-answer exercise</li> <li>3. Getting students to self-correct</li> <li>4. Conversation practice</li> <li>5. Fill in the blank exercises</li> <li>6. Dictation</li> <li>7. Map drawing</li> <li>8. Paragraph writing</li> </ol>
3.	Audio-lingual Method	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Dialogue memorization</li> <li>2. Expansion drill</li> <li>3. Repetition drill</li> <li>4. Chain drill</li> <li>5. Single-slot substitution drill</li> <li>6. Multiple-slot substitution drill</li> <li>7. Transformation drill</li> <li>8. Question-answer drill</li> <li>9. Use of minimal pairs</li> <li>10. Dialogue completion</li> <li>11. Grammar games</li> </ol>
4.	The Silent Way	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Chants</li> <li>2. Teacher's silence</li> <li>3. Peer correction</li> <li>4. Self-correction</li> <li>5. Structural feedback</li> </ol>
5.	Suggestopedia	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Peripheral learning</li> <li>2. Positive suggestion</li> <li>3. Visualization</li> <li>4. Role-play</li> <li>5. Activities for students</li> </ol>
6.	Community Language Learning	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Conversations</li> <li>2. Reflection on experience</li> <li>3. Reflection on listening</li> <li>4. Small group tasks</li> </ol>
7.	Total Physical Response	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Using commands</li> <li>2. Role reversal</li> <li>3. Action sequence</li> </ol>
8.	The Structural Oral Situational Approach	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Focus on structures</li> <li>2. Oral presentations</li> <li>3. Using situations</li> <li>4. Pattern practice</li> <li>5. Drills</li> <li>6. Application through new situations</li> </ol>

<i>Sr. No.</i>	<i>Method</i>	<i>Techniques</i>
9.	Communicative Approach	1. Using authentic materials 2. Reordering jumbled sentences 3. Role-play 4. Picture story 5. Language games 6. Communicative tasks
10.	Constructive Approach	1. Experimentation 2. Research projects 3. Field trips 4. Films 5. Class discussions

This list is not exhaustive. It may be useful to view the above mentioned methods and techniques as a collection of “basic tools” that teachers have at their disposal to teach linguistic items in the class.

*Do you know how much time we spend on different language skills? Let us together look at the graphic given below..*



It is clear that a majority of our time is spent in listening, followed by speaking and then comes reading and writing. However, if one tries to think and explore a little deeper into the syllabi and the coursework, which are followed in our schools, colleges, and university departments, it becomes clear that focus is placed on reading and writing than in listening and speaking. Especially in schools, hardly any emphasis is placed on developing listening and reading skills. Therefore, our students are not very orally communicative in their thoughts. Today, it is all about communication, how we communicate with each other, with our peers, superiors and seniors. Importantly, employers want to hire graduates who have good communication skills. This being the need of the hour, it is very important that the communications skills of our students are developed and strengthened.

## Appendix 3

### Techniques and Tasks: Teaching Listening

Sample materials used are given. The teacher can use her/his discretion to use materials that best suit the class and deliver learning outcomes.

<i>Techniques</i>	<i>Purpose</i>	<i>Materials Used</i>
Narrative	To introduce students to words, phrases, which are extra sentential, e.g., however, moreover To introduce new words and grammatical structures	Authentic materials, books, newspapers, magazines, etc.
Interviews	To introduce question forms	Group work
Informal chats	To expose students to the language	Group work to perform functions
Role-play	To help students negotiate meaning	Group work to perform functions
Information gap	To help students communicate naturally	Element of unpredictability in the use of language
Utterance response drills	To help students repeat sentence patterns or special expressions	
Transformation drills	To help students practice producing major types of sentences	
Translation	To increase student awareness of the grammar of the target language (TL)	
Question-answer sessions	To help students practice responses to questions To transform sentences to respond appropriately	
Action chains	To have students practice grammatical structures	
Rendering dialogues and conversations	To help students get the right intonation and use the right words in natural situations To make them confident users of the language	Dialogues and conversation
Situations/contexts	To introduce vocabulary and structures in a meaningful context	
Use of AV aids	To make learning more meaningful To provide visual support To introduce new vocabulary	



2. Read the following words carefully making a distinction between the sounds / d /, / t /, and / id /.

peered	laughed	repeated	robbed	failed	started
missed	coughed	collected	talked	ruled	passed

3. In each of the following words, there is a combination of two vowel sounds. Read aloud the words and identify the vowels. Add two more words to the list.

1. coin, choice, point, soil, boil
2. shine, write, kind, while, bride
3. house, cow, town, loud, out
4. gate, weight, lake, rate, pain

4. Place the words given here into the correct columns according to their **vowel sound**.

rule	food	fool	good	goods	school
blood	cool	wool	truth	troops	shoe
brook	soot	juice	crook	cruise	nook
bruise	sluice	mule	blue	blew	flood
stool	spool	zoom			


1. Read aloud the following pairs of words to distinguish the vowel sounds.

Said—sad	star—stair	bed—bad	par—pair
led—lad	bar—bare	head—had	car—care
bet—bat	farm—fame	men—man	far—fair
pen—pan	heart—hate	lend—land	walk—wake



2. Listen carefully to the sentences repeated by the teacher. Write down two similar sounding words in the space given below. The sentences will be repeated **only twice**. **Identify whether the similar sounding words are vowels or consonants.**

*Tapescript*

1. (a) Didn't you hear the sound of weeping?  
(b) Didn't you hear the sound of whipping?
2. (a) You should try pooling your nets again.  
(b) You should try pulling your nets again.
3. (a) There were birds on every bush.  
(b) There were buds on every bush.
4. (a) The printer spilled the word out on the table.  
(b) The printer spelled the word out on the table.
5. (a) They are banning all these books.  
(b) They are burning all these books.

*Worksheet*

- |             |          |
|-------------|----------|
| 1. a. _____ | b. _____ |
| 2. a. _____ | b. _____ |
| 3. a. _____ | b. _____ |
| 4. a. _____ | b. _____ |
| 5. a. _____ | b. _____ |

(Any number of sentences can be given depending on the pronunciation the teacher wants to strengthen.)

3. Listen carefully to the sentences repeated by the teacher. Write down two similar sounding words in the space given further. The sentences will be repeated **only twice**. **Identify whether the similar sounding words are vowels or consonants.**

*Tapescript*

- a. (a) You have left your coat in our garden.  
(b) You have left your goat in our garden.
- b. (a) His niece received several cuts in the crash.  
(b) His knees received several cuts in the crash.
- c. (a) Is that badge ready yet?  
(b) Is that batch ready yet?
- d. (a) The process of dilution is very tricky.  
(b) The process of delusion is very tricky.
- e. (a) The knock damaged our boat.  
(b) The rock damaged our boat.

*Worksheet*

- |             |          |
|-------------|----------|
| 1. a. _____ | b. _____ |
| 2. a. _____ | b. _____ |
| 3. a. _____ | b. _____ |
| 4. a. _____ | b. _____ |
| 5. a. _____ | b. _____ |

(Any number of sentences can be given depending on the pronunciation the teacher wants to strengthen.)

*Listening for Specific Information**Tapescript*

Your attention please: Train number 2080 DN Mumbai-Hyderabad Hussain Sagar Express is running late by 30 minutes. It is expected to arrive on platform number 3 at 14 hours 30 minutes.

*Worksheet*

Listen to the announcement and fill in the following details. The announcement will be read **only twice**.

1. Name of the train:
2. Train no.:
3. Coming from:
4. Bound toward:
5. Arrival on platform no.:
6. Expected time of arrival:
7. Status:

*Tapescript*

- a. Calling the attention of passengers flying to Delhi. Jet Airways flight 9W 568 is on schedule and is expected to depart at 13.30 hours.
- b. Indian Airlines regrets to announce a delay of 20 minutes of its flight IC 320 to Mumbai. This is due to the delayed arrival of the incoming flight from Delhi. It is now rescheduled to depart at 10.50 hours.
- c. Attention all passengers traveling to Bangalore via Mumbai by Indigo flight number 6E 051. The aircraft is ready for boarding. You are requested to proceed to Gate No. 5.

a. 9W 568 Vadodara–Delhi  
Status: On time \_\_\_\_\_ or Delayed \_\_\_\_\_  
Reason \_\_\_\_\_

b. IC 320 Vadodara–Mumbai  
Status: On time \_\_\_\_\_ or Delayed \_\_\_\_\_  
Reason \_\_\_\_\_

c. 6E 051 Vadodara–Bangalore  
Status: Ready \_\_\_\_\_ or Delayed \_\_\_\_\_  
Transit halt at: \_\_\_\_\_  
Final destination: \_\_\_\_\_  
Boarding from: \_\_\_\_\_

Here's warning. Cyclonic weather condition "Phailin" has developed over west-central Bay of Bengal off north Andhra Pradesh and south Orissa coast. Heavy to very heavy rain with a wind speed of 220 km per hour is likely at Gopalpur in Orissa and Ganjam district in Andhra Pradesh. Under its impact, heavy rains are likely in some places in Jharkhand and West Bengal.

## Worksheet

[illegible]

*Tapescript*

1. Could you please send us 300 kilos of white rice?
2. The value is very good at the moment. It's only ₹18 per kilo.
3. We require two boxes of ripe bananas please.
4. The price per box is ₹115. Is that OK?
5. The total price is going to be ₹4,295, all right?
6. Our phone number is 456984, if you need to place an order with us.
7. I'd like to order 40 kilos at ₹14 per kilo.
8. Our order number is JG404.
9. Have you understood that 500 items are going to cost ₹900?
10. And er ... here's the item code: RAE 77, got that? RAE 77.

*Worksheet*

Listen carefully to what the teacher is reading and tick the correct box in the worksheet.

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300 kilos of white mice  
 18 rupees per kilo  
 2 boxes of striped pyjamas  
 ₹115 per box  
 Total price is ₹4,259  
 Phone number is 456984  
 Order number GJ 404  
 900 items will cost ₹500

---

300 kilos of white rice  
 80 rupees per kilo  
 2 boxes of ripe bananas  
 ₹150 per box  
 Total price is 4,295  
 Phone number is 456894  
 Order number JG 504  
 500 items will cost ₹900

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**Listening for Note-making***Tapescript*

Jammu and Kashmir is known for its beautiful mountains and meadows. Gulmarg is a meadow of flowers, which you would have probably visited some time or the other. All around are snow-capped mountains. On a clear day, you can even see the Nanga Parbat in one direction and Srinagar in another. Gulmarg, the meadow, is shaped like a cup and is lush green and surrounded by slopes. It is very calm and silent except that once in a while you hear the tinkle of cow bells. From here you can take a pony to Khilanmarg, Kongdri, and Seven Springs, and ride in its new gondola lift through pine-covered slopes and enjoy the thrill of the mountain ride.

Across the peak of Aphrawat is Alpathar Lake, which is frozen till late June. It is also famous for having the world's highest golf course.

Slightly lower than Gulmarg is the shrine of Baba Reshi, a Muslim saint. People of all religions visit this shrine every year.

*Worksheet*

Listen to the description of Gulmarg and note the information in the space provided. The description/recording would be read/played twice.

1. Location: \_\_\_\_\_
2. Famous for: \_\_\_\_\_
3. Surrounded by: \_\_\_\_\_
4. Gulmarg is a \_\_\_\_\_
  - Shape: \_\_\_\_\_
  - Atmosphere: \_\_\_\_\_
5. Places which can be visited: \_\_\_\_\_
6. Rides you can take: \_\_\_\_\_
7. Specialty of Alpathar Lake: \_\_\_\_\_
8. Baba Reshi shrine famous for: \_\_\_\_\_

*Source:* Original Tapescript and Worksheet: Hill, L.A., Illangovan, P. Ray, S. *Listening and Speaking Course Teacher's Book 5*. New Delhi: Oxford University Press 2003 (Tapescript edited by the author).

### *Listening for Map Reading*

Listen to the story and do as directed:

*(Note: The script must be read every time the students undertake the following new tasks)*

- Note the events on the map as they occur on the journey to Harigram.
- Name the various signposts as mentioned in the story from Japlapur to Harigram.
- In the map attached, with the help of arrows trace the route for Gangu from the marketplace to his home.

### *Tapescript*

Once a traveler named Gangu was going down the mountain road from Japlapur to Harigram. He was going back after selling all sarees he had woven in the past one month. He felt light as the load of sarees was not there anymore and lighthearted too as he had got a good bargain on his sarees.

It was late in the evening and Gangu slung his bag over his shoulder and began to walk on the mountain path. He went down the road and then crossed the small bridge over the rivulet that passed through the valley. The road began to climb again and was soon running through the forest. There were tall trees on both sides. Gangu hummed to himself and walked up this road.

He hadn't gone very far when a gang of robbers attacked him. He tried very hard to fight against them but they beat him up mercilessly. They snatched away his money and searched through his pocket for any valuables. They took off his watch and his bag, and throwing him down ran away. Gangu was left bleeding on the ground.

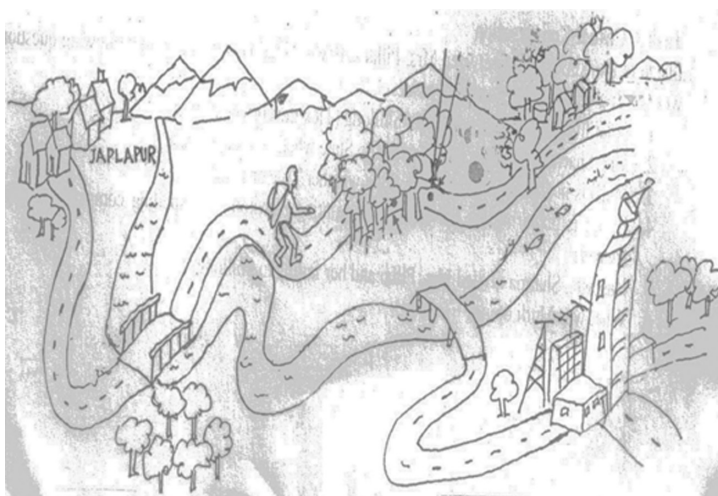
Not losing heart, he began to push himself slowly forward toward his village. Soon he reached a small clearing when a car passed by. The man stopped the car and lying on the ground Gangu tried to tell him about his condition. He was a rich businessman and said, "My dear man, I'm sorry to see this condition of yours. I could have helped you if I had the time ... Here is some money and hope someone will come and pick you up." Saying this he pushed a hundred rupee note and drove past.

Sometime later a manager of the nearby tea estate drove up on his motorcycle. He also saw the bleeding Gangu on the ground. Perhaps he too was in a hurry and therefore slowed down but turned his head away and went on his way.

After some more time had elapsed, a student from Japlapur came that way. He was going to his aunt's house in Bilasnagar. When he saw the bleeding Gangu on the ground he immediately went up to him, asked how this had happened, and took out a clean handkerchief and wiped Gangu's wounds. He also cleaned his hands and face. He picked him up and placed him on his scooter. "Please hold tightly or you may fall," he said.

