Methods of Teaching English

Basic Education…. 3rd Year

Instructor

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Planning

Planning

Planning is a vital element in teaching, since the whole decision making model is based on this skill. Cognitive learning theorists recognize that the amount and rate of learning is influenced by the nature of the subject - matter itself, the way it is broken down and the order in which it is presented (Anderson and Ausubel 1965). Ausubel (1965), Bruner (1960) and Gagné (1965) agree that control over learning can be exercised most effectively in three ways:

1. Substantively, by showing concern for the structure of a body of subject-matter.

2. Pragmatically, by employing suitable principles of ordering the sequence of subject - matter and constructing its internal logic and organization.

3. Arranging appropriate practice trials.

Specific steps in planning

The basic planning process involves:

1. Choosing the subject - matter of the lesson .

2. Finding out what the pupils already know about the subject you ha chosen.

3. Specifying instructional objectives.

4. Devising instructional procedures which will help you to achieve the objectives.

5. Determining how to tell whether or not these procedures work.

Teachers seldom begin planning a lesson in a vacuum . They usually have a course syllabus which is laid down by the school or an external examining body .

PLANNING

Objectives

Having decided on the subject matter of the lesson you must decide what kinds of things you want your pupils to learn . It is only after the formation of precise goals or specific instructional objectives that efficient learning can occur .

Sometimes you may be working from a course syllabus which clearly states its objectives . However , course objectives usually present long - term goals rather than the specific short - term goals which will make good instructional objectives for a lesson . However the general aims of the course as a whole usually reflect the values involved in the choice of subject - matter and are an excellent source for affective objectives concerned with attitudes towards subject - matter .

The course aims or objectives are also usually a part of a larger set of goals , e.g. the objectives for fourth form mathematics are seen against the objectives for the mathematics curriculum of the entire school . Seeing your instructional objectives as part of a much larger set of objectives should help you understand what to expect from your pupils when they enter the class at the beginning of a session .

The second advantage of objectives found in a course syllabus is that they are not usually tied to particular instructional materials . This leaves you free to choose appropriate materials and procedures to help you to achieve the short - term or instructional objectives for your lesson .

Stating instructional objectives

An instructional objective should state what you expect the pupils to learn as a result of your lesson and should describe how the pupils will show what they have learned . In other words , instructional objectives

place emphasis on what the pupil will do , not upon what the teacher will do ; they also indicate how learning is to be observed or evaluated .

For example , it is inadequate simply to state as your instructional objectives : ' Pupils will learn about locomotion in aquatic animals . Although this states a desired learning outcome , it does not indicate how learning is to be observed or evaluated . On the other hand , it is also inadequate to state the objective in terms of a pupil's activity . For example : ' Given six aquatic animals , the pupils will work in groups observing them . Although this may be a worthwhile activity for the pupils and may lead them to some outcome it is not the outcome itself. What is needed is a pupil - oriented learning outcome such as the following , e.g. Given six different aquatic animals to observe pupils will report on the methods of locomotion they employ This not only describes what the pupil will do , but also the conditions under which the learning will occur , so that the expected behavior can be observed and evaluated . Whenever you have an objective stated as a learning activity instead of a learning outcome you can convert it into an acceptable objective simply by answering the following question What will this activity help the pupil to be able to do?

Remember also that many good learning activities are potentially useful for helping pupils reach any one of a number of learning outcomes, accordingly, it is important that you should specify precisely what it is you want your pupils to learn from any given activity, and pupils should be told what is expected of them on completion . Learning outcomes are tied to learning focus objectives . (selective perception), which in turn is tied to specified goals and Suppose , for example , that a teacher's lesson plan includes a class discussion about the The effect of inflation on the economy .

The pupils as a result might be expected to do any one of the

following:

(a) to be able to describe in 1000 words the effect of inflation on the economy;

(b) to be able to define inflation ;

(c) to be able to cite examples (from newspaper accounts) of the effect of inflation on the economy .

Whenever the performance expected of pupils is not clearly stated , the problem lies in the ver b selected to describe that performance .

When selecting an instructional objective for use in your teaching , use a verb which describes observable actions or actions which have observable products , such as to identify , to choose , to solve , to analyze , to explain . Avoid vague

unobservable verbs such as , to know , to believe , to appreciate .

There are many processes which cannot be directly observed,

eg, it is not possible to observe the thinking process of a pupil when he is solving a mathematical problem, but the teacher can examine the steps taken to arrive at the solution which will give an indication of the thinking processes involved .

make the objects of these verbs describe observable When using active observable verbs to frame objectives , also end - products . If the object of any of these verbs does not describe an observable

end - product , the resulting objective becomes vague and unobservable , e.g .: To explain the Middle

East Crisis . What is to be explained , the causes of the Middle

East Crisis or the political ideologies involved ? Here the problem end - products . is not the verb , but the object . Make sure that both the verbs and object are clearly defined , pointing to observable

Exercise 2.1

From the list of objectives given below , identify those which meet the criterion observable ' by placing a tally in the appropriate column .

Observable Unobservable Objectives French text

1. To translate a paragraph from a

2. To understand Darwin's theory

3. To identify four common trees

4. To describe the characteristics of mammals

5. To appreciate the ' Moonlight Sonata

6. To study a diagram of the circulation in man

Exercise 2.2

Correct each of the following objectives by making sure both verbs and object clearly define observable actions and end - products .

1. To learn this week's French vocabulary .

2. To know the rules for correct punctuation .

3. To know the causes of the Civil War .

4. To understand the difference between hard- and softwoods .

5. To know Chapter 3 in your chemistry book .

Answer key

Suggested corrections are given below . Other corrections are possible , but carefully check that verbs describe observable action or end - products of that action .

1. (a) To write the English equivalent of each French word in this week's vocabulary .

(b) To use each word in this week's French vocabulary in a conversation with the teacher

2. (a) To state the rules for correct punctuation .

  (b) To punctuate a a paragraph correctly .

(c) To correct incorrect punctuation in a given passage .

(d) To explain each punctuation r 16 rule and write a sentence illustrating the proper application of each rule .

3. (a) To list the causes of the Civil War .

(b) To arrange the events causing (leading up to the beginning of) the Civil War in sequential order .

4.(a) To distinguish between the hard- and softwoods in a number of given samples .

(b) Explain the difference between hard- and softwoods . examples of softwoods .

(c) Give six examples of trees having hardwood and six 5. (a) To recall the major facts in Chapter 3 and list

(b) To explain the contents of Chapter 3 to the teacher , using them from memory . your own words

Exercise 2.3

. Each of the following objectives is poorly written

(a) Identify the major problem and (b) rewrite the objective to correct that problem .

1. To show the class how to extract moisture from soil . 2. To understand the problems of developing countries . 3. To grasp the significance of the energy crisis .

4. To collect newspaper clippings about the European Economic Community (EEC) .

5. To view a film on air pollution ,

Answer key

1. (a) Problem : Teacher - focused learning activity

(b) Correction : To investigate the amount of moisture in soil . Pupils , working in groups of two , will carry out an experiment to measure the moisture contained in 100 grams of soil .

2. (a) Problem : Vague , unobservable .

(b) Correction : To describe the problems of one developing country and discuss with the pupils possible solutions to these problems.

3 (a) PLANNING Problem : Vague, unobservable.
(b) Correction . To consider the sources and uses of energy . To discuss the pros and cons of the use of nuclear energy .
4. (a) Problem. Learning activity rather than outcome.
(b) Correction To list the advantages and disadvantages of EEC membership .
5 (a) Problem: Learning activity rather than outcome. (b) Correction To explain in your own words the necessity for control of air pollution giving examples to support your argument .

Lesson plans
Making a lesson plan involves:
1. Deciding on the kind of things you want the pupils to learn and stating what is to be learned in terms of precise instructional objectives.
2. Specifying an appropriate sequence of topics and tasks.
3. Describing the teaching methods to be used to move pupils towards the learning objective.

4. Describing how the pupils will demonstrate what they have learned or determine how to tell whether or not the procedures have worked by establishing checkpoints to provide feedback and monitor pupils' progress.

Remember that without a plan which features objectives , an observer is likely to misjudge the effectiveness of your classroom behavior , e.g. a class discussion which contains too many recall questions on the part of the teacher is likely to be criticized unless the reason for doing so is explained. If the recall questions are intended to be used as a device to reinforce the information contained in a lesson which the class found difficult and are followed by a discussion in which the class are encouraged to reflect on and apply the information they have gained , it could be an effective strategy . But without your objectives and the strategy used to achieve them being described your teaching performance may be misjudged . Knowledge of your plans and intent enables the supervisor to help the student analyze how well classroom behavior corresponded to what was planned. A guide to making a suitable lesson plan is given below.

Lesson planning guide
1. General headings of date, class, age of pupils, number in class, duration of lesson and subject taught.
2. General aim : Why am I teaching this ?
3. Particular aim or instructional objective: Exly what do I hope the pupils will learn as a result of this lesson?
4. Subject matter: What am I teaching?
5. The intended structure of the lesson and how the time will be: used . The form of this section will vary according to the kind of work undertaken. It should indicate :

 (a) the teacher's work : e.g. exposition, questioning ; showing of film or filmstrip ; individual coaching - explaining . D where possible , t the kind of helpi is hoped to give .

(b) the pupil's work : e.g. their share in planning and carrying through the work ; discussion ; Completion of exercises or questionnaires : individual or group work .

c) where possible , the order in which the work is expected to progress , e.g. Accompanying diagrams may show planned blackboard work and use of other visual aids, assignments, etc.

6. Materials of exercises set, by pupils. and equipment : (a) required by teacher , (b) required by pupils .

7 , Subsequent comments (to be completed as soon as possible after the lesson is over) :

(a) How far the work has developed as planned .

(b) Particularly good aspects of the work : eg things in which the children showed unusual interest ; marked cooperation on the part of the children ; particularly useful material or equipment ; showed very little interest ; behavior difficulties ; inadequate provision of material or equipment ; unforeseen difficulties ; outstandingly bad work .

(d) assessment of the total situation , suggestions about future work , good points to be followed up , deficiencies made good , desirable modifications in original programme.

Teaching activities or methods

It is important to remember that teaching and learning are two different functions , the process of teaching being carried out by one person, while the process of learning is carried out by another. If the teaching-learning processes are to work effectively there must be some connection or bridge between the teacher and the learner. Much of this book , therefore , deals with the communication skills required by teachers to become effective in making these connections . These skills primarily involve talking . Research studies have shown that the average teacher does 70 per cent of the talking in primary and secondary classrooms (Flanders 1970, Perrott 1977). The percentage is probably higher in some settings (e.g higher education) and lower in

others . Much of this time is spent in presenting new concepts and information to pupils using narration, description and explanation. This activity, which may be called the lecture-explanation method, is teacher centered, interaction between teacher and pupils being minimal.

Lecture and explanation techniques

In almost all lessons or learning sequences the teacher has to present information and ideas . He has to introduce topics , summarize the main points of the learning activity and stimulate further learning. All these activities require the use of lecture-explanation techniques at various points in a learning sequence, but they must not take up too much of the lesson time.

A rough guide is that lecture - explanation, without any pupil participation, should not usually exceed 10-20 per cent of the lesson time, time being nearer 10 per cent for younger pupils and 20 per cent for older pupils. However, teachers frequently use techniques which ensure that students do not sit passively through an entire lecture - explanation sequence. Asking pupils questions about the lesson is an example of a technique designed to create pupil involvement.

Discussion

Discussion consists of questions, answers, and comment by both teacher and pupils. Since it involves feedback and pupil participation one would expect it to be an effective method of learning. This expectation is borne out by research evidence (McKeachie 1963; Abercrombie 1971). It is a useful preliminary or follow - up to any independent learning and it is useful in helping students to work out complicated problems. Most lessons should contain some discussion .

Independent studies

These methods vary from the common situation in which each pupil carries out a given activity independently , for example the solving of a mathematics problem or the translation of a passage into another language , at one end of the continuum , to a completely open - ended

choice of individual activity at the other . e.g. an ' activity session in a primary classroom in which objectives are hidden until the tasks are complete . In between these two are the inquiry methods commonly used by science teachers in which specific problems are set for investigation , bearing in mind the resources available , but freedom in the methods of solving the problem are allowed . Inquiry methods although often effective can be time - consuming , requiring decisions by the teacher on the best mix of methods to use to achieve his instructional objectives . The use of these methods require very careful planning in advance on the part of the teacher (Perrott et al . 1977) , requiring as they do arrangements for independent study by individuals or small groups Gage and Berliner (1975) describe the most common teaching methods as being a combination of lecture - explanation , discussion and individual instruction In the following chapters , we shall consider in greater detail the teaching skills which play an important role in these three common teaching strategies .

Additional reading

For a comprehensive guide on teaching conduct **Peterson , A. D. C.** (1966) The Techniques of Teaching , Vol 1 Primary , Vol . 2 Secondary , Pergamon Press , London : On writing instructional objectives **Mager , R. F.** (1962) Preparing Instructional jectives , Fearon Press , Palo Alto , California . **Popham , W. J. et al .** (1969) Instructional Objectives , Rand McNally , London . 20

Why did I do it like this ?

Planning for children's language learning

Planning is something we do all the time in teaching though we may not always be aware of it . The four situations below show the different kinds of planning which teachers do frequently .

Planning the term's English work with a group of teachers

In Chapter I and following chapters , we discussed the importance of the teacher's role in creating a suitable language - learning environment in which children are exposed to meaningful language input and given plenty of opportunities for practice Whereas in natural situations , opportunities arise haphazardly , the advantage of the classroom is that we can plan to create such opportunities in a more systematic way .

Although you may be involved in many different types of planning , this chapter will focus on daily lesson planning because most teachers do this: regularly in one form or another , and it is a good basis for other kinds of planning . We will consider:

1 Teachers ' views on planning

2 Decisions involved in planning lessons

3. The content and organization of a lesson plan

4 A closer look at some of the steps in planning a lesson.

 The aim of this chapter is to raise your awareness about the important role that lesson planning plays in your teaching and in your on - going development as a teacher . It encourages you to reflect on your own approach to lesson planning and to think more deeply about the relationship between your teaching and pupils ' learning .

1-Teachers ' views on planning

 As teachers , we have had a lot of experience of planning . But sometimes when we have been doing something for many years , it becomes rather automatic . We often stop thinking about the way we do something and why we are doing it . So it may be helpful to re - examine the reasons for lesson planning .

Task 1 Why plan lessons ?

What are your reasons for planning a lesson ? Compare your list of reasons with the list below , given by a group of Malaysian teachers . Which of them do you think are most important and why ?

Teachers' reasons for planning

Lesion planning

a) helps the teacher to be more confident in teaching

b) provides a useful systematic outline / guide / reference for smooth efficient teaching

c) helps the teacher to prepare for the lesson

d) helps to provide a useful basu for future planning

e) helps the teacher to be more organized

f) helps the teacher to plan practically which cater for different pupils

g) helps the teacher to know whether he / she has achieved his / her teaching objectives

h) enables the teacher to judge his/her performance

I) Is u proof that the teacher has taken a considerable amount of effort in his/her teaching

j) gives a sense of direction in relation to the syllabus

 k) helps the teacher to identify which areas/parts did not go well in his her teaching

 I) is an administrative requirement .

 Commentary :

 There are many reasons for planning as the answers above show . The Malaysian teachery reasons belong to the following categories in order of frequency:

practical (guide / support for teaching): b , c , d , c , f, j

professional development (self - assessment / improving teaching) : g , h , k

public accountability , ie proof of competence for authorities , parents : 1,1 confidence boosting : a **Practical**

The most frequent reason which teachers gave was the practical one of planning as a guide or support . They found that it helped them to prepare for their lesson , to organize their time and to take account of different learners ' needs . This concerns basic survival skills, e what to do at what points in the lesson. This practical reason may be particularly importan for less experienced teachers, for those who are changing teaching level or those who are teaching new materials or curricula. But if we look beyond basic survival , the effective management and organization of our time and resources helps us to set up and maintain those conditions which help children to learn language .

Personal development

The second most frequent reason which teachers gave concerns professional development ie that having a plan enables them to monitor, assess , and improve their teaching . If we a plan , then we have a set of intentions - what we expect learners to achieve. We can the check to see whether our intended outcomes match the actual outcomes. A mismatch us something is wrong and needs investigating. This aspect of planning is particularly important for the long term as it indicates a way for us to manage our own developmen this reason tends to gain importance once a teacher has developed basic classroom

 >> Assessment routines and doesn't have to worry about survival in the classroom but has the confide pp152-5 to stand back and look at his / her lessons in a thoughtful way .

public evidence / accountability

 The third reason is concerned with public accountability , ie that we can provide a public record or proof of what has been done which demonstrates to school authorities , inspectors , other teachers , and parents our ability to do the job. Another more positive way of looking at this is to say that a plan means we can show others what we are trying to do, we are being explicit or open about our teaching.

 Confidence

  The fourth reason concerns the affective side of teaching . It suggests that planning can give us more confidence about our teaching and make us feel more secure about what we are doing . In that sense , it is closely linked to the other reasons . If planning helps us to sort out how to run the class , then this will allow us to feel more confident . Similarly, if we feel we have our sense of self-esteem.

  We are improving our teaching this may also encourage us to feel more confident and develop your decision about which reasons are most important will depend on your experience of teaching and the type of situation you work in . Many teachers ' views will probably change with experience . At the early stages of teaching or in a new job, teachers are most concerned with the practicalities of running the lesson. In this situation , the plan acts as a useful guide . (b , c , e , f and jabove) . More experienced teachers may use the plan more as a way of clarifying their thinking, monitoring how their lessons are going and becoming more responsive to children's needs.

 2 - Decisions involved in planning lessons

When you sit down to start planning your lesson , what kinds of things are you concerned with ? Do you think about your pupils and what they have achieved so far and where do they need to move to next ? Do you reach for your syllabus to check which skills or functions you are

recommended to teach ? Or do you turn to the teacher's book , check the next lesson in your textbook and decide which activities to teach? Here is one teacher's views about what goes on in her head when she starts planning :

In planning one gives careful thought to what has gone before the lesson , meaning the outcome of the previous lesson and also considers what the learners already know about the topic or The subject matter, what should be emphasized in the lesson and hote the lesson is going to be carried out (activities, student organization, teaching aids/materials, teaching objective, teaching/learning outcome).

This quote shows that there are many decisions involved in planning a lesson though we may not always be aware of making them! The number of decisions we make will vary depending on whether we are planning our own course or working from a prescribed syllabus or textbook. If the latter is the case, the teacher's book will indicate the language structures, the vocabulary, and the activities to be taught in a particular lesson. However even if a lot of the teaching content is provided, as in textbooks, it is the teacher who has to decide what to include and how to organize the learning activities depending on what is best for the pupils. There is always a choice to be made.

Task 2   Decisions involved in lesson planningsleder Below and on the next page is a lesson taken from Project English 1[1] , a coursebook which is aimed at slightly older learners (age 11-13) . The lesson is the first one in a series of lessons based on the topic Our House .

If you had to teach this lesson , what decisions would you need to make before you could teach it ? What information would help you to make those decisions ?

What changes (if any) would you make to the lesson plan in the book?

Commentary

Here are some of the decisions you might want to make . These will vary depending on your learners and your teaching context .

Decisions	Information to help decision making
Which functions , language structures , skills , etc have pupils already learned ? They may already know some words from outside school , eg stereo , computer .	-previous lesson plans in textbook -bats of vocabulary and structures at the back of the book and on the Contents page pupils exercise books
Which content to include as the new items for the lesson ? eg understand questions with have / has got , produce answers with has / have got Include all the vocabulary items or only some ?	knowledge of pupils language grammar reference book to check on use of have / has got
What are my objectives for the lesson ? eg Pupils will be able to listen to the tape and find out what Ben and Mandy have got .	knowledge of pupils ' needs , levels , previous learning - activities in the textbook
Do I want to use the activities as they are or adapt or leave out some ?	- knowledge of pupils interests / how they seem to learn best . -my own lesson objectives -time available for lesson
What resources do I need for the lesson ? eg tape recorder , Pupil's Book , pictures of pupils ' houses	-Check lesson plan in Teacher's Book . - Check activities .
How do I check their understanding ? How do I check if I have achieved my objectives?	- Listen to their responses . Watch and note their participation -Check actual against expected outcomes Previous experience of what worked well .
Other ...	

The changes you make will depend on your teaching situation , your learners ' level , needs and interests , your own understanding of how learners learn best , and the time and resources available . No two teachers will do it in exactly the same way . Here are my suggestions , together with my reasons . Other changes are also possible .

Motivating pupils

Step 2 : You could either get pupils to bring in photos of their houses or use the picture is a stimulus to begin the lesson . Use the picture to link the topic to their own experience . What's your house like ?, Is your house like this ? This would be to arouse interest and activate pupils ' background knowledge about the topic , so relating it to their own experience . This would bring in a lot of the vocabulary needed quite naturally .

Contextualizing new language

Step 2 : You could leave practice of the new structure until they have been exposed to it in context , ie after listening to Mandy's description on tape . The reason for this change is that it would be more meaningful if they were exposed to the new structure through Mandy's description , which together with the pictures would give more support for understanding .

Establishing a purpose for activities

Step 6 : You could give pupils a purpose for listening , eg Write down what things you have in your bedroom . Now let's find out what Mandy and Ben have got in their badroom . We'll see if you have the same in different Pupils need a clear purpose for listening to the tape which makes sense to them . Having a purpose helps pupils to listen in a more focused way . Having a meaningful purpose involves them more

because they can relate to the intention behind it (in this case comparing their things with those of other children) .

Cultural sensitivity

If you teach children who come from poorer homes or from very different homes to the ones in the coursebook picture , you might want to prepare your own illustrations of a house and family more familiar to your pupils . The reason for this change would be to ensure that there is no implied negative comparison with children's own homes , or to take account of children's own cultural contexts .

There are many decisions you need to make in planning a lesson and no one right way of making those decisions . But if you are actively aware of the kinds of decisions which need to be made , then you are less likely to take them for granted . You are more likely to keep questioning your own decisions in a continual process of self - monitoring . In the next , section , we will consider an actual plan based on the results of the kind of decision making we have discussed above

3   The content and organization of a lesson plan

There is no standard way of writing a lesson plan . We need to develop our own format which will suit our needs . As we gain experience of teaching , our plans tend to get much briefer Some teachers may only make a simple list of activities t remind themselves of the order in which to do things . However , when beginning to teach a new group of learners or to use new materials , I find it can be helpful to plan a few lessons in some detail as a way of thinking through and clarifying my ideas . So in this next section I am going to analyse an example of a detailed lesson plan . This may be useful , particularly for those primary teachers who are new to teaching English , as it makes explicit the teacher's objectives and at teaching procedures and activities .

the language and / or skills focus for the lesson , which may not be obvious from looking just

The first part of the plan below contains information about what the teacher is going to teach . The second part is a description of how the teacher is going to teach - the procedures English , she / he will use in teaching . The lesson is designed for children in their third year of learning

Task 3   What's in a lesson plan ?

The bax below contains background information about what to teach . However most of the sections are incomplete . Match the numbered information in the bubbles at the bottom of the page to the headings given in the lesson plan outline , eg objectives , language skills , etc. One example , Part F , is already completed for you .

Commentary

The answer to the matching task is : A - 2 , B - 1 , C - 3 , D - 4 , E - 7 , G - 6 , H - 5 It is helpful in your planning to be aware of what language (structures , functions , vocabulary , etc) or skills will be new for pupils in a lesson and what they already know , so that you can build on this in your lesson , eg

Known language	New language
Colours , eg red , blue Instructions , eg Colour the ... Sentence pattern , eg It is blue .	Adjectives sad , happy , angry , rude Parts of the fish body , tail , fins , lips Sentence pattern His face is blue .

The background information tells you what is going to be focused on in the lesson (the content you are going to teach) . There are many different kinds of content , as you will see if you open any textbook , eg functions , structures (grammar) , pronunciation (sounds) , skills , topics , attitudes , vocabulary , learning strategies , text types , cultural information and so on . Though you may identify the language / skills

involved in carrying out various activities in the lesson , you will probably choose to focus on only a few aspects .

Although language structures are listed as part of the content , this does not mean that you need to reach them formally as grammar rules . In fact , we know from Chapter 1 that younger children (up to about eight or nine) learn primarily through purposeful interaction with others . They do not naturally pay attention to the form (words) of the language However , awareness of the underlying language system and of the natural pattern in language can help them to achieve higher levels of language ability eventually .

If we are to build on what we know about young learners , we can first focus on using the language to do interesting activities which emphasize the meaning , eg listening to a story to find out what happens , and then draw children's attention to aspects of the language system used to express that meaning .

Task 4 Lesson procedures : why do it in this way?

The second part of the lesson plan contains information about procedure - how you are going to teach . It has a section for teacher's and pupils ' activity . These two sections ensure that pupils ' activity is not neglected as there is a tendency in planning for teachers to focus mainly on what they are going to do rather than what the pupils will do.

☐The main input for children in this lesson is a story . Can you think of reasons for beginning in this way ?

☐ What is the main activity which pupils carry out in the lesson ? Why choose this one ? Think of a possible alternative .

How does the teacher prepare pupils to carry out the main activity ? Why does she need to do this ?

☐ What is the purpose of the Notes section of the plan ? What other information would you include in the Notes section if you were teaching this lesson ?

Lesson Plan Part 2 : Lesson procedures

Time	Teacher's activity	Pupils Activity	Notes
5-10 mins	1 Warm - up Brief revision of colours , using a team game	Pupils stand in lines behind flags of different colours . As teacher says a colour , pupils behind the flag of that colour crouch down .	
10 mins	2 Bring in goldfish or picture fish to introduce topic to pupils . Discuss fish - what it looks like , its colour , its parts . Check who has a fish at home .	Pupils gather round tank and contribute what they know about fish .	NB Remember to bring in fish and arrange classroom
	3 Tell pupils you a going to tell them a story . Get them to predict what will be in the story .	Pupils try to guess what will be in story .	Arrange pupils on mat for **story** NB remember picture of ce black sock .
	4 Explain the activity , ie pupils have to colour their fish as the little fish in the story requests . Give out colours and blanks of fish drawing .	Group leaders / monitors give out crayons and blank sheets	Get pupils to share if not enough . If warm - up revealed proble with colours , spend a few minutes revising as crayos are given out .
10 mins	5 Tell first part of story with actions and pictures . Continue story with instructions for colouring .	. Pupils colour in fish following instructions .	Check that pupils know what to do .
5 mins	6 Get pupils to compare	Pupils compare	Go round and see if

	drawings .	to see if they **have** the same .	draw have the same
5 mins	7 Go around class getting different pupils to describe the colours of the little fish . Use sentence prompts , eg His face is ...	Some pupils say the colours of the fish , eg His face is ...	
5 mins	8 Ask pupils what they thought about the story in L1 , if necessary . Ask whether the big black eel was right not to give the little fish colour for his lips .	Pupils give their opinions .	
	9 Display pupils ' coloured fish on the wall .	Pupils write their names and help teacher to display .	

The little fish who wanted to be beautiful
once upon a time there was a little fish. He lived in a big river with many other fish . But he was not happy. All the other fish were very beautiful . Their bodies were of many different colors , red , blue , green and so on . His body was white . He felt very sad . I want to have a beautiful body like those other fish, he said, So one day he went to see the king of the river, a big black cel who lived in a big black hole at the bottom of the river. He swam down and down and down to the bottom . Who's there ? said a loud voice. "It's me, little fish," said the little fish. What do you want, little fish? Please , sir , said the little fish , ' make me beautiful like the other fish , Hmm , hmm , said the big black eel . ' Alright . What colors do you want ? Please make my body red , said the little fish. And his body became red . " Please make my tail yellow , " said the little fish . And his tail became yellow . Please make my fins green , said the little fish. And his fins became green . Please make my face orange , ' said the little fish. And his face became orange

. And make my lips red , " said the little fish . " You rude little fish . You did not say please ," said the big black eel. 'I won't give you any more colours. And so the little fish had white lips. But he was very happy because his body had many colours. He was very beautiful.

Commentary

Stories like the little fish story provide meaningful contexts in which to expose children to language input .Through this story , they will encounter new vocabulary and language , eg sad , happy , tail , fins , His face is blue , but in a situation which They can relate to.They enjoy stories and are keen to find out what happens, which gives them a meaningful reason for listening. Children to work out the meaning conveyed by the words.

The main activity for pupils is to follow a set of instructions and color in the parts of the fish, and all the other activities are linked to this. to point as the teacher told the story or to sequence a set of to or hold up the appropriate pictur pictures in groups or individually. I prefer the Listen and color activity as it involves children and however mentally while the story is being told and leads to a definite outcome (colored pictures) which can be used later .

The main reason for preparing pupils to do the activity is to provide them with support (as we saw in Chapter 6) so that they can carry out the activity successfully themselves. The teacher does this by:

- activating pupils' background knowledge about the topic by bringing in a real fish to discuss or using a picture
- introducing the key vocabulary needed in the story , ie body parts and also revision of colors through discussion of the fish .
- getting pupils to predict what will be in the story .
- revising color vocabulary through the warm - up game at the beginning and also as crayons are given out .

The purpose of the Nates section is to provide a checklist to prompt your memory during the lesson . It represents the kind of things you need to do in order to ensure the lesson goes smoothly . For example, it contains reminders about materials needed, about organization of pupils, about possible problems which arise and alternative actions if necessary, about ways of monitoring. I find such a section useful as a reminder , particularly for young learner lessons , sons , which normally involve the use of a range of activities and resources . I have tried to make explicit the kind of things experienced teachers think about in their heads When teachers are less experienced , it may be helpful for them to write reminder notes.

If I was going to teach this lesson, I might include notes on: how to seat children during the story, a reminder to provide a model for the description in Step 7, an additional revision activity for colors if children have problems remembering, some ideas for additional follow - up activities if I finish early , eg a song.

When this story was tried out with children , they were very interested in the little fish and keen to color in his picture. They were able to draw on clues in the context to work out the meaning and to predict what colors the little fish would ask for. They could also join in the story at certain points when the teacher told it a second time . However they did not pay much attention to the language as they were too absorbed in the meaning of the story. So by establishing meaning first , we are building on children's strengths in interpreting situations . But if children are to develop their internal language systems , they need to become more aware of the words they are using .

Task 5   Helping children to notice language

- Why do you think children could join in the second time the story was told ? Which bits of the story do you think they joined in ?

- We discussed in Chapter 1 how children pick up chunks of language . Are there any phrases which they might pick up as a chunk from this story ?
- If you wanted to help children notice some of the language in the story, what would you draw their attention to?

Commentary

 The story has a pattern which recurs many times . This makes the language more predictable and so enables children to be able to join in . It also helps them to be able to guess what will happen in the story. Children tend to join in the patterned or repeated parts of the story , eg Please make my body red . And his body became red. Please make my tail yellow And his tail became yellow.

Please make my fins green . And his fins became green .

 Children might possibly pick up chunks of language such as You rude little fish . This may appeal to children as it is a short phrase and they usually enjoy language which they can use with their peers to joke or be rude. They may also pick up the polite requests , as these have a distinct pattern , are short , easy to understand and can be easily extended for use in other stories and games , eg Please make his hair long .