Satya took Gangu to a nursing home in Bilasnagar and admitted him. He gave some money at the reception and told the doctors to take good care of him. He told the doctor that his aunt was the principal of the girls' school and all the expenses would be borne by him. When Gangu tried to give him the hundred rupee note given by the businessman Satya said, "No, Baba, you will require that to reach home. If there is a telephone near your house, give me the number so that I can inform your family that you are safe." Saying so, he left for his aunt's house.

Gangu blessed him and said, "You are indeed a good fellow."



Source: Original Tapescript and Worksheet: Hill, L.A. Illangovan, P. Ray, S. *Listening and Speaking Course Teacher's Book 5*. New Delhi: Oxford University Press 2003 (Tapescript edited by the author).

## Appendix 4

### Techniques and Tasks: Teaching Speaking

A sample of materials used is given. The teacher can use her/his discretion to use materials that best suits the class and delivers the learning outcomes.

<i>Techniques</i>	<i>Purpose</i>	<i>Materials Used</i>
Interviews	To introduce question forms	Group work
Informal chats	To expose students to the language	Group work to perform functions
Role-play	To help students negotiate meaning	Group work to perform functions
Information gap	To help students communicate naturally	Element of unpredictability in the use of language
Expansion drills	To help students make more complex sentences To help them to know how to add modifying words, phrases, and clauses	
Utterance response drills	To help students repeat sentence patterns or special expressions	
Transformation drills	To help students practice producing major types of sentences	
Translation	To increase student awareness of the grammar of the TL	
Question-answer sessions	To help students practice responses to questions To transform sentences to respond appropriately	
Action chains	To have students practice grammatical structures	
Rendering dialogues and conversations	To help students get the right intonation and use the right words in natural situations To make them confident users of the language	Dialogues and conversation
Situations/Contexts	To introduce vocabulary and structures in a meaningful context	
Use of AV aids	To make learning more meaningful To provide visual support To introduce new vocabulary	
Language games	To introduce vocabulary and grammatical structures in a meaningful context To make learning enjoyable	

Techniques	Purpose	Materials Used
Actions/Gestures/ Mimings	To help them establish the link between actions and the language to express ideas	Topics of general interest
Performing functions	To make them use language naturally To help them perform functions	
Elicitations	To help students express ideas clearly To make them confident users of the language	
Group discussions	To encourage peer learning	
	To develop team spirit	
	To gather group ideas	

## Tasks

### I. Developing Pronunciation

The sample tasks given further are not graded according to any level. The teacher can pick and choose depending on the level of students and the objectives of the speaking lesson. For each task, the teacher is required to prepare separate worksheets.

#### 1. Read aloud the following sets of words paying attention to the length of the vowel sounds. Transcribe the vowel sound in the space provided:

##### A.

Word	Vowel Sound	Word	Vowel Sound	Word	Vowel Sound
lead		lid		led	
cheek		chick		check	
ten		tan		ton	
pen		pan		pun	
mesh		mash		mush	
luck		lark		lock	
cup		carp		cop	

##### B.

Word	Vowel Sound	Word	Vowel Sound	Word	Vowel Sound	Word	Vowel Sound
shod		shored		should		shoed	
cod		cord		could		cooed	
wad		ward		would		wooded	
lock		–		look		luke	
poll		Paul		pull		pool	

#### 2. Identify the words from the following poem that sound like the word “measure.”

There were plump Polynesians so travelers say, Who were usually thought to be usual and gay;

They treasured their leisure with measureless pleasure, And needed no persuasion to laze all the day.



But any intrusion upon their seclusion Would end, in conclusion do final, that soon

Each painful intrusion appeared but an illusion Where plump Polynesians caroused with the moon.

*Read aloud the following words paying attention to the diphthong sounds. Transcribe the diphthong sound in the space provided.*

Word	Diphthong Sound	Word	Diphthong Sound	Word	Diphthong Sound	Word	Diphthong Sound
low		law		snow		snore	
now		know		row		row	
late		let		paper		pepper	
white		wait		rice		race	
boy		toy		ear		year	

**Read silently the following text and work on the tasks given.**

We reached the city some time before breakfast and since we had some time while our breakfast got ready, we took pleasure in visiting the great church. How leisured is the life of a cathedral city. How measureless the time! All this we felt as we walked slowly through the cloisters, casually observing the monuments, and admiring the profusion of the timbered roof. Suddenly a solemn tread was heard and here came the dean and the canons making their way to the church for the usual Divine Office. The door slammed behind them and soon we heard the sounds of the organ and the uplifted voice of the choir. How warm and bright the sound was in comparison with the moist and damp of the cloister. Almost half an hour passed, and I did not need much persuasion to make my way back to the hotel for our breakfast. What an appetizing smell assailed our nostrils! Need I say that our memories of our stay were the ones that we shall treasure?

1. Two words having the final /“-d”/ sound.
2. Three words sounding as the word “measure.”
3. Two/three words with the initial /“k”/ sound.
4. Words with the initial /“s”/ sound.
5. Two words beginning with /“ch” but whose sounds are different.
6. Two words beginning with /“c” but whose sounds are different.
7. Two words ending in the sound /“-t”/.
8. Two words having silent letters in the initial, middle, and final positions.

**II. Developing to Place Appropriate Stress on Syllables**

1. **Mark the stress in the following words by underlining the syllables. Say the words aloud three times.**

shack		belong	
look		sheep	
expensive		directly	

jury		right	
ordered		cupboard	
length		smashed	
breadth		thieves	
carts		lying	

1. Read aloud the following words and identify the sound that is not pronounced. Break the word into syllables and mark the stressed syllable.

castle		handkerchief	
plumber		pneumonia	
knowledge		diaphragm	
mustn't		ma'am	
lamb		coup	
asked		campaign	
crumb		Wednesday	
watch		cupboard	
foreigner		raspberry	
knight		doubt	
kneel		sign	
listen		handsome	

2. Read the text silently and mark the pauses within the sentences. Now read the text aloud with the correct pause.

#### Text A

The steps were high and a little uneven, but Seema took them more lightly than Suresh. As she scrambled past the jagged edges of the hole, she had a sudden blinding glimpse of molten gold. It was spring sunshine on the pale stones of the hall floor. Standing upright, she could no longer see this; she could only see the cave-like shadows in the great case above her and the dim outline of the hanging weights.

#### Text B

The king ordered his servants to search the length and breadth of the land. When they found what was left of the glass cupboard, and the three robbers lying dead, they filled 60 great carts with all the gold and took it back to the kind. When the king heard that the glass cupboard was smashed into a million pieces and that the three thieves were dead, he shook his head and said, "If those thieves had always put something back into the cupboard for every bag of gold they had taken out, they would be alive to this day."

## 3. Read the following text and work out tasks a, b, and c.

- Divide the text into word groups by placing the sign (/). Read aloud the text pausing at the correct places.
- Identify the final sound of the underlined words from the text and list them in the notebook.
- Identify and list the words beginning with two consonant sounds.

The entrance hall was a strange place. As they stepped in, a similar door opened at the far end of the house; another man and boy also entered. Then Toseland saw that it was only their reflection in a big mirror. The walls around him were partly of rough stone and partly of plaster but hung all over with mirrors and pictures and china. There were three big old mirrors all reflecting each other so that at first Toseland was puzzled to find what was real and which door one could go through straight. He almost wondered which reflection of his was real. There were vases everywhere filled with queer flowers-branches of dry winter twigs out of which tassels and rosettes of flower petals were bursting.

## Tasks-Developing Speaking

*Talk as Interaction*

The skills that need to be developed through the below tasks are to know how to open and close conversations, turn-taking, interrupting, reacting to others, joking, using the appropriate style of speaking, recounting personal incidents and experiences, making small talk, compliments, etc.

1. \*\*The teacher asks students to write two to three dates/years that are important to them. Each student has to come to the front of the class and tell why the dates are important to him/her. Other students in the class are free to question him/her for further information.
2. Sanjiv has thrown a party at home for 10/12 friends for securing admission into the Harvard School of Management. Unexpectedly, his schoolmate Anjali drops in. He welcomes her and introduces her to all his friends. Role-play the part of Anjali and Sanjiv.
3. While you were going home from college you saw a humorous incident on the road. Recount the incident and tell it to all your friends.
4. Rohit has recently joined an IT company and is invited to an official dinner for the first time. He meets the MD of his company and introduces himself. Role-play the part of Rohit and the MD of the company.
5. Teacher asks each student to recount and tell the class how each one made tea/coffee for the first time (the food products can vary, it could be any other thing/object).
6. How do you take leave in the following situations?
  - You are introduced to your wife's friend who is the principal of a school.
  - You meet your childhood friend after many years and you both chat for a very long time.
  - Your friend hosts you a very good lunch at her house.
  - Your friend has got a job in Delhi. You are at the railway station to see her off.

*Talk as Transaction*

1. Shailesh, CR of the FYBA class, realizes that the date of submission of the project falls in the midst of the Diwali vacation when many students are likely to be out of station. On behalf of the class, he goes to the teacher and requests a postponement of the submission date. Role-play the part of Shailesh and the teacher.
2. You wish to go to Shirdi to pay obeisance to Shri Sai Baba. Telephone the manager of Hotel Satya Sai and enquire about the tariffs of rooms with single and double occupancy. Also ask about the various facilities they provide.
3. You along with your friends are discussing vacation plans of visiting tourist destinations in Kerala. Some of you wish to go by train while some of you wish to fly to save time. Compare the fares of the train to Munnar and Thekkady with that of airfares to the same place.
4. You are new to Baroda and are staying on Sama-Savli Road. You set out to see the Lakshmi Vilas Palace. Ask someone on the street for directions to reach the palace.
5. Nehal's mother has sent her to the grocer to buy some milk, biscuits, eggs, and bread. Role-play the part of the grocer, Neha, and her mother.
6. Hinal is throwing a birthday party at a restaurant for some of her close friends and is ordering food. Role-play the part of the waiter and Hinal.

*Talk as Performance*

1. You have recently returned from the United States where you had gone to study a model for the production of a product. Make a brief presentation on what you learned and state how it can be adapted in your company.
2. As the Head of the Department of English, welcome the Vice Chancellor of the University who has come to inaugurate the Seventh International Seminar on English Studies.
3. After serving the university for 35 years, the Dean, the Faculty of Arts, is retiring and you are given the charge of speaking on the occasion. Give a farewell speech highlighting the achievements of the dean and the constructive work that he/she has done for the faculty.

## Appendix 5

### Techniques and Tasks: Teaching Speaking

The teacher can use her/his discretion to use materials that best suit the class and then deliver learning outcomes.

<i>Techniques</i>	<i>Purpose</i>	<i>Materials</i>
Information transfer	To help them process information and express ideas in different ways	
Substitution drills	To help students to get a feeling for a particular sentence pattern/grammatical construction	
Structure drills	To help students practice particular structure	
Expansion drills	To help students make more complex sentences To help them to know how to add modifying words, phrases, and clauses.	
Transformation drills	To help students practice producing major types of sentences	
Translation	To increase student awareness of the grammar of the target language	
Question–answer sessions	To help students practice responses to questions To transform sentences to respond appropriately	
Written exercises	To revive vocabulary, structure, meanings, and ideas	
Techniques of using a dictionary	To help students use the dictionary to learn grammar, spelling, pronunciation, usage	
Use of AV aids	To make learning more meaningful; To provide visual support. To introduce new vocabulary	
Language games	To introduce vocabulary and grammatical structures in a meaningful context To make learning enjoyable	
Performing functions	To make them use language naturally To help them perform functions	
Cloze exercises	To reinforce the vocabulary taught To expand their vocabulary To help them comprehend the overall meaning of the passages given	

## Tasks

### Sample Tasks

(All tasks can be contextualized according to the level of the students and in the country, you are residing. The task given below is in the Indian context.)

### Reading for Skimming and Scanning

1. Scan the following Railway Timetable and answer the questions given further to it (you can even have an airline or a metro schedule instead of train timing)

No.	Up Trains			No.	Down Trains		
	Name of the Train	ARR	DEPT		Name of the Train	ARR	DEPT
2956	Jaipur–Mumbai Central Express	01.27	01.45	2009	Shatabdi Express	11.25	11.30
704	Anand–Vadodara (MEMU)	05.55		9011	Gujarat Express	12.50	12.58
9032	Gandhidham–Mumbai Express	05.00	05.08	9109	Gujarat Queen	08.00	08.08
102	Valsad–Kalhana Passenger	08.50		9057	Vadodara–Valsad Intercity	10.45	
2934	(Except Wednesday) Karnavati Express	06.52	06.57	9023	Ferozpur Janata Express	15.30	15.45
9104	Gandhidham–Baroda Express	07.10		1096	Ahimsa Express	06.35	06.43
714	Ahmedabad–Vadodara (MEMU)	08.15		9215	Saurashtra Express	16.45	16.55
5045	Ahmedabad–Gorakhpur (Tue)	07.35	07.55	6614	Coimbatore–Rajkot Express	05.20	05.30
6045	Navjivan Express	08.25	08.35	7018	Secundrabad–Rajkot Express	13.23	13.33
9216	Porbandar–Mumbai CT Express	09.35	09.45	6334	Trivandrum–Rajkot Express	05.20	05.30

Source: Achar et al. *English for Academic Purposes*. Book 2. University Granth Nirman Board, Gujarat.

Note: UP indicates trains going to Mumbai. DOWN indicates trains coming from Mumbai.

1. Shailee wants to reach Mumbai by a train that leaves the station after nine in the morning. Which trains do you think are suitable for her?
2. Karan's friend is coming by Coimbatore–Rajkot Express. At what time should he go to pick him up at the station?
3. Surabhi wants to go to Mumbai on Wednesday morning. Which train is unsuitable for her?
4. At what time does Saurashtra Express coming from Mumbai depart from the station?

5. At what time does Ahmedabad–Baroda Memu coming from Ahmedabad depart from the station?
2. Look at the following advertisements in the daily newspaper and answer the questions given below it:

**CLASSIFIEDS**

**SEND YOUR REQUEST FOR**

**هيادة حصول الصحة الطبي التقليدي**  
**ALL SEASON AYURVEDA CLINIC**

The most efficient and authentic Ayurvedic Treatment & Medicine. Yoga, Kalari, Panchakarma, Massage, Diet etc. Rehabilitation, Beauty Therapy & post Delivery Care.

**FOR RENT/SALE**

Available 2100 sq meter best in class Warehouse cum office Space. Fully furnished ready to use. Located at prime area of Ulaia in the heart of the city having easy access to airport & highway.

Contact: Mr. Sumit Mehta 9014 6672

**CLASSIFIED LISTINGS**

URGENT! DUE to a variety of personal reasons for individuals and businesses.

Immediate Vacant Premises, Accommodation Required, Available, Used & Unused. Care for Sale or Rental.

Please email your reply to [advertising@muscatdaily.com](mailto:advertising@muscatdaily.com) or call 9731 6216

**Quality car rentals at competitive prices.**

Massar 9014 6672, 9679 0684  
Khalid 9731 6216 / Salim 9429 9325

[www.arbitrism.com](http://www.arbitrism.com)

**mai alkaline**  
pH 9.1-9.5

Alkaline Ionized Drinking Water

HYDRATE SMARTLY

- ✓ Ultra-hydrating
- ✓ Revitalizing
- ✓ Energizing
- ✓ Electrolytes

800 71 2222

Source: Muscat Daily, 24th June 2024.

- A. You require storage cum office space for the family business you are handling. The place should have good logistic support. You have identified a space. Who would you contact and what are the contact details?
- B. You and your friend's family have decided to visit Salalah to experience the Khareef season. You require a 4W vehicle in Salalah to visit places.
  - i. Which car rental would you choose?
  - ii. On which website would you place your request?
  - iii. Who owns the car rental?
- C. Your friend has recently joined a firm in Muscat and requires rented accommodation. Where should he list his request?
- D. Detoxifying oneself is very important for one's well-being. Ayurveda treats the mind, body, and the soul. To which place would you go if you want to avail yourself of this treatment?
- E. You must buy water for your family. Water should be such that revitalizes and hydrates the body. In addition, it also provides adequate electrolytes. Which brand of water will you choose? On which number will you contact them to get regular supplies?
3. Skim the following job advertisements and answer the comprehension questions given below it.
  - A. Needed: Full-time secretary position available. Applicants should have at least two years of experience and be able to type 60 words a minute. No computer skills required. Apply in person at United Business Ltd., 17 Browning Street.
  - B. Are you looking for a part-time job? We require three part-time shop assistants to work during the evening. No experience required, and applicants should be between 18 and 26. Call 366-76564 for more information.

C. Computer-Trained Secretaries: Do you have experience working with computers? Would you like a full-time position working in an exciting new company? If your answer is yes, give us a call at 344-5487.

D. Teacher Needed: Tommy's Kindergarten needs two teacher/trainers to help with classes from 9 am to 3 pm. Applicants should have appropriate licenses. For more information, visit Tommy's Kindergarten in Leicester Square No. 56.

E. Part-Time Work Available: We are looking for retired adults who would like to work part time at the weekend. Responsibilities include answering the telephone and giving customers information. For more information, contact us by calling 9809 5370.

F. University Positions Open: The University of Cumberland is looking for four teaching assistants to help with homework correction. Applicants should have a degree in one of the following: Political Science, Religion, Economics, or History. Please contact the University of Cumberland for more information.

*Which position is best for these people? Now scan the text and choose ONLY ONE position for each person.*

1. Jane Madison. Jane recently retired and is looking for a part-time position. She would like to work with people and enjoys public relation work. The best job for Jane is \_\_\_\_\_.
2. Jack Anderson. Jack graduated from the University of Trent with a degree in Economics two years ago. He would like an academic position. The best job for Jack is \_\_\_\_\_.
3. Margaret Lillian. Margaret is 21 years old and would like a part-time position to help her pay her university expenses. She can only work in the evenings. The best job for Margaret is \_\_\_\_\_.
4. Alice Fingelhamm. Alice was trained as a secretary and has six years of experience. She is an excellent typist but does not know how to use a computer. She is looking for a full-time position. The best job for Alice is \_\_\_\_\_.
5. Peter Florian. Peter went to business school and studied computer and secretarial skills. He is looking for his first job and would like a full-time position. The best job for Peter is \_\_\_\_\_.
6. Vincent san George. Vincent loves working with children and has an education license from the city of Birmingham. He would like to work with young children. The best job for Vincent is \_\_\_\_\_.

Source: Adapted from [http://esl.about.com/library/reading/bl\\_read\\_jobad.htm](http://esl.about.com/library/reading/bl_read_jobad.htm).

## Reading for Predicting

### Passage A

Tommy was walking down the street when his neighbor's dog started barking at him through a fence. It was a big dog and Tommy never liked him. He walked over to the dog and started calling the dog names and yelling at it. The dog barked at Tommy. Tommy picked up a stick and began poking the dog through the fence. The dog yelped and



Tommy thought that this was really funny. Then the dog jumped against the gate and it flopped open...

- What is likely to happen next?

### *Passage B*

Recently, a teacher threw acid on a student. A few years ago, a teacher in a school in Thane who was tired of warning a talkative boy dabbed a paper with some Fevicol and slapped it across his mouth. The boy could not take it off. “She was later dismissed by the Supervisor,” says Archita Gupta, his class mate. One wonders if teachers are learning to deal with students in harmless ways.

- What do you think happened to the boy?
- What do you think happened to the teacher who was dismissed?
- Do you think teachers should punish students in this manner?

### *Passage C*

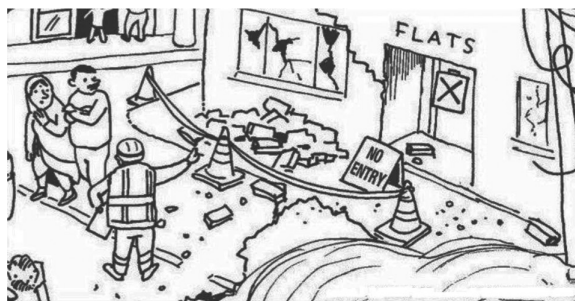
“Remember to study for the test tomorrow!” Ms Claire said before dismissing her class. Lisa wrote the assignment in her notebook but when she got home, she just wanted a break from school, so she watched TV. A couple of hours later, Lisa knew that it was time to get to work, but first she would check her email. After another hour on the internet, Lisa noticed that it was getting late. She opened up the textbook and began looking for the chapter. Then her friend Jenna called. Bobby and Suzy had broken up! Lisa couldn’t believe it. She and Jenna talked about it for another hour. Now it was really late and Lisa was tired. She hung up with Jenna and turned to the chapter on rock formations in her science book. She began reading it. Her head felt a little woozy, wobbly, and then...

- What event is most likely to occur next? \_\_\_\_\_

### **Pictures for Prediction**

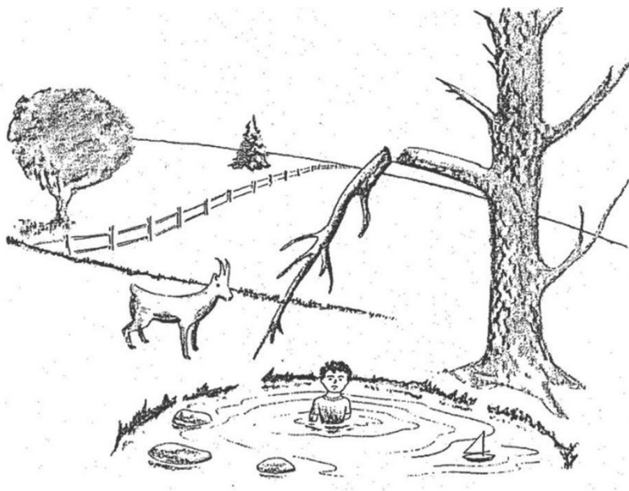
Look at the pictures and say what could have happened and what is likely to happen next.

#### *Picture A*



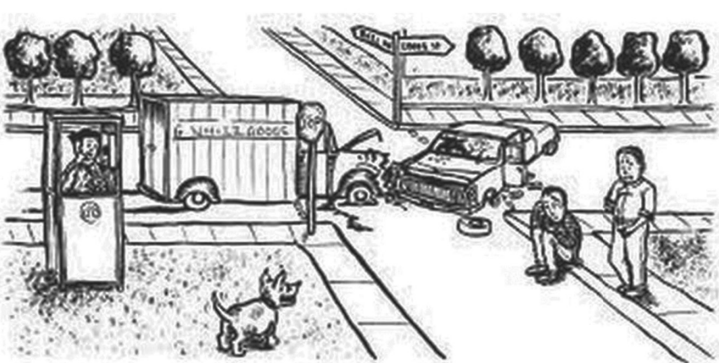
Source: English Language Partners, New Zealand.

Picture B



Source: [https://www.google.com/search?q=goat+boy+water+observations++images&rlz=1C5CHFA\\_enIN549IN552&tbn=isch&imgil=3tUOmT2MfauRaM%253A%253Bh1HSUKB-HBnoZM%253Bhttps%25253A%25252F%25252Fmiddleschoolscience.com%25252F2015%25252F06%25252F25%25252Fboy-in-the-water-observation-vs-inference%25252F&source=iu&pf=m&fir=3tUOmT2MfauRaM%253A%252Ch1HSUKB-HBnoZM-%252C\\_&usg=sMzWVvk17flhJRqFZDx4cIi-XpBU%3D&biw=1280&bih=676&ved=0ahUKewiFycayvoPWAhUfa-VAKHZiCALAQyjcIQg&ei=Vw-pWcXBAYXSwQKYhYKACw#imgrc=3tUOmT2MfauRaM](https://www.google.com/search?q=goat+boy+water+observations++images&rlz=1C5CHFA_enIN549IN552&tbn=isch&imgil=3tUOmT2MfauRaM%253A%253Bh1HSUKB-HBnoZM%253Bhttps%25253A%25252F%25252Fmiddleschoolscience.com%25252F2015%25252F06%25252F25%25252Fboy-in-the-water-observation-vs-inference%25252F&source=iu&pf=m&fir=3tUOmT2MfauRaM%253A%252Ch1HSUKB-HBnoZM-%252C_&usg=sMzWVvk17flhJRqFZDx4cIi-XpBU%3D&biw=1280&bih=676&ved=0ahUKewiFycayvoPWAhUfa-VAKHZiCALAQyjcIQg&ei=Vw-pWcXBAYXSwQKYhYKACw#imgrc=3tUOmT2MfauRaM).

Picture C



Source: [https://www.google.com/search?q=pictures+for+making+inferences&tbn=isch&tbs=rimg:CaC1AbqjWSmRIjhDIbakJhO7FK8GWET6Ox6es8CRKiPUX\\_16GkD408LXxPSYvFoYJEEvY9UERkGAzcH4unMxbzjHDhCoSCUOVtqQmE7sUEZiz8FpfAfZFKhIJrwZYRPo7Hp4RGkqQBew7GMYqEgmzwJEqI9Rf\\_1hH63ffBwy-WaCoSCYaQPjTwt-fE9EZ2YuCYAwL9-KhIJi8WhgkR5XIRHohD8oIgwW0qEgn1QRGQYDNwfhFyVDFt7sPH6SoSCS6czFvOMcOEE-aOexlBRYWTT&tbo=u&sa=X&ved=0ahUKewiqlZrSxIPWAhVJEVAKHfA-AA4Q9C8IHw&biw=1280&bih=632&d-pr=1#imgrc=rwZYRPo7Hp4S5M](https://www.google.com/search?q=pictures+for+making+inferences&tbn=isch&tbs=rimg:CaC1AbqjWSmRIjhDIbakJhO7FK8GWET6Ox6es8CRKiPUX_16GkD408LXxPSYvFoYJEEvY9UERkGAzcH4unMxbzjHDhCoSCUOVtqQmE7sUEZiz8FpfAfZFKhIJrwZYRPo7Hp4RGkqQBew7GMYqEgmzwJEqI9Rf_1hH63ffBwy-WaCoSCYaQPjTwt-fE9EZ2YuCYAwL9-KhIJi8WhgkR5XIRHohD8oIgwW0qEgn1QRGQYDNwfhFyVDFt7sPH6SoSCS6czFvOMcOEE-aOexlBRYWTT&tbo=u&sa=X&ved=0ahUKewiqlZrSxIPWAhVJEVAKHfA-AA4Q9C8IHw&biw=1280&bih=632&d-pr=1#imgrc=rwZYRPo7Hp4S5M).

Picture D



Source: [https://www.google.com/search?q=pictures+for+making+inferences&tbm=isch&tbs=ring:CQUiFa2\\_1yBMFIjddiUKNIJYj9s0NJQvQKWHdOAhGZi8NPwO2Tggu6FF0AGnI31SdEWPPG9B2PcWwRT8nrKFIJ7-fgSoSCd2JQo0gliP2ETeYDWzNwEeNKhIjzQ0lC9ApYd0RN5gNbM3AR40qEgk4CEZmLw0\\_1AxHOwakKHwZAASoS CbZOCC7oUXQAEf3lkPfwwyVAKhIJacjfVJ0RY88RhLv4ebYcQW4qEgkb0HY9xbBFPxFJ20A66K10cSoSCSesoUgnv5-BEXNs\\_1VncXNVR&tbo=u&sa=X&ved=0ahUKEwjLh7jAxYPWAhUKKIAKHahHxCg0Q9C8IHw&biw=1280&bih=632&dpr=1#imgsrc=BSIVrb\\_IEwW9QM](https://www.google.com/search?q=pictures+for+making+inferences&tbm=isch&tbs=ring:CQUiFa2_1yBMFIjddiUKNIJYj9s0NJQvQKWHdOAhGZi8NPwO2Tggu6FF0AGnI31SdEWPPG9B2PcWwRT8nrKFIJ7-fgSoSCd2JQo0gliP2ETeYDWzNwEeNKhIjzQ0lC9ApYd0RN5gNbM3AR40qEgk4CEZmLw0_1AxHOwakKHwZAASoS CbZOCC7oUXQAEf3lkPfwwyVAKhIJacjfVJ0RY88RhLv4ebYcQW4qEgkb0HY9xbBFPxFJ20A66K10cSoSCSesoUgnv5-BEXNs_1VncXNVR&tbo=u&sa=X&ved=0ahUKEwjLh7jAxYPWAhUKKIAKHahHxCg0Q9C8IHw&biw=1280&bih=632&dpr=1#imgsrc=BSIVrb_IEwW9QM).

## Reading for Comprehension

### Passage A

There are four basic modes of writing. Each mode may take different forms, but has a primary purpose. The first is expository writing, which has the purpose of explaining something or giving directions. Providing directions to your house is an example. The second mode is persuasive writing which has a purpose of influencing the reader's way of thinking. An advertisement is an example of persuasive writing. The third mode is descriptive writing, which has the purpose of providing vivid details so that the reader can picture what is being presented. An essay that depicts the glorious Grand Canyon is an example. The fourth mode is narrative writing, which has the purpose of presenting an experience in the form of a story. A personal account of a vacation is an example of narrative writing.

Do as directed:

1. Explain the different modes of writing. What purpose do they serve?
2. Identify the main idea in the paragraph.
3. The pattern of the organization of the paragraph is:
  - (a) description,
  - (b) cause and effect, and
  - (c) classification (choose the correct option).
4. Make notes of the given paragraph.

### Passage B

Drobo went down with malaria every year just as the monsoons began. She had three grand sons, the oldest of them being married. About five years ago, he had paid her a visit along with his wife and a little child. His city-bred wife, Manorama, had wrinkled

her nose at the sight of the little hut and said with undisguised contempt, “You call this house? My goodness! All it’s got is this little room and that rotten wooden fence ... and I hate all those trees, you can’t see a thing even in broad daylight ... look at the path outside, how can you expect me to walk on that muddy track?”