Once children spot the pattern , they can generate other examples themselves with your prompting and through feedback on their attempts. You can give them opportunities to do this through making up and dramatizing slightly altered versions of the story , etc. Noticing pattern in language helps children to generalize , which is a very helpful skill in language learning and for learning in general.

4 A closer look at some of the steps in planning lesson

lesson planning is something teachers do so regularly that it can become very routine. They are no longer aware of the steps in the

process or the reasons which underpin the choices they make . In this section , I want to examine some of the steps involved in lesson planning in more detail and to articulate some of the reasons for making particular decisions or choices . I am not suggesting that we normally need to think about planning in such detail , but from time to time it is helpful to become aware of what we do when we plan and why we make certain decisions . When you read my thoughts on planning , this may cause you to think about your own planning processes . It is through such an awareness that you may question or reconsider aspects of your own planning, so leading to a deeper understanding of what you are trying to achieve through your plans.

Choosing learning activities

Let us assume that the lesson above is the first one in a unit of teaching based on and growing out of the little fish story. We want to plan for the next lesson which is 30 minutes in length . The first activity in the lesson is the following:

Fishy names
Pupils use the picture they are colored in for the first lesson. They each have to think of a name and an age for their fish. They write this information on the back of the drawing . In pairs , they then ask each other questions to find out the information , eg What's the name of your fish? (Charlie .) How old is he ? (50.) They must also decide on the fish's favorite color (or food / drink) and their have to guess within three partners tries , eg Does he like blue ? The information could be collated on a large chart .

This activity makes use of the fish that children colored in the previous lesson and so creates a link with the previous session , providing a shared context to relate to.

Task 6 Sequencing activities

 Below are a number of possible activities , all related to the little fish story . Which of these activities would you choose to follow Fishy names ? Why?

1 Whose fish ? Complete a worksheet

Pupils complete a worksheet which has pictures of four children . Each child has caught a fish but the lines are entangled . Pupils have to work out which fish (of different colors) has been caught by each particular child by following the fishing lines .

2 Dramatize

Pupils dramatize the little fish story . Two pupils take the parts of the big eel and the little fish . Other pupils act as other fish in the river. Some pupils act as a chorus to tell the story, using actions and key phrases with the teacher's support. They prepare a frieze of the river as a backcloth . As the little fish gets its different colours, some of the pupils stick different colors onto the pupil who acts as the little fish.

3 Read and color

 Pupils are divided into five groups . Each group receives a simple en description of s fish , eg

> The fish has a blue body .
> It has a green face and a red mouth .
> It has a yellow tail , its fins are blue .

Each group's description is different . Pupils read and color in their pictures

4 Read and spot the difference

The teacher builds up on the board a written description of the little fish from the story with pupils' help . Children give it a name . She gets

their help to draw and color in a picture which matches the description, eg

The name of the fish is Goggle Eyes .

He has a red body and a purple face .

He has an orange tall and green fins . His lips are white .

Then she reads the description aloud while children listen and she makes deliberate mistakes, eg The name of the fish is Charlie . He has a yellow body and a purple face Pupils have to raise their hands when they spot a mistake. Individual pupils then take turns to come out and do the same .

Commentary

 There is no one right answer to which activities to select for the next lesson. It will depend Mon your teaching objectives and the needs of your learners . One possibility is to follow the activity Fishy names with Activity 4 , Read and spot the difference . This introduces pupils to a written description of the little fish. They are exposed to the language they have already A heard orally, which acts as a support, but now they meet the language again in the form of s written description which increases the challenge. So Activity 4 builds on fuhy names , but also provides new learning opportunities. The checking for mismatches between the written text and the teacher's reading gives them a meaningful reason for reading . The activity is flexible in timing and can be extended by allowing more students the opportunity to act as teacher. Fishy names and Activity 4 together involve all four skills and combine a balance between stirring oral work and a more settling whole class reading activity (See Susan Halliwell's criteria for planning activities .

Activity 3 Read and color provides a good follow - on to Activity 4 for the next or a later lesson . It would not really be suitable before

Activity 4 as it assumes that children can read the written description whereas Activity 4 introduces them to the written description of the fish. Activity I would probably be quite appealing to children, but it has no obvious language learning purpose and does not seem sufficiently challenging for the pupils' level. Activity 2 would also be a good follow - up to the first lesson , but this would take up the whole lesson. You would probably need longer than one lesson. If you wanted to do the drama with visuals and other aids, think about how and why you sequence learning activities encourage you to clarify the basis on which you are making decisions about children's learning. If you also monitor children's response, you will have a good basis on which to decide whether your decisions are justified or need modifying.

Checking the content

 In choosing activities, you may find it helpful to identify

- what language (functions, language structures, vocabulary) and listening skills speaking, etc. pupils will need in order to do the activity
- what language they have Already acqyired which they can make use of in doing the activity
- what attitudes or values you wish to develop through the activities , eg enjoyment and positive attitudes towards stories , politeness to others .
   If you are working from a syllabus or coursebook , you could Check whether the activities will enable to develop the appropriate language content, skills, attitudes, etc. that are required by your programme .
   The chart below shows you a way of analyzing the language and skills for an activity (Fisky names) which pupils need to understand and use. This type of chart shows:
- The language / skills pupils already know (revision) which will be recycled

- The language / skills which will be new for pupils .
- Which l anguage (if any) pupils will only need to understand (receptive) .
- Which language they will need to produce orally or in writing (productive).

Activity : Fishy names

Language structures	Functions	Skills / attitudes	Vocabulary	Pronunciation
Productive Revision	Productive Revision	Speaking , Listening	Revision	New
Wh - questions . eg What ... ? How old ... ?	Asking for and giving information about name / age / likes , eg What's his / her name ?	Exchange information	Colors , eg red , blue , yellow , orange	/ Z / consonant in does / doesn't
Yes / No questions , eg Does he like blue ?	How old is he / she ? Does he / she like red ? Yes , he / she does . **New** No , he / she doesn't .	Turn - taking with partner become aware of the purpose of communication. **Writing** Write notes of name / age / favorite color .		

Fisky names is mainly a revision activity so that it recycles language children already know from earlier lessons but in a new context . The new language item is the negative form of does , ie he / she doesn't .

This might also cause some problems with prominciation , eg the sound

// Task 7 Analysing the language and skills in an activity

chapter . Make a chart similar to the above and do the same for Activity 4 , Read and spot the difference . You can compare your answers with the completed chart at the end of the

Writing objectives

Once you know what activities you want to do and are clear what language and skills t activity is practising , then it is easier to write your objectives . Some teachers , however , prefer to write the objectives first and then find or design activities to carry out their objectives . Work in the way you find most helpful . Objectives help you to be explicit about what you want pupils to achieve in the lesson . There are different ways of writing them . Here is an example based on fishy names .

A - Pupils will be able ask and answer questions about their fish in pairs , eg What is its name ? How old is it ? Does it like blue ?

B - To get pupils to practise Wh - and Yes / No questions and answers .

The difference between these objectives is that objective a is written from the pupils ' point of view . Objective b is written from the teacher's point of view . Objective a makes it much clearer what activities pupils will actually do in the lesson . This way of writing objectives ensures that you take the pupil as your main focus and that you provide them with for meaningful things to do . When writing from the teacher's point of view , there is a danger of forgetting the learning needs of young pupils , ie the need for active involvement and a meaningful purpose . However both types of objective can be included in your lesson plan .

Task 8 Writing objectives

Here are three objectives for Activities 1 , 3 and 4 on pp111-2 .

Whose fish ?	Pupils will be able to fill in the worksheet .
Read and colour	Pupils will be able to develop their reading skills .
Read and spot the difference	Pupils will be able to spot the differences between what the teacher says and what is written in the passage .

- Which of the objectives provides the clearest information about what pupils will do ?
- Rewrite the other two objectives to make them clearer so that even another teacher would understand what pupils have to do .

Commentary

The objective for Read and spot the difference is the clearest as it tells us precisely what pupils are expected to do in the activity . The objective for Read and colour is very vague as it does not indicate what pupils will actually do . The objective for Whose fish ? is a little more informative , but it still does not tell us what type of activity the pupils will need to do in completing the worksheet . After all worksheets can vary from the simple to the very . complex .

One way of improving the objectives is to rewrite them as follows
- Whose fish ?
  Pupils will be able to complete the worksheet by finding and labeling the fish belonging to each child .
- Read and color
  Pupils will be able to color a fish correctly using information from a written description .

You may have some other important objectives relating to the learning process or attitudes, eg to encourage children to value each other's contributions in class , to develop an interest in reading English stories , etc , which cannot be specified so exactly in terms of performance or outcome . This does not mean you should abandon them, but you may need to take a more long-term view of achieving them. Objectives are merely a tool to assist you in achieving your teaching intentions , and not something fixed and rigid . They are only helpful if they are based on and sensitive to children's changing learning needs and to the actual teaching - learning situation . They need to be applied flexibly

Feedback on learning

Feedback for the teacher

while planning, you need to consider how you will know whether you have achieved your objectives, ie were students able to do the activity? You need to think about what counts as successful performance . For example , in fishy names , you might go around and check to see how many pupils have successfully written down the information they got from their partners. You might also watch their interaction to see how successful they are at communicating verbally , eg can they ask questions ? The information you collect will help you in planning for your next lessons . This process is a kind of self-assessment.

Feedback for the pupils

As well as feedback to you, however, it is also important to give pupils feedback on how they performed. This will help them to know their strengths and weaknesses so that they can make progress. For the Fishy names activity , you might have discovered that pupils were making mistakes with Does he / she like red ? Yes, he / she does./ No he / she doem't. You could write up some examples of their questions and answers on the blackboard and see if pupils can correct them. You might discover that pupils were just reading from each other's papers

rather than asking for the information. You could discuss with them in the mother tongue (if needed) the purpose of such activities and why it is important to ask each other orally in English rather than just read the information.

Task 9 Feedback on learning and teaching

for the Read and spot the difference activity above, in the lesson we have been planning:

- How would you assess pupils' performance?
- How would you provide pupils with feedback on their performance?

Commentary

Here are some ways of collecting information on performance which would provide you with feedback about the achievement of objectives for the activity .

• Count how many hands go up when you say the wrong word.

• Get pupils to write down words which you changed.

• Check how many words they noticed .

• Check pupils whether carry out the activity correctly when they take over as teacher.

• Identify what words they have problems in

- recognizing or pronouncing when reading aloud.
- Note how they react to the activity .

Feedback for pupils

At the end of each reading of the passage , get pupils to tell you which words you changed. This will help slower pupils to realize what they have to do.

• Repeat the activity several times, changing different words, and ask the slower ones to report back. Repeat what you read aloud if necessary, so they can check

• At the end of the activity, go back over the passage, checking on/revising words which pupils had problems with reading aloud.

Action plan

Aim: To plan a lesson in more detail and reflect on the outcomes.

Procedure

- When you have some new material or a new class to teach , try planning one or two lessons in more detail . Identify your objectives and the language and/or skills you wish to focus on (see page 106 for one way of doing it).
- Plan your lesson procedures (see page 108 for a sample format) .
- Alternatively jointly plan a lesson with a friend so you can explain your decisions to each other.
- Try out the lesson and then reflect on how it went . Here are some questions to ask yourself , or you could discuss them with your friend :
- What worked well ? Why?
- What did not work well? Why?
- What will I change next time ?
- Did you need to make any changes to your plan while teaching ? What difference did these make to the lesson ?

Consider what effect planning in more detail had on your teaching , Did it give you more of less confidence ?
Did it enable you to adapt or make changes more easily ?

Summary

In this chapter , you have considered :

- teacher's views on planning teachers identified four main reasons for planning practical , personal development , public accountability and confidence building . The reasons for planning may change as you gain more experience . The use of planning

for survival initially may be replaced by the use of planning as a kind of reflection to develop your teaching at later stages .

- lesson planning as an active process of decision making which involves using knowledge of pupils' previous learning and current needs and of the teaching context to decide on learning objectives ; choosing content and activities, organizing and sequencing these for learning; deciding how to assess learning. There are choices to be made, whether you are free to select your own content and materials or are required to work from a given textbook. If you monitor the consequences of these choices , you have a way of getting feedback on your teaching .

- the type of content which can be included in a lesson plan (the "what") and the procedures and activities of the teacher user to realize his/her objects (the " how) . We discussed the reasons why certain content, procedures and activities were included in the lesson plan and highlighted the need to draw children's attention to the language they were using at a point when they were already familiar with the meaning.

- The steps involved in planning a lesson - how the decisions made are then translated into a teaching plan which contains information about what to teach and procedures for teaching, Planning a lesson includes: selecting and sequencing learning, selecting and checking the content, setting objectives , deciding how to assess your lesson. There is no fixed way of organizing a lesson plan: the way you approach it and the level of detail you include will vary depending on your experience and your purpose for planning.

There are two main implications I would like to draw from this chapter . Planning enables teaching in a deliberate and systematic way that is not possible in you to think the classroom, where your responses have to be fairly immediate. Provided it does not become a routine , it can be a useful way of supporting your development .

Plans only express your intentions. They need to be implemented in a real classroom with real children, many things can happen which you had not anticipated or planned for, eg children don't understand the activity, new needs arise. In the end, you need to be able to respond flexibly and adapt your plans if necessary so that you respond to your pupils' actual needs during the lesson. This way you ensure that you are teaching the children not the syllabus.

Sample answer for Task 7

Activity : Read and spot the difference

Main language	Functions	Skills	Vocabulary	Pronunciation
New Receptive	**Now Oral productive**	Listening	**Revision Receptive**	**/ f /** **fins, face**
Pronoun its , eg Its body is blue	**identify and state differences , eg It's yellow not red .**	**Match spoken to written word .** **identify differences between** **what is , said and what is written .** **Follow teacher's instructions .** **New Reading** **Recognize New sight words**	**Colors** **Parts of the body , eg fins , body , face lips , tail** **new sight words (words in written form) fins, body, tail, lips, face**	

References

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2 Halliwell, S 1992 Teaching English in the Primary Classroom . Harlow: Longman

Chapter Two
The Grammar
Translation Method

INTRODUCTION

The Grammar Translation Method is not new . It has had different names . but it has been used by language teachers for many years . At one time it was called the Classical Method since it was first used in the teaching of the classical languages , Latin and Greek (Chastain 1988) . Earlier in this century , this method was used for the purpose of helping students read and appreciate foreign language literature . It was also hoped that , through the study of the grammar of the target language , students would become more familiar with the grammar of their native language and that this familiarity would help them speak and write their native language better . Finally , it was thought that foreign language learning would help students grow intellectually ; it was recognized that students would probably never use the target language , but the mental exercise of learning it would be beneficial anyway .

Let us try to understand the Grammar - Translation Method by obsery ing a class where the teacher is using it . The class is a high - intermediate level English class at a university in Colombia . There are forty - two stu dents in the class . Two - hour classes are conducted three times a week .

EXPERIENCE

As we enter the classroom , the class is in the middle of reading a passage in their textbook . The passage is an excerpt entitled " The Boys ' Ambition from Mark Twain's Life on the Mississippi . Each student is called on to read a few lines from the passage . After they have finished reading , they are asked to translate into Spanish the few lines they have just read . The teacher helps them with new vocabulary items . When the students have finished reading and translating the passage , the teacher asks them in Spanish if they have any questions . One girl raises her hand and says , What is paddle wheel ? ' The teacher replies , ' Es una rueda de paletas . Then she continues in Spanish to explain

how it looked and worked on the steamboats which moved up and down the Mississippi River during Mark Twain's childhood . Another student says , " No understand " gor geous . " The teacher translates , " Primoroso . " Since the students have no more questions , the teacher asks them to write the answers to the comprehension questions which appear at the end of the excerpt . The questions are in English , and the students are instructed to write the answers to them in English as well . They do the first one together as an example . A student reads out loud , ' When did Mark Twain live ? Another student replies , ' Mark Twain lived from 1835 to 1910. Bueno , ' says the teacher , and the students begin working qui etly by themselves .

 In addition to questions that ask for information contained within the reading passage , the students answer two other types of questions . For the first type , they have to make inferences based on their understanding of the passage . For example , one question is : " Do you think the boy was ambitious ? Why or why not ? ' The other type of question requires the stu dents to relate the passage to their own experience . For example , one of the questions based on this excerpt asks them , ' Have you ever thought about running away from home ?

 " After one - half hour , the teacher , speaking in Spanish , asks the students to stop and check their work . One by one each student reads a question and then reads his or her response . If it is correct , the teacher calls on another student to read the next question . If the answer is incorrect , the teacher selects a different student to supply the correct answer , or the teacher herself gives the right answer .

 Announcing the next activity , the teacher asks the students to turn the page in their text . There is a list of words there . The introduction to the exercise tells the students that these are words taken from the passage they have just read . The students see the words ambition , career , ' wharf , ' ' tranquil , ' gorgeous , ' loathe , ' ' envy , ' and ' humbly . They are told that some of these are review words and that

others are new to them .. The students are ted to give the Spanish word for each of them . This exercise the class does together . If no one knows the Spanish equiva lent , the teacher gives it . In Part 2 of this exercise , the students are given English words like ' love , ' noisy , ' ' ugly , ' and ' proudly , and are directed to find the opposites of these words in the passage . When they have finished this exercise , the teacher reminds them that English words that look like Spanish words are called ' cognates . ' The English -ty , ' she says for example , often corresponds to the Spanish end ings - dad and - tad . She calls the students ' attention to the word ' possibil ity ' in the passage and tells them that this word is the same as the Spanish posibilidad . The teacher asks the students to find other examples in the

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Exercise 2A

These words are taken from the passage you have just read . Some of them are review words and others are new . Give the Spanish translation for each of them . You may refer back to the reading passage .

Ambition   gorgeous

Loathe   Career

Wharf   envy

Tranquil   humbly

Exercise 2B

These words all have antonyms in the reading passage . Find the antonym for each :

love   ugly

noisy   proudly

excerpt. Hands go up ; a boy answers , ' Obscurity . ' Bien ,' says the teacher. When all of these cognates from the passage have been identified , the stu dents are told to turn to the next exercise in the chapter and to answer the question , ' What do these cognates mean ? There is a long list of English words ('curiosity,' 'opportunity,' 'liberty, etc.'), which the students trans late into Spanish.

 The next section of the chapter deals with grammar . The students fol low in their books as the teacher reads a description of two - word or phrasal verbs. This is a review for them as they have encountered phrasal verbs before . In addition, there are some new two-word verbs in the passage the students haven't learned yet. These are listed following the description , and the students are asked to translate them into Spanish. Then they are given the rule for use of a direct object with two-word verbs:

 If the two-word verb is separable, the direct object may come between the verb and its particle. However, separation is necessary when the direct object is a pronoun . If the verb is inseparable, then there is no separation of the verb and particle by the object. For example :

 John put away his book .

 Or

 John put his book away / John put it away .

but not

John put away it .

(because ' put away) is a separable two - word yerb)

The teacher went over the homework.

but not

The teacher went the homework over.

(because ' go over ' is an inseparable two - word verb)

After reading over the rule and the examples , the students are asked to tell which of the following two - word verbs , taken from the passage , are sep arable and which inseparable . They refer to the passage for clues . If they cannot tell from the passage , they use their dictionaries or ask their teacher .

turn up   wake up   get on   take in

 run away   fade out   lay up

go away   break down   turn back

Finally , they are asked to put one of these phrasal verbs in the blank of each of the ten sentences they are given . They do the first two together .

1 Mark Twain decided to …………………….. because his parents wouldn't let him get a job on the river .

2 The steamboatmen ……………………. and discharge freight at each port on the Mississippi River .

When the students are finished with this exercise , they read their answers aloud .

At the end of the chapter there is a list of vocabulary) items that appeared in the passage . The list is divided into two parts : the first con tains words , and the second , idfoms like to give someone the cold shoul der . Next to each is a Spanish word or phrase . For homework , the teacher asks the students to memorize the Spanish translation for the first twenty words and to write a sentence in English using each word .

In the two remaining lessons this week , the students will be asked to :

 1 Write out the translation of the reading passage into Spanish .

2 State the rule for the use of a direct object with two - word verbs , and apply it to other phrasal verbs .

3 Do the remaining exercises in the chapter that include practice with one set of irregular past participle forms . The students will be asked to memorize the present tense , past tense , and past participle forms of this irregular paradigm :

drink   drank   drunk

sing   sang   sung

swim   swam   swum

ring   rang   rung

begin   began   begun

4 Write a composition in the target language about an ambition they have .

5 Memorize the remaining vocabulary items and write sentences for each .

6 Take a quiz on the grammar and vocabulary of this chapter . They will be asked to translate a Spanish paragraph about steamboats into English .

THINKING ABOUT THE EXPERIENCE

This has been just a brief introduction to the Grammar - Translation Method , but it is probably true that this method is not new to many of you. You may have studied a language in this way, or you may be teaching with this method right now. Whether this is true or not , let us see what we have learned about the Grammar - Translation Method . We are able to make a number of observations about the class we attended . Our obser vations will be listed in the left column ; from

them we will try to identify the principles of the Grammar - Translation Method .

The principles will be listed in the right column . We will make our observations in order , fol lowing the lesson plan of the class we observed .

Observations

1 The class is reading an excerpt from Mark Twain's Life on the Mississippi .

2 Students translate the passage from English to Spanish.

3 The teacher asks students in their native language if they have any questions . A student asks one and is answered in her native language .

4 Students write out the answers to reading comprehension questions.

5 The teacher decides whether an answer is correct or not . If the answer is incorrect , the teacher selects a different student to supply the correct answer or the reacher herself gives the right answer.

6 Students translate new words from English into Spanish .

7 Students learn that English " -ty ' corresponds to - dad and -tad in Spanish .

8 Students are given a grammar rule for the use of a direct . object with two - word verbs .

9 Students apply a rule to examples they are given

10 Students memorize vocabulary.

11 The teacher asks students to state the grammar rule .

12 Students memorize present tense, past tense, and past participle forms of one set of irregular verbs. Wherever possible , verb

conjugations and other grammatical paradigms should be committed to memory .

Principles

A fundamental purpose of learning a foreign language is to be able to read literature written in it. Literary language is superior to spoken language . Students' study of the target culture is limited to its literature and fine arts.

An important goal is for students to be able to translate each language into the other . If students can translate from one language into another, they are considered successful language learners.

The ability to communicate in the target language is not a goal of foreign language instruction.

The primary skills to be developed are reading and writing Little attention is given to speaking and listening, and almost none to pronunciation .

The teacher is the authority in the classroom. It is very important that students get the correct answer.

It is possible to find native language equivalents for all target language words.

Learning is facilitated native through attention to similarities between the target language and the language. is important for students to learn about the form of the target language .

Deductive application of an explicit grammar rule is a useful pedagogical technique . ng provides good mental exercise

Students should be conscious of the grammatical rules of the target language .

There were other activities planned for the remainder of the week, but in this book we will follow the practice of not listing an observation unless it leads to our discovering a different principle of the method.

REVIEWING THE PRINCIPLES

The principles of the Grammar - Translation Method are organized below by answering the ten questions posed in Chapter 1 (pages 7-8). Not all the questions are addressed by the Grammar - Translation Method ; we will list all the questions , however , so that is a comparison among the meth ods we will study will be easier for you to make .

1 What are the goals of teachers who use the Grammar - Translation Method ?

According to the teachers who use the Grammar - Translation Method , a fundamental purpose of learning a foreign language is to be able to read literature written in the target language. To do this , students need to learn about the grammar rutes and vocabulary of the target language. In addition, it is believed that studying a foreign language provides students with good mental exercise which helps develop their minds.

2 What is the role of the teacher ? What is the role of the students ?

The roles are very traditional. The teacher is the authority in the class room . The students do as she says so they can learn what she knows .

3 What are some characteristics of the teaching / learning process ?

Students are taught to translate from one language to another . Often what they translate are readings in the target language about some

The Grammar Translation Method spect of the culture of the target language community . Students study grammar deductively , that is , they are given the grammar rules and examples , are told to memorize them , and then are asked to apply the rules to other examples . They

also learn grammatical paradigms such target - language vocabulary words.

e ver conjugations . They memorize native language equations for student - student interaction ?

4 What is the nature of student - teacher interaction ? What is the nature of student_student interaction?

Most of the interaction in the classroom is from the teacher to the sto dents. There is little student initiation and little student - student inter action .

5 How are the feelings of the students dealt with ? There are no principles of the method which relate to this area .

6 How is the language viewed? How is culture viewed?

Literary Janguage is considered superior to spoken language and is sisting of literature and the fine arts. therefore the language that students study . Culture is viewed as con emphasis ?

7 What areas of language are emphasized? What language skills are emphasized ?

Vocabulary and grammar are. Reading and writing are the primary skills that the students work on. There is much less attention given to speaking and listening , Pronunciation receives little , if any attention.

8 What is the role of the students ' native language ? The meaning of the target language is made clear by translating it into the students ' native language . The language that is used in class is mostly the students ' native language .

9 How is evaluation accomplished?

Written tests in which students are asked to translate from their native language to the targer language or vice versa are often used .

Questions about the target culture or questions that ask students to apply gram mar rules are also common.

10 How does the teacher respond to student errors ? Having the students get the correct answer is considered very impor tant . If students make errors or do not know an answer, the teacher supplies them with the correct answer.

REVIEWING THE TECHNIQUES

Ask yourself if any of the answers to the above questions make sense to you . If so , you may choose to try some of the techniques of the Grammar Translation Method from the review that follows . On the other hand , you may find that you agree very little with the answers to these ques bons , but that there are still some useful associated with the Grammar - Translation Method . Below is an expanded description of some of these techniques .

-Translation of a literary passage

Students translate a reading passage from the target language into their native language . The reading passage then provides the focus for several classes: vocabulary and grammatical structures in the passage are studied in subsequent lessons . The passage may be excerpted from some work from the target language literature, or a teacher may write a passage care fully designed to include particular grammar rules and vocabulary, the translation may be written or spoken or both . Students should not trans late idioms and the like literally , but rather in a way that shows that they understand their meaning.

Reading comprehension questions

Students answer questions in the target language based on their under standing of the reading passage . Often the questions are sequenced so that the first group of questions asks for information contained within the reading ing passage . In order to answer the second group of

questions, students will have to make inferences based on their understanding of the passage. This means they will have to answer questions about the passage even though the answers are not contained in the passage itself. The third group of questions requires students to relate the passage to their own experience .

Antonyms / synonyms

Students are given one set of words and are asked to find antonyms in the reading passage. A similar exercise could be done by asking students to

20 - The Grammar - Translation Method find synonyms for a particular set of words . Or students might be asked to define a set of words based on their understanding of them as they occur in the reading passage . Other exercises that ask students to work with the vocabulary of the passage are also possible. **Cognates**

Students are taught to recognize cognates by learning the spelling or sound patterns that correspond between the languages. Students are also asked to memorize words that look like cognates but have meanings in the target language that are different from those in the native language. cognates This technique, of course, would only be useful in languages that share

Deductive application of rule

Grammar rules are presented with examples . Exceptions to each rule are some different examples . also noted. Once students understand a rule, they are asked to apply it to apply it to some different examples .

Fill-in-the-blanks

Students are given a series of sentences with missing words. They fill in the blanks with new vocabulary items or with items of a particular gram mar type, such as prepositions or verbs with different tenses.
Memorization

Students are given lists of target language vocabulary words and their native language equivalents and are asked to memorize them. Students are also required to memorize grammatical rules and grammatical para digms such as verb conjugations .

Use words in sentences

in order to show that students understand the meaning and use of a new vocabulary item , they make up sentences in which they use the new words. **Composition**

The teacher gives the students a topic to write about in the target lan guage . The topic is based upon some aspect of the reading passage of the lesson. Sometimes, instead of creating a composition, students are asked to prepare a precis of the reading passage.

concluslon

You have now had an opportunity to examine the principles and some of the techniques of

 Try to make a com nection between what you have understood and your own teaching str ation and beliefs.   Do you believe that a fundamental reason for learning a foreign lan guage is to be able to read the literature written in the target language ? Do you think it is important to learn about the target language ? Should cul ture be viewed as written of literature and the fine arts? Do you agree with any of the other principles underlying the Grammar Translation Method ? Which ones ?

 questions of the type described here helpful ? Should grammar be pre sented deductively : Are these or any of the other techniques of the Grammar Translation Method ones which will be useful to you in your own teaching? Which ones ?

ACTIVITIES A

A Check your understanding of the Grammar Translation Method .

1 It has been said that the Grammar Translation Method teaches stu dents about the targer language, but not how to use it. Explain the diff reference in your own words. MEEN

2 What are the clues that this method had its origin in the teaching of the classical languages , Latin and Greek ?

B Apply what you have understood about the Grammar - Translation Method.

1 Think of a particular group of students you have recently taught or are currently teaching , choose a reading passage from a literary work or a textbook or write one yourself. Make sure it is at a level your students can understand , yet not at a level that would be too simple for them. Try translating it yourself as a test of its difficulty . Identify the vocabu lary you would choose to work on plan vocabulary exercises you would use to help your students associate the new words with their native language equivalents.

2. Ficka grammatical point or two contained in the same passage. Provide the explicit grammar rule that relates to each one and give

some examples . Design exercises that require your students to apply the rule to some different examples .

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Chapter Three
The Direct Method

INTRODUCTION

As with the Grammar - Translation Method , the Direct Method is not new . Its principles have been applied by language teachers for many years. Most recently , it was revived as a method when the goal of instruc tion became learning how to use a foreign language to communicate. Since the Grammar - Translation Method was not very effective in prepar ing students to use the target language communicatively , the Direct Method became popular .

The Direct Method has one very basic rule : No translation is allowed . In fact, the Direct Method receives its name from the fact that meaning is to be conveyed directly in the target language through the use of demon stration and visual aids, with no recourse to the students of native language (Diller 1978).

We will now try to come to an understanding of the Direct Method by observing an English teacher using it in a scuola media (lower secondary school) class in Italy . The class has thirty students who attend English class for one hour , three times a week . The class we observe is at the end of its first year of English language instruction in a scuola media .

EXPERIENCE

The teacher is calling the class to order as we find seats toward the back of the room. He has placed a big map of the United States in the front of the classroom . He asks the students to open their books to a certain page number . The lesson is entitled ' Looking at a Map . As the students are called on one by one, they read a sentence from the reading passage at the beginning of the lesson. The teacher points to the part of the map the sen tenence describes after each has read his sentence. The passage begins: We are looking at a map of the United States, Canada is the country to the north of the United States, and Mexico is the country to the south of the United States. Between

Canada and the United States are the Great Lakes . Between Mexico and the United States is the Rio Grande River .

On the East Coast is the Atlantic Ocean, and on the Wear Cor is the Pacific Ocean. In the East is a mountain range called the Appalachian Mountains . In the West are the Rocky Mountains .

after the students finish reading the passage , they are asked if they have any questions. A student asks what a mountain range .

The teacher turns to the blackboard and draws a series of inverted comes to illustrate and The student nods and says , I understand . Another student asks what "between" means. The teacher replies, "You are sitting between Maria and Giovanni Paolo is sitting between Gabriella and Certina. Now d you understand the meaning of " between " ? "The student answers, Yes! understand.

After all of the questions have been answered, the teacher asks to his own. "The class, are we looking at a map of Italy? The class replies in chorus," No The teacher reminds the class to answer in a full sentence. No , we aren't looking at a map of Italy , they respond to the teacher asks , ' Are we looking at a map of the United States ? Yes. We are looking at a map of the United States.