This year, Drobo appeared to be taking longer than usual to recover; she had never felt so weak before. She pushed aside her blankets and rose as the sun set and it got dark. She had stopped shivering, although her temperature was still quite high—her mouth had a funny taste in it, her head ached, and her body felt weaker than ever. She slowly moved to the window and asked, “Nau Bou, did you bring my cow? Where did you keep her?”

She lit an oil lamp. A couple of birds on top of the amla tree had started a raucous conversation. Her head was aching and she could not take it anymore. Annoyed, she made her way to the cowshed. The very sight of Mungli soothed her nerves. She lived for Mungli. Everyone she had known had left her—some for their heavenly abode, and some for the city. She lived alone here in Gopinathpur with just her cow for company. No wonder Mungli was so precious to her; she looked after her cow as a mother looks after a child.

*Do as directed:*

1. What was Drobo suffering from? Describe her physical health.
2. What did Manorama think of Drobo’s hut?
3. Who was Mungli and why did Drobo live for her?
4. According to you, why was Drobo angry with Nau Bou?
5. Identify the phrase that states that her daughter-in-law was not from the village.
6. The meaning of “raucous” is: (a) pleasant to the ears, (b) harsh sounding, and (c) loud and sweet. Choose one option.
7. State whether the following statements are true or false:
  - a. Drobo recovered quickly from her illness.
  - b. Many birds camped on the mango tree outside Drobo’s hut.
  - c. Mungli was Drobo’s daughter.
  - d. Drobo’s grandsons stayed in Gopinathpur.
  - e. In the passage, “went down” means “to fall sick.”

## Reading for Note-making

### *Passage A*

Animals living in modern zoos enjoy several advantages over animals in the wild; however, they must suffer some disadvantages. One advantage of living in a zoo is that the animals are separated from their natural predators; they are protected and can, therefore, live without risk of being attacked. Another advantage is that they are regularly fed a special, well-balanced diet; thus, they do not have to hunt for food or suffer times when food is hard to find. On the other hand, zoo animals face several disadvantages. The most important disadvantage is that since they do not have to hunt for food or face their enemies, some animals become bored, discontented, or even nervous. Another disadvantage is that zoo visitors can endanger their lives. Some animals can pick up airborne diseases from humans.

*Passage B*

The World Health Organization began a DDT-spraying program, which virtually eliminated malaria. But other things began to happen. Besides killing mosquitoes, the DDT killed other insects that lived in the houses, such as flies and cockroaches. These insects were the favorite food of geckos (small lizards). And so when the geckos ate the dead insects, they died from DDT poisoning. Similarly, the house cats ate the dead geckos and cockroaches, and they too died from the DDT poisoning. As a result, the rat population rose sharply, and the human population of Borneo began to die from a type of plague carried by fleas on the rats. In order to deal with the emergency, thousands of cats were parachuted into the island, in what was called “Operation Cat Drop.”

*Passage C*

The cloning of Dolly involved several steps. First, cells that had previously been taken from Dolly’s mother were starved for five days, which caused them to stop dividing. After five days, the nuclei of these cells were removed and transferred into an unfertilized sheep egg. In the next step, the egg was grown in the laboratory for a period of time. Then the egg was implanted into a different sheep, where it grew normally. When the sheep finally gave birth, the lamb was an exact genetic copy, or clone, of the sheep that had provided the transferred nucleus, not the sheep that provided the egg.

*Source:* <http://www2.research.uky.edu/pimser/p12mso/gearup/contentlit/Meeting%20Resources/08%20Note-taking%20from%20Reading.pdf>.

**Reading for Summarizing***Passage A*

People say, you need to eat protein, but what is it? Many foods contain protein. The best sources are beef, poultry, fish, eggs, dairy products, nuts, seeds, and legumes such as black beans and lentils. Your muscles, your organs, and your immune system are made up mostly of protein.

Your body uses the protein you eat to make lots of specialized protein molecules that have specific jobs. For instance, your body uses protein to make hemoglobin. That is the part of red blood cells that carries oxygen to every part of your body. Other proteins are used to build cardiac muscle. What is that? Your heart! In fact, whether you are running or just hanging out, protein is doing important work such as moving your legs, moving your lungs, and protecting you from disease.

Food from animals, such as meat and milk, is called complete. Most vegetable protein is incomplete. It does not give you as much protein as animal foods. People who eat a vegetarian diet can still get what they need, they just need to eat a wide variety of protein-rich vegetable foods. For instance, if you have peanut butter on whole-grain bread you are set. Likewise, red beans will not give you everything you need, but red beans and rice will do the trick. The good news is that you do not have to eat all you need for every meal. If you have a variety of protein sources throughout the day, your body will grab what it needs from each meal.

You can figure out how much protein you need if you know how much you weigh. Each day, kids need to eat about 0.5 g of protein for every pound they weigh. That is a gram for every 2 pounds you weigh. Your protein needs will grow as you get bigger, but then they will level off when you reach adult size. Adults, for instance, need about 60 g

per day. You can look at a food label to find out how many protein grams are in a serving. But if you are eating a balanced diet, you do not need to keep track of it. It is easy to get enough protein.

### *How to Write a Summary*

1. Underline the most important information in each paragraph.
2. Write a short summary that tells what the passage explains. Include only the most important information.
3. Start your summary this way:  
The main idea of the passage is \_\_\_\_\_. Then finish the summary. Include the information that helps explain the main idea.

*Source:* <http://teacher.depaul.edu/Documents/NutritionLessonnonfiction6thgrade.pdf>.

### *Passage B*

Long ago, when people settled in the United States, mostly they lived in the East. It was hard to travel West as there were no planes, trains, or automobiles. People traveled by wagon or boat, and it took many days to reach their destination. Although it was difficult, in the 1840s, after a challenging journey, many people traveled to the United States and settled for a new life in the western part of the country.

Getting to the West was very difficult because there were no roads; there were many obstacles on the way. People traveled in groups, and each family would buy a covered wagon, which is a big wooden wagon with a kind of tent on it. It was small, about the size of an automobile, but it would be home for the whole family while they traveled to their new home. Each family would pack the tools and supplies they needed to build a new life in the West. They would have to fit all they took in their wagon, so they would take only those items that were essential.

It was dangerous to try to travel West without protection, so families would travel together, combining their wagons into what was called a wagon train. It was a group of wagons all going the same way. To prepare, they would meet with other families to plan their trip, choosing a route based on the travels of others.

When the families started the trip, they did not know each other, they only had in common that they were leaving the East to start a new life in the West. They met when the trip began, and they would spend more than a year together, so they got to know each other well. Sometimes they would borrow tools from each other, and sometimes they shared food. When the wagons encountered a problem, such as a storm that caused wagons to stick in muddy holes, they would solve it together.

It would take more than a year to reach the West, and many things happened along the route. The families sometimes had babies along the way, which delayed the progress as the wagon train would stop for a few days to help the mother with the baby. Then they would keep going, persisting whatever the weather, because they knew they had a long way to travel and could not delay for long. When the wagon train got to the West, the families would settle there, building homes, and starting farms. They would create communities, and instead of being partners in a trip they were collaborators in the community. Those communities would grow into towns, and then some would expand into cities, from a wagon train to a metropolis. In the next century, people built a railroad

that crossed the United States. By 1900, there were many more people in the West, and thousands of people came to the West by train. A trip that had taken months now took passengers a few days of comfortable transit. The railroad brought many changes, and the pioneers became legends as the country developed into the nation of today.

### *How to Write a Summary*

1. Underline the most important information in each paragraph.
2. Write a short summary that tells what the passage explains. Include only the most important information.
3. Start your summary this way:  
The main idea of the passage is \_\_\_\_\_. Then finish the summary. Include the information that helps explain the main idea.  
(Passage edited by the author)

*Source:* <http://teacher.depaul.edu/Documents/NutritionLessonnonfiction6thgrade.pdf>.

### **Reading for Synthesis**

Read the passage and answer the questions given below it:

After he became President, Lincoln told his Secretary of State the following story of the first dollar he ever had for his own:

Seward, he said, did you ever hear how I earned my first dollar? No, replied Seward. Well, I was about 18 years of age ... and had constructed a flatboat ... A steamer was going down the river. We have, you know, no wharves on the western streams, and the custom was, if passengers were at any of the landings they had to go out in a boat, the steamer stopping, and taking them on board. I was contemplating my new boat, and wondering whether I could make it stronger or improve it in any part, when two men with trunks came down to the shore in carriages, and looking at the different boats, singled out mine, and asked, "Who owns this?"

I answered modestly, I do.

"Will you," said one of them, "take us and our trunks out to the steamer?"

"Certainly," said I. I was very glad to have a chance of earning something, and supposed that they would give me a couple of "bits." The trunks were put in my boat, the passengers seated themselves on them, and I sculled them out to the steamer. They got on board, and I lifted the trunks and put them on deck. The steamer was moving away when I called out:

"You have forgotten to pay me."

Each of them took from his pocket a silver half-dollar and threw it on the bottom of my boat. I could scarcely believe my eyes as I picked up the money. You may think it was a very little thing, and in these days it seems to me like a trifle, but it was the most important incident in my life at that time. I could scarcely credit that I, a poor boy, had earned a dollar in less than a day—that by honest work I had earned a dollar. I was a more hopeful and thoughtful boy from that time.

*Source:* Public Domain/Gutenberg <http://teacher.depaul.edu/Documents/6thGradeHistoricalFictionaboutAbrahamLincoln.pdf>.

Read the text closely to determine what it says explicitly and to make logical inferences from it. Cite specific textual evidence when writing or speaking to support conclusions drawn from the text.

1. Sequence: Which event happened first? Which happened last?
2. Character Traits: Name one character. What is one trait you infer that character has? Explain why you think that.
3. Motive: What is something that person does? Why do you think that person does that?
4. Summarize: Summarize the story in four sentences. Tell about the characters and what they do.
5. Main idea: What do you think is the main idea of the story? Why?

### Understanding Reference

Instructions: Write down what each underlined pronoun refers to.

#### Passage A

Approximately 10 million computers are thrown away each year! Because most unwanted computers are sent to a dump, (1) they have caused a problem. The computer industry and the government are working on ways to solve (2) it. (3) They have concluded that there must be changes in the way computers are built. (4) They must be made in ways that will allow their parts to be recycled. (5) These include the electronic parts, the glass screen of the monitor, and pieces of the printer.

- (1) they = \_\_\_\_\_
- (2) it = \_\_\_\_\_
- (3) They = \_\_\_\_\_
- (4) They = \_\_\_\_\_
- (5) These = \_\_\_\_\_

#### Passage B

A new company has started to recycle computer parts. When old computers and computer parts are received at the company, (1) they are carefully broken down into parts. (2) These include circuit boards, bits of aluminum, gold, and electronic chips. Sometimes it takes an hour to break an old personal computer down into its parts. Eventually, (3) they are all carefully sorted. Then the company sells (4) them to the many customers (5) it has found for used parts.

- (1) they = \_\_\_\_\_
- (2) These = \_\_\_\_\_
- (3) they = \_\_\_\_\_
- (4) them = \_\_\_\_\_
- (5) it = \_\_\_\_\_

Source: <http://www.culi.chula.ac.th/expeng/Reading%20Strategies2012.pdf>.



**Locating the Main Idea**

Food sits at the very center of Vietnamese culture: for every significant holiday on the Vietnamese cultural calendar, all the important milestones in a Vietnamese person's life, and indeed, most of the important day-to-day social events and interactions—food plays a central role. Special dishes are prepared and served with great care for every birth, marriage, and death, and the anniversaries of ancestors' deaths. More business deals are struck over dinner tables than over boardroom tables, and when friends get together, they eat together. Preparing food and eating together remains the focus of family life.

Main idea = \_\_\_\_\_

# Appendix 6

## Cohesion, Coherence, Collocations, and Tasks: Techniques in Writing

### Cohesion and Coherence

#### *Cohesion*

Cohesion and coherence is an integral part of writing activity. In any piece of writing, whether it is an answer, letter, report, memo, paragraph, or essay, words, sentences, paragraphs, and ideas are linked together by certain words, pronouns, and so on, which help us to form a paragraph. The use of these words helps the text to “flow,” by which the reader can understand the meaning that is written.

The words that are used to interconnect the sentences and paragraphs are called **linking words/transition words/cohesive devices**. Cohesion is the network of **lexical, grammatical, and other relations**, which link various parts of a text, and the **act of binding together** is called **coherence**.

Cohesive devices fall under three categories—logical devices, grammatical devices, and lexical devices.

Within a paragraph, when words help us to understand whether the sentence is an addition, comparison, contrast, conclusion, or stating an example, such words are called **logical devices**. Grammatical words like pronouns that help us to understand the relationship between sentences are called **grammatical devices**. Certain other words that help us to understand the connection between sentences are called **lexical devices**. Let us look at each one of them independently.

#### *Logical Cohesion*

<i>Cohesive Word</i>	<i>Function (Its Use)</i>	<i>Words to Use</i>	<i>Examples</i>
Addition	To add more information by using words, phrases, sentences, etc.	again, further, also, and, in addition to, besides, in fact, and, then, moreover, too	The house faces north, so it never gets the sun. <b>Also</b> , it is rather damp. The children do not like one another. <b>Moreover</b> , they often quarrel and start a fight.

<i>Cohesive Word</i>	<i>Function (Its Use)</i>	<i>Words to Use</i>	<i>Examples</i>
Comparison	To compare two/three objects with words, phrases, or sentences	compared with, in comparison with/to in the same way similarly likewise,	I used to work 15 hours a day. <b>In comparison with</b> that, my present job is more like a holiday! The doctor advised him to give up smoking. <b>Similarly</b> , he recommended him to eat much less and take plenty of exercise.
Contrast	To show difference	besides, but, however, in contrast, instead, while, nevertheless, on the other hand, whereas	He did not show anyone the papers. <b>Instead</b> , as soon as he got a chance, he burnt them. His first novel took him only a few weeks to write, <b>while</b> his next one took over a year. She is not as pretty as she used to be. <b>Nevertheless</b> , she continues to look attractive
Concession	To accept	however, even though, still, yet, nevertheless	Our Scandinavian trip proved expensive. The weather was bad and the people unfriendly. <b>Nevertheless</b> , we would like to visit it again.
Enumeration	To mention one by one	firstly, secondly, finally, next, to begin with, in the first place	His job involves a number of things. <b>First</b> , he is responsible for general administration in the office. <b>Second</b> , he has to look after the financial side of the business. <b>Finally</b> , he has been asked to build up outside contacts
Exemplification	To give examples	for example, for instance, in other words in this case that is	There were several good reasons for changing the plan. <b>To begin with</b> , it involved a lot of money There are different forms of writing, <b>for example</b> , letter, report, memo, etc. Most countries do not grow enough food for their needs. Let us <b>take the case of</b> the United Kingdom.
Summary	To conclude	to sum up, to conclude, finally, in short, thus, overall, therefore, in conclusion	She spends a lot of money on clothes. She is also fond of buying expensive jewelry. <b>In short</b> , she is extremely extravagant. The film has a very unusual plot, it has plenty of action; both the acting and photography are good. <b>To sum up</b> , this is a film you should not miss.

<i>Cohesive Word</i>	<i>Function (Its Use)</i>	<i>Words to Use</i>	<i>Examples</i>
Time	Words that tell time	afterwards, after a while, later, since, before, next, at the same time, since, in the end, at first, at last	He tried to open one of the small windows. <b>At first</b> , it remained firmly closed but, <b>in the end</b> , after a great deal of effort, he managed to open it a few inches. It rained heavily last night. <b>As a result</b> , there is water logging on all the main roads.
Reformulation	To say in other words	in other words, that is to say, to put it simply	Most people feel that the project is not worthwhile because of the large amount of money and work involved. <b>To put it more simply</b> , it seems a waste of time and money.
Replacement	To replace something with other	alternatively, on the other hand, another possibility would be,	Heavy rains in Muscat have crippled the bus services to Dubai. <b>Alternatively</b> , we might have to go by air.
Result	Consequence of an action	as a result, consequently, hence therefore, thus	Muscat is lashed by heavy rains. Therefore, the main roads are
Transition	Moving from one point to another	to turn to ... incidentally reference to as far as now	In the end, he decided to sell his house in Hyderabad. <b>Incidentally</b> , that proved to be a big mistake.
Inference	to draw meaning/to deduce	then, in that case, otherwise, this implies that	You must get some petrol in your car. <b>Otherwise</b> , we may not reach the next town. He left the country immediately after the meeting. <b>In that case</b> , he must have had his luggage and passport with him.

### *Grammatical Cohesion*

When **pronouns** are used to **replace noun phrases**, such words are called grammatical cohesive devices.

1. Use of pronominal forms to replace noun phrases.

Examples:

- **Napoleon** was a great soldier. **He** was also a great administrator.
- **John along with Mary** is going on holiday to Kashmir. **Their** friends have advised them to carry the woolens.
- He decided to take some **heavy shoes** with him. He thought that **these** would be useful to him for trekking.

2. Use of pronominal forms to replace adverbials (noun phrases of time and place).

Examples:

- He left the **following day**. He knew *then* he was not coming back.
- We called on them soon **after breakfast**. We should have realized that *this* was a bad time for a visit.

3. Use of pronominal forms to replace clauses or sentences.

Examples:

- Some students **work all night** before the exam. **This** is a great mistake.
- **John has just resigned**. *It* was quite unexpected.

Notice, in the aforementioned two sentences, that the action has taken place earlier. Even when the action is to take place in the future, you can use the pronominal forms.

Examples:

- **This is** what you should do. You should be very frank.
- My advice is **as follows**. **Be very frank** with your answer.

4. Use of determiners such as the, this, that, etc., to refer back to previous noun phrase

The words, “former” and “latter,” are also used to refer back to the noun phrases.  
Example:

- I bought a **pocket calculator** last year. **That calculator** has proved very useful.

Example:

- **John and Tom**, both took part in the play. The *former* had taken acting lessons while the *latter* had never been on the stage before.

## Lexical Cohesion

It refers to the way related words (lexical words) are chosen to link the elements in a text. There are two forms of lexical cohesion—repetition and collocation. **Repetition** uses the same word, a synonym, or an antonym to draw linkage within the text. **Collocation** is a combination of words that are commonly used together in a written text to convey the meaning effectively to the reader.

1. Repetition of key words.

Example: In Mumbai, the metro train services are not much used by commuters. The *commuters* prefer the local trains to go back home.

2. Use of synonyms to avoid repetition

Examples: These cars were first **made** in 1972. When they were first **produced**, they were not very popular.

- If you have any **thoughts** on the subject, please let me know. I shall be interested to hear your **ideas**.

3. Use of a construction implying whole part or part–whole relationship

Example: You will need to take some **tools** with you. You can get a **hammer**, a **saw**, and a **screwdriver** from most big departmental stores.

4. Use of parallel structures

Example: **It is possible** that the plan will succeed. **It is** equally *possible* that the plan may not succeed.

Collocations

The term according to McCarthy et al. is “a natural combination of words; it refers to the way English words are closely associated with each other” (2005, 4). It is two or more lexical words that often co-occurring together to help the cohesive unity of the text. *The BBI Combination Dictionary of English: A Guide to Word Combinations* identifies two kinds of collocation—grammatical and lexical collocation.

Grammatical Collocation

According to Benson, Benson, and Ilson (1986, ixELTWorld Online.com),  
*A grammatical collocation is a phrase consisting of a dominant lexical word, a noun, adjective or a verb and a preposition or a grammatical structure such as an infinitive clause.*

For example, the word “afraid” can be joined by prepositions to make collocations such as “afraid of,” “afraid to,” and “afraid that,” which are called grammatical collocations. The same example placed in a table will make the meaning clearer:

Noun/Adjective/Verb	Preposition	Grammatical Collocation
afraid	of	afraid of
afraid	to	afraid to
afraid	that	afraid that
beautiful	to	beautiful to
_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____

Can you add to the list given earlier?

*Example A*

She was afraid reptiles and therefore afraid enter the enclosure where alligators were kept.

*Example B*

She was **afraid of** reptiles and therefore **afraid to** enter the enclosure where alligators were kept.

You will see from the examples given earlier that the use of the grammatical collocations “afraid of” and “afraid to” enables the reader to understand the exact meaning of the writer. If the collocations are not used, then the meaning remains ambiguous or unclear (Example A).

*Lexical Collocations*

Lexical collocations do not contain prepositions or infinitive clauses as the grammatical collocations, instead two lexical words join each other, which could be a noun, an adjective, or a verb, to make a lexical collocation.

For example: the word “go,” which is a verb, can collocate with many other words to make lexical collocations.

Look at the table below:

<i>Noun/Adjective/Verb</i>	<i>Noun/Adjective/Verb</i>	<i>Lexical Collocation</i>
go	home	go home
go	back	go back
go	fast	go fast
go	beyond	go beyond
big	disappointment	big disappointment
big	mistake	big mistake
big	girl	big girl
big	eater	big eater
great	_____	_____
save	_____	_____
pay	_____	_____
keep	_____	_____

Can you add to the list given earlier?

*Examples*

1. Rahul could not get tickets to watch the Singles Men finals of the Wimbledon Championship. It was a **big disappointment** for him as he had especially come to London for it from Toronto.
2. Shiela gobbled up 12 cupcakes. She is a **big eater**.

You will see from both the examples given above that the lexical collocations, “big disappointment,” and “big eater,” add more meaning to the text. The meaning gets expanded and also becomes clearer to the reader.

Another interesting aspect to note is that the same word can be collocated with different words and can be used in different contexts. For example, in the examples cited above, the word “big” is collocated with the word “disappointment” (Example 1) to make clear the state of mind of Rahul, while in the second example the word “big” is collocated with “eater” to describe the kind of person Shiela is and more specifically her eating habit.

Collocations are best understood and learned through practice. Given below is an exercise on collocation. Think carefully and then fill in the blanks in the sentences with the given words. A word can be used in two sentences. Try your luck with it.

make have	face	memorable	open	take round	receive deposit
ran	auspicious	went	quick	fast	paid
					committing

1. Try not to \_\_\_\_\_ too much noise. The baby is sleeping.
2. You need to \_\_\_\_\_ some risks if you need to succeed in your business.
3. Let me \_\_\_\_\_ a haircut before I leave for the business trip.
4. You need to \_\_\_\_\_ a cheque of ₹1000/- to \_\_\_\_\_ an account in our bank.
5. Do you want to \_\_\_\_\_ a speech before the class?
6. Give me an answer tomorrow. \_\_\_\_\_ your time to decide whether you want to join our firm or not.
7. Attending the convocation to get a degree is a \_\_\_\_\_ event in one's life.
8. We could not finish our project because we \_\_\_\_\_ out off time.
9. Give me 10 minutes. I will join you after a \_\_\_\_\_ shower.
10. Let us give Suresh a \_\_\_\_\_ of applause for reciting the poem so well.
11. Take the \_\_\_\_\_ train from Virar to reach Andheri by 9.15 am tomorrow.
12. The prisoner was hanged for \_\_\_\_\_ murder.
13. If you are feeling hungry, grab a quick bite at any \_\_\_\_\_ food joint.
14. The event was inaugurated at a very \_\_\_\_\_ moment.
15. The bomb \_\_\_\_\_ off when he started the car engine.
16. She \_\_\_\_\_ the price for not taking her final exams seriously.

### Techniques in Writing

(All tasks are developed from the original writing of students. They are reproduced without editing. Therefore, the grammatical errors.)



Undertake the following activities and identify the technique used.

1. The following sentences are not linked with each other. How can you link them together with transitional words to form a coherent whole?

It is an uphill task of finding the cause of circus becoming a dying form of entertainment. The film industry in our country is developed to a large extent. Every year a lot of films are released. So nowadays people prefer to go for other entertainments.

2. Too much information is crammed in one sentence. Can you separate the information and write in different sentences?

Some enjoy playing or reading, or watching TV or traveling or dancing or singing a song to her a music to see a movie, drama, circus, etc.

3. Certain concepts present in the text can be elaborated. Can you identify and elaborate them?

Watching the circus is one type of entertainment. People go to see circus. It is a family enjoyment. In circus there are many people. Everyone is master of these arts, “Kalakar.” There are some jokers also.... There is one cage of lion ... There is a big ring of fire .... Some artists show their art on cycle, or motor, or horse. They made a big jump without afraid of any accident.

4. The addition of examples would make this text clearer. Can you develop the content by adding examples and making necessary changes?

You come home after school and attending tuitions and feel tired; under such condition a song may probably entertain you and make you feel better. Music, games, sports like football, cricket, etc., form many forms of entertainment.

5. The following is a paragraph on the impact of human activities on nature. But the concluding sentence is missing. Write one/two/three concluding sentence(s) so that the paragraph comes to a logical close.

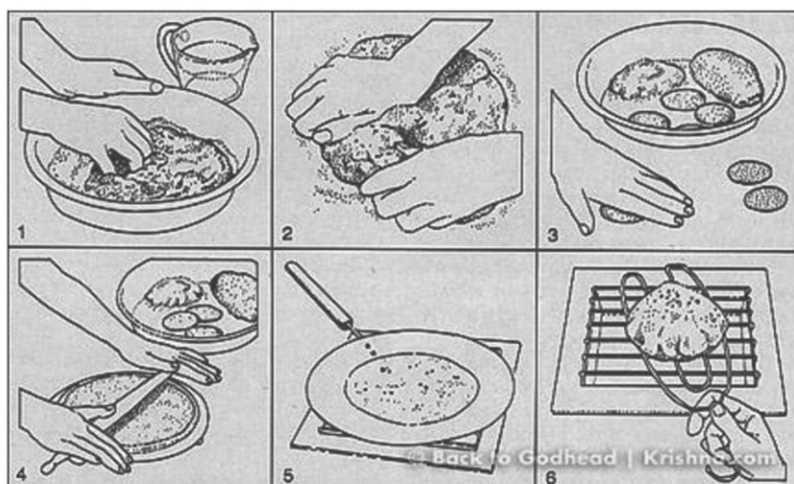
Nature has been very kind to us. But we have given nothing at all. Instead of giving anything, people cut trees without thinking that the trees are also part of nature. They also help us in many ways. Without trees, we will not get many things like rubber, gum, etc. We will also not get oxygen. Many people will die without pure air.

**Information Transfer**

1. Make a list of different forms, which children may have to fill up during their school and college life.
2. Study the following table and write a paragraph on the stages in the growth of a lion.

	<i>Stage</i>	<i>Growth</i>
1.	4–5 weeks	play like kittens
2.	3 months	learn to hunt
3.	Age of 2 years	begin to breed
4.	5 years old	fully grown

The image given below depicts the process of making chapatti (Indian Bread). Write the process in about 100–150 words in the form of a paragraph. You can also make a flowchart of that image using boxes and arrows.



Source: [https://www.google.com/search?q=images++process+of+making+chapatti&rlz=1C5CHFA\\_enIN549IN552&tbm=isch&tbo=u&source=univ&sa=X&ved=0ahUKEwj7i-pm9zUAhUMzmMKHXk-fA0QQsAQILw&biw=750&bih=699#imgsrc=r\\_3Sk9YPSaXjxM](https://www.google.com/search?q=images++process+of+making+chapatti&rlz=1C5CHFA_enIN549IN552&tbm=isch&tbo=u&source=univ&sa=X&ved=0ahUKEwj7i-pm9zUAhUMzmMKHXk-fA0QQsAQILw&biw=750&bih=699#imgsrc=r_3Sk9YPSaXjxM)

## Picture Composition

### Task 1

The set of pictures given in Task 1 can be presented as a set of jumbled pictures to the students. Give a matching sentence to each of the pictures. Ask learners to match the pictures and sentences and rewrite the story in the correct order.

### Task 2

To adapt this task to the secondary-level students, you can jumble the pictures and ask them to reorder them and build a story around it. This could be an individual or a group activity, where learners/groups perception(s) would direct the trajectory, the story would take.

### Task 3

The advanced-level students can be given a picture as given below and write about it. Students can create a story around it using imagination and creativity or even describe whatever is seen can be described. This could be a group or an individual activity.



*Source:* Nagraj (1992).

*Note:* Teachers need to note that even if it is a group activity involving three to four students, the final writing must be submitted individually because the objective of the task is developing writing skills in students.

**Diaries**

1. The principal of your school maintains a diary of his school engagements every day. Can you complete his itinerary/timetable for the Annual Day celebrations of your school? Then write a paragraph on his engagements for the day.

**Annual Day Celebrations**

<i>Time</i>	<i>Activity Undertaken</i>
10.00 am	Meeting with all teachers
11.00 am	Inspecting all preparations undertaken
12.00 noon	Receiving the Chief Guest
1.00 pm	
2.00 pm to 4.00 pm	
5.00 pm	

1. What are the advantages of using pictures in the English classroom?
2. Choose any picture and think of different techniques to teach composition.
3. Ask your students to keep a diary to enter their reactions to the English classes. Collect them after a week. What do they tell you about you as a teacher?
4. Ask them to pick up any of their dairy points and ask them to write a paragraph.

# Appendix 7

## Tasks: Teaching Grammar

Tasks on teaching grammar through the TBLT method.

1. Fill in appropriate articles to complete the paragraph:

As people get older, they lose some of their earlier enthusiasms. Mr Chowdhary, who was [1] \_\_\_\_\_ postmaster and who retired last July, is [2] \_\_\_\_\_ good example of this truth. He was [3] \_\_\_\_\_ eager collector of stamps till about five years ago. Then he took [4] \_\_\_\_\_ dis- like to [5] \_\_\_\_\_ hobby and now he cannot even bear to look at [6] \_\_\_\_\_ stamp. He was [7] \_\_\_\_\_ heavy smoker in his college days; he used to smoke between forty and fifty cigarettes [8] \_\_\_\_\_ day. Now he is [9] \_\_\_\_\_ chewer of pan and cannot stand [10] \_\_\_\_\_ smell of cigarette smoke!