Is Canada the country to the south of the United States ? No. Canada isn't the country south of the United States . " Are the Great Lakes in the North of the United States ? " Yes . The Great Lakes are in the North . "The Rio Grande a river or a lake?" It's between Mexico and the United States. "What color is the Rio Grande on the map?" Point to a mountain range in the West. What mountains are they ? They are the Rocky Mountains. The question and answer session continues for a few more minutes . Finally, the teacher invites the students to ask questions Hands go up, and the teacher calls on students to pose questions one at a time to which the class replies. After several questions have been posed, one girl asks, Where are the Appalachian

Mountains? Before the class has a chance to spond, the teacher works with the student on the pronunciation of Appalachian. Then he includes the rest of the class in this practice as well , expecting that they will have the same problem with this long word. After insuring that the students ' pronunciation is correct , the teacher allows the class to answer the question .

 Later another student asks " What is the ocean in the West Coast ? The teacher again interrupts before the class has a chance to reply , saying . or on the West Coast ?" dent hesitates , then says , " On the West Coast . " Correct , " says the teacher Now , repeat your question . What is the ocean on the West Coast ? . After the students have asked about ten questions , the teacher begins asking questions and making statements again . This time , however , the questions and statements are about the students in the classroom , and contain one of the prepositions ' on , at , to , in , or ' between , such as , Antonella , is your book on your desk ? "" Antonio, who is sitting between Ls and Teresa? " " Emanuela , point to the clock . The students then make up their own questions and statements and direct them to another stu - dents .

 The teacher next instructs the students to turn to an exercise in the les son which asks them to fill in the blanks. They read a sentence out loud and supply the missing word as they are reading , for example :

The Atlantic Ocean is the East Coast .

 The Rio Grande is is looking . Mexico and the United States .

Edoardo is looking the map .

Finally, the teacher asks the students to take out their notebooks, and he gives them a dictation. The passage he dictates is one paragraph long and is about the geography of the United States. During the remaining two classes this week , the class will :

 1 Review the features of United States geography .

2 Following the teacher's directions , label blank maps with these gro graphical features . After this , the students will give directions to the teacher , who will complete a map on the blackboard .

3 Practice the pronunciation of ' river , paying particular attention to the in the first syllable (and contrasting it with /iy/) and to the pronunciation of /r/.

4 Write a paragraph about the major geographical features of the United States .

5 Discuss the proverb Time is money . Students will talk about this is in order to understand that people in the United States value punctuality . They will compare this attitude with their own view of time .

THINKING ABOUT THE EXPERIENCE

Let us make some observations on our experience . These will be in the column on the left . The principles of the Direct Method that can be inferred from our observations will be listed in the column on the right . **Observations**

1 The students read aloud a passage about United States geography .

Principles

Reading in the target language should be taught from the beginning of language instruction . However , the reading skill will be developed through practice with speaking . Language is primarily speech culture consists of more than the fine arts (e.g. the students study geography and cultural attitudes

Observations

2 The teacher points to a part of the map after each sentence is read .

3. The teacher uses the target language to ask the students if they have a question. The students use the target language to ask their questions .

4. The teacher answers the students ' questions by drawing on the blackboard or giving examples.

5 The teacher asks questions about the map in the target language , to which the students reply in a complete sentence in the target language.

6 Students ask questions about the map .

7 The teacher works with the students on the pronunciation of "Appalachian."

8 The teacher corrects a grammar error by asking the students to make a choice

Principles

Objects (eg realia or pictures) present in the immediate classroom environment should be used to help students understand the meaning .

The native language should not be used in the classroom .

The teacher should demonstrate , not explain or translate . It is desirable that students make a direct association between the target language and meaning . Students should learn to think in the target language as soon as possible . Vocabulary is acquired more naturally if students use it in full sentences, rather than memorizing word lists.

The purpose of language learning is communication therefore students need to learn how to ask questions as well as answer them).

Pronunciation should be worked on right from the beginning of language instruction .

Self - correction facilitates language learning .

Observations

9 The teacher asks questions . about the students ; students ask each other questions .

10 The students fill in blanks with lesson . prepositions practiced in the

 12 All of the lessons of the week involve United States geography , Principles Lessons should contain some conversational activity - some opportunity for students to use language in real contexts . Students should be encouraged to speak as much as possible. Ale

 11 The teacher dictates a writing is an important skill , to be geography , paragraph about United States developed from the beginning of language instruction .

 13 A proverb is used to discuss how people in the U.S. view punctuality . Grammar should be taught inductively .

 There may never be an explicit grammar rule given . The syllabus is based on situations or topics , not usually on linguistic structures .

 Learning another language also involves learning how speakers of that language live.

 REVIEWING THE PRINCIPLES

 Now let us consider the principles of the Direct Method as they are arranged in answer to the ten questions posed earlier:

 1 What are the goals of teachers who use the Direct Method?

 Teachers who use the Direct Method intend that students learn how to communicate in the target language . In order to do this success fully , students should learn to think in the target language .

 2 What is the role of the teacher ? What is the role of the students ?

VOICE Although the teacher directs the class activities, the student role is less passive than in the Grammar - Translation Method. The teacher and the students are more like partners in the teaching / learning process .

3 What are some characteristics of the teaching / learning process?

Teachers who use the Direct Method believe students need to associate meaning and the target language directly . In order to do this , when the teacher introduces a new target language word or phrase , he demonstrates its meaning through the use of realia , pictures , or pantomime ; he never translates it into the students ' native language . Students speak in the target language a great deal and communicate as if they were in real situations . In fact , the syllabus used in the Direct Method is based upon situations (for example , one unit would consist of language that people would use at a bank , another of the language that they use when going shopping) or topics (such as geography , money, or the weather). Grammar is taught inductively ; that is , the students are presented with examples and they figure out the rule or generalization from the examples. An explicit grammar rule may never be given . Students practice vocabulary by using new words in complete sentences.

4 What is the nature of student - teacher interaction ? What is the nature of student - student interaction ? The initiation of the interaction goes both ways , from teacher to stu dents and from student to teacher , although the latter is often directed teacher . Students converse with one another as well .

5 How are the feelings of the students dealt with ? There are no principles of the method which relate to this area .

6 How is language viewed? How is culture viewed? Language is primarily spoken, not written . Therefore , students study common , everyday speech in the target language . They also study culture

consisting of the history of the people who speak the target lan guage, the geography of the country or countries where the language is spoken, and information about the daily lives of the speakers of the language.

7 What areas of language are emphasized? What language skills are emphasized?

Vocabulary is emphasized over grammar. Although work on all four skills (reading , writing , speaking , and listening) occurs from the start , tru

oral communication is seen as basic . Thus the reading and writing exercises are based upon what the students practice orally first. Pronunciation also receives attention right from the beginning of a course.

8 What is the role of the students ' native language ? The students ' native language should not be used in the classroom .

9 How is evaluation accomplished ?

We did not actually see any formal evaluation in the class we observed ; However, in the Direct Method, students are asked to use the language, not to demonstrate their knowledge about the lan guage. They are asked to do so using both oral and written skills. For example , the students might be interviewed orally by the teacher or might be asked to write a paragraph about something they have stud ied.

10 How does the teacher respond to student errors ? self - correct whenever possible . The teacher, employing various techniques, tries to get students to **REVIEWING THE TECHNIQUES**

Are there answers to the ten questions with which you agreed? Then the following techniques may also be useful . Of course, even if you did not agree with all the answers, there may be some techniques of the Direct Method you can adapt to your own approach to teaching. The

following help you do this . Expanded review of techniques provides you with some details which will Reading aloud Students take turns reading sections of a passage , play , or dialog out loud . At the end of each student's turn, the teacher uses gestures, pictures, realia, examples, or other means to make the meaning of the section clear.

Question and answer exercise

This exercise is conducted only in the target language. Students are asked questions and answer in full sentences so that they practice new words and grammatical structures. They have the opportunity to ask questions as well as answer them .

Getting students to self - correct

The teacher of this class has the students self - correct by asking them to make a choice between what they said and an alternative answer he sup plied. There are, however, other ways of getting students to self-correct. For example , a teacher might simply repeat what a student has just said , using a questioning voice to signal to the student that something was wrong with it . Another possibility is for the teacher to repeat what the student said, stopping just before the error . The student knows that the next word was wrong . **Conversation practice .**

The teacher asks students a number of questions in the target language . which the students have to understand to be able to answer correctly. In the class observed , the teacher asked individual students questions about themselves . The questions contained a particular grammar structure . Later , the students were able to ask each other their own questions using the same grammatical structure.

Fill - in - the - blank exercise

This technique has already been discussed in the Grammar - Translation Method , but differs in its application in the Direct Method . All the items are in the target language ; furthermore , no explicit

grammar rule would be applied. The students would have induced the grammar rule they need to fill in the blanks from examples and practice with earlier parts of the lesson.

Dictation

The teacher reads the passage three times . The first time the teacher reads it at a normal speed , while the students just listen . The second time he reads the passage phrase by phrase, pausing long enough to dents to write down what they have heard. The last time the teacher again reads at a normal speed , and students check their work.

Map drawing

The class included one example of a technique used to give students listening comprehension practice . The students were given a map with the Geographical features unnamed . Then the teacher gave the students direct tions such as the following , Find the mountain range in the West . Write the words " Rocky Mountains across the mountain range . He gave instructions for all the geographical features of the United States so that students would have a completely labeled map if they followed his instructions correctly . with a map he had drawn on the blackboard Each student one geographical feature. could have a turn giving the teacher instructions for finding and labeling

Paragraph writing

The teacher in this class asked the students to write a paragraph in their own words on the major geographical features of the United States. see what you can find of use for your own Do you agree that the goal of target language instruction should be to teach students how to communi cate in the target language ? Does it make sense to you that the students ' native language should not be used to give meaning to the target language ? Do you agree that the culture that is taught should be about people's daily lives in addition to the fine arts? Should

students be encouraged to self - correct ? Are there any other prin
ciples of the Direct Method which you believe in ? Which ones ?

Is a dictation of a worthwhile activity? Have you used question - and -
answer exercises and conversation practice as described here before ?
If not, should you? Is paragraph writing a useful thing to ask students
to do ? Should grammar be presented inductively ? Are there any
other techniques of the Direct Method which you would consider
adopting? Which ones ?

ACTIVITIES

A Check your understanding of the Direct Method .

1 In the previous chapter on the Grammar - Translation Method , we
learned that grammar was treated deductively . In the Direct Method ,

The Direct Method M between deductive and inductive treatments of
grammar grammar is treated inductively Can you explain the difference
so distinctive from the Grammar Translation Method 2 What are some
of the characteristics of the Direct Method that make it agree? Why? t
has been said that it may be advantageous to a teacher using the Direct
Method not to know his students ' native language .

Do you B Apply what you have understood about the Direct Method.

1 Choose a particular situation (such as at the bank , at the railroad sta
00 , or at the doctor's office) or a particular topic (such as articles of
clothing, holidays, or the weather) and write a short passage or a dia
log on the theme you have chosen . Now think about how you will con
vey its meaning to students without using their native language .

2 Select a grammar point from the passage . Plan how you will get stu
dents to practice the grammar point . What examples can you provide
them with so that they can induce the rule themselves ?

3. Practice writing and giving a dictation as it is described in this chapter
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Chapter Four
The Audio – Lingual Method

INTRODUCTION

The Audio Lingual Method , like the Direct Method we have just exam ined , is also an oral-based approach . However, it is very different in that rather than emphasizing vocabulary acquisition through exposure to its use in situations, the Audio-Lingual Method drills students in the use of grammatical sentence patterns. It also , unlike the Direct Method , has a strong theoretical base indinguistics and psychology . Charles Fries (1943) of the University of Michigan led the way in applying principles from structural linguistics in developing the method, and for this reason, it has sometimes been referred to as the Michigan Method. Later in its development, principles from behavioral psychology (Skinner 1957) were incorporated . It was thought that the way to acquire the sentence pat terns of the targer language was through conditioning - helping learners to respond correctly to stimuli through shaping and reinforcement . Learners could overcome the habits of their native language and form the new habits required to be target language speakers. In order to come to an understanding of this method , let us now enter a classroom where the Audio - Lingual Method is being used . We will sit in on a beginning level English class in Mali . There are thirty - four students, thirteen to fifteen years of age. The class meets for one hour a day , five days a week .

EXPERIENCE

As we enter the classroom, the first thing we notice is that the students are attentively listening as the teacher is presenting a new dialog, a conversa tion between two people. The students know they will be expected to eventually memorize the dialog the teacher is introducing. All of the teacher's instructions are in English . Sometimes she uses actions to con vey meaning , but not one word of the students ' native language is uttered . After she acts out the dialog , she says: 'All right, class. I am going to repeat the dialog now . Listen carefully, hut no talking please.

Lingual Method Two people are walking along a sidewalk in town . They know each other, and as they meet, they stop to talk. One of them is named Sally and the other one is named Bill . I will talk for Sally and for Bill . Listen to their conversation: SALLY Good morning, Bill. BILL Good morning , Sally . SALLY How are you ? BILL Fine , thanks , And you ? Sally Fine . Where are you going ? BILL I'm going to the post office . SALLY I am too . Shall we go together ? Bill Sure . Let's go . Listen one more time . This time try to understand all that I am saying . Now she has the whole class repeat each of the lines of the dialog after her model. They repeat each line several times before moving on to the next line. When the class comes to the line, I'm going to the post office, They stumble a bit in their repetition The teacher, at this point, stops the repetition and uses a backward build-up drill (expansion drill) The pur pose of this drill is to break down the troublesome sentence into smaller parts starts with the end of the sentence and has the class repeat just the last two words. Since they can do this, the teacher adds a few more words, and the class repeats this expanded phrase. Little by lit tle the teacher builds up the phrases until the entire sentence is being repeated . TEACHER Repeat after me : post office . CLASS Post office . TEACHER To the post office . CLASS To the post office .

TEACHER Going to the post office . CLASS Going to the post office . TEACHER I'm going to the post office g to the post office . CLASS Through this step - by - step procedure , the teacher is able to give the stu dents help in producing the troublesome line .

Having worked on the line in small pieces , the students are also able to take a note of where each word or phrase begins and ends in the sentence . After the students have repeated the dialog several times, the teacher gives them a chance to adopt the role of Bill while she says Sally's lines. Before the class actually says each line , the teacher models it . In effect , the

class is experiencing a repetition drill where the task is to listen carefully and attempt to mimic the teacher's model as accurately as possible. Next the class and the teacher switch roles in order to practice a little more , the teacher saying Bill's lines and the class saying Sally's . Then the teacher divides the class in half so that each half gets to try to say on their own either Bill's or Sally's lines . The teacher stops the students from time to time when she feels they are straying too far from the model, and once again provides a model, which she has them attempt to copy. To further practice the lines of this dialog , the teacher has all the boys in the class take Bill's part and all the girls take Sally's , She then initiates a chain drill with four of the lines from the dialog.

A chain drill gives students an opportunity to say the lines individually. The teacher listens and can tell which students are struggling and will need more practice .

A chain drill also lets students use the expressions in com munication with someone else , even though the communication is very limited . The teacher addresses the student nearest her with , ' Good morn ing, Jose . ' He , in turn , responds , " Good morning , teacher . She says , " How are you ? ' Jose answers , Fine , thanks . And you? ' The teacher replies , Fine . He understands through the teacher's gestures that he is to turn to the student sitting beside him and greet her. That student, in turn, says her lines in reply to him. When she has finished , she greets the student on the other side of her. This chain continues until all of the students have a chance to ask and answer the questions. The last student directs the greet ing to the teacher. Finally, the teacher selects two students to perform the entire dialog for the rest of the class. When they are finished , two others do the same. Not everyone has a chance to say the dialog in a pair today, but perhaps they will some time this week. The teacher moves next to the second major phase of the lesson. drill the students with language from the dialog , but these

drills require more than simple repetition. A phrase in the sentence with the word or phrase the teacher gives them .

This word or phrase is called the cue . The teacher begins by reciting a line from the dialog , " I am going to the post office . Following this she shows the students a picture of a bank and says the phrase , ' The bank . She pauses , then says , " I am going to the bank. From her example the students realize that they are supposed to take the cue phrase ('the bank'), which the teacher supplies, and put it into its proper place in the sentence.

Now she gives them their first cue phrase, "The drugstore." Together the students respond , I am going to the drugstore . The teacher smiles . Very good! ' she exclaims . The teacher cues , " The park . The students chorus ," am going to the park . Other cues she offers in turn are the cafe , ' the supermarket , ' the bus station , the football field , and the library . Each cue is accompanied by a picture as before . After the students have gone through the drill sequence three times , the teacher no longer provides a spoken cue phrase , instead she simply shows the pictures one at a time , and the students repeat the entire sentence , putting the name of the place in the picture in the appropriate slot in the sentence. The procedure is followed for another sentence in the dialog , How are you ? ' The subject pronouns ' he , ' ' she , ' they , ' and ' you ' are used as cue words . since they have to change the form of the verb ' be ' to ' is ' or ' are , depend ing on which subject pronoun the teacher gives them .The students are apparently familiar with the subject pronouns since the teacher is not using any pictures . Instead , after going th rough the drill a few times sup plying oral cues , the teacher points to a boy in the class and the students understand they are to use the pronoun ' he ' in the sentence . They chorus ,   The Audio - Lingual Method 39 How is he ? "Good" says the teacher. She points to a girl and waits for the class response, then points to other students to elicit the use of 'they' finally, the teacher

increases the complexity of the task by leading the dients in 6 multiple - slot substitution drill.

This is essentially the same pe of drill as the single - slot the teacher just used. However, with this dill, students must recognize what part of speech the cue word is and where it fits into the sentence. listen to only one cue from the teacher . Then they must make a decision concerning where the cur word or phrase belongs in a sentence also supplied by the teacher .

I am going to the post office." Then she gives them the cue ' she . The students understand and produce , " She is going to the post office . The next cue the teacher offers is to the park .

The stu dens hesitate at first ;, then they respond by correctly producing , " She is going to the park . "She continues in this manner, sometimes providing a subject pronoun, other times naming a location. The substitution drills are followed by a transformation drill. This type of drill asks students to change one type of sentence into another - an affirmative sentence into a negative or an active sentence into a passive , for example . In this class , the teacher uses a substitution drill that requires the students to change a statement into a yes / no - question . going to the post office . " The teacher models two more examples of this transformation , then aiks ," Does everyone understand? OK , let's begin . They are going to the bank. The class replies in turn , ' Are they going to the bank? They trans form approximately fifteen of these patterns , and then the teacher decides they are ready to move on to a question - and - answer drill D The teacher holds up one the pictures she used earlier , the picture of a football field , and asks the class , ' Are you going to the football field ?' She answers her own question , " Yes , I'm going to the football field She poses the next question while holding up a picture of a park , ' Are you going to the park ?' And again answers herself , " Yes , I'm going to the park . She holds up a third picture , the one of a library . She poses

a ques tion to the class , " Are you going to the library ? They respond together , ' Yes , I am going to the library ." " Very good , the teacher says . Through her actions and examples , the students have learned that they are to answer the questions following the pattern she has modeled . The teacher drills them with this pattern for the next few minutes .

to selected individuals rapidly , one after another . The students are expected to respond very quickly , without pausing The students are able to keep up the pace , so the teacher movies on to the next step . She again shows the class one of the pictures, a supermarket this time. She asks , ' Are you going to the bus station ? She answers her own question , " No , I am going to the supermarket . The students understand that they are required to look at the picture and listen to the question and answer negatively if the place in the ques tion is not the same as what they see in the picture " Are you going to the bus station ? The teacher asks while holding up a picture of a cafe . No , I am going to the cafe , the class answers . Very good ! ' exclaims the teacher . After posing a few more questions which require negative answers , the teacher produces the pictures of the post office and asks , ' Are you going to the post office ? Good , comments the teacher. She works a little longer on this ques tion - and - answer drill, sometimes providing her students with situations that require a negative answer and sometimes encouragement to each student. She holds up pictures and poses questions one right after another , but the students seem to have no trouble keeping up with her The only time she changes the rhythm is when a student seriously mispro nouns a word.When this occurs she restates the word and works briefly with the student until his pronunciation is closer to For the final few minutes of the class , the teacher returns to the dialog with which she began the lesson . She repeats it once , then has the half of the class to her left do Bill's lines and the half of the class to her right do Sally's This time there is no hesitation at all The students move through the dialog briskly They

trade roles and do the same The teacher smiles Very good Class dismissed The lesson ends f or the day . Both the teacher and the students have worked hard . The students have listened to and spoken only English for the period . The teacher is tired from all her action , but she is pleased for she feels the lesson has gone well . The students have learned the lines of the dialog and to respond without hesitation to her cues in the drill pattern . In lessons later this week the teacher will do the following : 1 Review the dialog . 2 Expand upon the dialog by adding a few more lines , such as I am going to the post office. I need a few stamps . 3. Drill the new lines and introduce some new vocabulary items through the new lines , for example:

"I am going to the supermarket . ... library , drugstore . The Audio - Lingual Method 41 I need a little butter . few books . ... little medicine . 4 Work on the difference between mass and count nouns , contrasting ' a No grammar rule will ever be given to the students . The students will be led to figure our rules from their work with the examples the teacher provides . 5A contrastive analysis (the comparison of two languages , in this case , the students ' native language and the target language , English) has led the teacher to expect that the students will have special trouble with the pronunciation of words such as ' little , which contain // . Indeed say the word as if it contained fiy /. As a result, the teacher works on the contrast between /y/ and // several times during the week. She uses minimal - pair words, such as 'sheep, ship': leave , ' live ' ; and ' he's , his ' to get her stu dents first to hear the difference in pronunciation between the words in each pair .

Then, when she feels they are ready, she drills them in saying the two sounds - first by them selves, and later in words, phrases, and sentences. 6 Sometime towards the end of the week the teacher writes the dialog on the blackboard. She asks the students to give her the lines and she writes them out as the students say them. They copy the dialog in their notebooks . They also do some limited written work

with the dialog . In one exercise the teacher has erased fifteen selected words from the expanded dialog . The students have to rewrite the dialog in their note books, supplying the missing words without looking at the complete dialog they copied earlier. In another exercise, the students are given sequences of words such as I, go, supermarket and he, need, butter and they are asked to write complete sentences like the ones they have been drilling orally.

7 On Friday the teacher leads the class in the supermarket alphabet game . 'The game starts with a student who needs a food item begin ning with the letter A. The student says, 'I am going to the supermar ket.' I need a few apples . The next student says , ' I am going to the supermarket . He needs a few apples . I need a little bread (or "a few bananas" or any other food item you could find in the supermarket beginning with the letter "B"). The third student continues , I am going to the supermarket . He needs a few apples . She needs a little bread . I need a little cheese . The game continues with each player adding an item that begins with the next letter in the alphabet . Before adding his own item , however , each player must mention the items of the other students before him . If the student has difficulty thinking of an item , the other students or the teacher helps . in 8 A presentation by the teacher on supermarkets in the United States lows the game . The teacher tries very hard to get meaning English . The teacher answers the student's questions about the differ ences between supermarkets in the United States and open - air markets in Mali , They also briefly discuss the differences between American and Malian football . The students seem very interested in the discus sion . The teacher promises to continue the discussion of popular American sports next week. THINKING ABOUT THE EXPERIENCE Although it is true that this was a very brief experience with the Audio Lingual Method , let's see if we can make some observations about the behavior of the teacher and the techniques she used. From these we should be able to figure out the principles underlying the method. We will make our observations in

order , following the lesson plan of the class we observed . Observations

1 The teacher introduces a new dialog .

2 The language teacher uses only the target language in the classroom . Actions , pictures , or realia are used to give meaning otherwise .

3. The language teacher intro duces the dialog by modeling it two times; she introduces the drills by modeling the correct answers ; At other times, she corrects mispronunciation by modeling the proper sounds in the target language. Principles Language forms do not occur by themselves , they occur most naturally within a context The native language and the target language have separate linguistic systems . They should be kept apart so that the students ' native language interfergs as little as possible with the students attempts to acquire the target language . One of the language teacher's major roles is that of a model of the target language. Teachers should provide students with a good model . By listening to how t is supposed to sound , students should be able to mimic the mode it del Observations 4 The students repeat each line of the new dialog several times . 5 The students stumble over one of the lines of the dialog . The teacher uses a backward build up drill with this line . 6 The teacher initiates a chain drill in which each student greets another . 7 The teacher uses single - slot and multiple - slot substitution drills . 8 The teacher says, "Very good , when the students answer correctly. 9 The teacher uses spoken cues and picture cues. 10 The teacher conducts transformation and question and - answer drills. The Audio - Lingual Method 43 Principles Language learning is a process of habit formation. The more often something is repeated, the stronger the habit and the greater the learning ve 11 When the students can handle it, the teacher poses the questions to them rapidly. It is important to prevent learners from making errors. When errors do occur, they should be im mediately corrected by the teacher, the purpose of language learning is to learn

how to use the language to communicate Particular parts of occupying speech particular slots in sentences. to create new sentences, students must learn which part of speech occupies which slot .. Positive reinforcement helps the students to develop correct habits. spond to both verbal and nonverbal stimuli . Each language has a finite number of patterns . Pattern practice helps students to form habits which enable the students to use the patterns . Students should " overlearn , i.e. learn to answer automatically without stopping to think .

Observations Principles 12 The teacher provides the students with cues ; she calls on orchestra leaderconduction individuals ; she smiles encouragement ; she holds up pictures one after another . guiding , and controlling the students ' behavior in the targer language . 13. New vocabulary is introduced through lines of the dialog, vocabulary is limited.) 14 Students are given no grammar rules ; grammatical points are taught through examples and drills. 15 The teacher does a contrastive analysis of the target language and the students ' native language in order to locate the (places where she anticipates her students will have trouble , 16 The teacher writes the dialog on the blackboard toward the end of the week . students do some limited written work with the dialog and the sentence drills . Teaching should be for students to acquire the structural patterns students will learn vocabulary afterward. The learning of a foreign language should be the same as the acquisition of the native language. not need to memorize rules in order to use our native language . The rules necessary to use the target language will be figured out or induced from examples . Comparison between the native and target language will tell the teacher in what areas her students will probably experience difficulty . sic to language than the written form . The 'natural order' - the order children follow when learning their native language - of skill acquisition is listening, speaking, reading, and writing.

Observations 17 The supermarket alphabet game and a discussion of American supermarkets and football are included. The Audio - Lingual Method 45 Principles Language cannot be separated from culture . Culture is not only literature and the arts, but also the everyday behavior of the people without this who use the target language. One of the teacher's responsibilities is to present information about that culture. REVIEWING THE PRINCIPLES At this point we should turn to the ten questions we have answered for each method we have considered so far. 1 What are the goals of teachers who use the Audio - Lingual Method ? Teachers want their students to be able to use the target language communicatively . In order to do this , they believe students need to overlearn the target language , to learn to use it automatically without stopping to think . Their students achieve this by forming new habits in the target language and overcoming the old habits of their native language . 2 What is the role of the teacher ? What is the role of the students ? 2 The teacher is like an orchestra leader , directing and controlling the language behavior of her students. She is also responsible for providing her students with a good model for imitation . Students are imitators of the teacher's model or the tapes she supplies of model speakers . They follow the teacher's directions and respond as accurately and as rapidly as possible . 3 What are some characteristics of the teaching / learning process? New vocabulary and structural patterns are presented through dialogs . The dialogs are learned through imitation and repetition. Drills (such as repetition, backward build-up, chain, substitution, transformation, and question - and - answer) are conducted based on the patterns present in the dialog. Students successful responses are positively reinforced , Grammar is induced from the examples given ; explicit grammar rules are not provided . Cultural information is cla Comextualized in the dialogs or presented by the teacher Student reading and written work is based upon the oral work they did earlier of student - student interaction ? 4 What is the nature of student - teacher interaction ?

What is the nature There is student to student interaction in chain drills or when students take different roles in dialogs , but this interaction is teacher-directed Most of the interaction is between teacher and students and is initiated by the teacher 5 How are the feelings of the students dealt with ? There are no principles of the method that relate to this area 6 How is the language viewed ? How is the culture viewed? The view of language in the Audio - Lingual Method has been in enced by descriptive linguists . Every language is seen as having its own unique system . The system is comprised of several different levele phonological, morphological, and syntactic. Each level has its own dis tinctive patterns . Everyday speech) is emphasized in the Audio - Lingual Method The level of complexity of the speech is graded , however , so that bega ning students are presented with only simple patterns. Culture consists of the everyday behavior and lifestyle of the target language speak. 7 What areas of language are emphasized? What language skills are emphasized? Vocabulary is kept to a minimum while the students are mastering the sound system and grammatical patterns . A grammatical pattern is not the same as a sentence. For instance, underlying the following them sentences is the same grammatical pattern: Meg called, The Blue won, The team practiced. The natural order of skills presentation is adhered to listening speaking, reading, and writing. The oral / aural skills receive the most of the attention. What students write they have first been introduced orally . Pronunciation is taught from the beginning, often by stude working in language laboratories on discriminating between memben of minimal pairs.

What is the role of the students ' native language ? The habits of the students ' native language are thought to interfere with the students attempts to master the targer language . Therefore , the rarget language is used in the classroom not the students ' native language . A contrastive analysis between the students' native lan guage and the target language will reveal where a teacher should expect the most

interference . 9. How is evaluation accomplished? The answer to this question is not obvious because we did not actually observe the students in this class taking a formal test . If we had , we would have seen that it was discrete point in nature , that is , each ques tion on the rest would focus on only one point of the language at a time . Students might be asked to distinguish between words in a minimal pair , for example , or to supply an appropriate verb form in a sentence . 10 How does the teacher respond to student errors ? Student errors are to be avoided if at all possible through the teacher's awareness of where the students will have difficulty and restriction of what they are taught to say.   REVIEWING THE TECHNIQUES If you agree with the above answers, you may wish to implement the follow ing techniques; Of course, even if you do not agree, there may be techniques described below that you are already using or can adapt to your approach. Dialog memorization Dialogs or short conversations between two people are often used to begin a new lesson. Students memorize the dialog through mimicry ; stu dents usually take the role of one person in the dialog , and the teacher the other. After the students have learned the one person's lines , they switch roles and memorize the other person's part. Another way of practicing the two roles is for half of the class to take one role and the other half to take the other. After the dialog has been memorized , pairs of individual stu dents might perform the dialog for the rest of the class . In the Audio - Lingual Method , certain sentence patterns and grammar points are included within the dialog. These patterns and points are later practiced in drills based on the lines of the dialog.

(2 Backward build - up (expansion) drill This drill is used when a long line of a dialog is giving students trouble . The teacher breaks down the line into several parts . The students repeat a pan of the sentence , Usually the last plicase of the line. Then , following the teacher's cue , the students expand what they are repeating part by part o they are able to repeat the entire line. backward from there) to keep the inte

nation of the line as natural as possible. a quickly as possible . This drill is often used to teach the lines of the dialog Chain drill A chain drill gets its name from the chain of conversation that forms around the room as students , one - by - one , ask and answer questions of each other . The teacher begins the chain by greeting a particular student , or asking him a question . That student responds , then turns to the student sitting next to him . The first student greets or asks a question of the sec ond student and the chain continues . A chain drill allows some controlled communication , even though it is limited . A chain drill also gives the teacher an opportunity to check each student's speech. Single - slot substitution drill The teacher says a line , usually from the dialog . Next , the teacher says a word or a phrase - called the cue . The students repeat the line the teacher has given them, substituting the cue into the line in its proper place. The major purpose of this drill is to give the students practice in finding and filling in the slots of a sentence. Multiple - slot substitution drill This drill is similar to the single - slot substitution drill . The difference is that the teacher gives cue phrases, one at a time , that fit into different slots in the dialog line. The students must recognize what part of speech each cue is, or at least, where it fits into the sentence, and make any other changes, such as subject-verb agreement. They then say the line , fitting the cue phrase into the line where it belongs.

Transformation drill The tracher gives students a certain kind of sentence pattern, an affirma OVE for example. Students are asked to transforor this sentence De sentence .   Other examples of transformations to ask of st pon one , or direct speech into reported speech . dents are changing a statement into a question , an active sentence into a The Audio - Lingual Method 49 Question - and - answer drill This drill gives students practice with answering questions . The students should answer the teacher's questions very quickly although we did not see et our lesson here, it is also possible for the teacher to cue the students to ask questions as well. This gives students practice

with the question pattern . Use of minimal pairs The teacher works with pairs of words which differ in only one sound , for example , " ship / sheep . Students are first asked to perceive the difference between the two words and later to be able to say the two words . tracher selects the sounds to work on after she has done a contrastive analysis , a comparison between the students ' native language and the language they are studying Complete the dialog Selected words are erased from a dialog students have learned Students complete the dialog by filling the blanks with the missing words . Grammar game Games like the supermarket alphabet / game described in this chapter are used in the Audio - Lingual Method . The games are designed to get stu dents to practice a grammar point within a context . Students are able to express themselves , although it is rather limited in this game . Notice there also a lot of repetition in this game . audio Lingual Method . Try now to make the bridge between this book and your teaching situation . Does it make sense to you that language acquisition results from habit

The Audio - Lingual Method

formation ? If so , will the habits of the native language interfere with tar get language learning ? Should the commission of errors be prevented as much as possible ? Should the major focus be on the structural patterns of the target language ? Which of these or the other principles of the Audio Lingual Method are acceptable to you ? Is a dialog a useful way to introduce new material ? Should it be memo rized through mimicry of the teacher's model ? Are structures drills valuable pedagogical activities ? Is working on pronunciation through minimal - pair drills a worthwhile activity ? Would you say these techniques (or any others of the Audio - Lingual Method) are ones that you can use as described ? Could you adapt any of them to your own teaching approach and situation ? ACTIVITIES A Check your understanding of the Audio - Lingual Method . 1 Which of the following

techniques follows from the principles of the Audio - Lingual Method , and which ones don't ? Explain the reasons for your answer . a The teacher asks beginning - level students to write a composition about the system of transportation in their home countries. If they need a vocabulary word that they don't know , they are told to look in a bilingual dictionary for a translation. b Toward the end of the third week of the course , the teacher gives stu dents a reading passage . The teacher asks the students to read the passage and to answer certain questions based upon it. The passage contains words and structures introduced during the first three weeks of the course. The teacher tells the students that they must add an ' s ' to third per son singular verbs in the present tense in English . She then gives the students a list of verbs and asks them to change the verbs into the third person singular present tense form. 2. Some people believe that knowledge of a first and second language can be helpful to learners who are trying to learn a third language , what would an Audio - Lingual teacher say about this ? Why? B Apply what you have understood about the Audio - Lingual Method . 1 Read the following dialog . What subsentence pattern is it trying to teach ?

SAM Lou's going to go to college next fall . BETTY Where is he going ? SAM He's going to Stanford . BETTY What is he going to study ? SAM Prepare a series of drills (backward build - up , repetition , chain , single slot substitution , multiple - slot substitution , transformation , and ques tion - and - answer) designed to give beginning level EFL students some practice with this structure . If the target language that you teach is not English , you may wish to write your own dialog first. It is not easy to prepare drills , so to check yours , you might want to try giving them to some other teachers . Biology. He's going to be a doctor . 2 Prepare your own dialog to introduce your students to a sentence or subsentence pattern in the target language you teach.

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Chapter Five
teaching vocabulary

Introduction

in this chapter we will look at issues which are raised by the teaching and learning of vocabulary and we will study examples of vocabulary teaching We will discuss the importance of dictionary use and we will look at exercises designed to train students in the use of (monolingual) dictionaries .

9.1 language structors and vocabulary

9.2 selecting vocabulary

9.3 What do students need to know?

9.3.1 Meaning

9.3.2 Word use

9.3.4 Word formation

9.3.4 Word grammar

9.4 Teaching vocabulary

9.4.1 Active and passive

9.4.2 Interaction with words

9.4.3 Discovery techniques

9 .5 Examples of vocabulary teaching

9.5.1 Presentation

9.5.2 Discovery

9.5.3 Practice

9.6 The importance of dictionaries

material

9.6.1 Examples of dictionary training

9.7 Conclusions

Discussion/Exercises/References

language structures and Vocablary

If language structures make up the skeleton of language , then it is vocabulary that provides the vital organs and the flesh An ability to manipulate g The rammatical structure does not have any potential for expressing meaning unless words are used. We talk about the importance of choosing your words carefully in certain situations, but we are less concerned about classroom Then structural accuracy seem choosing structures carefully unless of course we are in a language Accuracy seems to be the dominant focus . In real . life , however, it is even possible that where vocabulary is used correctly it ' Yesterday I have can cancel out structural inaccuracy . For example the student who says seen him yesterday is committing one of the most notorious tense mistakes in English but he or she will still be understood as having seen him yesterday because of the word yesterday Wowowo We need to teach language structure is obvious as we have seen in Chapters 2 and 3 Grammatical knowledge allows us to generate sentences (see 2.2) At the same time, though, we must have something to say, we must have meanings that we wish to express and we need to have a store of words that we can select from when we wish to express these meanings . I you want to describe how you feel at this very moment you have to be able to find a word which reflects the complexity of your feeling. The words you choose to use when you want to invite someone out - especially if you think they may be reluctant - can make all the difference between acceptance and refusal.

For many years vocabulary was seen as incidental to the main purpose of language teaching - namely the acquisition of grammatical knowledge learning itself.

recently, however, methodologists and linguists have been stressing turning their attention to vocabulary its importance in language teaching and reassessing some of the ways in which it is taught and learned. It is in now clear , for example , that the acquisition of vocabulary is just as important as the sequisition of grammar though the iwo are obviously interdependent and teachers should have the same kind of expertise in the teaching of vocabulary as they do in the teaching of structure .

9 . 2 Selecting vocabulary

Part of the problem in teaching vocabulary lies in the fact that whilst there concrete is a consensus about what grammatical structures should be taught at what levels the same is hardly true of vocabulary. It is true , of coune , that syllabuses include word lists , but there is no guarantee that the list for one words (Fable peginners ' syllabus will be similar to the list for a different set of beginners Whilst it is possible to say that students should learn the verb to be before they learn its use as an auxiliary in the present continuous tense (for future meaning example) there is no such consensus about which words slot into which future meaning .

One of the problems of vocabulary teaching is how to select what word Jseach Dictionaries for upper intermediate students frequently have $5,000 words or more- and there may be many meanings for a word - and they represent a small fraction of all the possible words in a language Somehow we have to make sense of this huge list and reduce it to Manageable proportions for our learners .

A general principle in the past has been to teach more concrete words at lower levels and gradually become more abstract .Words like table

chair ' , ' chalk ' , etc have f igured in beginners syllabuses because the things which the words represent are there in front of the students and thus easily explained . Words like ' charity , however , are not physically represented in the classroom and are far more difficult to explain .

Other criteria which are rather more scientific have been used , amongst which two of the more important are frequency and coverage.

Frequency Coverage and choice

A general principle of vocabulary selection has been that of frequency We can decide which words we should teach on the basis of how frequently they are used by speakers of the language .

The words which are most commonly used are the ones we should teach first .

Another principle that has been used in the selection of vocabulary that of coverage , A word is more useful if it covers more things than f only has one very specific meaning - so the argument goes these two principles would suggest that a word like book would be an early vocabulary item .

 It is frequently used by native speakers and has greater coverage than notebook , exercise book . ' textbook , etc.

In order to know which are the most frequent words we can read or listen to a lot of English and list the words that are used , showing which ones are used most often and which are used least often This was done notably by Michael West (1953) who scanned newspapers and books to list at what level .

Perhaps the greatest revolution in vocabulary investigation and design . However, it has been the harnessing of the computer to the tasks of finding out which words are used and how they are used. The massive Cobuild computer - based corpus at Birmingham University has been

used not only for the design of a learner's dictionary but also as a resource for a vocabulary-driven coursebook " Many other universities and research projects have computer - based corpuses too and now it is teachers and students to buy relatively small computer programs which will scan texts and tell the users which words are used most often and how that is the beauty of a computer , of course , you can key in a word and it will immediately give you examples showing you the sentences and/or conversation phrases the word occurs in and the frequency with which it is used.

It should be possible, then, to design vocabulary syllabuses on the basis of magazines, books, letters, letters, etc of computerised information. If we feed in enough text - from newspapers, we will be able to make accurate statements about what words to teach.

There is no doubt at all that the use of c Computers have given us insights into the use of words, and teachers and materials designers have gained enormously from the information they have been able to access but even been completely solved.

The fact that remains that the frequency count will still be heavily influenced by the type of text that is fed into the computer . If you key in scientific textbooks you will get a different frequency count from the results you would get if you keyed in 10,000 Superman comics . If you keyed in the newspapers of twenty years ago you might well get a different frequency order from what would happen if you used today's newspapers . In other words, whilst computer-generated text study is considerably quicker, larger. and more reliable than the word lists of an earlier age it does not necessarily give us the only information we need. If you find that the word 'way (for example) is the fifth commonest word in the English language according to one computer - based corpus does that necessarily mean that you will teach it fifth?

The point is that other factors come into play. Do the students need to know ' way ' yet ? How useful is it for them ? And how well does it fit into the topics , functions , structures and situations that we want to teach ?

Recently I walked into a group of upper intermediate students whom I had not taught before I asked them to tell me what new words they had learned and remembered recently . They all chose the word ' cuddle It turned out that this was because they had come across it in an amusing text which had formed part of a class which they had really enjoyed because they thought the teacher was so good. There were other equally important reasons , too. The students liked the meaning of the word (it's a nice thing to do!) and they liked its sound . Perhaps the word ' cuddle would have been a suitable word for beginner students if it could prospe och enthusiasm But this would never be possible (even if it was desirable) if Irency and coverage) were taken as the only information to be used when selecting vocabulary .

The decision about what vocabulary to seach and learn will be easily influence , then , by information we can get about frequency and use th this information will be assessed in the light of other consideration todas opic function structure , (eachability needs and wants (see 3.6)

9.3 What do students need to know ?

In Chapter 2 we looked at what native speakers need to know shoul language and in Chapter 3 we used this to discuss the linguistic understanding that we should expect of our students. and 3.3) and look at words in more detail since it is clear that there is in far more to a vocabulary hom than just one meaning . For a start we must look at what meaning really is .

931 Meaning

The first thing to realise about vocabulary items is that they frequently have more than one meaning . The word ' book ' , for example , obviously refers to something you use to read from - (a written work in the form of) a set of printed pages fastened together inside a cover , as a thing to be read ' , according to one learner's dictionary . " But the same dictionary then goes on to list eight more meanings of ' book ' as a noun , two meanings of ' book ' as a verb and three meanings where ' book ' + preposition makes phrasal verbs , So we will have to say that the word ' book ' sometimes means the kind of thing you read from , but it can also mean a number of other things .

When we come across a word , then , and try to decipher its meaning we will have to look at the context in which it is used . If we see a woman in a theatre arguing at the ticket office saying ' But I booked my tickets three weeks ago ' we will obviously understand a meaning of the verb ' book ' which is different from a policeman (accompanied by an unhappy - looking man at a police station) saying to his colleague ' We booked him for speeding . ' In other words , students need to understand the importance of meaning in context .

There are other facts about meaning too . Sometimes words have meanings in relation to other words . Thus students need to know the meaning of ' vegetable ' as a word to describe any one of a number of other things- e.g. carrots , cabbages , potatoes , etc. ' Vegetable ' has a general meaning whereas ' carrot ' is more specific . We understand the meaning of a word like ' good ' in the context of a word like ' bad ' . Words have opposites (antonyms) and they also have other words with similar meanings (synonyms) - e.g.bad and evil Even in that example , however , one thing is clear : words seldom have absolute synonyms , although context may make them synonymous on particular occasions . As far as meaning goes , then , students need to

know about meaning in context and they need to know about sense relations .

9.3.2 Word use

What a word means can be changed , stretched or limited by how it is used and this is something students need to know about .

word meaning is frequently stretched through the use of melapher and idiom We know that the word ' hiss for example describes the nose that snakes make . But we stretch its meaning to describe the way people talk to use At the same time we can talk about treacherous people as takes each other ("Don't move or you're dead, she hned . That onl has become an idiom like countless other phrases such as raining cats and He's a real snake in the graw) Snake in the grass a fixed phrase that dogs , putting the cat among the pigeons , straight from the horse's mouth , etc .

Word meaning is also governed by collocation that is which words go with each other In order to know how to use the word " sprained we nend to know that whereas we can say sprained , sprained wrist, we cannot say "sprained thigh or "sprained rib." We can have a headache, stomachache or earache, but we cannot have a "throatache or a" legache.

We often use words only in certain social and topical contexts. What we say is governed by the style and register we are in . If you want to tell someone you are angry you will choose carefully between the neutral expression of this fact (I'm angry) and the informal version (I'm really pissed off) The latter would certainly seem rude to listeners in certain contexts.

At a different level we recognise that two doctors talking about an illness will talk in a different register than one of them who then talks to the patient in question - who has never studied medicine

Students need to recognise metaphorical language use and they need to know how words collocate. They also need to understand what stylistic and topical contexts words and expressions occur in .

9.3.3 Word formation

Words can change their shape and their grammatical value too Students need to know facts about word formation and how to twist words to fit different grammatical contexts . Thus the verb ' run has the participles running ' and ' ran ' The present participle running can be used as an adjective and ' run ' can also be a noun . There is a clear relationship between the words ' death ' , ' dead ' , ' dying and die .

 Students also need to know how suffixes and prefixes work How can we make the words potent and expensive opposite in meaning ? Why do we preface one with im- and the other with in- ?

Students need to know how words are spelled and how they sound . Indeed the way words are stressed (and the way that stress can change when their grammatical function is different - as with nouns and verbs, for example) is vital if students are to be able to understand and use words in speech. Part of learning a word is learning its written and spoken form.

Word formation, then, means knowing how words are written and spoken and knowing how they can change their form .

9.3.4 Word grammar

just as words change according to their grammatical meaning, so the use of certain words can trigger the use of grammatical patterns. Some examples will show what this means .
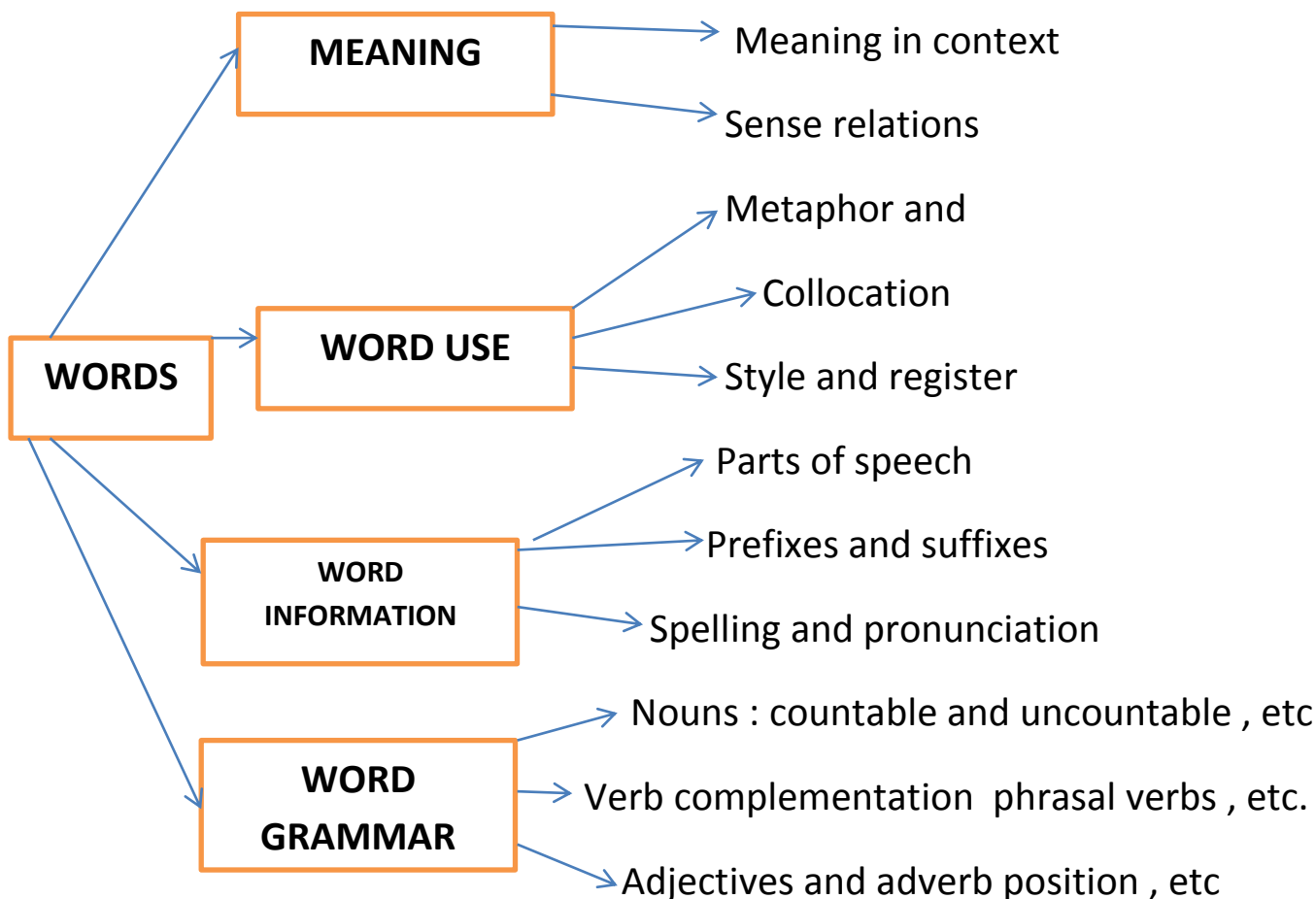
We make a distinction between countable and uncountable nouns . The former can be both singular and plural . We can say one chair of two chairs . The latter can only be singular we cannot say " two furnitures . This with plural verbs (provided that it is pluralised)

whereas furniture never difference , then , has certain grammatical implications . There are also nouns that are neither countable nor uncountable but which have a fand form and thefore collocate only with singular or plural verbs , eg people the news ', mathematics , etc.

Verbs trigger certain grammar too . Tell is followed by an object + to + infinitive , for example (He told her to wake him up at six) and so is ask But say does not work in the same way knowing modal verbs like can , ' must , etc means also knowing that these verbs are followed by a bare infinitive without 'to When students don't have this kind of knowledge they come up with erroneous sentences which all teachers instantly recognise, cg. He said me to come, "I must go etc .

There are many other areas of grammatical behavior that students need to know about what are phrasal verbs and how do they behave ? How are adjectives ordered ? What position can adverbs be used in ? Without the knowledge we can really say that students know vocabulary items such as look up (as in a dictionary), 'tired' and 'worn' or 'greedily ?

What we have been saying in this section is that knowing a word means for more than just understanding (one of) its meaning (s) . Somehow out teaching must help students to understand what this knowledge implies both in general and for certain words in particular . first ser them in texts , etc. and they will be better able to manipulate both the meanings and forms of the word .

```
                                         Meaning in context
          MEANING
                                         Sense relations

                                       Metaphor and

                                     Collocation
          WORD USE
                                     Style and register

                                     Parts of speech

                                    Prefixes and suffixes
  WORDS        WORD
             INFORMATION            Spelling and pronunciation

                                  Nouns : countable and uncountable , etc
          WORD
          GRAMMAR               Verb complementation  phrasal verbs , etc.

                                Adjectives and adverb position , etc
```

9.4 Teaching vocabulary

Teaching vocabulary is clearly more than just presenting new words .
This may , of course , have its place (see 9.5.1) but there are other
issues , too . For are used straight away , others are not . Should we
teach some words (which example , students see a lot of words in the
course of a week . Some of them we need for structure practice , for
example) and not teach others (which occur incidentally in reading
texts , for example) ? Is there any way in which we can encourage
students to really learn a word ? We will look at Active and passive
Interaction with words , and Discovery techniques .

9.4.1 Active and Passive

A distinction is frequently made between ' active ' and ' passive ' vocabulary . The former refers to vocabulary that students have been taught or learnt - and which they are expected to be able to use - whilst the latter refers to words which the students will recognise when they meet them but which they will probably not be able to produce .

 This distinction becomes a bit blurred , however , when we consider what knowing a word ' means and when we consider the way students seem to acquire their store of words .

It is true that students ' know ' some words better than others , but it has not been demonstrated that these are necessarily the words which teachers have taught them , especially at higher levels . They might be words that are often used in the classroom or words that have appeared in the reading texts which students have been exposed to . If we have any belief in language acquisition theories (see 4.1.3) it is clear that many words which students know do come through that route rather than through learning (see3 page 33) . Other words may be those that students have looked up because 4 they wanted to use them . Or they may be words that students have met and somehow ' liked ' (see 9.4.2 .)

At beginner and elementary levels it certainly seems a good idea to provide sets of vocabulary which students can learn . Most of these early words will be constantly practised and so can , presumably , be considered as ' active ' . But at intermediate levels and above the situation is rather more complicated . We can assume that students have a store of words but it would be difficult to say which are active and which are passive . A word that has been ' active ' through constant use may slip back into the passive store if it is not used . A word that students have in their passive store may suddenly become active if the

situation or the context provokes its use . In other words , the status of a vocabulary item does not seem to be a permanent state of affairs .

9.4.2 Interaction with words

The students who remembered the word ' cuddle ' (see 9.2.1) because they liked the experience of learning it and because they liked the word seem to provide another example of how students learn and retain words . We could predict that ' cuddle ' is a word they are going to remember for a long time - though it may eventually fade through lack of use . This word touched them in some way . They had some kind of a relationship with it . It was not just a word they had repeated because it referred to a picture they had been shown , e.g. It's an apple ' . It was a word that had personal meaning for them .

Not all vocabulary items have the warmth of a word like ' cuddle ' , however . But it would be nice if we could provoke the same kind of relationship with the words we teach as those students seemed to have had with their word .

Experiments on vocabulary seem to suggest that students remember best when they have actually done something with the words they are learning . There is a definite advantage in getting students to do more than just repeat them . Tasks such as changing them to mean their opposites , making a noun an adjective , putting words together , etc. help to fix the words in the learners ' minds .

Somehow or other , then , it seems that we should get students to interact with words . We should get them to ' adopt ' words that they like and that they want to use . We should get them to do things with words so that they become properly acquainted with them . Vocabulary learning needs the ' deep experience ' we mentioned on page 34 .

9.4.3 Discovery Techniques

Especially at intermediate levels and above , discovery techniques (where students have to work out rules and meanings for themselves rather than being given everything by the teacher - see 6.4) are an appropriate alternative to standard presentation techniques . This is certainly true of vocabulary learning where students will often be asked to discover for themselves ' what a word means and how and why it is being used .

At intermediate levels we can assume that students already have a considerable store of vocabulary . Rather than teach them new words we can show them examples of words in action (in texts , etc.) and ask them to use their previous knowledge to work out what words can go with others , when they should be used and what connotations they have .

Even at beginner levels , however , we may want to ask students to try to work out what words mean , rather than just handing them the meanings :

 when students have had a go ' with the words we can lead feedback sessions to see if they have understood the words correctly .

Discovery techniques used with vocabulary materials allow students to activate their previous knowledge and to share what they know (if they are working with others) . They also provoke the kind of interaction with words which we have said is desirable (see 9.4.2) . We will look at a number of discovery activities in 9.5.2 .

The conclusions we can draw from this discussion about active and passive vocabulary and about interacting (and about discovery techniques) are best summed up by a quote from Adrian Underhill :

... engaging the learner ... is essential to any activity that is to have a high learning yield . ' (Underhill 1985 : 107)

We know that learners will select the words they want to learn . We know that the words they have acquired seem to move between active and passive status , and we know that involvement with words is likely to help students to learn and remember them . In other words , if we provide the right kind of exposure to words for the students and if we provide opportunities for students to practise these words then there is a good chance that students will learn and remember some or all of them . As practice TEACHING VOCABULARY The factors that are crucial , surely , are those least easily controlled , such as the relevance of a word to an individual's immediate wants , needs and interests , the impact on his or her ' affect on the first few encounters , and the number of opportunities to bring it into active use . (Rossner 1987 : 302) .

9.5 Examples if Vocabulary Teaching

We have said that vocabulary teaching is as important as the teaching of structure , and in the following examples we will look at a range of activities which are designed to teach and practise words and their various uses . We will look at Presentation , Discovery techniques and Practice .

9.5.1 Presentation

Not all vocabulary can be learnt through interaction and discovery techniques . Even if such techniques are however , they are not always the most cost effective . There are many occasions when some form of presentation and / or explanation is the best way to bring new words into the classroom . We will look at some examples :

(a) Realia

One way of presenting words is to bring the things they represent into the classroom - by bringing ' realia ' into the room . Words like ' postcard ' , ' ruler ' , ' pen ' , ' ball ' , etc. can obviously be presented in

this way . The teacher holds up the object (or points to it) , says the word and then gets students to repeat it .

(b) Pictures

Bringing a pen into the classroom is not a problem . Bringing in a car , however , is . One solution is the use of pictures . Pictures can be board drawings , wall pictures and charts , flashcards , magazine pictures and any other non - technical visual representation . Pictures can be used to explain the meaning of vocabulary items : teachers can draw things on the board or bring in pictures . They can illustrate concepts such as above and opposite just as easily as hats , coats , walking sticks , cars , smiles , frowns , etc. (d) Contrasy

(c) Mime , action and gesture

It is often impossible to explain the meaning of words and grammar either through the use of realia or in pictures . Actions , in particular , are probably better explained by mime . Concepts like running or smoking are easy to present in this way ; so are ways of walking , expressions , prepositions (' to ' , ' towards ' , etc.) and times (a hand jerked back over the shoulder to represent the past , for example) .

d) We saw how words exist because of their sense relations (see 9.3.1) and this can be used to teach meaning . We can present the meaning of ' empty ' by contrasting it with ' full ' , ' cold ' by contrasting it with ' hot ' , ' big " by contrasting it with ' small ' . We may present these concepts with pictures or mime , and by drawing attention to the contrasts in meaning we ensure our students ' understanding .

(e) Enumeration words . We can use this to present meaning . We can say ' clothes ' and Another sense relation we looked at in 9.3.1 was that of general and specific explain this by enumerating or listing various

items . The same is true of ' vegetable ' or ' furniture ' , for example . • Cnumeration .

(f) Explanation Explaining the meaning of vocabulary items can be very difficult , especially at beginner and elementary levels . But with more intermediate students such a technique can be used . It is worth remembering that explaining the meaning of a word must include explaining any facts of word use (see 9.3.2) which are relevant . If we are explaining the meaning of ' mate ' (= friend) we have to point out that it is a colloquial word used in informal contexts and that it is more often used for males than for females .

(g) Translation Translation is a quick and easy way to present the meaning of words but it is not without problems . In the first place it is not always easy to translate words , and in the second place , even where translation is possible , it may make it a bit too easy for students by discouraging them from interacting 2 with the words .

Where translation can quickly solve a presentation problem it may be a good idea , but we should bear in mind that a consistent policy towards the use of the mother tongue is helpful for both teacher and students (see 11.2.4 for a discussion of this point) .

All of these presentation techniques either singly or in combination are useful ways of introducing new words . What must be remembered with vocabulary presentation , too , is that pronunciation is just as important here as it is for structural material . 10 We should not introduce words without making sure that students know how they are said . Not only will this mean that they can use the words in speech , it will also help them to remember the words .

There are a number of ways of presenting the sounds of words :

1 Through modelling . Just as with structures (see 6.3.1) the teacher can model the word and then get both choral and individual repetition .

When the teacher is modelling the word he or she can use gesture , etc. to indicate the main stress in a word .

2 Through visual representation . When teachers write up new words on the ation board they should always indicate where the stress in the word is . They can do this by underlining , e.g .

They can use a stress square , e.g.

photographic

They can use a stress mark before the stressed syllable , e.g. photographer

They can write the stress pattern of the words next to it , e.g.

photography

3 Through phonetic symbols . Some teachers get their students to learn the phonetic symbols , at least for recognition purposes . Certainly for more advanced students a basic knowledge of the symbols will help them to access pronunciation information from their dictionaries (see 9.6) .

9.5.2 Discovery

We will look at a number of discovery techniques from simple matching tasks to more complex understandings of connotation and context .

(a) Adjectives

This example from a book for elementary students shows the simplest form of matching discovery activity :

Students will be using their bilingual dictionaries (see 9.6) , though some of them may know these words already . Teachers can easily prepare their own versions of this activity . For example , students can be given numbered pictures and the teacher can then write words on

the board which they have to match with the pictures . The use of simple matching activities like these as a prelude to repetition and practice allows the students more involvement than a presentation led by the teacher . However the same procedure repeated for the introduction of all new words would become boring .

(b) Parts of the body

This activity for intermediate students broadens the matching of words to pictures by not actually giving the students the words . They have to find them from their own memories or from their peers .

Notice how students are encouraged to come up with any more words they know to extend the list of vocabulary , It is often a good idea to have students working in pairs or groups for this activity . Frequently a word that is unknown to one student will be known by another .

(c) Around the house in 9.3.1 we talked about sense relations and about general and specific words . The following activity expands the concept to include word fields - i.e. areas where a number of words group together . The activity uses the ' mind map ' technique to help students to put a list of words into different groups .

 a) Here is a ' vocabulary network ' . Can you complete it with words from the box ? (Then add one more object for each room .)

b) In which room do you normally : waste time ? listen to music ? daydream ? think about your problems ? have arguments ? feel most relaxed ?

Now compare your answers with a partner .

c) Why do you have certain things in certain rooms ? For example , why not put the television in the bathroom ? Why not put the sofa in the kitchen ? Think of some more examples and ask your partner to explain them .

Once again , because this activity is for intermediate students , we can assume that some of the students know some of the words . By sharing their knowledge they can complete the map and add the extra bits of vocabulary . Notice how the follow - up activities in this material encourage practice of the words .