2. Fill in the appropriate prepositions from the box and complete the paragraph:

At	under	for	up	of	to	from	into	for	down	near
----	-------	-----	----	----	----	------	------	-----	------	------

The train was on time. Ms. Williams picked [1] \_\_\_\_ her suitcase and got [2] \_\_\_\_ a first-class compartment. There was a woman [3] \_\_\_\_ a baby in the compartment. Ms. Williams put her suitcase [4] \_\_\_\_ the seat and sat [5] \_\_\_\_ the window. Just then, a boy and a girl rushed up. The girl cried, "We nearly missed saying goodbye [6] \_\_\_\_ you!" The boy said, "Our car broke [7] \_\_\_\_ 50 yards [8] \_\_\_\_ the station and we ran all the way!" [9] \_\_\_\_ that moment the guard blew his whistle and waved his green flag. "Thank you very much [10] \_\_\_\_ seeing me off," said Ms. Williams. "You shouldn't have run all the way. Say goodbye to your mother [11] \_\_\_\_ me!" "Goodbye!" cried the children as the train steamed out [12] \_\_\_\_ the station.

3. Fill in the blanks with appropriate articles, prepositions, and conjunctions:

Nigel [1] **was/is/are** \_\_\_\_\_ an English schoolboy, who could speak French, German, and Italian by the time he was 12. He could read [2] **and/also/too** \_\_\_\_\_ write Russian [3] **when/by/at** \_\_\_\_\_ the time he was 15 [4] **while/but/whereas** he could not speak [5] **them/they/it** \_\_\_\_\_

very well. [6] **When/By/At** \_\_\_\_\_ his university, he added Spanish [7] **of/to/with** \_\_\_\_\_ the list and in his last year he was able to spend three months [8] **in/at/into** \_\_\_\_\_ Spain on a grant [9] **of/from/with** \_\_\_\_\_ the Spanish embassy in London. [10] **The/A/An** \_\_\_\_\_ same year he was able to get [11] **the/a/an** \_\_\_\_\_ post in [12] **the/a/an** \_\_\_\_\_ British Secret Service and was sent to Europe [13] **in/on/for** \_\_\_\_\_ a hazardous tour. He liked [14] **the/a/an** \_\_\_\_\_ cloak-and-dagger life [15] **from/in/with** \_\_\_\_\_ the Secret Service. If he had liked teaching, he could easily have got [16] **the/a/an** \_\_\_\_\_ lectureship in modern languages [17] **on/at/in** \_\_\_\_\_ any English university, [18] **also/and/** \_\_\_\_\_ he could have done research [19] **on/at/in** \_\_\_\_\_ London or Edinburgh in one [20] **the/a/an** \_\_\_\_\_ the languages he had mastered.

4. Fill in the blanks choosing suitable phrases from the list given below (use an appropriate form):

1. Her imagination tends to \_\_\_\_\_ with her.
2. We might \_\_\_\_\_ of supplies soon.
3. The salary of a computer professional usually \_\_\_\_\_ six figures.
4. Thanks to credit cards, young people often \_\_\_\_\_ huge bills.
5. He quickly \_\_\_\_\_ the names on the list.

5. Fill in the blanks choosing the most appropriate option from those given below:

A sparrow (1) \_\_\_\_\_ a nest in a field of sugarcane and now there were three tiny birds in it. One day the farmer (2) \_\_\_\_\_ out into his field with his young son. "I (3) \_\_\_\_\_ to cut down the cane tomorrow," he said. "I (4) \_\_\_\_\_ three men from the village to help me." When the mother sparrow came back to the nest in the evening, the little birds told her of the danger. "We'll have to (5) \_\_\_\_\_ another place tonight," they said. "Not yet, little ones, he won't cut it tomorrow, that's certain."

- |                  |                    |                   |
|------------------|--------------------|-------------------|
| 1. (A) built     | (B) is building    | (C) had built     |
| 2. (A) walks     | (B) walked         | (C) walking       |
| 3. (A) am going  | (B) shall be going | (C) will be going |
| 4. (A) had asked | (B) have asked     | (C) am asked      |
| 5. (A) find      | (B) finding        | (C) finds         |

6. Fill in the blanks with the most appropriate function words.

Weset (1) \_\_\_\_\_ very early (2) \_\_\_\_\_ the morning. Father had his camera slung (3) \_\_\_\_\_ his shoulder (4) \_\_\_\_\_ carried a walking stick. Mother carried two large flasks full (5) \_\_\_\_\_ coffee. I walked (6) \_\_\_\_\_, a hamper full (7) \_\_\_\_\_ *chapathis*, dry potato curry (8) \_\_\_\_\_ pickle swinging now (9) \_\_\_\_\_ my right arm and now from my left—it was quite heavy. My little sister bore (10) \_\_\_\_\_ bravely (11) \_\_\_\_\_ the weight of (12) \_\_\_\_\_ blanket. Three hours (13) \_\_\_\_\_ steady walking (14) \_\_\_\_\_ the countryside brought us (15) \_\_\_\_\_ a river. It flowed lazily (16) \_\_\_\_\_ and curved away (17) \_\_\_\_\_ our left. There was (18) \_\_\_\_\_ tiny island in (19) \_\_\_\_\_ middle of (20) \_\_\_\_\_ was a stunted tree. (21) \_\_\_\_\_ view was beautiful. Mother said in (22) \_\_\_\_\_ firm voice: “Let’s spend (23) \_\_\_\_\_ day here, (24) \_\_\_\_\_ that mango tree.”

7. Read the following conversation between Mohan and Saket. Fill in the blanks using appropriate question tags.

Shane: Let’s go out to dinner tonight, 1) \_\_\_\_\_ Shirley: Okay. Where do you want to go? Shane: I’m not sure. You like spicy food, 2) \_\_\_\_\_ Shirley: Yeah, I love it. Shane: Well, why don’t we go to that new Mexican restaurant? Shirley: Sounds good. Is the restaurant around the corner? Shane: That’s right. You’ll finish work at half past five, 3) \_\_\_\_\_ Shirley: Yes. Shane: So, six o’clock is good for you, 4) \_\_\_\_\_ Shirley: Yes. That’s perfect. I’ll meet you there, then.

8. The above dialogue/or any other dialogue can be given to convert it into a paragraph using indirect speech.

9. Fill in the blanks choosing the appropriate modals from the options given.

Don’t eat this fruit, it (1) \_\_\_\_\_ could/should/would be poisonous. This (2) \_\_\_\_\_ may/might/could prove harmful for your health and perhaps (3) \_\_\_\_\_ could/should/would lead to death. Therefore, you (4) \_\_\_\_\_ should/might/should not eat this fruit. It should not be eaten raw therefore before eating, its skin (5) \_\_\_\_\_ must/can/might be removed.

10. Fill in the blanks using the correct form of the word given in the bracket.

Everyone who (have) \_\_\_\_\_ ever been to a graduation (know \_\_\_\_\_) how exciting it can be for the graduates. In our town, nearly the whole population (come) each year. There (is) \_\_\_\_\_ one thing that both graduates and guests (enjoys) the awarding of scholarships. This ceremony, along with the closing exercises, (make) attending the graduation worthwhile. Several of the student who (receives) \_\_\_\_\_ awards (plan) \_\_\_\_\_ to attend the community college. Many former graduates (is) \_\_\_\_\_ grateful for opportunities that such an award (provide) \_\_\_\_\_.

# Appendix 8

## Tasks for Vocabulary

### Sample Text: 01

Read the following dialogue and work on the task given below:

(The teacher can also choose dialogues according to the level of the class.)

Salman: Do you know, someone shouted at me in the street this afternoon? I was walking along you know, just minding my own business when this man came up and started shouting names at me. I couldn't believe it. Have you ever been shouted at in the street like that?

Joyce: No, I haven't, not like that. Er..., well, I have been shouted at, but it was by a policeman. I mean ... it was a bit different. You see..., I was driving, and I drove straight through a red light.

1. Find at least three examples of each of the following:

Nouns:

Verbs:

Prepositions:

2. Match the adjectives in the left-hand column with the suitable nouns in the right-hand column:

- |            |               |
|------------|---------------|
| i. Snub    | a. Complexion |
| ii. Bushy  | b. Chin       |
| iii. Cleft | c. Lips       |
| iv. Pale   | d. Hair       |
| v. Wavy    | e. Eyebrows   |
| vi. Full   | f. Nose       |

3. What do the following have in common? Answer in one word.
  - i. Sergeant, corporal, major Crimson, scarlet, maroon Armchair, table, wardrobe
  - ii. Who do you pay rent to?
  - iii. What do you call someone who:
    - Sweeps the road
    - Tests people's eyes
    - Designs buildings



- Pays money and loans
  - Repairs pipes and taps
- iv. Where can you find the people mentioned above?
1. Use the suffixes -er/-ist to give the names of the following:  
The thing that wipes rain off your car windscreen—A person who plays violin—  
A person who takes professional photographs—A person who acts in amateur theatre—
2. In this word square, there are 14 describing different parts of the body (either across or down). Can you find them?

C	E	L	B	O	W	A
H	T	I	A	E	N	R
I	O	P	C	Y	A	M
N	E	C	K	E	I	H
I	H	A	N	K	L	E
K	C	H	E	S	T	E
C	H	E	E	K	A	L

For advanced levels, complex texts can be chosen from which different task can be prepared as given in the following example:

**Sample Text: 02**

Read the following passage and answer the questions given below.

As a boy, I was very fond of the old soldier in our little town. He only had one leg, having lost the other somewhere in Assam in 1942. He used to sit on the bank of our small river and tell me about his adventures. He told me that he had run away from home to join the army when he was 18. He had experienced his first battle in the Libyan Desert in the Second World War. He used to tell me dozens of war stories, but the one I liked the best was one of his escapes from a Japanese prisoner-of-war camp in Burma. He has told me again and again how he walked 200 miles in two weeks. On the way he was bitten on the toe by a poisonous snake, and he had to cut off part of the toe in order to survive. But the wound did not heal and by the time he got to an Indian camp it had turned septic and the leg had to be amputated. He is apparently quite content with his lot. He says that his pension is enough for his needs; and the fish that he catches from the river and sells provides him with the money for his cigarettes.

Identify the words in the passage which mean the following:

1. An injury to a living tissue by a cut or blow
2. Contaminated with bacteria from a festering wound
3. Unusual and exciting hazardous activity
4. To cut off a part of the body by a surgical operation
5. Regular payment made by the government to people above a specific age, widows, or disabled
6. To gain practical knowledge by doing an activity

7. Satisfied
8. Something that causes death or injury
9. Readily visible or perceivable
10. To become sound or healthy again

### Sample Text 03

#### 1. Read the following passage carefully and answer the questions given below.

He had just arrived in Madras for a convention when it happened. As he waited for a taxi at the airport, he has a coughing spasm, and horrified witnesses saw him collapse face down. He was dead on arrival at the hospital. Within an hour, the 30-year-old executive, with a bright future had become a body with a tag in its toe in the autopsy room. And 2,500 kms away a telephone rang bringing the shattering news to a wife and two young children.

The sudden death provided a grotesque mockery of human hope. But Mr Sharma leaves a message, perhaps the most valuable legacy of his half-lived life. It was revealed during the autopsy by Dr Rao, senior pathologist at New Hope Foundation Hospital in Madras, that Mr Sharma was a compulsive smoker; he smoked two packets of cigarettes a day for ten years or even more.

Dr Rao says, there are three ways in which cigarette smoking can be a direct cause of sudden death. First, we must recognize that nicotine is a very powerful drug. It causes a sharp release of adrenalin, the hormone stimulated by sudden excitement or fear. The heart beat increases and blood pressure rises as certain arteries contract to channel more blood to those organs and muscles needed for extraordinary effort.

The second way in which cigarette smoking may cause sudden death involves the blood vessels, specifically the arteries of the heart and the main arteries leading to the brain. If a main coronary artery becomes totally blocked, death is usually abrupt: the brain is deprived of oxygen and death is only minutes away. In studies among men who died before the age of 45, thickening of the coronary arteries has been found common. And in smokers of a packet of cigarettes or more daily, it is 10–15 times more frequent than in the case of non-smokers.

The third way in which cigarette smoking may be a causative factor in sudden death involved the thinning, stretching, and bulging of a weak section of the arterial wall that can burst under stress. In the region of the brain, there is a small circle that is a central receiving station for blood to the brain and a hemorrhage in that region almost means certain death.

Cigarette smoking can be considered a significant contributory factor in sudden death. Every cigarette smoker should remember this: *Lungs at Work. Don't smoke.*

Write ten words/phrases from the passage related to medicine/medical profession.

1. Identify the words in the passage that mean the following:
  - i. Sudden flow of blood
  - ii. Behavior that is difficult to stop or control
  - iii. So strange so as to appear unpleasant
  - iv. Sudden tightening of the muscles of the body or face
  - v. Condition of being in want of necessary things

2. From the passage, identify the antonyms (opposites) of the words given below.

- vi. Happiness
- vii. Decreases
- viii. Departed
- ix. Contracting
- x. Dilating

### *Compound Words, Affixation, and Collocations*

These three techniques deal with the concept of formation of new words with the help of already existing words. The tasks given further vary in complexity, and hence it is the teacher who is the best judge of the level of her/his students.

### *Compound Words*

To begin with a simple task like the following can be given to the students to make them understand the concept of compound words, which can be followed by tasks that help students to think critically before identifying them. The level of complexity can be raised by giving a text that has numerous compound words as given subsequently.

Match the column A with B to make compound words:

A	B
Rain	Engine
Steam	Load
Scare	Worthy
Over	Fall
Note	crow

Once the students have learned to form new words and understand the meaning of the new words, then they can be asked to identify the words in isolated sentences and form sentences of their own with the help of the newly formed words as in the worksheet given below:

### **Finding and Writing Compound Words Worksheet**

A compound word is made up of two words that come together to make one new word. Read each sentence below and circle/underline the compound word or words.

For example: Today is my swimming practice. today

1. In the afternoon, I will immediately arrange a meeting with my friend.
2. I agree that watching too much television may hurt your eyeballs.
3. The thunderstorm arrived early in the morning.
4. Meanwhile, can you wait for me in front of the school?

5. Does anyone have a telephone I can use?
6. I had butterflies in my stomach when I went to the hospital.
7. I have a concern because the zipper on my backpack got stuck.

Write a sentence with each compound word that you have identified in the sentences cited earlier:

Today: I went to the park to watch the fireworks.

8. \_\_\_\_\_
9. \_\_\_\_\_
10. \_\_\_\_\_

Source: Adapted from Copyright [www.englishlinx.com](http://www.englishlinx.com)

The next task could be identifying the compound words from stories or paragraphs, making a list and using them in sentences of their own. These compound words could also be clustered together to build relationships. These kinds of tasks will help them to build their own vocabulary and use them in appropriate contexts.

### Sample Text: 04

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#### A Story for Compound Words

*Ladybird was getting ready for breakfast. She was expecting a houseguest any minute. Just as she began heating up the frying pan for pancakes, the doorbell rang. She took the frying pan off the stove and went to answer the door. As she opened the door, sunshine spilled in through the doorway. The sunshine actually made the carpet look a different color. "Welcome," she said to her houseguest, "I'm glad you could come by for breakfast." Ladybird opened the door wide. "Come in and have a seat," she said. Ladybird went to the linen closet and pulled out her finest tablecloth. She spread the tablecloth on the table and set out her crystal teapot beside the vase of sunflowers. Ladybird and her houseguest sat down and had a delicious breakfast together.*

Source: [http://www.speechctx.com/emergent/compound\\_words.htm](http://www.speechctx.com/emergent/compound_words.htm)

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### Affixations

Affixation is the process of adding "prefixes" (combination of letters to the beginning of the root word) and suffixes (combination of letters to the end of the root word). Affixation exercises undertaken in class help in many ways to develop vocabulary in learners. First, the learner understands what the root or the base word is. Second, it helps in the formation of new words which belong to different parts of speech, that is, grammatical category. Third, the newly formed words have a completely new meaning. Fourth, these words also have positive and negative connotations, the use of which sends the reader a message if the writer is conveying a positive or a negative message.

The process by which new words are derived is discussed under the section Derivation in the chapter on morphology. The list of common “prefixes” and “suffixes” are also given there. In this part, I am going to limit myself to the kind of exercises that can be undertaken in the class for students. (A comprehensive list of all prefixes and suffixes is given as in Appendix 9). A common exercise is the matching type like the following:

Exercise 01

Use prefixes to find the opposites of the words given below:

<i>Root word</i>	<i>Prefix</i>	<i>New word</i>
wrap		
use		
agree		
engage		
behave		
understand		
fold		
spell		
connect		
close		

Exercise 02

Use a prefix or a suffix to the words given in the brackets and complete the sentence.

1. He was acting in a very \_\_\_\_\_ way. (child)
2. She looked \_\_\_\_\_. She started to cry. (happy)
3. He passed his exam. He was \_\_\_\_\_ for the second time. (succeed)
4. The team that he supported were able to win the \_\_\_\_\_. (champion)
5. I couldn't find any \_\_\_\_\_ in his theory. (weak)
6. He wants to be a \_\_\_\_\_ when he grows up. (mathematics)
7. There were only a \_\_\_\_\_ of people at the match. (hand)
8. The road was too narrow, so they had to \_\_\_\_\_ it. (wide)
9. I think that you should \_\_\_\_\_ your decision. It may not be the best thing to do. (consider)
10. You need a \_\_\_\_\_ of motivation, organization, and hard work to realize your dreams. (combine)

The following exercise will also make the learners understand how to derive the words using prefixes and suffixes, and how the words should be used in the context of paragraphs to make the meaning clear. The following exercise is for the use of suffixes. You can also prepare exercises on prefixes on similar lines or modify the exercise to suit the level of the students in the class.

## Exercise 03

Form new words by using suffixes (from the given list) to the words given in the brackets, and complete the following paragraph using the newly formed words.

So far as I am concerned, parachute jumping is a (1) \_\_\_\_\_ (detest) thing, the very thought of which makes me feel sick and giddy. I knew that I would never have (2) \_\_\_\_\_ (jump) had I been alone, and it was pride and fear of (3) \_\_\_\_\_ (look) ridiculous in front of others that drove me to jump—not only for the first time but every time. Some people seem to consider parachute jumping a (4) \_\_\_\_\_ (wonder) sport which they claim to enjoy: they are either habitual liars, or I suppose more likely not made like the normal run of (5) \_\_\_\_\_ (coward) human beings to which I belong.

-ful,	-ing,	-able,	-ly,	-ed
-------	-------	--------	------	-----

*Collocations*

Collocation or how words occur together in speech and writing is an important part of speaking and writing fluently. Collocations are a combination of two or three words that go together to bring out the correct intended meaning. Students need to know which words work together well so that they can produce native-like language in speech and writing.

For example, look at these phrases given below:

- Waste of money
- Brand new
- A collection of
- Pleasantly surprised
- Throw a party
- Newly appointed
- Unacceptable behaviour
- Commit suicide
- Newly appointed

All the above phrases in their combination “sound right” and convey the intended meaning. Let us use one of the phrases from the above list in a sentence and see how the meaning can be conveyed to the reader.

- A. Jane made a birthday party as her daughter turned 16 years old.
- B. Jane threw a birthday party as her daughter turned 16 years old.

According to you, which of the two sentences sounds correct?

Sentence A, though grammatically correct, does not sound right, because of the verb “made.” You cannot ‘make’ a birthday party. Sentence B, on the other hand, sounds right because the verb “throw” goes well with the noun “party.” Therefore, the second sentence brings out the intended meaning more clearly. Similarly, in the English

language, there are many such combinations of words that go together to bring out the intended meaning clearly. These are called **collocations**.

The teacher can give a basic exercise on collocation as is given further before going to the advanced level. Again, let me reiterate that all exercises will depend upon the level of the students in class. These are sample exercises that need to be modified according to the class that is being taught.

### *Exercise 01. Collocations Task Sheet—Basic Collocations*

Use the words given in Box 01 and match them with the incomplete phrases in Box 02. You can make as many phrases as you wish. Each phrase should be complete in meaning. You can add a word to bring out the meaning of the phrase. Add more columns and rows if the space is insufficient.

Hint: you can make as many as 67 meaningful phrases by combining these words.

One example is done for you.

#### **BOX 01**

get	go	have	take	come	iron
buy	do	listen	read	watch	solve

#### **BOX 02**

up	book	dressed	to work	lunch	laundry
dinner	breakfast	TV	house	newspaper	argument
clothes	home	bed	work	shopping	shower
differences	gardener	results	match	sums	chores
cooking	lecture	news	sound	silence	

get	buy	go
get <u>up</u>		
get <u>a book</u>		
get <u>to work</u>		
get <u>lunch</u>		
get <u>the laundry</u>		
get <u>dressed</u>		

Exercise 02

Directions

- 1. Look at the following collocation exercise for the verbs “do,” “have,” “go,” and “get.”
- 2. Choose the best word and write in the space provided further.
- 3. Then write the collocated phrase in the table given further.

One is done for you as an example.

_____ have _____ a bath	_____ ready
_____ bankrupt	_____ a good time
_____ your best	_____ home
_____ lost	_____ your homework
_____ the housework	_____ an eraser
_____ a drink	_____ someone a favour
_____ permission	_____ lunch
_____ online	_____ upset
_____ abroad	_____ angry
_____ a holiday	_____ the shopping

have	do	go	get
have a bath			

Another variation in these collocated phrases is the combination of verbs with prepositions. The resultant phrase is called a **phrasal verb**, the meaning of which is different from the original words. These types of phrases roughly constitute about 10% of any spoken or written text (Tickoo 2003). In the examples given further, you will see that verbs such as “put,” “show,” “look,” “break,” and so on are in combination with prepositions, and together when used in a sentence the new phrase denotes a new meaning.



- put + up/with
- showed + up
- looking + into
- add + upto
- break + down
- break + in/into

Sentence:

- The mother had to put up with the tantrums of the little child for over an hour.
- After a lot of cajoling, the actor showed up at the promo event of the film.
- There was a complete break down of talks with the opposition party.
- The police had to break into the apartment to rescue the child.

Usually, these phrases are used contextually. Exercises to develop the use of phrasal verbs can also be undertaken in the class to develop fluency in language.

### *Exercise 03*

Fill in the blanks choosing suitable phrases (use an appropriate form) from the list given below:

run down	run over	run out	run up
run into	run through	run away	

- Her imagination tends to \_\_\_\_\_ with her.
- We might \_\_\_\_\_ of supplies soon.
- The salary of a computer professional usually \_\_\_\_\_ six figures.
- Thanks to credit cards, young people often \_\_\_\_\_ huge bills.
- He quickly \_\_\_\_\_ the names on the list.

An extensive list of phrasal verbs is available on <http://www.gingersoftware.com/content/grammar-rules/verbs/list-of-phrasal-verb>.

### *Dictionary Skills*

As mentioned earlier, dictionary use is extremely important for the development of vocabulary from the primary to the advanced level. From the primary level, the learners must be “trained” to use the dictionary—from how to find the words which are arranged in an alphabetical order to understanding which meaning to take into consideration when a word entry has multiple meanings. Dictionaries are a great source of learning, and therefore the teachers should undertake the use of dictionaries in the class through various tasks that will enable learners to understand and use them optimally.

Some sample task types are given further. They are by no means exhaustive. Teachers will have to prepare their own worksheets according to **predefined objectives**. They can modify and adapt them according to the level of the class.

Use the dictionary and work on the following tasks:

### Exercise 01

Place the following words in alphabetical order. Find out the correct pronunciation of these words. Your teacher will help you by reading the transcribed words. What differences can you notice after knowing the pronunciation of these words?

graphite	goose	pencil	paper	pen	Ruler
naturalist file	persuade	promote	gift	astronauts	artist
eraser					
environment					

### Exercise 02

Choose the correct word in each of the following sentences after consulting the dictionary for its meaning:

1. The princess was a \_\_\_\_\_ girl. (vane/vain)
2. The \_\_\_\_\_ floating in the channel to mark the wreck was cut by the pirate. (buoy/boy)
3. Oliver Twist wanted \_\_\_\_\_ porridge. (sum/some)
4. The brave \_\_\_\_\_ rode over hill and \_\_\_\_\_ after the wicked magician. (knight/night), (vale/veil)
5. The problem was an \_\_\_\_\_ fault. (electric/electrical)
6. Don't wear \_\_\_\_\_ clothes \_\_\_\_\_ while cooking. (flammable/non-flammable)

### Exercise 03

Look up the meanings of these words and use them in sentences of your own:

rite/write  
interrupt/interpret  
check/cheque  
there/their  
knot/not

### Exercise 04

Find out the meanings of the following words and use each of them in sentences to distinguish their meanings:

Plant:  
Creper:  
Shrub:  
Tree:

*Exercise 05*

The following entry on the word “economy” is taken from a dictionary. Study each of the sentences given below where the word “economy” occurs and select the most appropriate meaning/definition from the list given:

economy— (n) (1) a person who studies/specializes in that subject (2) a lot, a system of trade and industry by which the wealth of a country is produced (3) the subject or area of specialized study (4) (v) to try to save money by reducing amount that is spent (5) (v) not using a lot/that which is using less of something

1. New cars are more **economical** because of fuel-efficient engines.
2. You can **economize** by not eating in restaurants all the time.
3. Not many people enjoy studying **economics**.
4. Amartya Sen is a well-known welfare **economist**.
5. Tourism contributes significantly to the country’s **economy**.

*Word Games*

Using word games is an important way to teach vocabulary to the students. First, it inculcates the spirit of fun and freedom, which paves the way for learning without force; second, it brings with it competition, which transforms the students to do better as they want to be one up over the other; third, besides strengthening language skills, learners develop social skills and good relationships while they interact with each other. Whatever the goal of undertaking word games is, be it to develop speaking skills, grammar, or purely vocabulary, this indirect method of teaching is proved to be more useful than only worksheets and exercises in class. This is because there is always the association of fun and frolic with those words, which gets permanently imprinted in their minds. Sometimes, teachers assign a particular day or time for such word activities. Though it is good practice that every time some vocabulary items get reiterated, at times, it becomes very predictable, and some students may not like it. Therefore, it is always better to have something handy all the time with yourself so that you can use them when you see that the students have got bored with the class. These activities would refresh them; at the same time, you are also making good use of the time. If you surf the internet, you can see many websites that are totally dedicated to different word games; however, one cannot pick them up as it is and use them in class. You will have to modify them so that they can be applicable to the students of your level.

An interesting word game that my students have played in my class is “Bingo” or “Housie” as it is generally called. I think all of you must have played this game at parties, which is generally played with numbers. Here in the classroom, it is played with words or phrases. You can customize it according to what you want to reiterate to your students. The example given further is reiterating antonyms in students.

*How to Play?*

The teacher first prepares tickets, which have opposite words written in squares. These words are shuffled and written in a different order, and different tickets are prepared in this manner and distributed to the students in class. This means that the students have the same words but the order of the words in each ticket is different. The teacher then must decide on the rules of the game. The teacher calls out the words and the students

must cross out the opposites of those words. That is, if the teacher says “day,” the student must cross out “night” in whichever box it is. Prizes are allotted to those students who have completed a vertical line, or a horizontal line, or who have crossed the first five words, or who’s all the words of the four corners have been crossed, and so on (as decided by the teacher and conveyed to the students). This game can be played in groups.

Example of Ticket 01 and the words:

night	white	shallow	vertical	short
there	bold	wise	honest	disloyal
present	straight	receive	interesting	major

Example of Ticket 02 and the words:

interesting		white		major		vertical		night		disloyal			
honest		wise			short			receive		straight		bold	
shallow			day	here		absent		black		meek		bent	
deep	foolish		foolish		give		horizontal		minor				

One can use this game for developing any kind of vocabulary items such as prepositions, determiners, and even collocations and phrasal verbs.

### Techniques for Teaching Sub-Skills

The teacher can use her/his discretion to use materials that best suits the class and delivers learning outcomes.