Using mind maps to create vocabulary fields is something that teachers can form a useful prelude to work on specific topics . Thus if students are can incorporate into their regular vocabulary teaching . Indeed such activities going to read a text about movement , the class might start with the basis for a mind map like this :
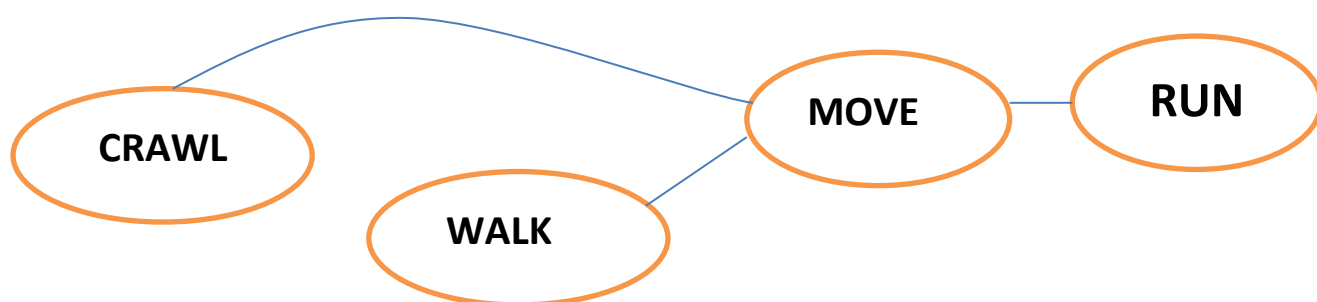
It would then be up to the students (in pairs or groups) to expand the map as far as possible .

(d) Ways of moving[14]

In this example for students who are just approaching the intermediate level - the new words are given in texts first :

Words in context Read the following passages and do the exercises .

Robert couldn't get to sleep . He didn't know why . At two o'clock in the morning he decided to go down stairs and get some food from the fridge . Everyone in the house was asleep so he tiptoed down the stairs , making as little noise as possible . (Now answer question 1 , Exercise 1.

Jim and Sandy had met on holiday and were very much in love . This was their last day together . Now , as the sun toent down over the sea

, they strolled hand in hand along the beach , looking into anstoer question 2.)

' Oh no , ' shouted Mike , ' my contact lens has fallen out . Soon everyone was on their hands and knees , crawl ing around looking for it .

 " You can all stand up now , ' some ' Let's put on some strong shoes , take some one said , ' I've found it . " (Now answer question 3)

From the hotel window , you could see the green hills covered with tall trees , and in the distance was a little lake some sandwiches and spend the day hiking in the mountains , their father said . (Now answer question 4.)

The boys were sixteen years old and they were in the army . Every day they had to practise marching as the sergeant called out , " Left , right . Left, right . Left. (Now answer question 5.)

It was a dark day and it looked as if it might rain . From the hotel window , you could see. the beach . No one was there . ' Let's wander round the town and get to know this place a little better , " their father suggested . (Now answer question 6.)

The boxer took a hard punch on the chin . He stood still for a second and then his legs became weak . Almost falling , he started to stagger like a drunken man . One more punch and he was down seven , eight , nine , ten . It was a knock out . (Now anstoer question 7.)

 In the village , most people were happily getting ready to go skiing . There were only a few people who looked unhappy . They could not go skiing . They had each injured a leg , a knee or an ankle , and were

not limping around the village with nothing to do . (Noto answer question 8.)

When they have read the texts they are in a position to guess the meaning of the words , and the following chart helps them to do it :

Match each of these verbs with its meaning Put a cross (R) in the right box , as in the example .

	stroll	wander	march	limp	hike	tiotoe	Stagger	crawl
with each step equal			✘					
Quietly on your toes								
pressing more on one foot than the other								
in a slow relaxed way								
in an unsteady way								
in the countryside								
On Your hands and knees								
in no particular direction								

This discovery activity is made usable because students had a chance to see the words in context . At their post - elementary level they would probably not know the words already so the text provides the information on which they can base their deductions - and , therefore , fill in the chart correctly .

This kind of activity can be used by teachers when working with any text . If there are a number of words that group into a vocabulary field (

see (b) above) it will be easy to design a similar chart - which is a matching word - and - definition activity .

(e) Suffixes and prefixes [15]

We said in 9.3.3 that students need to know about word formation . This exercise is designed to make them aware of how suffixes and prefixes work . After the students are reminded of how work they are asked to look at a list of words and see what they mean :

1 - suffixes and prefixes	2 What meaning do the following suffixes and prefixes add ?	m- pro – American
In Unit 7 (page 4) we saw how prefixes and suffices are used to form different parts of speech	a – non – fiction	N – defrost
Fashionable = adjective	b- dishonest	O - Microscope
happiness = noun	C – misunderstand	P - Post – graduate
electrician = person They can also add a new meaning .	D – oversleep Undercook	q - predict
Exemple	Redecorate	
Bi = to	An ex – president	
bilingual	A manageress	
Biplane	Helpless	
If you understand the meaning of the suffix or prefix , you can often guess the meaning of a new word .	Useful	
	Anti-social autograph	

Once again the point here is that students are being asked to interact with the words and work things out for themselves . Because this is an activity for upper intermediate students they can probably do so .

(D) Fear [16]

Understanding how words relate to each other also involves understanding which words are weaker or stronger than others . In this activity at the upper intermediate level students are being prepared to read a short story by Janet Frame called You are Now Entering the Human Heart . The materials designer takes the opportunity to do a quick discovery activity on words associated with ' fear ' - a major theme of the story :

Exercise 2

Everybody experiences fear at some time or other , for example when you are woken by a strange noise at night , before you go to the dentist , or when you are on top of a high building . The following words describe different kinds of fear . Using a dictionary if necess ary , put the words in the appropriate place on the lines . You may want to put more than one word on a line .

afraid   nervous   terrified   petrified   scared   frightened

A little fear

_____

_____

_____

_____

A lot of fear

Notice the letter ' K ' in the circle which indicates that users can find the answers to this exercise in the answer key . It is worth reminding ourselves that either the teacher or a self - study key must be on hand to help give students feedback on the discoveries they have made .

(g) Gibraltar[17]

The following example could only be used with very advanced students , but. the principle (using a modified fill - in passage) can be adapted to almost a levels .

Students are going to read an account of the inquest into shootings which took place in in Gibraltar some years ago . This extract relates to the death of one of the victims , called Savage .

The students are told that in the passage a number of words have been blocked out by the symbol xxxxxx (this seems less disruptive to the reading eye than the more normal blank) . Individually they have to think of as many words as possible to replace these symbols with , and they then have to compare their possibilities in pairs and groups until they have decided which words should be replace the xxxXXS (this consensus activity is similar to that in 9.6.1 (d)) .

This is the text [18] :

Kenneth Asquez , a twenty - year - old bank clerk , alleged last April that he saw a man with his foot on Savage's chest , firing xxxxxx him at point blank xxxxxx two or three times . Asquez made the claim in two statements , one hand written and another made before a lawyer , which he refused to sign , because , he said he wanted to protect his xxxxxx . Thames Television used seventy - two words from his statements . But at the inquest Asquez - a surprise xxxxxx given his previous anonymity said he had invented his account under ' xxxxxx ' and ' offers of money ' , the first unspecified and the second unquantified (he received none , in any case) . Sir Joshua Hassan , the

colony's most distinguished lawyer and former chief minister , represented him in court . The coroner said that , retracted or not , his first account should still be xxxxxx by the jury . Then there is Robin Arthur Mordue . He was a British holidaymaker , walking towards Savage in Landport Lane when the shooting started , and he was pushed to the ground by a woman on a bicycle (herself pushed by a third xxxxxx) . He saw Savage fall at the same time . The shots stopped for a time , and then resumed as Mordue struggled to his xxxxxx ; as he ran for xxxxxx behind a car , he looked back to see a man standing over Savage and pointing down with a gun . Mordue was a confused (and perhaps frightened) witness ; coroner and counsel examined him ten times before he was released xxxxxx his oath.He may also have been a confused and frightened witness before he arrived in Gibraltar : in the weeks before the inquest , he received a number of xxxxxx phone calls (' Bastard ... stay away ') . His telephone number is ex - directory .

This activity reinforces the point about meaning in context (see 9.3.1) , and gains a lot through the discussion that takes place between students about what the words should be . Interestingly enough some of the words are easy for a native speaker to guess because they form part of clichéd or fixed phrases (at point - blank range , he ran for cover , struggled to his feet) , whilst others are more interesting and show the writer stretching words and meanings to his particular purpose (firing into him) and some respond to the legal register of the piece (a third party , released from his oath) . Clearly this extract is difficult because of the complexity of the information , the register and the general level of the language . But the same procedure can be used by teachers with texts at virtually any level . The examples in this section have all encouraged students to work out meanings , etc. for themselves . By provoking this involvement with words , we make it likely that students will remember them at least for a short time (see 9.4.2) . Clearly , though , we will want to encourage students to practise using the words so that they become more familiar . That is what we will look at in the next section .

9.5.3 Practice

In this section we will look at activities designed to encourage students to use words in an involving way .

(a) Actions and gestures [19]

In this example students have studied words connected with body language and movement (e.g. shrug , shake , cross + shoulders , fist , arm) . They have done an exercise on the way verbs and nouns collocate (you can't shrug your fists , for example) . Now they complete the following questionnaire :

What actions or gestures do you use to do the following ?

INTERVIEWEE NUMBER	1	2	3	4
say hello				
say goodbye				
express anger				
express surprise				
express indifference				
express agreement				
express disagreement				

Do people from different cultures do any of these things differently ?

(b) Bring , take and get[20]

In this example students at elementary level have studied the different uses of get , bring and take , verbs that are frequently confused . After doing a fill in exercise they then take part in the following practice activity .

PRACTICE

2 Susanna Davies is an office manager .

She keeps her staff very busy . It's Monday morning , and there are various jobs they will i have to do before midday .

Look at the illustration and information , and give Susanna's orders . The first one has been done for you .

Example : Bob , would you take the office car to the garage , get some petrol and bring it back here ?

1 Tracy

2 Eric .

3 Phil ...

4 is that Miss Jones at Speed - o - Bike ? ...

3 In pairs , give each other instructions to move objects about . Examples : Hans , take this book to Marie , and give it to her . Sam , go and get Kate's pen , and bring it here .

This is a very straightforward practice activity which will help students to fix the meanings and uses of these difficult verbs in their minds .

(c) Traits of character[21]

In this example for advanced students , students are led through three exercises which practise the use of ' character ' vocabulary .

1 - Ladies and gentlemen , which of these traits of character do you most dislike in a partner ? Place them in order .

vanity	hypocrisy	pomposity	stubbornness
obstinacy	selfishness	dishonesty	pettiness
Arrogance	snobbishness	timidity	possessiveness
shyness	meanness	rashness	aggressiveness

Ladies and gentlemen , which of these qualities is most important for you in a partner ? Place them in order of importance .

compassion	vivacity	frankness	self - assurance
tolerance	patience	generosity	ambition
sincerity	imagination	passion	humility
modesty	sensitivity	courage	creativity

2 Discuss or write down the personal characteristics (good and bad) that you would expect to find in these people .

1 a nurse

2 the chairman of a multinational company

3 an actor

4 a politician

5 a teacher

We must assume that the students have a knowledge of a majority of the words . That being so , the genuine discussion in exercise 2 about the characteristics we would wish to see for various professions will provoke the use of a number of these words .

be done with emotional reactions , for The same kind of activity example . How would students expect to feel if they went to see a horror movie , a love story , a Shakespeare play ?

This activity demonstrates the desirability of making the words and what they stand for the centre of a practice session .

(d) Innismullen[21]

In 9.3.2 we discussed the importance of the metaphorical use of language . The following discovery - practice activity shows how students can be made aware of metaphorical use , and in a controlled practice session , how they can be encouraged to use some of the idioms .

Students at the upper intermediate level are shown the following text from an imaginary novel called The Keeper of Innismullen :

Their ill - fated marriage started badly on the first night , for when they arrived at the hotel and had unpacked their things Charles found that he was unable to hide his unhappiness . Despite his apologies , and his claims that he had not meant to hurt her feelings , Matilda's pride was deeply wounded and since she was unable to guess at the cause of his distress she jumped to all sorts of conclusions . Charles was , by this time , ill at ease but had no way of explaining the true situation to his new bride . Sick at heart he continued to give unconvincing apologies or merely to murmur in monosyllables . Finally , after three hours , during which Matilda's injured pride pained her more with every passing second , she exploded . ' I am sick and tired of this ill - mannered behaviour , ' she exclaimed . I consider our marriage to be already at an end . She spoke in anger ; how could she know that it would be five long years before her wish finally came true ?

After being asked to speculate on the reasons for the situation the students see the following question :

How are the words ' sick ' , ' ill ' , ' injured ' , ' wounded ' and ' hurt ' used in the extract from The Keeper of Innismullen ? What other meanings can you find for these words in the dictionary ?

When the teacher and students have discussed the answers to the question they are given this practice activity :

Read this summary of a story called Runaway Heart .

Sylvia and Gregorio are terribly in love and hope to get married . However , at a dinner party (which was the first time that Gregorio had met Sylvia's family) Sylvia's lover and her father had a terrible argument and Gregorio was thrown out of the house and told never to return . What are Gregorio and Sylvia to do now ?

Tell the story in your own words , trying to use as many expressions with ' sick ' , ' ill ' , ' injured ' , ' wounded ' or ' hurt ' from the text as possible .

This activity shows how the metaphorical use of language can be approached . Notice that the practice activity has elements of parallel writing (see 7.2.2) .

(e) Restaurants [22]

Once again for this activity at the intermediate level practice is preceded by a discovery activity .

A - Working with your partner , put the following events into the correct order . The first one has been done for you .

 look at the menu

give the waiter a tip

have dessert

pay the bill

book a table

decide to go out for a meal

leave the restaurant

have the starter

go to the restaurant

have the main course

 sit down

order the meal

ask for the bill

Here the vocabulary is dealt with in phrases rather than single words since in the context of restaurants there would not be any point in listing the words without the vocabulary they collocate with . Students listen to an account of a meal where the sequence of events was different from the one given here and they are then given this practice activity :

Events do not always follow this sequence . What happens in :

- a hamburger (fast food) restaurant ?
- a pub ?
- a restaurant or bar in your country ?
   As the students discuss these situations they are recycling the phrases they have just been (re-) learning .
   Using sequences of events in certain well - defined situations (shopping , travelling by air , getting up , going to bed , etc.) teachers can provide practice for a lot of the language that concerns those situations . The material shown here provides a clear example of how practice can lead naturally from a discovery activity in such circumstances .
   (f) Headlines
   Headlines (both real and imagined) are a very good way of providing practice , particularly if they refer to certain well - defined topic areas . Suppose that students have been studying words related to age and ageing (infant , child , middle age , etc.) they could be asked to write an article to accompany the headline :
   OLD LANGUAGE LEARNERS ARE BEST SAYS PENSIONER GRANDMA

If students have been studying vocabulary related to families and weddings they could be asked to expand a headline like this :

BIGAMY DOUBTS CAUSE WAR AT WEDDING

Students who have been studying vocabulary related to death and dying might write a story to accompany this headline :

CEMETERY FACES M - WAY THREAT

Of course , there is no reason why teachers should only use newspaper headlines . They could equally well use radio news items ; they could describe the situation in a ' gossip ' session with a ' neighbour ' or they could tell the story in a letter .

The point is that headlines , etc. provide a powerful stimulus for freer work . They are easy to construct , too .

In this section we have looked at a number of practice activities designed to provoke the use of certain (areas of) vocabulary . For free practice , of course , the ideas in Chapter 8 are just as valid for vocabulary as they are for structures . At that stage it is not the particular type of language being used that is the main focus : it is the spontaneous use of language , both structural , functional and lexical .

9.6 the importance of deaconries [23]

 We have already said (see 9.2) that selecting words for teaching purposes is very difficult . We based this on the enormous number of words that any language contains . For the same reason we can be sure that students will want to know the meaning of many more words than we , their teachers , can teach them . Where can they get this information ?

Obviously the dictionary provides one of the best resources for students who wish to increase the number of words they understand - or at least for students who wish to understand what a word means when they come across it in a text or in a conversation . Most students in such circumstances consult a bilingual dictionary to find an equivalent in their own language .

There is nothing wrong with bilingual dictionaries except that they do not usually provide sufficient information for the students to be able to use . We frequently find that one word in the L2 (English) has five or six equivalents listed in the L1 . But the student cannot tell which one of these meanings is referred to . There is often no information either about the level of formality of the word , its grammatical behaviour , or its appearance in idioms , etc. Such a lack of information could lead to serious errors of translation : one trainer used an Italian - English dictionary to produce a completely inaccurate (and fanciful) letter which started ' Expensive Mary ' ! [24] .

One response to the limited nature of information available in many bilingual dictionaries is to say that they should not be used . This will not be sensible , however , since most students who are at all interested in learning a language will use a bilingual dictionary whether their teachers want them to or not . Our job is not to try to prevent their use , therefore , but to turn it to our advantage by incorporating them into good dictionary practice using monolingual dictionaries .

Perhaps the greatest resource we can give our students is a good monolingual dictionary . In it there are many more words than students will ever see in class . There is more grammatical information about the words than students get (usually) in class .

There is information about pronunciation , spelling , word formation , metaphorical and idiomatic use - a whole profile of a particular word . There should also be examples of words in sentences and phrases . Of course not all dictionaries do this equally well , and teachers (and students) have their preferences ; but we can and should expect this kind of information from a good dictionary .

The problem is that students at beginner and elementary levels simply cannot access this information . Even where the language used in the

dictionary definitions has been restricted to make those definitions easier to understand , it is just too difficult for students at lower levels .

Such students do not have any alternative to using bilingual dictionaries . But as their English starts to improve we can begin to introduce the monolingual dictionary to complement their bilingual one . We can encourage them to look up a word in their bilingual dictionaries and then check what they have found against the information in the monolingual dictionary .

We can allow them to check information from their monolingual dictionaries against translations that they find in their bilingual dictionaries . It is when students get to the intermediate levels and above that we can seek to change completely to monolingual dictionary use , and to prise the students away from their bilingual dependence . As their vocabulary improves so they can understand the definitions and appreciate the information that they can find . Advanced students can (and should) use their monolingual dictionaries as their chief source of information about meaning , pronunciation and grammar . There is no better resource for the learner . A note of caution should be added here , however . Whilst we wish to encourage sensible dictionary use , we do not want this to interfere with other methodological concerns . We do not want students to be checking every word of a reading text in their dictionaries when they should be reading for general understanding (see 10.4.4) . We do not want the students ' ability to be spontaneous to be limited by constant reference to dictionaries . We will see one example of good dictionary use in reading classes below (see 9.6.1(d))

9.6.1 examples of dictionary training material [25]

 The fact that some students do not use monolingual dictionaries very much is not just because of language difficulty , however . Dictionaries are very daunting precisely because they contain so much technical

information . Unless we train students in how to understand the information and use the dictionaries , the money they spend in buying them will be largely wasted since they will never open them . In training our students in dictionary use we will want to achieve three things in the first place we will want to remove the fear that they may have when faced with the mass of information a dictionary contains . Secondly we will want to train students to understand that information , and thirdly we will want to make the dictionary a normal and comfortable part of language study and practice . We will look at four examples of activities which seek to achieve some or all of these aims .

(a) Authority [26]

In this activity for intermediate learners , the students are first asked to read texts about government in Britain and the United States without a dictionary . This is one of them :

> **HOW BRITAIN IS GOVERNED**
> Britain consists of four countries : England , Scotland , Wales and Northern Ireland , London , the capital , is the centre of government for the whole of Britain , but local authorities are partly responsible for education , health care , roads , the police and some other things . Laws are made by Parliament . There are two ' houses ' : the House of Commons and the House of Lords (which has little power) . Members of the House of Commons are called MPs (Members of Parliament) ; an MP is elected by the people from a particular area .

The material then asks the students :

2 Read this entry from a dictionary . It gives several meanings for the word authority . Which of the meanings is the one used in the first paragraph of the text in Exercise 1 ?

> respected store of knowledge or information : We want a dictionary that will be an authoritative record of modern English compare DEFINITIVE- ~ ly adv au - thor - i - ty 5 : ¹0oriti , -a'Ba- , '05 - / n 1 [U]

the ability , power , or right , to control and command : Who is in authority here ? A teacher must show his authority 2 (C often pl .] a person or group with this power or right , esp . in public affairs : The govern ment is the highest authority in the country . The authorities at the town hall are slow to deal with complaints 3 [U] power to influence : I have some authority with the young boy 4 [U9] right or official power , esp . for some stated purpose : What authori ty have you for entering this house ? 5 [Cusu sing la paper giving this right : Here is my authority 6 [C] a person , book , etc. , whose knowledge or informa tion is dependable , good , and respected : He is an authority on plant diseases 7 [C] a person , book , etc , mentioned as the place where one found certain information au - thor - i - za - tion , isation / , 5 : 0arat'zetfanar n 1 (U) right or official power to do something have the owner's authorization to use his house 2 (C) a paper giving this right .

This simple activity helps to train students to be able to pick out different meanings and to stop them from being daunted by long entries for one word . It is not a difficult activity for teachers to introduce when using reading texts.

(b) Ferry

This activity , again for intermediate students , involves learners in actively discovering what the information in the dictionary actually means .

1 - using the dictionary

Here are two definitions of the word ferry . Fill ini the boxes using the words below .

The point is that the students are being actively involved in learning what the dictionary conventions mean rather than telling them . The latter course of action will not have much impact and may be demotivating . The former , done over a period of time , will train them to understand dictionaries effectively .

In the exercise above students are having to deal with a variety of different information . We can get to this point by gradually training students to recognise symbols and conventions one or two at a time over a period of days or weeks . This can often form a follow - up to a reading or listening sequence . The teacher can ask the students to find out if a word they have encountered can be pluralised or not and ask them to find the information in their dictionaries , for example . This is a way of training them to recognis the symbols for countable and uncountable nouns .

c) Write yourself in [28]

This cavity will help to make students more confident with their dictionaries At the same time it is quite amusing .

Students Shakes are given words which they probably don't know . They have word and the pronoun ' T ' or ' We ' . If one of the words they look up is not allowed , whereas a sentence like ' We think janissaries were probably Missary , a sentence like ' I don't understand the meaning of " janissary is extremely handsome but very rough ' is acceptable . (Janissaries were Turkish soldiers in former times .)

Write yourself in ' can be turned into a team game . Team A is given a different list of words from Team B. The members of Team A look up their soores a point only if Team B gets the meaning . words and write their sentences . Team B guesses the meaning .

There are many other dictionary games , such as ' Call my Bluff " (originally a BBC TV game) where a team looks up the correct definition of an obscure word and then invents two incorrect but plausible definitions The other team has to guess which is the right definition .

(d) Word consensus

It is important to make dictionary use a part of normal classes rather than just a rather exotic extra . This procedure does just that .

After students have read a text ask them to list the five words they would most like to know the meaning of . When they have done this they have to compare their list with a colleague's . The two have to agree on five words they most want to know the meaning of . Now pairs are joined together and the new groups have to agree on their lists .

By this stage many of the original words have been explained by the other student (s) . What the groups now end up with is a list of words which they all really want to know the meaning of - words that they want to adopt (see 9.4.2 .) Tell them to find the meanings of the words in their dictionaries . In the case of a word having multiple meanings make sure the whole group agrees on the correct one . They can then write example sentences much like those for the ' Write yourself in ' activity above .

These dictionary training activities represent only a small proportion of the ones **that can be used . Time spent on such activities will not be wasted for most useful tools that they are likely to be able to use .**

9. 7 Conclusions

In this chapter we have looked at the difference between teaching language structure and teaching vocabulary . We have identified problems of selection should be taught . with the latter which are not so prevalent with the former . We have seen how counts of frequency alone are not enough to determine what words We have seen that knowing a word means more than just knowing its meaning . Even that is problematical , since meaning includes sense relations and context , for example . To know a word we also need to know about its use , how it is formed and what grammatical behaviour it provokes or co exists with .

We have discussed the methodology of vocabulary teaching , placing special stress on the desirability of getting students to ' interact with

words . Rather than just learn them , students should manipulate words and be involved with them . For this reason we placed special emphasis on discovery activities .

We have looked at activities designed to present and practise aid vocabulary acquisition . vocabulary , showing in the largest section - how discovery techniques can We have discussed the importance of monolingual dictionaries - and how they do not suffer from the same limitations as bilingual dictionaries do .

We have looked at ways of training students so that their dictionaries can be a useful resource for them .

Above all , in this chapter , we have seen how vocabulary teaching and learning need to be emphasised in order for students to be competent language users .

Discussion

1 What do you think are the most appropriate ways of teaching vocabulary at different levels ? How useful are discovery activities at beginner levels ? Why ?

2 Which is more important for language learners : structure or vocabulary ?

3 Is it possible to train all students to use dictionaries ? Why ? Why not?

4 How important is it to learn idioms ? Do idioms ever change ?

Exercises

1- Look at your textbook . Find vocabulary exercises and say what aspect of vocabulary they are dealing with (see 9.3.1-4) .

2 What words relating to the family would you teach to a group of elementary students ? How could you teach them ?

3. What metaphorical or idiomatic use of language can you identify with the following words : die dream heart dog .

4 Which of the following words would you not teach beginners ? Why ? orange table car pilot pocket girlfriend companion spaghetti undertaker angry conductor

References

1 Much of the content of this chapter is heavily influenced by work which I have been doing on vocabulary material with Richard Rossner , I have made use of many of his insights here , though the final result is entirely my own responsibility .

2 See especially the excellent Gairns and Redman (1986) written for language teachers , and the more theoretical Carter and McCarthy (1988) which explores some of the issues behind how words work and how they are learnt and acquired . McCarthy (1991) looks at vocabulary and how it is treated in teaching materials and practice .

3 See Channell (1988) who states that there is justification for teaching approaches which make vocabulary learning a separate activity . ' (page 94) .

Chapter Six

Listening Comprehension

Teaching Reading

Teaching Speaking

Teaching Writing

If "the goal of listening comprehension is to be able to understand native speech at normal speed in unstructured situ tions," then one needs to identify such a range of speech situations as the students are likely to encounter , from formal lectures to casual chats , from face to face encounters to telephone messages and radio and TV presentations , and then systematically present the students with exercises which teach them how to listen and what to listen for in such situations . At the beginning levels , it is enough to expect the students to be able to understand the code of formal classroom style at later stages they will need information and practice with les formal varieties of the spoken language so that they will understand people outside of the classroom . Advanced students who are going to study in an English speaking environment will need to learn how to listen to lectures and take notes , to comprehend native speakers in kinds of speech situations , and to understand radio and TV broadcasts .

 The Psychology of Second Language Learning (Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1971). William S-Y Wang, "The Basis of Speech," in Carroll E. Reed, The Learning of Language (New York: Appleton - Century Crofts, 1971), 296, Kenneth Chastain, The Development of Modern Language Skills: The to Practice (Philadelphia: CCD, 1971).

GENERAL PRINCIPLES IN TEACHING LISTENING COMPREHENSION

 We have found Morley's guidelines, based on her work in perception and on her experience in the classroom, to be eminently sensible for the construction of listening comprehension material. They provide a general set of principles for teaching listening comprehension (LC).

 1. Listening comprehension lessons must have definite goals , carefully stated . These goals should fit into the overall curriculum , and both teacher and students should be clearly cognizant of what they are.

2. Listening comprehension lessons should be con structed with careful step by step planning . This implies, according to Morley, that the listening tasks progress from simple to more complex as the student gains in language proficiency, that the student knows exactly what the task is and is given directions as to "what to listen for, where to listen," when to listen , and how to listen.

3. LC lesson structure should demand active overt student participation. She states that the " most overt student participation involves his written response to the LC and that immediate feedback on per material ," formance helps keep interest and motivation at high levels.

4. LC lessons should provide a communicative urgency for remembering in order to develop concentration . This is done by giving the students the writing assignment before they listen to the material. (It serves the same function as the " before " questions in the reading clas s .

5. Listening comprehension lessons should stress con scious memory work. One of the goals of listening is to strengthen the students' immediate recall in order to increase their memory spans. In Morley's terms "listening ing is receiving, receiving thinking, and thinking ing requires memory; there is no way to separate listening, thinking, remembering .

6. Listening comprehension lessons should " teach " not " test . " By this , Morley means that the purpose of checking the students ' answers should be viewed only as feedback , as a way of letting the students find out how they did and how they are progressing . There should be no pass / fail attitude associated with the correction of the exercises .

PRACTICE IN LISTENING COMPREHENSION

Virtually everything students do in the foreign lang classroom involves listening comprehension to some extent , and it seems difficult to know just where to incorporate listening comprehension exercises into the curriculum. The guideline should be the specific teaching point of the activity exercises on the phonological code (eg , distinguishing voiced - voiceless pairs a eyes - ice) should be done in conjunction with the pronunciation segment of the lesson , as should practice on cognate words whic students recognize in their written form but not in their spokes version.   Exercises on the grammatical code , such as distinguishing between he's eaten and he's eating , should be done in conjunction with the grammar segment . We also practice recognizing varieties of speech (the formal - informal distinction) in the grammar class as it is primarily the grammatical patterns which trouble the students, but such practice can equally well be done anywhere in the curriculum Many listening comprehension exercises lend themselves par ticularly well to work in the language laboratory . The students are set a specific task such as answering questions or solving a problem. When they complete their task , they check their own work from an answer key so that they get immediate feedback on how well they have done. As with all work, it is important that the students have some tangible record of how they are performing, and the immediate correction of these exercises gives them an evaluation and record of their performance as well as responsibility for their own progres. laboratory is not available , a tape or cassette recorder in a quiet corner of the classroom is excellent for group work , and teachen who are not native speakers of English should especially try to us as.

H. Joan Morley and Mary S. Lawrence , "The Use of Films in Teachi English as a Second Language," Language Learning 22, no. 1 (June 1971 101-3)

many exercises as possible which have been recorded by native speakers.

Format and Presentation of the Exercise

Typically the format of a listening comprehension exercise consists of a page of oral language of various types - narration, description . tion, etc - and a set task for the students to complete as an cator of the degree of their comprehension. Common tasks are wering questions, solving problems, taking dictation, and even drawing pictures to correspond to the information given The steps of a listening comprehension exercise are similar to those of a promunciation lesson:

1. Selection of the teaching point

2. Focusing of students attention

 3. Listening and completion of set task

4. Fendtuck on performance

Step 1: Selection of the teaching point

The subsequent list of techniques for specific teaching points will suggest the range of items students need to practice on. The important point to be aware of is that structures and vocabulary be controlled so that exercises are not beyond the students ' level of proficiency.

Step 2: Focusing of students ' attention

The students must be aware of the purpose of the exercise in meal and the nature of the specific task in particular before they listen to the passage . An easy way to alert them to what they are ing to do is simply to say: "Today you're going to listen to an eine which will help you understand native speakers outside the droom." or "Today you're going to listen to." an exercise which will help you to be able to follow a classroom lecture." "The students should be given whatever written material is necessary for them to complete their task before they listen

to the passage; they should know before they listen whether they are going to answer compre tension questions (and if so what those questions are) or to draw a e . There should always be an example at the beginning of the e to help those who may not have understood the verbal directions.

Step3: Listening and completion of exerce

 If teachers read the material to the class , they must take great care to read with normal speed and intonation Students always ask teachers to speak or read stower , but such requests must be resisted. It gives the students no practice in understanding normal speech, slowing down tends to distort stress and intonation, but most of an which after all the purpose of the exercise.

rather than slowing down , teachers can play or read the exercise over again . The number of times students need to listen to an exercise depends on the length and difficulty of the exercise, on the nature of the set task, and always on the students' proficiency. If the task can be completed during the listening, and the listening i relatively easy, once is enough.   If the students must recall facts in order to answer questions after having listened , they may need to hear the passage more than once . The students themselves are the best judge of how many times they should listen to an exercise . If they have difficulty with a passage , they will want to listen more than once ; if they find a passage easy . listening more than once will be very boring, and they should be encouraged to give their opinion freely about the number of times they want to hear a specific exercise.

Step 4 : Feedback on performance

The easiest way for students to receive feedback on their performance is to supply them with an answer key and have them correct their own answers. The teacher should regularly check on their progress so that

recognition can be given to those who do well and help given to those who are having difficulty.

TECHNIQUES FOR SPECIFIC TEACHING POINTS

Techniques for listening comprehension can be classified a cording to the various teaching points: (1) exercises on the phonological code, (2) on the grammatical code, (3) on the message at the sentence level, (4)) on variations of language style , or (5) on the total meaning of a passage or communication situation . Each point needs to be taught in increasing complexity as the students progres in their learning , i.e. , advanced students will still need work with the grammatical and phonological codes, but the structures will be more complex, and beginning students should also be given an introduction to other than a formal spoken style. Some exercises , however , such as .

taking notes from lectures and listening to radio programs, are not feasible with beginning students because they are not proficient enough in English. The following activities have been organized according to teaching points, and the order coincides roughly with increased proficiency.

Decoding Sounds, Stress and Intonation, and Sound - Symbol Correspondence

The aural discrimination exercises discussed in the chapter on pronunciation should be used as models for practicing the segmental phonemes. Our students need further practice with the supraseg mentals, stress, and intonation, because of their effect on the spoken language as opposed to the written language, which the students may already comprehend.

An important aspect in work on listening comprehension is to teach the students the relationship between the spoken and written forms of the language. Students frequently fail to understand the spoken form

of an utterance which they recognize perfectly well in its written form. Morley suggests two exercises, one on vowel reduction and the other on word stress. The students are given a printed set of sentences and are instructed to circle the word containing the reduced vowel or to mark the stressed word as the teacher reads the sentences. The number of items to be marked is in parentheses at the end of each sentence.

Vowel reduction

 Example : (Can) (you) come to the party ? (4)

 1. Do you want bacon or eggs? (3)

 2. I would like a sandwich and some French Fries. (4)

Stress

 Example : Someone had closed the door. (3)

1. It was after midnight when I stopped working . (4)

2. I started to get ready for bed. (3)

 Joan Morley, "On Developing Listening Comprehension Lessons and Complementary Activities: Some Practical Methods and Materials for the Classroom" (Paper delivered at Materials Development Conference, Univer city of Toronto, June 1971).

The sentences in these exercises can be based on the structural patterns in the grammar component of the curriculum that the students are learning for production. At more advanced levels, the exercises can be used with dialogue material to teach the students the stress variations in developing conversations (see pages 112-13). Another kind of listening exercise, which we use in the reading class for vocabulary development, helps the students recognize the sounds of the words they are learning as well as giving them practice in rapid listening. The students have a printed list of a dozen or so new words .

The teacher reads the words in random order and the students mark the words 1, 2, 3 , etc. in the order they are read . Number the following words in the order in which you hear.

them :

features   inrervals   purposes

practice   set   pattern

numerous   impossible   certain ?

 A more difficult exercise requires the students to listen to a whole passage and mark the member of a pair of printed items which they hear. Here is an example from Barnard : practice numerous set intervals

(a) country - countries To

 (c) lighter – light

 (g) label – level

 (h) Nigeria - a given area

 (k) situation - situated

 Exercises like this can be used for practice with grammatical structures as well as for different sounds that the students have trouble with.

Decoding Structures

 Listening comprehension exercises commonly form part of the grammar class to give students practice in recognition of grammatical elements . (See the examples of discrimination drills in Chapter 1.) At Helen Barnard , Advanced English Vocabulary , Workbook One (Rowley , Massachusetts : Newbury House Publishers , 1971) , p . 117 . Ibid , p 133.

the beginning levels , the students listen to the same - different drills and to drills which require them to identify grammatical categories of patterns. The following are some other exercises which help direct the students' attention to the grammatical features of the language they hear .

Dictation

Old - fashioned dictation exercises are excellent practice for listening comprehension. Dictation can take two forms , either spot dictation or the dictation of a complete passage . In either case the procedures are essentially the same . First the passage is read (either by the teacher or on tape) at normal speed as the students listen. Then the passage is repeated in " meaningful mouthfuls " with pauses for the students to write . (The meaningful mouthfuls are rather short for beginning students and increase in length as the students' auditory memory increases. The length of the pause is geared to the slower students, so everyone has time to write.) Finally the passage is reread at normal speed so the students can check and if necessary correct their work .

Spot dictations require the students only to fill in the blank spaces of the written passage they have before them and therefore need not be as controlled as complete passage dictation. That is to say , the written passage may contain structures which the students can recognize, but not necessarily produce. Complete dictations should only contain material which the students have already studied for productive use for which they are excellent review exercises. Here is a sample spot dictation which reviews present continuous and present perfect:

The local football team is in first place. They (have beaten) every other team in their league and now they (are leading) in the race for the trophy. The team star (has given) a warning to the opposing team : " We (' re giving) you one chance to score , but after that we (' re

eating) you alive . " The opponents do not seem afraid , however , and (are continuing) their practice sessions.

Morley adds a repetition phase to her listening and dictation exercises so that the sequence is (1) listening, (2) repeating, and (3) writing. The students hear a sentence, repeat it, hear it again, and then write it. They then are instructed to check their answers as they listen for the third time . Each blank that the students fill in has the

number of words in parentheses at the end of the blank For example :

1 . —————————— (9 words)

The students hear : Did you buy this car or the other car ?

2. —————————— (6 words)

The students hear : The teachers gave us the directions "

Our students do these exercises as part of their languag . The students check and record their own scores . At the beginning laboratory program . The teacher puts the answers on the board , and level , each lesson should also be checked by the teacher because students often overlook mistakes, especially when their native language does not use the Latin alphabet.

Barnard uses dictation in another type of exercise which helps the student comprehend grammatical relationships and focus on particular features such as article usage , verb morphology , prepositions , etc. The students listen to a passage and attempt to complete the exercises as follows: The passage ' The Scarcity of Diamonds ' will now be read to you . When you hear the following adjectives , write the articles (if any) which precede them and the nouns which follow them . (a)

(a) —————————————— any natural

(b) ————————————— special ————————————

(c) ——————————— Listen to the passage ' The Scarcity of Diamonds ' once more , and write the uncountable nouns that you hear . 10

The students' attention is thus focused on various grammatical aspects of the passage and, as a final step, all the features are recombined in a complete dictation of the same passage.

Exercises for Recoding

The phonological and grammatical exercises presented above are necessary to focus the students' attention on the forms, but they will never become fluent listeners unless they have practice in decoding meaning as well. To help the students to be able to recode what they hear for retention, they are given practice with structures which have similar meanings.

Joan Morely , Listening / Writing : Understanding English Sentence Structure (Ann Arbor , Michigan : English Language Institute , 1974) , p . 13 . 10Barnard , p . 133 .

Exercises like the following are commonly found in grammar

tests :

" " Circle the sentence which has the same meaning as the one you hear .

T : The man is going to work tomorrow for the first time in months . Answers :

1. The man hasn't worked for a long time.

2. The man doesn't like to work

3. The man is going to work for a few months.

Unless the students understand " for the first time in months " they are not likely to choose the correct answer . Such exercises should be done

in preparation for taking notes . The next step is to read a passage and have the students write a one sentence summary . A similar but more difficult exercise requires the students to listen to a passage and then check all the appropriate answers . The specific teaching point of the following exercise is the subordinators (in spite of unless, because). We do not teach all of these for production, but the students must comprehend them when they read or hear them. The teacher reads a short description of a situation and the students check the appropriate answers :

T : Bill is not doing very well in biology , a course he has to pass in order to graduate . His friends want him to go to the movies tonight . He doesn't know if the professor has scheduled an exam for tomorrow . He's going to call a classmate and if there is a test , he can't go - he'll have to stay in and study .

Answers :

1. Bill can go unless he has a test.

2. Bill will go because he doesn't have a test

3. Bill won't go if he has a test.

4. Bill can go if he doesn't have a test.

5. Bill won't go unless he has a test.

Listening for the Message

In addition to exercises which focus on specific aspects of form, students need practice in listening to entire passages where the main purpose is to extract the message rather than to concentrate on specific words or phrases. This is not to say that the exercises do not have discrete teaching points ; many of them do , such as the use of prepositions in the first exercise below . The student's attention , however , is focused not on the code , but on the problem to be solved

or the questions to be answered by using the information provided by the passage . These exercises are designed to help the students reach the stage of the fluent listener who remembers what has bee heard and can use the information to solve problems .

exercises in listening for the message can be categorized in material heard . In the problem solving exercises, they work out the problem step by step as they listen and it is completed at the end of the reading. In answering questions , the students may take notes or anks as they listen , but they must also remember some details of what they hear in order to answer questions after the reading . The problem solving activities are often regarded as games by the students, and the others as work. In terms of developing listening skills, the problem solving exercises are excellent for motivating the students, but for the overall development of memory , they will need the others as well.

Problem Solving

The grammar teaching point of this exercise from Listen and Guess is prepositions . The students listen to the conversation and draw a picture .

 A Good morning , Joe .

 J : Good morning , Anna , Anna , today I want you to draw another picture ....

 A : How many items are there in the picture ?

 J : There are six items in this picture ....

 A : Is the table in the middle of the picture ?

J: Yes, it is.

 A : And is the chair near the table?

J: Yes, it's very near the table - but it's not in front of the table, and it isn't beside the table. But it's near the table , yes . Is it under the table ? A:

J: No, it isn't under the table.

A: Well, is it on the table?

J: Yes, it is.

Robert L. Allen and Virginia F. Allen, Listen and Guess (Teacher's Manual) (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1965), p. 46-47.

When the students finish , they compare their drawing with the one provided in the teacher's manual .

At more advanced levels, these exercises can be made much more challenging.   Here is one from Morley: The students listen to descriptions and fill in the information on the chart.

Now look at the diagram . Notice that on the left side of the diagram you find country, field, city and hobby. Notice that across the top of the diagram you find red house , blue house .... Listen to each statement . Find the correct square , write the correct word from the list below .

1. The student from Turkey lives in the middle house. Write Turkey in the correct square .

2. The student in the field of Engineering lives on the far right. Write Engineering in the correct square .

13. The student on the far right is going to Boston.

Country

Field

City

Hobby

Red House

Blue House

Green House

Turkey White

House Purple House

Engineering

Boston

As a final step in the exercise , the students are tested their information by answering questions:

1. Who plays the guitar?

2. Who is going to study in San Francisco ?

Joan Morley, Improving Aural Comprehension - Student's Workbook. Readings. (Ann Arbor: The University of Michigan Press, 1972), p. 76-7 Joan Morley, Improving Aural Comprehension (Ann Arbor: The University of Michigan Press, 1972), p. 137 . 14Morley, Improving Aural Comprehension - Teacher's Book, p. 77.

Answering Questions

As we said above , these exercises require the students to remember some of the information they hear in order to respond correctly to questions following the listening.   In all cases , they have read the questions before they listen ;   The main difference between these exercises is that some require the students to " take notes " by filling in information as they go along , whereas the others require the students just to listen . Here is one for beginning students . The teaching point is the cardinal and ordinal numbers . The students fill in the blanks as

they listen and the comprehension question is based on the information they have filled in .

Tape : . Cardinal Numbers

Example : 1 . She is 16 years old .

1. The coat cost dollars .

2. John bought. new ties

Ordinal Numbers

Example : It is the 25th of May .

1. California is the largest state

2 . Alaska was the state . 15

Then the students turn the page , listen to a comprehension question such as " How much did the coat cost ?" , return to their answers if on the necessary and write the short answer (50 dollars or whatever was said on the tape.)

In the following less controlled exercise, the student listens to an extended passage, takes notes by filling in the set of questions and then answers a cumulative question (number 11). order to answer the questions , the student must remember two or more sentences in some cases and synthesize the information heard .

(1) Introduction

" You will hear a short reading titled " US Geography : Some Contrasts Past and Present ." Answer the questions as You listen. Some are very simple questions ; some are more complicated questions. Notice the way adjectives are used in giving the contrastive information. used to be , "

(2) Your Task Listen : Answer the questions . Also make a list of the adjective . below) . noun phrases used in giving the information (question # 11 15Morley , Improving Aural Comprehension - Student's Workbook, p. 3

QUESTIONS

1 How many states are there in the United States ?

2 How many were original states ?

3 Why are they called " the original " states ?

6 Alaska is ——————— Texas . Give the size comparison .

 " Alaska is ——————— Texas

9 What are the highest and lowest altitudes to be found in the United States and in which state is each located ?

Highest

              number of feet   name of place   state

 lowest   number of feet   state

              below sea level

11. List as many of the adjective noun phrases as you can remember Example : " oldest state "

In the spoken passage , the order of information for question 9 is from right to left , ie , the state is given first , then the height and then the name of the place , adding to the difficulty of answering the question .

 In the second type of question answering exercise , the students listen to short passages and then answer comprehension questions on the whole passage At beginning levels , simple conversations work very well . The students listen and then answer questions as the teacher poses them :

Inspector Robert Jones is a detective .

He lives near a library .

Inspector Jones is in the library now .

He is talking to Miss Green .

Miss Green is the librarian .

Inspector Jones : Good morning , Miss Green .

Miss Green : Good morning Inspector Jones

Can I help you ?

Inspector Jones : yes you can

I'm looking for a good book .

Miss Green : This is a good book

Inspector Jones : What is it ?

Miss Green : It's a detective story .

Morley on Devloping Listening comprehension Lessons .

Inspector Jones : Miss Green : Good ! I like detective stories .

What's the murderer's name ?

I can't tell you that , Inspector .

I'm a librarian .

I'm not a detective .

The questions provided with this passage are all information questions which can be answered directly from the passage , such as " Is Robert Jones a detective ?" "Can Miss Green tell him the name of the detective?" etc.

Students above the beginning levels need experience with exercises on a variety of topics . We use exercises with passages selected from local papers, magazines, radio editorials, i.e. , materials written for native speakers . The students listen to the passage and then answer multiple choice or true - false questions . Here is an exercise by Francis:

FROM : The Pittsburgh Press , May 27 , 1973

Innocent Bystanders

In 1964 a young lady named Kitty Genovese was assaulted and murdered outside her apartment in Queens, a borough of New York City . What differentiated her murder from most others was that several of her didn't want to get involved .

neighbors saw or heard the crime . They did nothing about it because they, as a result of the Genovese murder, psychologists began studying what they call the "bystander effect." This is a form of social behavior which holds that individual bystanders are more reluctant to help in dangerous situations if they are surrounded by other non-responsive onlookers . There is safety in numbers when the numbers are inclined to do nothing . They are alone, Individuals are more inclined to help out in dangerous situations when Peter Levy associates at the University of Illinois, writing in a recent issue of the "Journal of Personality and Social Psychology," reveal, as a result of their controlled experiments, that the more one is surrounded by passive bystanders , the less likely he is to get involved in any situation , safe or dangerous . In short, to avoid involvement, the best and psychological protection. factic is to disappear into the faceless crowd . It provides maximum social L. G. Alexander, Question and Answer: Graded Oral Comprehension Exercises (London: Longmans, 1967), p. 10 .

Auctione You will hear the passage once . Then turn to your answer sheet .

You will see a series of statements referring to the passage . Decide whether each statement is true or false Indicate your answer by encircling the correct myvice

1. Kilty Genovese's murder was different from others because several people witness it without doing any thing.
2. A True

 B. Fals

 2 Her neighbors did nothing about it because they didn't want any complications.

  A: True

 B. False

 3. What psychologists call the "bystander effect" means that individuals are never willing to help out.

 A. True

 B. False

 4. People are less inclined to help out when they are alone.

 A. True

 B. False

 5. Individuals may avoid involvement in a situation by disappearing into a crowd.

 A. True

 B. False

Teaching Variations of Style

Students are normally taught the fairly formal English of the droom and textbooks, which makes it difficult for them to nderstand the informal English they run into in the street. Students live in an English speaking environment need practice with nderstanding informal English although they should not be taught it for production . Only very advanced students (who have no trouble

"Gladys Francis," "Listening Comprehension Materials," (Pittsburgh: University of Pittsburgh, English Language Institute, 1973). The reading passage is taken from the Pittsburgh Press, May 27, 1973.

with listening comprehension) are proficient enough to keep the styles separate in their production. But our students always complain that they have trouble understanding people outside of the class room , and they need help in sorting out the characteristics of informal style which contribute to their difficulty.

We use dialogues for this purpose . The teacher introduces the dialogues by asking the students if they speak - in their language in the same way to their teachers , parents , and friends own They don't , of course , as they are well aware , and the class briefly discusses the variables (speakers , situation , content , mood , channel , etc.) which affects the choice of speech style . Then the teacher reads the dialogues at natural speed with all the ellisions and contractions

A. Variations on a Theme #1.

Last weekend , Bill went to see a very popular movie , starring one of his favorite actors and a beautiful young actor. He's discussing it with Nancy .

Nancy : Hey, Bill. What did you do over the weekend ?

Bill : Saw the new flick with Peck and Welch

Nancy : Oh, yeah? How was it?

Bill : Peck was great as usual, and well, you don't go to see great acting from Raquel.

Nancy : Know what you mean . All the guys go to watch Raquel . For me Peck is the drawing card . Gotta go to class see you later .

Bill : So long.

On the way home on the bus, Bill sits next to a lady who lives down the street. She is a good friend of Bill's parents .

Mrs. Cassetti : Did you have a pleasant weekend , Bill ?

Bill : Yes , thank you . I studied quite a bit , but Saturday I took the evening off and went to the new movie with Gregory Peck and Raquel Welch.

Mrs. Cassetti: Oh, did you? Did you enjoy it ?

Bill: Gregory Peck was very good - he always is . Raquel isn't expected to be a great actress, I guess.

Mrs. Cassetti: Yes , I suppose you're right . All of the young men certainly seem to enjoy her movies . From my point of view Gregory Peck would be the reason for going I have to get off here . It was nice to see you , Bill .

Bill : It was nice talking to you . Goodbye , Mrs. Cassetti.

Mary Newton Bruder, MMC-Developing Communicative Competence in English as a Second Language (Pittsburgh: University of Pittsburgh, Center for International Studies, 1973), p. 173-4 .

The students do not look at the dialogue as the teacher reads the first time, contrary to the procedures for using dialogues to introduce grammatical structures when they do follow the reading in their text. What we are after is the shock value of not comprehending the first dialogue at all and the second version almost completely. The students then receive copies of the dialogue and read silently as the teacher repeats the reading .

The teacher then writes sound, grammar, and vocabulary on the board, elicits from the students how the dialogues differ in these categories and writes the differing items under each heading. Such discussions serve to make the students sensitive style differences and facilitate their comprehension of informal English . The students later listen to the same dialogues in the language laboratory .

Total Meaning of a Passage: Listening to Lectures and Taking Notes

Students like ours, who plan on attending universities where English is spoken, need specialized listening skills. They must be able to understand long lectures and to take notes and make summaries from such lectures.

Stage I. Our students follow a series of lectures which are arranged so that the students are given a steadily decreasing amount of information about the lecture as their note - taking skills . At Stage I the students are introduced to basic considerations of note - taking and given a list of common symbols (& = and ; : = therefore ; → = becomes) and abbreviations (e.g .; i.e.) . They are also given lists of the common rhetorical devices and expressions which speakers use in organizing their lectures.

NOTE - TAKING CUES

Besides having to write rapidly, you must know how to determine what is important and should be written down in your notes , and what is not

important or redundant and can be left out. Certain words and phrases can signal you that the lecturer is introducing ideas or emphasizing a specie points, the lecturer may say, "First..Second, and so on. point. For example, to let you know that there are several importan Here is a list of words and phrases that signal different ideas. Study them so that when you hear them you can recognize their importance and function.

Introduction of an Idea

 Numerical Statements

idea topic subject that I intend to theory Contrast of several Ideas although . first In the second place . third causes results reasons consequences . Even if .... However . discuss define talk about

Rhetorical Questions

 (Rhetorical questions are merely statements in the form of a question . No introducing a topic to be discussed .) answer is expected to the question ; instead , it is often used as a way of

Why is a demand curve downward sloping ? What caused the fall of the Roman Empire ? Development of an Idea

cause a further reason Another IS important of interest useful significant explanation. Unless... Whenever....

Purpose or Result

 In order that .

  As a result of

Therefore.

 Transition of Ideas

Let us

 look at

consider

think about

turn to ....

If

these facts

what we have discussed

these ideas

our hypothesis

Chronology of Ideas First ... Another ... In the beginning ... Before ... Emphasis of Ideas Transition words according .... For this reason .... 18 are Let me say again .... This is important because .... was Summary of Ideas Listening Comprehension 147 Afterward . Finally ... Subsequently . At last .... true plausible correct verifiable To conclude ... In summary , let me say .... Let us review what we have discussed . The reasons stated before are .. As we have seen ... 20 then ... Prior to ... Again ... The next .... Following .... Megan Trow - Madigan , "Developing Listening Comprehension : Model Exercises to Develop Note - taking Skills ," (Pittsburgh : University of Pittsburgh : English Language Institute , 1974 , ms.)

The teacher then introduces the topic of the lecture and hands out a list of important vocabulary items, some with their gloss and others without:

VOCABULARY WORDS FOR "HOUSING AND THE ELDERLY IN PITTSBURGH"

The following words are given and defined by the lecturer in the context of the lecture:

generation gap

ancillary

mates

digress

status

pioneer program

liaison

Food Stamp Program

hair technicians

The following words are used by the lecturer but are not defined:

Urban Redevelopment Authority a government agency that is in charg of building new roads, houses , and public facilities , especially in an area that are old or poor in a city to tear down a home to destroy or demolish a house in order to build something else in its place components parts , as in " there are three components to the program for aiding the elderly " Janitorial services the work performed by a person who cleans of maintains a public building arthritis a painful condition of the jo ints in the body ; It often occurs the fingers or elbows when a person becomes older fall foliage the leaves on the trees during autumn are brightly colored yellow , red , and brown , and are no longer green bingo - a popular game played by groups of people in which ca containing letters and numbers are completed horizontally , vertically , or diagonally when the numbers are called out by a person in charge of the game

The students are also given a detailed outline of the lectures they are about to hear . These handouts are best given a day before the lecture so the students can study the vocabulary and outlines at home without wasting valuable class time .

HOUSING AND THE ELDERLY IN PITTSBURGH

I. Problems of old people in Pittsburgh

A. Not enough public housing

1. 5000 on waiting list

2. Some sleep in parks

B. Loneliness

C. Generation Gap

1. Everyone over 62 years of age is put into the same category

2. People who are 62 have different problems than people who are 92

D. Losses suffered by old people

1. Physical health

2. Income

3. Mates: husband or wife

4. Homes , due to urban redevelopment

5. Status

6 Interest in life around them II. Three part ancillary (supportive) program to aid old people

A. Social Services

1. Help elderly with governmental agencies

a. Food Stamp Program

b . Social Security Administration

2. Help elderly with transportation and appointments at medical clinics

B. Homemaker Services

1. Help elderly who are unable to care for themselves or their apartments a . Scrub floors , wash windows b . Personal care : bathing , washing hair

2. Try to keep the physically aged , psychologically , and socially independent as possible and out of public institutions long

C. Volunteer component

1. The " fun " part of the ancillary program

2. Tries to entertain the aged by trips , tours

a Flower show

b . Aviary to see the birds

c . Fall foliage

3. Movies

4. Bingo

5. Beauty academies send students to style hair

6. Immunizations against influenza ("flu" shots) The next step is the lecture itself. Following the lecture , the students discuss any questions with the speaker . Once the students I have gained some expertise in listening to lectures and taking notes, we try to bring guest speakers into the classroom, partially for variety, but primarily to accustom the students to various manners of speaking.

Stage II is done in the laboratory , where the students listen to a second lecture on the same topic. The students have before them a vocabulary list, a less detailed outline, and a set of comprehension questions to be answered after listening to the tape. They are instructed to read the questions before the lecture so as to focus their listening on specific points of information. **Stage II** . The students are given an outline with the basic points and blanks which they fill in as

they listen to the lecture. They then answer comprehension questions on the basis of the notes they have taken:

PURE AND APPLIED SCIENCE

I. Science

 A. General definition of science ——————————————

B. Shortcomings of the definition doesn't distinguish between pure (theoretical) science and applied science (technology) .

II . Pure science

 A. Definition development of theories or models which explain relationships among different phenomena .

B. Examples

1 . ——————————————

2 ————————————————————

————————————————————————

III. Applied science

 A. Definition - the application of the working laws or principles of pure science to the practical affairs of life and to the increase of people's control over their environment

 B. Examples

1 . ——————————————

2. ——————————————

3 . ——————————————

IV . Relationship between pure and applied science

 A. Applied science is practical extension of pure science such an inc

1. Theoretical investigation of radioactivity applied to cancer treatment.

2.————————————

3.————————————

4 .————————————

B. Applied science stimulates pure research such as when the applied scientist discovers answer each of the following questions in complete sentence discovers ————————————

_____

_____

_____

Answer each of the following questions in complete .

1. What is the definition of science contained in this selection ?

2. According to the author of this lecture, what is the difference between pure and applied science? 3. Give at least one example of pure scientific research contained in this lecture .

4. Give at least one example of applied science or technology contained in the lecture.

5. Briefly explain the relationship between pure and applied science as it is described in this selection .

6. Give an example of how pure scientific research is applied to practical problems in your own field of study #2 "Gary Esarey, Patricia Furey, John Hoover, Judy Kettering, Howard Selekman, "Exercises for the Intermediate ESL Curriculum" (Pittsburgh University) of Pittsburgh, English Language Institute, 1974 ms.)

Radio and TV are excellent sources , but the teacher can also collect samples of conversations with a cassette or portable tape recorder Snatches of conversation can be put to good use in training the students for standardized listening comprehension tests.

Woman :

Man : I wonder if Eleanor Lee is still working in the shoe factory I thought I'd told you . She's a cashier in that new coffee shop the one across from the bus station, her brother says. I was talking with him in the post office yesterday . He works there you know .

Third Voice: Where is Eleanor Lee working now?   Circle the right answer . Student's Answer Sheet : Woman :

Man :

A : In a bus station

B : In a coffee shop

C : In a post office

D : In a factory , 25

The following exercise requires certain cultural information

Woman : Dear , I'm hungry . Aren't you ?

Yes , come to think of it I am . (Lifting of telephone and dialing) Room service ? Please send a menu to 320 right away Question:

Question : Where is the couple?

The exercises are contrived ones , but this kind of problem c be worked out for the conversations captured on the tape record Live demonstrations of various types can be recorded , especial if they are the type which have " audience participation . " Moriy exercise on " How to Run a Film Projector "is a five mina demonstration with one

person doing the explanation and listene who interrupt to ask questions and get clarification on certain post. The student listens and writes down the steps in the presentation an is asked questions about the number of voices , the domination one or more questioners , etc.
26

The teacher should check with local radio and TV netwo regarding the policy for use of broadcast materials in classes .

25Virginia F. Allen, "Listening and Reading" (paper read at the NAFSA Conference), p. 5 . Morley. On Developing Listening Comprehension Lessons.

activities can be designed . Permission is usually given on a limited basis for certain types of material, such as editorials, and in this way many listening- speaking If there is a continuing news story, the students can be assigned to listen to the broadcasts of various stations, to take notes , and then to discuss variations in coverage in class . If there are talk shows onl the local stations, the students can be assigned to record opinions on a specified topic to be discussed in class the next day.

The students can be asked to watch a TV documentary which will then be discussed in class . It is best, however, if they have a specific question in mind before they watch. Listening to the radio or watching TV in a foreign language is extremely difficult because of all the cultural information which the students do not yet have. If we want them to be able to use radio and TV as sources of learning , they will need specific guidance. An assignment such as " watch Walter Cronkite tonight and we'll talk about the news tomorrow " will do little to teach them how to listen . Instead , they should be told " Watch the news tonight on (channel) and be prepared to report three items from the story on (current topic) ."

For students outside an English speaking environment , there are many commercial recordings on phonograph records or tapes of readings (poetry, plays, and short stories), of old radio programs, and, of course, popular music. Our students listen to popular music in the laboratory to reinforce the grammatical patterns which they are studying. The music should be an integral part of the program, with specific goals and purposes (even if only in the teacher's lesson plan), or it will be treated as a mere diversion.

CONCLUSION

Fluent listening results only from wide exposure to the target language and much practice in seeking specific points of information from spoken sources. Fluent listening can and should be taught from the very beginning stages of language learning. The teacher's task is to provide an opportunity for the students to listen to the speech of native speakers and to sequence and coordinate such activities with the rest of the curriculum. In this chapter we have attempted, by outlining general principles, procedures, and types of listening comprehension activities, to suggest how teachers can go about providing their students with practice in listening to the target language.

Reading

READING AND VOCABULARY STUDY *

Introduction

 In spite of the fact that reading is the most important skill of all for most students of English throughout the world , it is a skill that has been much neglected in the audio - lingual tradition of language teaching , Reading was considered decoding speech written down , a skill which would naturally transfer from a command of the oral skills which were the major focus of audio-lingual programs. We now believe that the spoken and written forms of a language differ qualitatively,

both in syntax and in vocabulary, and that if we want our students to be able to read, we must teach them to do so.

" We have previously acknowledged our debt to all the instructors in the English Language Institute , but this chapter constitutes a special debt . It is permeated with Lois Wilson's thinking about and experience in teaching reading , and this is an appropriate place to acknowledge her significant Contribution , not only to this chapter, but to our entire reading program .

This chapter will deal with procedures and techniques for al - from graphic symbols . It is not concerned with decoding graphic teaching students to decode meaning lexical, structural, and cultur symbols into sound, and teachers who are faced with teaching initial reading in English as a second language are referred to the discussions of that process in other texts.

 With Goodman , we look on reading as information processing

 The reader , a user of language , interacts with the graphic input as he seeks to reconstruct a message encoded by the writer . He concentrates his total prior experience and learning on the task, drawing on his experiences and concepts he has attained as well as the language competence he has achieved

The basic assumption of this chapter and the rationale for many of the procedures to be outlined is Goodman's thesis that good readers decode directly from the graphic stimulus (decoding is the process of going from code to message in information theory) and only then encode the meaning as oral output . In other words , oral language forms no necessary part of reading for meaning . The proficient reader draws on three kinds of information, according to Goodman. The first is graphophonic information, the sound-symbol relation ship, which we assume our students already know but teach for encoding in pronunciation. The second is syntactic information , the information

implicit in the grammatical structures of the language Native speakers already know the grammar of their language and they draw on this knowledge in their reading . The foreign student needs to be taught how to do this . And finally there is semantic information: readers draw on their experiential conceptual back See , for example , Faye Bumpass , Teaching Young Students English as a Second Language (New York: American Book Company, 1963); Fe R Dacanay, Techniques and Procedures in Second Language Teaching (Dobbs Ferry, New York: Oceana Publications, Inc., 1963); Mary Finocchiaro, Teaching Children Foreign Languages (New York : McGraw Hill, 1964); Francis C. Johnson, English as a Second Language: An Individualized Approach (Melbourne: Jacaranda Press, 1971). Kenneth Goodman, "Analysis of Oral Reading Miscues," in Frank Smith, ed. , Psycholinguistics and Reading (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1973), p. 162 . Kenneth Goodman, "Reading: A Psycholinguistic Guessing Game," in D. V. Gunderson, Language and Reading (Washington, D. C.: Center for Applied Linguistics, 1970), p. 113. * Goodman, "Analysis of Oral Reading Miscues," p. 164 .

ground in order to supply a semantic component to the message . In order to do this , the reader needs access to both lexical and cultural meaning , in Fries' terms , and this aspect as well has to be taught to the foreign student. Ultimately we believe with Smith that reading is learned rather than taught , and that one learns reading by reading , in the mother tongue as well as in a foreign language , and this belief also influences our procedures.