#### *Comprehension*

<i>Technique</i>	<i>Purpose</i>	<i>Materials Used</i>
Narrative	To introduce students to words, phrases that are extra sentential, e.g., however, moreover To introduce new words and grammatical structures	Authentic materials, books, newspapers, magazines, etc.
Interviews	To introduce question forms	Group work
Informal chats	To expose students to language	Group work to perform functions
Role-play	To help students negotiate meaning	Group work to perform functions
Information transfer	To help them process information and express ideas in different ways	
Question–answer sessions	To help students practice responses to questions To transform sentences to respond appropriately	
Action chains	To have students practice grammatical structures	

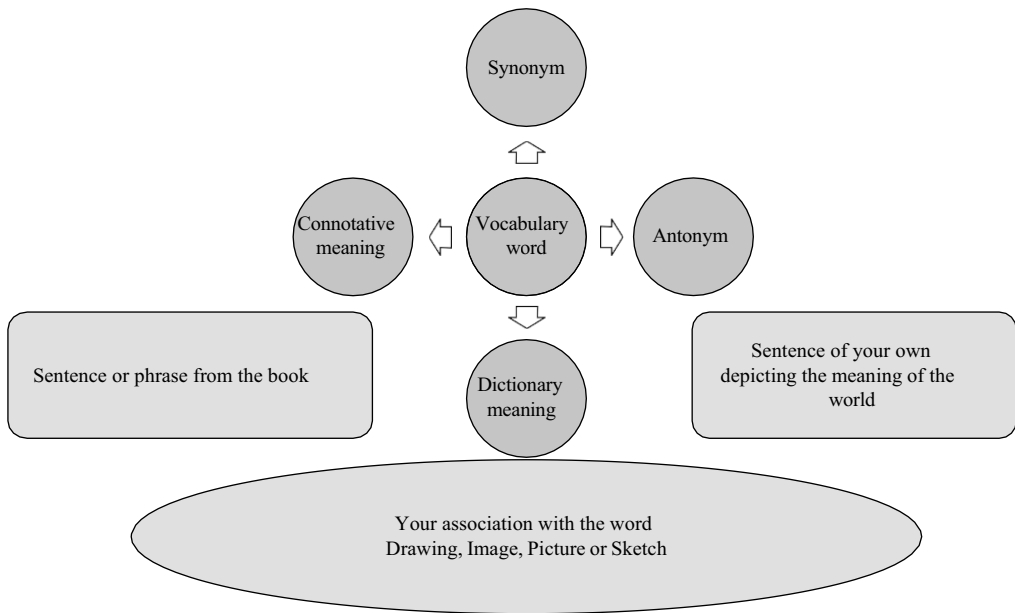
**Comprehension**

<i>Technique</i>	<i>Purpose</i>	<i>Materials Used</i>
Situations/ contexts	To introduce vocabulary and structures in a meaningful context	
Use of AV aids	To make learning more meaningful To provide visual support	
Dictation	To introduce new vocabulary To train students to focused listening To make them write at different levels	
Storytelling	To give them exposure to language To introduce vocabulary and grammatical structures in a meaningful context To make ideas clear for students	
Actions/gestures/ mimings	To help them establish the link between actions and the language to express ideas	

<i>Technique</i>	<i>Purpose</i>	<i>Materials Used</i>
Cloze exercises	To reinforce the vocabulary taught To expand their vocabulary To help them comprehend the overall meaning of the passages given	
Explanations	To make certain ideas clear To establish coherence between ideas	
Elicitations	To help students express ideas clearly To make them confident users of the language	
Group discussions	To encourage peer learning To develop teamspirit To gather group ideas	Topics of general interest
<b>Performing</b>		
Action chains	To have students practice grammatical structures	
Rendering dialogues and conversations	To help students to get the right intonation, use the right words in natural situations To make them confident users of the language	Dialogues and conversation
Dictation	To train students to focus listening To make them write at different levels	
Language games	To introduce vocabulary and grammatical structures in a meaningful context To make learning enjoyable	
<b>Imagination and Skill of Drawing</b>		
Blackboard use	To help students understand by providing—visual support	
<b>Reference Skills</b>		
Dictionary use	To help students use the dictionary to learn grammar, spelling, pronunciation, usage	
<b>Expressive Skills</b>		
Information Transfer	To help them process information and express ideas in different ways	
Group Discussions	To encourage peer learning To develop teamspirit To gather group ideas	Topics of general interest

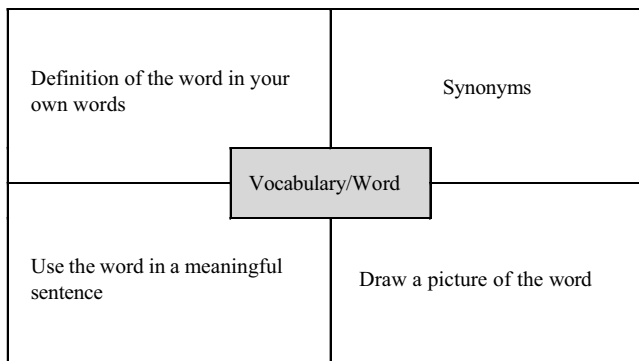
## Word Maps

### For Advanced Learners



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### For Beginners



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# Appendix 9

## Affixations

### Common Suffixes

<i>Suffix</i>	<i>Definition</i>	<i>Example</i>
-able, -ible	is; can be	affordable, sensible
-al, -ial	having characteristics of	universal, facial
-ed	past tense verbs; adjectives	the dog walked, the walked dog
-en	made of	golden
-er, -or	one who; person connected with	teacher, professor
-er	more	taller
-est	the most	tallest
-ful	full of	helpful

<i>Suffix</i>	<i>Definition</i>	<i>Example</i>
-ic	having characteristics of	poetic
-ing	verb forms; present participles	sleeping
-ion, -tion, -ation, -ition	act; process	submission, motion, relation, edition
-ity, -ty	state of	activity, society
-ive, -ative, -itive	adjective form of noun	active, comparative, sensitive
-less	without	hopeless
-ly	how something is	lovely
-ment	state of being; act of	contentment
-ness	state of; condition of	openness
-ous, -eous, -ious	having qualities of	riotous, courageous, gracious
-s, -es	more than one	trains, trenches
-y	characterized by	gloomy

Source: [https://www.google.com/search?q=40406\\_SuffixesChart.doc&rlz=1C5CHFA\\_enIN549IN552&oq=40406\\_Suffixes-Chart.doc&aqs=chrome..69i57.3300j0j4&sourceid=chrome&ie=UTF-8#q=40406\\_Prefixes-Chart.doc](https://www.google.com/search?q=40406_SuffixesChart.doc&rlz=1C5CHFA_enIN549IN552&oq=40406_Suffixes-Chart.doc&aqs=chrome..69i57.3300j0j4&sourceid=chrome&ie=UTF-8#q=40406_Prefixes-Chart.doc).

## Common Prefixes

<i>Prefix</i>	<i>Definition</i>	<i>Example</i>
anti-	against	anticlimax
de-	opposite	devalue
dis-	not; opposite of	discover
en-, em-	cause to	enact, empower
fore-	before; front of	foreshadow, forearm
In-, im-	in	income, impulse
in-, im-, il-, ir-	not	indirect, immoral, illiterate, irreverent
inter-	between; among	interrupt
mid-	middle	midfield

<i>Prefix</i>	<i>Definition</i>	<i>Example</i>
mis-	wrongly	misspell
non-	not	nonviolent
over-	over; too much	overeat
pre-	before	preview
re-	again	rewrite
semi-	half; partly; not fully	semifinal
sub-	under	subway
super-	above; beyond	superhuman
trans-	across	transmit
un-	not; opposite of	unusual
under-	under; too little	underestimate

Source: [https://www.google.com/webhp?sourceid=chrome-instant&ion=1&cespv=2&cie=UTF-8#q=40406\\_Prefixes-Chart.doc](https://www.google.com/webhp?sourceid=chrome-instant&ion=1&cespv=2&cie=UTF-8#q=40406_Prefixes-Chart.doc).

## Websites for More Vocabulary Development Exercises

The Teacher's Desk

<http://www.teachersdesk.org/>

Vocabulary University®

<http://www.vocabulary.com>

Wacky World of Words!

<http://web.archive.org/web/20041010230510/www3.telus.net/teachwell/mystpage.htm>

Web English Teacher: Vocabulary

<http://webenglishteacher.com/vocab.html>



## Appendix 10

### Different Question Types (Not Exhaustive)

	<i>Good for</i>	<i>Question Types</i>	<i>Advantages</i>	<i>Disadvantages</i>
Multiple choice	Application	Choosing the correct option	Very effective	Difficult to construct good test items
	Synthesis	Incomplete statement	Versatile at all levels	Difficult to come up with plausible distractors/ alternative responses
	Evaluation	Best answer	Minimum of writing for student	
	Analysis		Guessing reduced Can cover a broad range of content	
True/false	Knowledge level content		Can test large amounts of content	They are easy
	Evaluating student understanding of popular misconceptions		Students can answer 3–4 questions per minute	It is difficult to discriminate between students who know the material and students who do not know

	<i>Good for</i>	<i>Question Types</i>	<i>Advantages</i>	<i>Disadvantages</i>
	Concepts with two logical responses			Students have a 50–50 chance of getting the right answer by guessing Need many items for high reliability
Matching questions	Knowledge level	Terms with definitions	Maximum coverage of knowledge in minimum space and prep time	Time consuming for students
	Comprehension level if appropriately constructed	Phrases with other phrases	Valuable in content areas that have a lot of facts	May not be appropriate for higher levels of learning
		Causes with effects Parts with larger units Problems with solutions		
Fill in the blanks	Knowledge level		Minimizes guessing	Difficult to assess higher levels of learning because answers are limited to a few words
			Good for “who,” “what,” “where,” “when” content	May overemphasize memorization of facts
			Encourages more intensive study	Questions can have more than one correct answer
			Student must know the difference between knowing the answer and recognizing the answer	Scoring is time consuming

	<i>Good for</i>	<i>Question Types</i>	<i>Advantages</i>	<i>Disadvantages</i>
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Fill in the blanks	Knowledge level		Minimizes guessing	Difficult to assess higher levels of learning because answers are limited to a few words
			Good for “who,” “what,” “where,” “when” content Encourages more intensive study	May overemphasize memorization of facts Questions can have more than one correct answer
			Student must know the difference between knowing the answer and recognizing the answer	Scoring is time consuming

<i>Good for</i>	<i>Question Types</i>	<i>Advantages</i>	<i>Disadvantages</i>
Essay-type test items	Application	Can usually provide an objective measure of student achievement or ability Students less likely to guess	Recall and memorization of facts Cannot limit the amount of material tested, therefore has decreased validity
	Synthesis	Restricted response—consistent scoring, outlines parameters of responses	Subjective-potential unreliable scoring
	Evaluation	Stimulates more study Allows students to demonstrate the ability to organize knowledge, express opinions, and show originality	Time consuming to score Difficult to construct so that the desired response is clearly indicated

Source: <https://www.k-state.edu/ksde/alp/resources/Handout-Module6.pdf>.

### Question Types to Test Language Skills (Not Exhaustive)

<i>Language Skills</i>	<i>Question Types Used</i>
Receptive skills	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. True/False</li> <li>2. Multiple-choice questions</li> <li>3. Open-ended questions (specific information required)</li> <li>4. Dictation</li> <li>5. Summarizing (writing a summary of a passage heard or read)</li> <li>6. Translation</li> </ol>

<i>Language Skills</i>	<i>Question Types Used</i>
Productive skills	
Writing	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Answering questions</li> <li>2. Writing paragraphs describing pictures</li> <li>3. Paragraph writing—narrative, descriptive, expository, etc.)</li> <li>4. Writing letters</li> <li>5. Information transfer</li> </ol>
Speaking	<p>Speaking tasks that test</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Fluency</li> <li>• Pronunciation</li> <li>• Intonation</li> <li>• Proper use of weak forms</li> <li>• Appropriate vocabulary forms</li> <li>• Grammatical structures</li> </ul>
Grammar	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Multiple-choice questions in sentences and paragraphs</li> <li>2. Completion sentences (question tags)</li> <li>3. Cloze test</li> <li>4. Scrambled sentences</li> <li>5. Transformation</li> <li>6. Gap-filling</li> </ol>
Vocabulary	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Matching</li> <li>2. Information transfer</li> <li>3. Preparing tasks to test vocabulary in a context <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Words</li> <li>• Phrases</li> <li>• Idiomatic expressions</li> <li>• Phrasal verbs</li> </ul> </li> </ol>

# Appendix 11

## Explanation of Common Terms

<b>Analyze</b>	Break an issue into its constituent parts. Look in depth at each part using supporting arguments and evidence for and against as well as how these interrelate with one another.
<b>Assess</b>	Weigh up to what extent something is true. Persuade the reader of your argument by citing relevant research and also remember to point out any flaws and counterarguments. Conclude by stating clearly how far you agree with the original proposition.
<b>Clarify</b>	Literally make something clearer and, where appropriate, simplify it. This could involve, for example, explaining in simpler terms a complex process or theory, or the relationship between two variables.
<b>Comment upon</b>	Pick out the main points on a subject and give your opinion, reinforcing your point of view using logic and reference to relevant evidence, including any wider reading you have done.
<b>Compare</b>	Identify the similarities and differences between two or more phenomena. Say if any of the shared similarities or differences are more important than others. “Compare” and “contrast” will often feature together in an essay question.
<b>Consider</b>	Say what you think and have observed about something. Back up your comments using appropriate evidence from external sources or your own experience. Include any views that are contrary to your own and how they relate to what you originally thought.
<b>Contrast</b>	Similar to compare but concentrate on the dissimilarities between two or more phenomena, or what sets them apart. Point out any differences that are particularly significant.
<b>Critically evaluate</b>	Give your verdict as to what extent a statement or findings within a piece of research are true, or to what extent you agree with them. Provide evidence taken from a wide range of sources that both agree with <i>and</i> contradict an argument. Come to a final conclusion, basing your decision on what you judge to be the most important factors and justify how you have made your choice.
<b>Define</b>	To give in precise terms the meaning of something. Bring to attention any problems posed with the definition and different interpretations that may exist.
<b>Demonstrate</b>	Show how, with examples to illustrate.
<b>Describe</b>	Provide a detailed explanation as to how and why something happens.
<b>Discuss</b>	Essentially this is a written debate where you are using your skill at reasoning, backed up by carefully selected evidence to make a case for and against an argument, or point out the advantages and disadvantages of a given context. Remember to arrive at a conclusion.

<b>Elaborate</b>	To give in more detail, provide more information on.
<b>Evaluate</b>	See the explanation for “critically evaluate.”
<b>Examine</b>	Look in close detail and establish the key facts and important issues surrounding a topic. This should be a critical evaluation and you should try and offer reasons as to why the facts and issues you have identified are the most important, as well as explain the different ways they could be construed.
<b>Explain</b>	Clarify a topic by giving a detailed account as to how and why it occurs, or what is meant by the use of this term in a particular context. Your writing should have clarity so that complex procedures or sequences of events can be understood, defining key terms where appropriate, and being substantiated with relevant research.
<b>Explore</b>	Adopt a questioning approach and consider a variety of different viewpoints. Where possible reconcile opposing views by presenting a final line of argument.
<b>Give an account of</b>	Means to give a detailed description of something. Not to be confused with “account for” which asks you not only what, but why something happened.
<b>Identify</b>	Determine what are the key points to be addressed and the implications thereof.
<b>Illustrate</b>	A similar instruction to “explain” whereby you are asked to show the workings of something, making use of definite examples and statistics if appropriate to add weight to your explanation.
<b>Interpret</b>	Demonstrate your understanding of an issue or topic. This can be the use of particular terminology by an author, or what the findings from a piece of research suggest to you. In the latter instance, comment on any significant patterns and causal relationships.
<b>Justify</b>	Make a case by providing a body of evidence to support your ideas and points of view. In order to present a balanced argument, consider opinions that may run contrary to your own before stating your conclusion.
<b>Outline</b>	Convey the main points placing emphasis on global structures and interrelationships rather than minute detail.
<b>Review</b>	Look thoroughly into a subject. This should be a critical assessment and not merely descriptive.
<b>Show how</b>	Present in a logical order, and with reference to relevant evidence, the stages and combination of factors that give rise to something.
<b>State</b>	To specify in clear terms the key aspects pertaining to a topic without being overly descriptive. Refer to evidence and examples where appropriate.
<b>Different</b>	Give a condensed version drawing out the main facts and omit superfluous information. Brief or general examples will normally suffice for this kind of answer.
<b>To what extent</b>	Evokes a similar response to questions containing “How far ....” This type of question calls for a thorough assessment of the evidence in presenting your argument. Explore alternative explanations where they exist.

Source: <http://www2.le.ac.uk/offices/ld/resources/writing/writing-resources/essay-terms>.