 The objectives of teaching reading are self - evident , we read for information and for pleasure . On the very elementary level, however, reading primarily (1) to introduce basic grammar patterns and serve vocabulary items in context and (2) to reinforce this basic, knowledge.

SOME PRIMARY CONSIDERATIONS

One of the most important aspects of teaching reading is the selection of the reading text . There are some fairly obvious considerations . The reading selections should not contain marked dialect or slang features (many pocket books are unsuitable in this aspect) or old-fashioned language use (which rules out many classics in their original versions). The selections should have high interest value to the students and the simplest way of establishing this is by asking the students their opinions of the readings and then eliminating low interest selections from future curricula . The content should not contrast with the students ' own cultural values . It seems that it is easier to read what is interesting and ideologically compatible, at least at the earlier stages. Michael West argues against using readings with a local setting as it results in a vocabulary of low frequency: bullock being much less frequent than horse is the example he gives . We would argue the

 * Charles Fries, Teaching and Learning English as a Foreign Language (Ann Arbor: University of Michigan Press, 1945). * Frank Smith, "Twelve Easy Ways to Make Learning to Read Difficult," in Frank Smith, ed. , Psycholinguistics and Reading (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1972), p. 184 . Jonathan Anderson, "The Development of a Reading Laboratory for Second Language Learners," RELC Journal 3, nos. 1 and 2 (June December 1972): 50-59. Michael West, Learning to Read a Foreign Language (London Longmans, Green, 1955).

opposite ; students need the vocabulary of what is relevant to their world . It is also casier to learn to read when the cultural background is familiar and students can draw on cultural information in the decoding process. Actually we have had very good results with Asimov's science fiction Nine Tomorrows, which tends to be culturally neutral. On the intermediate and advanced levels, the students also need to be exposed to types of writing other than narratives and dialogues, which are the basic staple of elementary level texts. They need practice with

critical reading (decoding and evaluation) of such diverse types. of writing as descriptions and directions, explanations and analyses, arguments and persuasions, summaries, and nonfictional narration such as news reporting . history , and biographies.

but by far the most important consideration in selecting texts is the level of reading difficulty, which must be In the past , there was great emphasis on using texts which had been simplified in vocabulary and syntax, and at the very beginning levels this practice still remains a necessity. simplified or edited material toward texts which exhibit the complexity typical of unsimplified written English. great range in reading difficulty levels , and these must be ascertained . A number of reading formulas exist, 10 none of which has proved to be very accurate . The most the cloze test .

A successful procedure for determining the level of reading difficulty is there are several variations in constructing and scoring a cloze test , and we are here following the recommendations of Haskell . " In order to construct a cloze test , you select a reading passage of about 250 words for each reading selection being considered as a text . Leave the first and last sentence intact . Beginning with the second sentence , delete every fifth word throughout the reading Publications

Isaac Asimov, Nine Tomorrows (Greenwich, Connecticut: Fawcett 10 See for example Dale E. and JS Chall), "A Formula for Predicting Readability," Educational Research Bulletin 77 (1948): 11-20. John Haskell, "Refining the Cloze Procedure for English as a Second Language," English Record, Winter 1974). See also John Oller, "Scoring 151-158 Methods and Difficulty Levels for Cloze Tests of Proficiency in English as a Second Language," Modern Language Journal LVI (March 1972):

passage , leaving an underlined blank in its stead . If a word to be deleted is a number , skip to the following word and delete that instead. You will end up with a passage like this :

The test should not be timed . Students should have the to do a practice before they begin the proper , and they should not guess correctly at advised that even native the words.

The test should not be timed . Students should have the opportunity to do a practice passage before they begin the test proper , and they should be advised that even native speakers cannot guess correctly at all the words. There are two methods of scoring the cloze test . The first method consists of accepting as a correct answer only the exact word which appeared in the text . The second method allows any word acceptable in meaning and structure to be counted as correct. Thus in He came down the hill (running deleted), walking would be acceptable while we walked would not. Students are not penalized for misspelling as long as it does not involve a grammatical error , such as came for come. Haskell recommends that when testing a reading selection for an entire group the exact word method of scoring be used ; There is no significant difference in results between the two methods of scoring, and the exact word method is much more expedient for correction purposes, especially for teachers who are not native speakers of English. However, when testing the reading level of difficulty for an individual, it makes more sense to use the appropriate word method. (Cloze tests can also be used as proficiency tests , and then the appropriate word method should definitely be used.)

Anderson reports on a study which calculated the cloze scores corresponding to the traditional levels of reading , the independent level , the instructional level and the frustration level. [1][2] At the independent level , students read on their own without difficulty ; at the instructional level , students can read but need assistance and instruction from the teacher ; and at the frustration level students

become hopelessly bogged down even with the teacher's help . Jonathan Anderson, "Selecting a Suitable Reader': Procedures for Teachers to Assess Language Difficulty," RELS Journal 2, no. 2 (December 1971): 35-42.

Anderson does not state for which method of scoring the calculation was performed but it seems likely these figures are for exact word scoring: Levels of reading

Independent level	Cloze test percentage scores
Instructional level	Above 53 percent
Frustration level	Between 44 and 53 percent
Above 53 percent	Below 44 percent

For appropriate word scoring these figures would have to be raised . but there is no adequate research to allow for exact specification .

 Another aspect which merits consideration is when to begin reading. Some programmes, which follow the audio-lingual approach, have advocated the delay of reading or indeed of any exposure to the printed word until the students have mastered the phonological system of the target language and are somewhat fluent , although fluency may be within a very limited repertoire . This procedure was based on the belief that oral mastery was a necessary requisite to reading . This may still be true for first grade children in bilingual education programs, who are also simultaneously learning to decode graphic symbols, but adults who know how to read in the mother tongue should begin reading from the first day. Studies by both Marty[1] and Lado support this notion , and Lado concludes, "Although it is possible to learn to speak without reading, it seems a more effective strategy to learn to read simultaneously with learning to speak."

The distinction between intensive and extensive reading is basic to teaching reading . 15 In intensive reading , the student's attention is

focused through instruction on the linguistic features which enable him to decode the message , in extensive reading , the approach is similar to that of reading in the native tongue ; the student reads , at own level and pace , directly for meaning . "Fernand Marty, Language Laboratory Learning (Middlebury, Vermont Middlebury College, 1960.) Language Learning." Foreign Language Annals V, no. 4 (May 1972): 14 Robert Lado, "Evidence for an Expanded Role for Reading in Foreign 451-454. According to LG Kelly, 25 Centuries of Language Teaching (Rowley, Massachusetts: Newbury House, 1969), p. 131, Harold E. Palmer was the first to make this distinction .

INTENSIVE READING

features In questic We will discuss the procedures for intensive teaching and extensive reading separately and will begin with intensive reading because this is where the teacher's efforts are focused primarily. Intensive reading deals with the study of those features of language . syntactical and lexical, which the reader draws on in order to decode the message. Intensive reading is also concerned with related skills, such as developing strategies of expectation and guessing meaning from context , as well as with using dictionaries. The major objective of intensive reading is developing the ability to decode messages by drawing on syntactic and lexical clues , and the emphasis as in all language features . Reading is on skills for recognition rather than for production of In teaching reading, pace and variety of exercises are especially important, and that has been an important consideration in designing the curriculum which we use in the Institute. The following basic lesson organization is designed for a 50 minute lesson - on all levels and a teacher with a 50 minute class in which to teach all skills will have to modify the lesson plan. Steps 1 and 2 should always be included in a reading lesson ; Steps 3 and 4 need not be included in every lesson but should appear somewhere in the curriculum.

Lesson Organization for a Class in Reading

1 . Checking through comprehension questions handed out previously on reading assigned for the day's lesson .

2. Introducing the next reading assignment :

a . Reading 163 Giving meaning and pronunciation of new words in the next reading assignment.

 b . Giving comprehension questions on the next assignment. Beginning level : Intensive study of grammar patterns for recognition only . Intermediate - advanced level: As above plus intensive study of rhetorical devices for paragraph construction. Activity: from day to day a different activity such as word study, dictionary exercises, read and look up, etc.

(5-10 minutes) (5 minutes) (5 minutes) (15 minutes) (15 minutes)

It should readily be seen that virtually all actual reading takes place outside of class . Reading is the individual activity par excellence, and unless there are contextual constraints on the teaching situation, such as lack of electricity in the homes, there is no sense in wasting class time on actual reading. There are some exceptions to this Occasional reading in class can help the teacher spot students with poor habits, such as constant lip movement, head movement, poor concentration, and excessive backtracking. Another exception is large classes which are conducted with a great deal of group work, for which reading is eminently suitable. Yet another exception is teacher survival ; No one can teach effectively for six hours and more a day, yet such teaching assignments are more common than not. In such situations , teachers must coast through part of the lesson , and a reading period is a restful activity . These are valid reasons why students may spend class time in reading , but most of the time it is an inefficient use of class time .

It should also be noted that there is no class time spent in Leating reading aloud by the students . Reading aloud, as both Goodman and LSmith point out , 16 is recoding rather than decoding, and in teaching reading the emphasis should be on reading to decode the message. It wastes time and gives the wrong focus to the lesson to have the students read aloud . Furthermore, it is perfectly possible to read a passage aloud and not understand a word. Typically , even native speakers who are asked to read , say , a poem aloud in class will concentrate on the delivery , with little attention to the content . It is cruel to ask students to read an unknown passage aloud and then to ask them comprehension questions, yet it is often done. We do teach our advanced students to read reports aloud, a skill they will need in university seminars, but it is done in the pronunciation lesson. One final matter before we get to the details of the actual lesson. Students need to work with both a dictionary and a reference grammar One frequently runs across admonitions in the literature for students to abandon the bilingual dictionary as soon as possible To read with a dictionary is a frustrating experience at best , and to read with a dictionary where one must look up the words in the explanation as well becomes simply counterproductive . We advise our beginning students to use bilingual dictionaries and do not encourage the switch to monolingual dictionaries until the inter 16 Frank Smith, Understanding Reading (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1971).

mediate level , and then only after the students have been taught how to use them. For most general reading, a good pocket dictionary will suffice and is much easier to use than a desk dictionary, although university-bound students should own one and learn to use it. Much the same holds for reference grammars . A reference grammar of English written in the mother tongue is more efficient at the elementary level than an all - English grammar. With our beginning students , we use their regular grammar text as a reference grammar ;

for our intermediate and advanced students we use Crowell or Quirk and Greenbaum ,

Checking Comprehension Questions

Comprehension questions are in West's terms either after - questions or before - questions . After - questions are just that, questions which are asked or read after the actual reading and whose purpose is to check that the students did the reading assignment and that they understood it. More importantly, before - questions serve to focus the student's attention on the important points of the passage during the reading and are a teaching rather than testing device. They are asked or read , and occasionally discussed , before the students do the reading . Both after- and before - questions can be any of the five types of questions Norris outlines:

Five types of questions for comprehension can be described and graded according to (a) the linguistic form of the required response , and (b) the relation between the information that is needed to answer correctly and the information provided in the reading selection . I list the five types here in order of increasing difficulty for the student .

 Type 1 : Information from the reading sufficient for the answer is contained in the question itself. a . Answerable simply Yes / No or True / False Before Frank left for town , did his wife hand him an umbrella ? (Yes or No) ? Before Frank left for town , his wife handed him an umbrella (True or False) 17 Thomas Lee Crowell , Index to Modern English (New York : McGraw - Hill , 1964) ; R. Quirk and S. Greenbaum, A Concise Grammar of Contemporary English (New York: Harcourt, Brace, Jovanovich, 1973). [1] Kelly, p. 136 .

b . Multiple choice of answers is given with the question . What did Frank's wife hand him before he left ?

an umbrella, a piece of cloth, a letter

Type 2: Answerable with information quoted directly from the reading selection (WH questions who, when , where, what - usually not or how questions What did Frank's wife hand him before he left for town ? Answer : (She handed him) a piece of cloth (before he left for town)

Type 3 : Answerable with information acquired from the reading selection , but not by direct quotation from a single sentence (usually why or how questions). did Frank explain his difficulties to his wife ? Answer : First , Frank told her . Then he said .

Type 4 : Answerable from inference or implication from the reading , the information is not stated explicitly in the selection . about his explanation? Answer : Well , since she looked cross , I suppose that she ...

Type 5 : The answer requires evaluation or judgment relating the reading selection to additional information or experience of the reader What would you h ve done in Frank's place ? [1]9 Type 4 and 5 questions are rarely included in textbooks and do not lend themselves easily to written answers. It is important that the teacher remember to add such questions to the oral discussion of the reading . Students can also be assigned to prepare some

type 4 and 5 questions for their classmates . They can be very simple: "Was Snow White's stepmother a nice person?" "Why didn't you like her?" and should be included in the curriculum as early as possible. As little time as possible should be spent on going through the answers to the written comprehension questions. There is no sense at all to have each student first read the entire question aloud and then add true , false or whatever is the correct answer. The students have all read the

questions, they have them in front of them, and it is quite sufficient for the teacher to say: "What is the answer to Level: Goals, Techniques, and Procedures," TESOL Quarterly 4, no. 1 19 William Norris, "Teaching Second Language Reading at the Advanced (March 1970): 28-29. Question 1. Mary ? " and for Mary to answer simply " False . " Only where there is divergent opinion should the question be discussed . Class time is much better spent on inference and opinion questions , interspersed by the teacher among the factual questions. Teachers tend to waste a lot of time on comprehension exercises , and it is unproductive : the students have already achieved what they stood to profit from the exercise and all they need is a rapid verification of their work. what the students already know . The teacher should check that each student really does prepare comprehension questions before coming to class . Simply walking through the classroom while checking the exercises and glancing at each student's paper will usually achieve this . their papers in a different color pencil or ink and to tally up their number of correct answers . d and checked, if not each time at least occasionally, so the teacher can see how each student is doing . Depending on the situation , the exercises may be graded .

 The reasons for these procedures are obvious . First of all , it ensures that the students do the reading , a serious worry for most teachers of reading . Second, it gives the students an indication of how they are doing. Third , it gives teachers an indication of how both they and the students are doing. Fourth , and most importantly, it provides a mechanism for the teacher to react to individual student's behavior. There is nothing more discouraging to students, even with teachers they dislike , than the teacher's ignoring or ignorance of the individual's efforts and performance. Especially with reading , where achievements are rather intangible , as many records as possible should be kept .

 For a very beginning class , the teacher may want to aa lot of after - questions of the WH kind (who , what , where , when , how kind of

questions): " Whom did he meet ?"   girl ?" "This gives the class opportunity to talk in a controlled situation where the answers are simply lifted from the reading. On inter mediate and advanced levels there need not be a close discussion of the text unless the teacher wants to use the reading as a springboard for class discussion, a perfectly valuable activity but it is not teaching reading.

Introduction of

the Next Reading Assignment

Meaning and Pronunciation of New Words

The study of vocabulary is the most neglected area of all in language teaching , yet there is increasing evidence both from first and second language acquisition studies that the semantic relation ship is more important than the syntactic for receiving messages . The one thing that most interferes with our students' reading is poor vocabulary and we have recently come to accept the fact that our students have been right all these years when they have complained about not knowing and not being taught enough words.

Vocabulary study is just that , the learning of words , item by item . We distinguish between vocabulary taught for productive and receptive use . In the grammar class all words are taught for productive use , for the ability to recall and use these words for communicative purposes. We teach the more common content words , those words which have semantic rather than grammatical meaning , like dog and run and fast. But in grammar the primary emphasis is on the functors or function words , those words which primarily carry a grammatical meaning , like the auxiliaries , articles , conjunctions and the like . The students must learn most of the functors for productive use if they are to speak grammatically. In reading the emphasis conversely is on content words , but for recontceptive use , for the ability to recognize the meaning of a word in context , which is after all what reading is all about . But It is

not possible to make any absolute statements about teaching vocabulary for productive or receptive use in reading because some students will use words they have learned through reading while others will not . Reading does lend itself to the enrichment of productive vocabulary, and the teacher can indicate to the students the words they should learn for their own usage.

The two major concerns in teaching vocabulary are what to teach and how to teach it. The criteria for selection of vocabulary differ depending on whether the vocabulary is taught for productive or receptive use. For productive use the two most cited criteria are frequency of occurrence and degree of difficulty . Frequency of occurrence can be established by reference to word lists such as Thorndike and Lorge's and West's Although there are many problems with word lists , they can serve as a guide line for the selection of vocabulary if used with some common sense. The word lists are also useful as check lists ; At the intermediate level, students should be familiar with most of the words in the West list. The other criterion which is often discussed is the degree of difficulty 23 (difficulty is defined as the time it takes to learn an item), usually with the recommendation that one should proceed from easy to difficult. There are , however , serious problems with "difficulty" as a criterion for selecting vocabulary. There is no "absolute" difficulty, and although one may identify causes of difficulty as due to phonology , morphology , codability , distribution , etc. , that identification still does not allow any accurate ranking of words by difficulty. With heterogeneous classes , the task becomes hopeless since mother tongue interference is an important factor of difficulty . But more important, many words which are difficult (we can observe the difficulty by the errors made on them) are of extremely high frequency and must be taught in the very beginning lessons. Do and make are a good example of a very difficult pair, especially for speakers who have one word for the two of them. Degree of difficulty, therefore, should not be considered as a criterion

for the selection of vocabulary, but rather it should be taken into account for methods of teaching vocabulary.

In our view , the most important criterion for selecting vocabulary should be semantic saliency , the marked need for a word in order to make or understand a statement that is of importance to the speaker. The higher the semantic saliency of a word, the easier it is learned. Taboo words are a good example ; our students learn them with no teaching at all . The needs and interests of the students then 20 E. L. Thorndike and I. Lorge, The Teacher's Word Book of 30,000 Words (New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1944). 21 Michael West, A General Service List of English Words (New York Longmans, Green, and Company, 1953). Charles Fries and A. A. Traver, English Word Lists: A Study of Their Adaptability for Instruction (Ann Arbor, Michigan: Wahr, 1965). See for example M. Higa, "The Psycholinguistic Concept of Difficulty and the Teaching of Foreign Language Vocabulary," and R. Lado, "Patterns of Difficulty in Vocabulary," in K. Croft, ed.   , Readings on English as a Second Language (Cambridge, Massachusetts Winthrop Publishers, 1972).

should be the major guideline in selecting vocabulary to be taught for active production.

The criteria for selecting productive vocabulary should also be kept in mind when choosing a reading text . But once the selection of a reading passage is made , it becomes in fact the criterion for selecting vocabulary items for recognition in order to facilitate the reading . The main consideration simply should be to select the key words necessary to grasp the main plot or main theme , whatever the frequency of the words in English . It should be admitted that this is an intuitive and nonobjective process, but we know of no other. At advanced levels it is difficult to know with a given class which are new vocabulary items. The teacher can simply ask a good student to read the passage ahead

of time and to underline the words he doesn't know . We have found this to be a very helpful guide .

Once the selection of vocabulary is made , the words will have to be taught. It is probably more true of vocabulary than any other aspect of language learning that words are learned rather than taught. So it would be more accurate to say that the words will have to be presented to the students so that they can learn them. On the very beginning level the teacher reads the whole passage aloud while the students follow silently in their books. At this level so many of the words are new that we don't attempt any written glosses , and the teacher explains the meaning of the new words. Furey has listed a number of different ways of giving explanations:

1. If the word is one which the teacher feels is known by the other students and could be clearly explained by them , he might regarding refer the individual's question meaning to another member of the clas This method is particularly useful for fairly common , concrete items which can be easily explained in simple terms .

Ex : S1 : What are trousers ?

S2: A kind of clothing. Pants . (S2 points to the pants of one of the male students in the class .)

2. Especially at the beginning level , gesture and pointing out of referents in the real world is a succinct and efficient way of illustrating meaning What does put on mean in the sentence , I put on a sweater if it is a cold day. T : Making the appropriate " putting on " or dressing gestures , the teacher says " I put on my hat ," " I put on my sweater . are terms the 3. The listing of synonyms (or antonyms) , as long as they student already knows , can be an effective way of illustrating meaning .

This technique seems to be particularly useful in explaining common adjectives.

Ex : S : What is a kind person ?

T : A person who is nice , pleasant , helpful , good.

3. When a questioned item refers to a class or group of items or activities, the appropriate way of directing the student toward comprehension.

the citing of specific examples of these objects or activities may be an Ex S. What does the word continent mean ? T Asia , Africa Europe are all continents .

5 Sometimes an abstract term may be best explained by means of illustrative sentences. The teacher must be certain to use examples which clearly delimit the meaning of the item under consideration. Ex S What does the word respect mean in the sentence , I respect that man more than anyone I've ever met. T : We respect a person who is very brave. We admire and respect someone who does good things for other people . We don't like and respect people who are mean and selfish .

6. In many cases , it is possible to give a fairly lucid dictionary - type definition of a word .

Ex : S : What does lightning mean ?

T : Lightning is the very bright light we see during a rainstorm.

7. If the student has been exposed to the appropriate wordstudy materials, the teacher may direct him toward inferring the meaning from both structural clues and context. Ex:

S. What does the word governor mean in the sentence, The governor of Pennsylvania met with the president last week to try and get more money.

T : What kind of word is governor ? Tell me what kind of word it is by looking at its position in the sentence and its suffix. What does the - or ending on words mean ? etc.24 To this should be added the use of translation . If the teacher knows the students ' native language , the glossing of individual words in the mother tongue is by far the most efficient way of explaining a word at this level . We realize that such a procedure sounds like heresy to many, but there is considerable psycholinguistic evidence to support Patricia Furey, "Some Notes on the Teaching of Vocabulary," manuscript (Department of General Linguistics, University of Pittsburgh, 241 1974).

such a viewpoint , 25 and our own experience both in teaching and translation of individual words as a technique for teaching vocabu learning foreign languages bears this out. We are firmly in favor of lary at the beginning level . But this technique only works when the student knows the lexical equivalent in his mother tongue . At more advanced levels, the students learn words for new concepts for which they have no equivalent in their mother tongue, and these words I have to be taught in English, in context. Translation of an isolated word should not lead to a general discussion in the native language the translation is simply intended to forestall any discussion of words .

  Beyond the very beginning level , the teacher does not read the entire reading selection aloud but only pronounces the new words , with the class repeating them. In many texts , the new words are identified and glossed by the textbook writer , if not , the teacher will have to identify and gloss them . Words to be mastered for productive use may be identified by an asterisk .

  Here are some vocabulary items and glosses which we have had to prepare for Asimov's Nine Tomorrows , which we use with the advanced beginners. They are on dittoes and handed out in class . The words are to be learned for recognition .

1. warrant justify , defend by giving a good reason for the good quality of the cloth warrants the high price of the dress.

2. Fee a sum of money paid for a service Doctors and lawyers get fees for their services.

3. drive (n) -energy ; a force that makes one work harder that young man with drive will rise fast in the company and may become president some In writing glosses , one attempts to use simple and familiar words in the explanations , but with languages closely related to English , words we feel To be esoteric and difficult in English are often cognates and as such easily recognized by the students. They find the inclusion of such cognates in the explanations to be very helpful . With home geneous classes , a gloss in the mother tongue is also helpful . There is no need to spend class time on the explanations and glosses , they can safely be left to the students ' perusal at home . An exception to this 25 Jack Adams, Human Memory (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1967). 172

Reading 173 the students attention . These words include: are some of the "difficult" words to which the teacher should alert tend" 1. deceptive cognates (English assist - Spanish asistir " at 2. words with different connotations (English liar Spanish mentira) or values (ambitious has negative connotations in many languages) 3. words which are the exact equivalents but have a different meaning. (American second floor is many people's first floor) 4 words new concepts , ner the referent does not occur in the mother tongue (jaywalking) or the student does not know the word in his mother tongue either (morphophonemics). Learned words do not necessarily fit here, nomothetic is easily glossed in English and the concept is familiar even if the word is not. bring) 6. words for uniquely American phenomena (pep rally) But on the whole , any temptation to talk about words should be resisted. be expected to learn for recognition . In an experiment with our Spanish speaking students at the intermediate level , Levenson showed that they could easily handle 25

words and probably more . 26 These students ' major deterrent to facile reading lies in poor vocabulary , and we are putting increasing emphasis on lexical acquisition . These students are highly motivated , but it seems likely that any adult student should be able to handle 20-30 new words for each lesson. Whether he would want to is another question . Comprehension Questions on the Next Assignment As we said above , as far as possible the comprehension questions given before the reading should serve to focus the students' attention on the important points of the reading rather than being Carol Levenson , " Presentation of Vocabulary of a Foreign Language: Optimum Number of New Items per Lesson and Effect of Context, Manuscript (Department of General Linguistics, University of Pittsburgh, 1973).

Just trivial polite questions . They lend themselves very well to dealing with cultural information, such as American attitudes toward just trivial polite questions. They themselves are very well to unfamiliar lend to the students and which might conceivably interfere competition, winning and home towns, topics which are likely to be with their interpretation of the reading. Only those questions which class , the rest can be left for the students to decipher at home .

 are meant to focus on cultural phenomena need to be discussed in the format of the questions one chooses will depend partially on the kind of testing situation the students will eventually face. Our students will have to take objective standardized tests , such as the Michigan or TOEFL , and they do many true - false and multiple choice type questions , such as these on a selection from the Nine Tomorrows:

 2. Before the competition started, what were George's feelings about Trev?

a . He hoped that Trey would win , and he felt no resentment against Trev

b . He did not want Trev to win .

c . He hoped Trev would win , but he also felt resentment against Trev

4. The gray-haired man said he was cheering for Trevelyan because

a . he was from the same hometown .

b . There was no one from the man's town competing , so he cheered for the town George was from .

e he was George's friend and would cheer for anyone George cheered for . Write true or false

7 Trevelyan always wanted to work on Novia .

8. Most people want to stay on Earth rather than go to Novia. In addition to such objective questions, the teacher might add some inference or opinion questions for the students to reflect on as they read the passage. An opinion question on the reading serves very well as the topic of brief essays for the writing class .

On the intermediate and advanced levels, when the students are beyond simple narrative, they may also be asked to do outlines, summaries, paraphrase, précis writing or brief analyzes of the main points. The discussion of this work would fall under Step 4 of the lesson plan above , and should be as closely correlated as possible with the writing part of the curriculum. Preparing for the next reading assignment demands much of the   teacher's time outside of class , but in class ten minutes is ample time for this activity. But it is a crucial activity and should not be

overlooked.

Intensive Study of Grammar Patterns for Recognition

The proficient reader draws on syntactic information as well as lexical in order to decode the message of the passage. Native speakers already know the grammar of their language , and they use this knowledge for clues in their reading . Foreign students must be taught

to do so .   As Wilson points out , structural clues are especially important for foreign students because they have a limited vocabu lary and can therefore not afford to ignore structural cues as native speakers often do , 27 Another reason, she points out , for stressing the increase his content vocabulary .

 importance of structural clues is that they can help the student On the elementary level we teach recognition , L.e. , decoding only of (1) those structural patterns which occur late in the curriculum for production but are needed early in reading (such as relative clauses) and (2) those patterns which occur mainly only in writing (such as certain types of nominalizations) . The teacher "briefly presents the pattern to the class and helps them understand the significance of the word order and important function words," 28 in other words a linguistic explanation of the grammatical rule. Our assumption is clearly that reading is a problem - solving activity where an explanation of general principles helps students in their reading. 20 This exercise from Wilson will clarify the procedures:

Teaching point: One Type of Relative Clause

Step 1 Review of familiar patterns The teacher writes the following sentences on the blackboard, he L reads them aloud and the students repeat. Food at Webster Hall Hotel is expensive . Some students have a lot of money . These students cat hunch at Webster Hall Hotel " Lois Irene Wilson ," Reading in the ESOL Classroom . "TESOL Quarterly No. 3 (September 1973) 259-267. Ibid. p. 261." Ibid, pp. 261. 264-265 .

He then asks simple comprehension questions such as "Who has a lot of money?" and "Where do these students eat?"

 Step 2. Presentation of new pattern The teacher combines the second and third sentences.

Students (students have a lot of money) eat lunch at Webster Hall Hotel

He then replaces the word " students" inside the parentheses with " who " and erases the parentheses . Finally , he repeats the compre hension questions.

Step 3. Generalization

The teacher asks the class what " who " means in this sentence . He also asks them what the two sentences are in this sentence.

Since this pattern is a difficult one the teacher should present one or two additional examples using "which "and" that." At least one of these examples should have the relative clause at the end of the sentence. Possible sentences are:

The only apartments which are vacant are too expensive. There are several organizations that help people with emotional problems. After these examples the teacher can tell the students that the included sentence beginning with " who " or " which " or " that " a called a relative clause and relative clauses always follow nouns . The students are then given a set of sentences with questions to complete for homework

1. The cafeteria which is in the Student Union serves lunch and dinner. Where is the cafeteria ?

2. The men who were appointed by the chairman will go to Washington. Who will go to Washington ? It is important to remember that at this stage the students are never asked to produce the pattern, only to recognize the structural cues for accurate decoding. Allen points out that the recognition of synonymous sentences has often been left to chance, and that students need practice in recognizing which two sentences in a set of three have approximately the same meaning in exercises like this:

a. Ed had to stop running long enough to catch his breath.

b . Although Ed longed to stop and catch his breath, he had to keep running. Reading 177

c . Ed longed to stop and catch his breath, but he had to keep running "" She also points out the value of writing as training for reading. Here . is another exercise called sentence synthesis, formerly popular in British textbooks, which can be used for recognition of synonymous sentences. The class is divided into groups , and each group handed a set of sentences like this:

1. Someone asked Larry Smith a question

2. The question was about his reading habits

3. He answered.

4. The answer was that he read detective stories .

5. Detective stories take the mind off pressing concerns. They are told to rewrite them in one sentence , "When finished , each group writes their sentence on the blackboard . The sentences are invariably different and usually synonymous . The class then decides with the teacher's guidance which is the more elegant version . be done in five or ten minutes , the competitive aspect (the class makes it competitive whether the teacher wants it or not) gives it the quality of a game and is a pleasant change of classroom activity , but above all it provides intensive practice in examining synonymous sentences and their syntactical devices.The easiest way to construct such exercises is to begin with the long embedded sentence and then to rewrite it in shorter sentences, leaving out as many of the syntactical devices as possible.Teachers can either write the sentence themselves or else select a suitable sentence from the reading passage.

Virginia French Allen , " Trends in the Teaching of Reading . TESL Reporter 6, No. 4 (Summer 1973): 17. The sentence will be something

like: Asked about his reading habits, Larry Smith answered that he read detective stories in order to take his mind off concerns or when someone asked Larry Smith about his reading habits, he answered that detective stories take the mind off pressing concerns and that is what he read, or someone asked Larry Smith question about his reading habits and he answered that he read detective stories because they took his mind off pressing concerns. The first version was the original sentence , adapted from Time Magazine

A major problem lies in identifying those grammatical patterns for active use in writing . A list of such patterns needs to be carefully which should be taught for passive recognition in reading and later correlated with levels of proficiency , as some patterns will cause intermediate but not to advanced. Truly advanced students should be difficult to beginning students but not to intermediate and some o ideally be beyond sentence level work on recognition of syntactic clues. We know of no such systematically established list and the our own experience . It is intuitively ordered on the bases of student following is a very tentative outline , based primarily on Allen " and needs (really frequency of occurence), but we have no data to justify the order and list should be regarded simply as a guideline. OF GRAMMATICAL PATTERNS TO BE TAUGHT FOR RECOGNITION IN READING

1. postponed subject after it and after there is / there are (it is invariably a wise man who . ;; there are more than twenty buildings on the campus)

2. conjunctions

3. substitution words (nor did he , she said so)

4. sentence connectives (finally , moreover , etc.) and conventions of punctuation

5. passives , statives , and irregular past participles with an agent (The committee was appointed by the president .) without specific agent (The health ser vice is located in the main building .)

6. relative clauses with subject focus (The man who went to Washing ton is my cousin .) with object focus (The man whom my cousin saw went to Washington .) possessive relative clause (The man , whose cousin you know , went to Washington .) in prepositional phrases (The man (to whom I sent the letter from whom I received a letter) 32 Allen, pp. 1-2, 15-19. Some of the examples are hers, as well. See al Kyle Perkins and Carlos A. Yorio, "Grammatical Complexity and the Teaching of Reading in an ESL Program", manuscript; and Mary Eleand Pierce, "Sentence Level Expectancy as an Aid to Advanced Readin TESOL Quarterly 7, no. 3 (September 1973): 269-277 .

went to Washington .   ) Washington .   ) with ellipsis (The man my cousin saw went to

7. Nominalizations

 John's late arrival

 that John's arriving late

 for John to arrive late

 John's arriving late

 What John said

I like to see John arrive late

8. infinitives

with it transposition (It is fun to travel (John wanted to go .) with noun preceding as subject of infinitive (He was surprising . with noun preceding as object of infinitive (Stu dents should have books to read). He came to get his book)

9.present participial phrase (Traveling to Washing ton , he met my cousin .)

10. transposed elements past participial phrase (Asked about his health . he only smiled .) with subject expressed present participial phrase (He saw horses running across the plain .) past participial phrase (His work finished , he went home . With expletives deleted , the docu ment is still shocking . Having eaten the apple Adam repented .) adverbial clause in initial position (A lthough most people deplore it, graffiti are widespread.) initial prepositional phrase with subject - verb inver sion (Of special interest to teachers is the Language Methodology Center .) initial adverb with do in statement form (Rarely did he fail to do his lessons .) topicalization (Intuition as discovery procedure he rather found doubtful .) negation : scope (I don't think I can come [I can't come]) double negatives (No one has nothing to offer to society [Everyone has something])

Chomsky doesn't not pay taxes for nothing . There's a reason he doesn't pay taxes .])

Note that categories like conjunctions and sentence connecting should not be taught in one unit but should be sequenced a few at time throughout the course .

 On the intermediate and advanced levels the students should primarily be working on the paragraph level and above . In o taught for actual production as well , with the reading and writ program , this work is coordinated with their writing classes and s skills reinforcing each other . Students should be taught to become familiar with differe types of writing . Lafene has classified these as follows :

 I. Major types of writing

1. Explanation and analysis

a . a process

b . an opinion or point of view

c . event

(s) and phenomena

d . instructions and directions

2. Argument

a . persuasion

b . refutation

c . examining both sides of a point

4. Description and summary

5. a . a thing

b . a person

c . a place d . an event

e . concepts

4.Narration

a.a series of events ; a report

b . biography or autobiography

c . historical events

d . fiction or nonfiction

II . Methods of development for major types of writing

1. Illustration and / or exemplification

2. Comparisons and contrasts

3. Partition dividing something into parts and ex plaining or describing each

4. Classification - putting things into categories 5. Definition - formal , descriptive or operational

6. Cause and effect

7. Reasoning - if therefore . 33

In order to be able to understand such writing and to reproduce it. Students must learn (i) to identify main ideas, subpoints and typically go with different types supporting details, (ii) to recognize the rhetorical devices that methods of development of ideas in writing, and (iii) to recognize those structural patterns which are typical of specific types of writing . The before - questions which students on the intermediate level are given focus on the basic points of the reading in order to accustom them to critical reading where they routinely identify main ideas and supporting details . Here are some such questions on a reading where the author argues for guaranteed income , from Plain English Rhetoric and Reader 34

 1. What is the main idea sentence for this reading passage? a . What are the two opinion words in this sentence ?

 2. List all the reasons which the author uses to support the main idea sentence

 3. List the opposition arguments that the author refutes.

 4. The reason in Paragraph

5 is weakly supported . What could the author do to support this reason more strongly ? 5. In your country , is there a system of paying money to people who cannot earn enough to take care of themselves ? Would you agree with the author's proposal in your country Briefly support your answer . The students answer these questions in writing as homework and the questions are then discussed in class the following day. Care should be taken in constructing the questions that the students cannot answer simply by copying sentences from the

reading but have to summarize and synthesize. The students correct their wrong answers themselves but with a different color pen so that the teacher , when checking their homework , can tell both how well they did with the reading and how well they followed the class discussion . A large number of uncorrected wrong answers signals serious problems . Julia Lafene, "Prospectus for Suggested Project for Materials Development," manuscript (Department of General Linguistics, University of Pittsburgh, 1974). G. Cowan and E. McPherson, Plain English Rhetoric and Reader (New York Random House, 1970) The questions are written by Lois Wilson

The students need to learn for this particular reading passage the rhetorical devices which typically go with persuasive writing (in case that , in as much as , or not , etc.), and sentence such as conjunctions which show condition , concession or contrad connectives which show consequence (accordingly . consequently etc.), or which contrast or limit related ideas (conversely , still le etc.) . These rhetorical devices lend themselves very well to writes exercises of types which will be discussed in the chapter on writing Persuasive writing typically uses many conditional patterns , and the students need to work on these. They frequently have difficulti with conditionals which have the if clause deleted, as in this passage:

 If he wins the election, he will carry out a thorough reform of city practice.

 He will restore the parks to their original beauty .

The second sentence has the if clause If he wins the election deleted although the sentence still presupposes that he has to win the election if there is going to be any restoring of parks . Students frequently misread such sentences and take as a statement of the fact that he is going to restore the parks. Another pattern which gives them difficulty is suppose that he won the election, which they take at face value and

think that he did win the election. The student needs to work with such patterns in class prior to the reading using exercises similar to the one on page 175-6 .

All types of writing have their own characteristics, and we have only chosen the exercises needed for one type - persuasion - in order to demonstrate the three major teaching points for each reading passage: identifying (1) the main idea and supporting details.

(2) rhetorical devices, and

(3) structural patterns typical of a certain type of writing. Students need to work through exercises on these three teaching points for all types of writing and their development.

Activities

A good reading program should contain a variety of activities, and to this purpose the last fifteen minutes of the reading class differ from day to day in the Institute. All of these activities are, however, important to a reading program and should be incorporated from time to time in any reading program, be it on a daily or occasional basis. The order they are listed in is not significant .

Word Study

Word study differs from the study of vocabulary. The study of vocabulary concentrates on learning lexical equivalences of mother tongue vocabulary and, after the beginning level, on lexical items for new concepts. The emphasis is squarely on the semantics Word study concentrates on the morphology and syntax of words in order to help the student guess intelligently at the meaning of words . We know very little about the efficient teaching of word study , and there is a tendency to have word study become a catch - all category One thing , however , should be kept clearly in mind. We are teaching decoding of words for efficient reading, and this means that the students should not

necessarily be asked to produce words through the processes of word formation they are studying. Given excite excitement students invariably come up with " combinement ," dis turbment and so on , and this is an unnecessary confusion . For reading purposes , the teaching point is the recognition of a noun form of combine but not necessarily the ability to produce combination If that is desired, combination is better taught directly as a vocabulary item. The emphasis on word study should generally be on decoding , and this objective should be reflected in the type of exercises the students are given.

There are three major areas for word study. The order they are listed and discussed in here is purely arbitrary, but somewhere in the program these points need to be covered, and we have found it most efficient to teach them for decoding purposes only in combination with the reading activities.

2. Function words which are not taught as grammar should form part of the word study program These are likely to be synonymous with more common expressions , which the students already know, so all they learn is to recognize that his talking notwithstanding and for all his talking are roughly similar in meaning to in spite of his talking . le to unless , etc. These expressions are typical of formal style and are not likely to occur in beginning level reading selections.

b. Closed list content words which do not form part of the grammar course need to be studied. They consist of such things as irregular Plurals like brethren , sheaves , plaice and the like , which countless children around the world can chant , but it really makes little sense to teach such words for productive use. On the other hand the rules for the formation of such plurals are simple and easily taught for

recognition Irregular verb forms also belong here, many of which s more frequent in the irregular form than in the infinitive , like cleft students to use in their everyday speech , but which they still need

fhung. forsaken, and slain, none of which we really would want o I did so, so will 1, I have too, etc. They need to learn words with know for their reading. They need to learn alternative verb forms he negative distribution, like hardly, scarcely, barely. This is by means meant as a complete list, but it probably represents the mo important types of closed list content word items that should be presumably taught in the grammar course for productive use.

c. Word formation is traditionally the very heart of word study is the study of roots, stems, prefixes and suffixes and their combine tion into words, as in the relationship between amaze, amazing and amazing In word formation, there are two separate teaching points (the In teaching roots and prefixes, the teaching point is the lexical meaning of the forms, often in lists like this: Prefix pre- (before) de- (away , from) inter- (between) ob- (against) in- (into) mono- (alone , one) Words 1. Precept 2. Detain 3. 4. Offer 5. Insist Intermittent 6. Monograph 7. Epilogue epi- (upon) ad- (to , towards) 8. Aspect 9. Uncomplicated un- (not) 10. Nonextended com- (together with) non- (not) ex- (out of) 11. Reproduction re- (back, again) pro- (forward) 12. Indisposed in- (not dis- (apart from) 13. Oversufficient over- (above) sub- (under) Roof capere (take , s eize tenere (hold , have mittere (send) ferre (bear , carry) stare (stand) graphein (write) legein (say , study) spicere (see) plicare (fold) tendere (stretch) ducere (lead) ponere (put , place) facere (make , do)

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14. Mistranscribe

mis (wrong) trans (across, beyond) exercises typically look like this: Fill in the blank with the proper negative prefix

1. He always connects the wires,

2. He always.

3. His work is completely. pronounces the words . satisfactory scribere (write) "One needs to be very cautious with this kind of work . Put through such exercises , our students tend to become very confused , and worse , discouraged . They become confused for two major reasons. One , even if they learn that cata- is a Greek prefix meaning down or against , there is no way that is going to help them , or us for that matter , to figure out the meaning of catalog and catastrophe , the semantic load of many of the prefixes and Roots have long since disappeared. Words like catastrophe, energy, paralysis should be taught individually as entire words, not cata plus strophe. help to the possibly as a mnemonic device .

foreign student who knows neither English nor Latin , except Second , they learn the negative run impact of dis- and then they across discern , distribute , discuss , none of which has any negative element . It is doubtful that rules (the prefix X means Y) which cannot be generated freely, and that holds for many, if not most, of the Latin and Greek prefixes, should be taught as rules. An alternative with dis is to limit the rule so that dis- is negative only if the students know the stem as a free verb form with positive aning, as approve in disapprove, like in dislike. Cern and tribute will mean nothing .

  We have found it a useful criterion to teach by rule those prefixes that can combine with words the students are likely to kw . Ante- (before) in antedate ; inter- (between) in international, out (after) in postwar, etc. This leaves out some of the most Common prefixes as ad , admit , com- , complete ; etc. , which are ply taught as an indivisible part of the word. Edward Fry, Teaching Faster Reading (Cambridge: Cambridge Univer ly Press, 1965), p 126. Norria, citing a popular text .

There is another difficulty with the exercise on page 185. There is no logical reason why it is unpleasant but displeased , and the negative prefixes have to be learned word for word rather than by rule for correct production. It is confusing as a teaching device to mix together

dis , mis , un , etc. And if readers doubt that, let them quickly explain the difference between disinterested and uninterested. If the teaching point is recognition of negative prefixes, exercises should not ask for production of prefixes. The exercise can be rewritten as :

Fill in the slot :

If he doesn't disconnect the wire before mending the stove , he will (get a shock) If he mispronounces the words , the teacher .

 Or

 True or False:

Tor F He always mispronounces the words. He gets an A. His work is completely unsatisfactory. His boss will fire him . T or F where the exercises test the accurate decoding of meaning only . If the teaching point is to learn the words disconnect , mispronounce and unsatisfactory , they should be taught separately and as entire vocabulary items. The second teaching point of word formation is the derivational suffixes, those suffixes which mark words as nouns, verbs, and adjectives.   The adverb suffix -ly belongs in the grammar component to be learned for productive use , as doing the inflectional suffixes of plurals , tense endings and comparatives . The derivational suffixes are the most important aspect of word formation study since recognition of word class is crucial in figuring out syntactic relationships, and the ability to identify words for their part of speech is the major benefit from studying the derivational suffixes. Typically, exercises call for productive use with predictable confusion, and most of what we have said about the prefixes also holds for teaching suffixes, with the exception that most suffixes do nation, nationality, and nationalism cannot be puzzled out from not carrying any semantic meaning . The difference in meaning between their suffixes : they have in common that they have something to do with nationhood and

that they are nouns and hence can serve as subjects and objects in a sentence ; their lexical meaning must be

taught separately and as whole words . However, a student who knows the meaning of nation , that -ality is a noun suffix and that - ize is a verb suffix, is more than likely to puzzle out the meaning of nationality and nationalize if they are encountered in sentences like : He was of American nationality .

 The Latin American government nationalized the American copper industry.

 and therein lies the value of this type of word study. Exercises like those quoted by Norris, such as this one:

 Fill in the blanks with a noun (plural form) related to the underlined noun in the sentence:

1. Our interest was in art and (artists).
2. 2 Our interest was in crime and ⸺⸺⸺
3. 3. Our interest was in music and ⸺⸺⸺ 37

ignore the relationship between word class and syntactic meaning They are confusing in that they bring together several forms with similar meaning for productive use where no rule exists and the items have to be learned one by one . Here are some exercises which attempt to focus on the syntactic meaning carried by the word class, expressed by suffixes: Who had more than one job, Singer A or Singer B? A. The concert singer , directed by her husband , feared failure . B. The concert singer, director of Victoria Opera Hall, feared failure. Whose identity is known , Streaker:

 A or Streaker B ?

 A. The streaker, reporter of the Pittsburgh Press, was seen in Glenshaw.

B. The streaker , reported to the Pittsburgh Press , was seen in Glenshaw . It may seem that such exercises draw the students' attention away from the main point of the sentence, but very often such information contributes significantly to the development of the leading . Surely any reader can imagine very different causes for fear of failure of the poor singer in A and B above . Many experts have pointed out the importance of predictions and expectancy in "Norris, citing a popular text..

reading, and such exercises intend to increase the accuracy of the predictions.

 predication a subject might take . Consider this exercise : Pierce stresses the need to develop expectancy for the type of

 Underline the complete sentence ,

1. Many nations contribute to UNESCO Many contributors to UNESCO
2. Many investigators of the causes of cancer Many investigate the causes of cancer which trains the students to ascertain whether they have identified the main predication of a sentence , a crucial necessity in reading. Here is another exercise (in abbreviated form) by Lois Wilson , which we use at the Institute at the advanced beginners ' level. . There are three common suffixes which identify verbs. They usually carry a meaning of causation . The most common suffix is ize .
Example :

 publicize The results of the committee's investigations have been widely publicized by the newspapers, radio and television. Definition to bring to the attention of the people . The second common suffix identifying verbs is - ify .

 Example :

 simplify The short income tax form simplifies the paper work for many tax payers . Definition: make something simple. Note: A verb with the

suffix -ize or -ify often has a close , related noun and/or adjective . The third suffix , which is less common , is - en . cample : widen The city plans to widen the main streets next year. Definition: to cause something to become wider. Note: A verb with the suffix en usually has a closely related adjective

Exercise:

 Read each sentence. Circle the identifying suffix of the underlined word . Then write the part of speech and a definition of the underlined word . Use the dictionary to help you .

1. The electric guitar requires special equipment to amplify the weak sounds made by the strings. Part of Speech Definition:

2. People on the street were deafened by the warehouse explosion Part of Speech Definition

 3. There is little chance that the government of Pennsylvania will legalize the sale and use of marijuana Part of Speech: Definition: To sum up the discussion on word study , we have made a distinction between teaching vocabulary and word study and argue that word study as we have defined it should be taught in combination with reading for the decoding of words . Accordingly, exercises for word study should not require active production of stems and affixes.

 Read and Look Up

 Read and Look Up is a technique developed by Michael West, "initially to give maximum individual practice in meaningful reading for large classes. As is occasionally pointed out, the technique is reminiscent of that some actors use to memorize scripts." The basic technique of Read and Look Up / is to divide the reading text / into syntactic word groups, / in Nida's "meaningful mouthfuls," (as this sentence is) / and then to speak them / rather than to read them aloud. / On beginning levels , the teacher will first model the reading passage , indicating by

pauses or by saying " slash " where the students are to mark word group intervals with slashes . The students then read , either individually or chorally , the first word group silently , then look up and speak it aloud from memory They continue with the second word group, and so on The major teaching Lois Irene Wilson, "Word Study Exercise - Word Formation Exercise 3," mimeographed (English Language Institute, University of Pittsburgh). Michael West, Teaching English in Difficult Circumstances (London: Longmans, Green, and Company, 1960), pp. 12-13.

 point is to train the students to read by syntactic units, but Read and Look Up is also remarkably efficient in improving short - te memory Students who have trouble with mechanical drills when the utterance length increases profit in their drill ge formance after just a few sessions of Read and Look Up . Real and Look Up can also be used for intonation practice, but on the beginning level the teacher needs to model each word g immediately before the students speak it rather than to read the whole passage at once.

  With more advanced students the teacher does not model the passage , and students do their own " slashing . " Here practice must be individual . Students should be encouraged to increase the length of the word groups . At this level , Read and Look Up becomes teaching by testing . If the teacher does not follow in the book but meny listens, the students' performance in pronunciation and intonation will test their general comprehensibility. At this level , the may benefit of Read and Look Up lies in practice for the future delivery of academic papers and seminar presentations.   But it also tests the students ' comprehension of grammatical patterns as indicated by their " slashing ."

 We should point out that training students ' short - term memory and pronunciation is not teaching reading , but rather than have the separate discussions of Read and Look Up we have gathered all these

points together in one section . Depending on the teaching point Read and Look Up also belongs in the pronunciation and gramm lessons .

Dictionary Exercises

As students use the dictionary a great deal in their reading, it's a good idea to show them how to find the information they seek. I a dictionary they will find information about the pronunciation spelling, syllable division, meaning, parts of speech, usage, and derivation of a word. In reading , it is clearly the meaning of a ware that is most important to them . And therein lies the problem : m words have more than one meaning and the problem for the students is to isolate the intended meaning by the writer . To that purpose . give students exercises like this one: Word Study Sheet - Using a Dictionary Introduction: speech (verb, noun, adjective, adverb, preposition, etc.) It is a majority of words in English may be used as more than one part

position of the word in the sentence which determines the part of speech. For example the word head can be a noun or a verb . Which is it in these sentences ?

1. Heads of companies are usually very busy..

2. The soccer player was hit on the head by the ball.

3. When the repairmen finish their last job, they will head for home.

4. Dr. Cole heads the a Sometimes there is a close relationship in the meaning of a word used as a noun and the same word used as a verb. Do you see a relationship between head as it is used in sentence (1) and head as it is used in sentence (2) and (3) . (4) ? Sometimes the meanings seem only distantly related as in sentences incer research team . Since most English words have many meanings (head has 39 meanings listed in Webster's Third International Dictionary) dictionaries list the meanings according to part of speech. If you look up the word

head in a dictionary, you will see first all the meanings for head as a noun, then as an adjective and finally as a verb.

Everyone agrees that using a large English - English dictionary is not easy . How do you know which meaning of a word to choose ? The following example will show you one way to go about solving this problem . The underlined word in this sentence may be unknown to you. The snake made threatening noises with his rattle Webster's Third International Dictionary lists a total of thirteen meanings for rattle . However because you can see that rattle is a noun in this sentence, you can eliminate the meanings of rattle as a verb. This leaves the six meanings of rattle as a noun. Using other clues in the sentence (ie, It has to do with a snake) you can probably choose the correct meaning fairly quickly- "the sound - producing organ in a rattlesnake's tail."

Exercise:

Following is a list of four words with some of their meanings. These words are then used in sentences . First decide the part of speech for the word as it is used in the sentence. Then decide the correct meaning of the word. Word List : (Definitions are adapted from Webster's Third International Dictionary) paper noun (1) a sheet of vegetable fibers 6/1000 inch or thinner document - usually used in the plural (2) (3) newspaper

Smell

 Verb

 Sentences : adjective verb noun example : (1) (1) (2) 3 6633 83 (1) to get the odor of something through the nose (2) (3) (4) (1) to affix paper to something such as a wall made completely or almost pletely of paper authorized or planned but not carried out (2) to give off an odor or scent to have a bad odor to appear evil, dishonest, or ugly the

property of something that affects the nose the general quality of something It was only a paper war Part of Speech . 2 Meaning :

1. The official government paper concerning recent economic agreements will be published next month . Part of Speech: adjective Meaning :

2. The whole atmosphere of this court smells . No one can get a fair trial here Part of Speech Meaning :

3. Paper decorations for a party can be dangerous if they aren't fireproof Part of Speech Meaning :

4. It was a crisp autumn morning and the air smelled especially fresh and clean . Part of Speech : Meaning :

5. The Prime Minister flatly denied the stories in the papers which said he would soon resign. Part of Speech : Meaning

6. Many of the new cosmetics have the smell of lemon or other fruits. 40 Part of Speech : Meaning : As soon as students have demonstrated that they can use a dictionary . In a sensible fashion, they should not have to spend time on written 400 "Lois Irene Wilson," Word Study Exercises Using a Dictionary. mimeographed (English Language Institute, University of Pittsburgh).

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dictionary exercises , which then simply become busy work . However, if thirty or forty restless youngsters need to be occupied without necessarily learning much, dictionary exercises are efficient and sufficiently time consuming. Otherwise, as soon as the students can find their way around in a dictionary (some students even need to learn the principle of alphabetic listing), dictionary work should be tied to the individual's needs in reading and writing.

Speed Reading

A common complaint about the reading of foreign students is the slow rate of their reading , and most reading programs incorporate activities to improve students ' speed of reading . This is not speed reading in the Evelyn Wood sense of the term of reading at a rate of four hundred or more words a minute (it requires near native fluency in English to profit from such programs), but simply an attempt to get students to read a little faster . As Wilson points out, students who read too slowly miss both grammar and vocabulary clues because their short-term memory is too short. It is very easy, she adds, to teach students to guide their eyes with their finger or a card on the page. We spend ten minutes three times a week on speed reading in class , and our students eventually do read faster , but it should be honestly stated that whether that increase in speed is due to the speed reading exercises or merely to increased proficiency in English , we don't know We do know that speed reading exercises increase the students ' confidence in their ability to read if the materials are easy enough . We use commercially available texts for the speed reading exercises, but teachers could easily prepare their own. The format consists of a reading passage and a set of comprehension questions . The students' reading is strictly timed, and after the allotted time is up, they answer the comprehension questions, which are then checked in class. Basically, all speed reading exercises simply cause students to attempt to read faster by putting external pressure on them. Here is an example of a speed reading exercise: Some of the notebooks that George Washington kept as a young man dre still in existence , and they show that he learned a little Latin , that he acquired some of the basic elements of good conduct , and that he read a little English literature . At school he seems to have cared only for mathematics . His was a brief and most incomplete education for a

gentleman, and it was all the formal education he was to have, sin go on to the College of William and Mary in the Virginia capital f some of the other young Virginia gentlemen of his time, he did not Williamsburg. In terms of intellectual preparation and power , then Washington is in sharp contrast with some other early American presidents , such as John Adams , Thomas Jefferson , and James Madison In later years , Washington probably regretted his lack of intellectual training He never felt comfortable in formal debate , or in discussions that were not concerned with everyday , practical matters . And inasmuch as he neve learned to speak French , he refused to visit France because he fell he would be embarrassed at not being able to speak directly to the statemen of that country. Thus, unlike Jefferson and Adams, he never reached Europe.

 The central idea of paragraph two is:

 (a) Washington's education showed an unusual variety, including as it did, study in fields as varied as mathematics and literature.

 (b) Washington's education was probably equal to that obtained by other Virginia gentlemen of his age

 (c) Washington's education may seem limited by modern stand ards, but it appears to have been entirely adequate for the duties of his later years.

 (d) Washington's education was extremely limited and probably put him at a disadvantage in later life . 41

Guessing Meaning from Context

A major problem in reading , both intensive and extensive , is the sheer number of words the students don't know. Looking each word up in the dictionary becomes prohibitive , and so students are always told to guess at the meaning and they invariably counter that they don't know how . Somewhere in the curriculum . probably at the advanced

beginner's level when students begin extensive reading . Some exercises should be included which will help them develop strategies for intelligent guessing.

In reading , when we come to a word we don't know , and this is true of reading in the native tongue as well, we first form an 41 David P. Harris, Reading Improvement Exercises for Students of English as a Second Language (Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice Hall 1966), p. 59-60.

hypothesis of possible meaning (s), based on the form and context of the word in question. The suffixes of words will usually tell us what part of speech the word is. If that fails , the word order (students know the basic function words by now) should give us enough clues to identify what class of word we are dealing with . Having considered the grammatical context of the word , we next look at the lexical and / or situational context . Lexical context refers to the meaning of surrounding words as they form a lexical cluster which will strongly influence the probability of meaning of our unknown word . Mark, for instance, as Fries has pointed out, has many meanings in Look at these sentences:

English, so how does the reader decide on the intended meaning? He shot but missed the shrdlu completely . His boots made shrdlus on the polished floor This lighthouse is an important shrdlu for pilots His shrdlus were always high in school The original sentences all have mark for shrdlu but the process of decoding is exactly the same , we guess from the meaning of the surrounding words . There is just so much that boots can make on a polished floor or that a lighthouse can be to a pilot . The lexical context will limit or fix the probable meaning of a word . If we are still uncertain, the situational context will help decide the direction of our guess. For foreign students, unfamiliar with culture-specific situations, lack of access to situational context is a frequent cause of difficulty in their reading.

Just making an hypothesis does not of course insure that it is correct. We probably would have guessed at spots in the second sentence above . Once the readers have made a guess at the new word, there are several options open to them: 1. Stop reading and check the dictionary.

2. Blithely read on not caring whether he understands or not.

3. Reread the sentence several times. "In the terminology of Edward M. Anthony." Toward a Theory of Lexical Meaning, manuscript (Department of General Linguistics, Univer city of Pittsburgh, 1973). Fries, p. 40.

4. Read the word or even the sentence aloud to himself .

5. Make a mental note of the word and read on , looking for further contexts to verify his guess. Let's try the process of guessing at the meaning of words from their context . Here is a passage from Clockwork Orange by Anthony Burgess.44

Read the following selection and then consider the questions below. What's it going to be then , eh ?

"There was me , that is Alex , and my three droogs , that is Pete , George and Dim Dim being really dim , and evening we sat in the Korova Mäkbar making up our rassoodocks what to do with the , a flip dark chill winter bastard Though dry . , what they sold there was milk plus something else. synthemesc of drencrom or one or two other veshches which could give you a nice quiet horrorshow fifteen minutes admiring Bog and All His Holy Angels and Saints in your left shoe with lights bursting all over your mozg . as we used t o say , and this would sharpen you up and make you ready for a bit of diety twenty-to-one, and that was what we were peeting this evening I'm starting off the story with. Fill in the Parts of Speech and the English Gloss . Lexical Item Part of Speech droogs rassoodocks flip mesto skorry prodding

English Glo 44 Anthony Burgess, A Clockwork Orange (New York: Ballantine Books 1962) p. 9. The English glosses are listed in the "Glossary of Nadal Language" pp. 185-190 as follows : droog friend , rassoodock mind , flip = wild ? [sic] : mesto - plac skorry quick , quickly , prod to produce ; vesh ch thing : poet drink ; vellocet, synthemesc, drencrom = drugs; horrorshow good well , Bog = God . mozg = grain ; moloko = milk).

Lexical item	Part of Speech	English Glost
Veshches		
Moloko		
Pees		
Vellocet		
Synthemesc		
Drencrom		
Horrorshow		
Bog		
Mozg		

Droogs probably is friends which the grammatical context of my three sets up , but it could also be colleagues or brothers later the situational context settles the matter of friends , Normally you would not bring your colleagues or brothers along for such an evening Rassoodock is clearly mind and we guess that primarily from the structural patter of making up our X but someone not familiar with the idiom of making up one's mind would not be able to use that clue . However , we were X what to do with the evening would give us something like planning , talking about deciding , etc. which would be close enough not to interfere with the story . We can't tell whether flip is an adverb or

adjective . If an adverb it would be an intensifying adverb , like very ; We can guess that from bastard If an adjective, it denotes some negative quality, and we guess that from dark and chill and the absence of commas. In either case , flip adds a minimum of information . Skorry is of course fast: the lexical context of forgotten and changing gives us that . Peer is interesting , the first time we run across it , it seems to have the meaning of spike or mix in peet it with vellocet , which we guess from all three contexts : grammatical , lexical and situational . But when we come to peet milk with knives in it , we feel uneasy . The lexical context still fits our hypothesis of spike but the grammatical context is strange, in it doesn't fit that pattern. Finally when we come to that was what we were peeting this evening we have an intransitive verb which rules out spike We now teformulate our hypothesis which is to say that we guess again , this fime at drink , drawing again on the grammatical , lexical and Muational context ; They are in a milk bar for recreational purposes, it is something you can do with milk, and it can be intransitive. Most aders will probably check back to peet in the sentences above to if their new hypothesis works, which indeed it does.

up Now let us examine the various options listed above which are available to readers once they have initially guessed at the meaning of the word . The whole purpose of this activity is to get students going on their reading and not constantly interrupting themselves to look words . Therefore they should be firmly discouraged from Option of immediately turning into their dictionary . If it is a word important to the passage, and the student still can't make a reasonable guess by the third time he runs across that word, then it is probably a good idea for him to look it up in the dictionary, but the point is that he doesn't stop dead the first time he runs into an unfamiliar word .

Before accepting Option 2 of just reading on , the student will word is important for the story have to make a decision whether or not . With

flip above we can safely ignore it , and students need to be assured that it is all right to ignore some words and phrases . They also need to be shown criteria for making such a decision , such a series of negative adjectives , rhetorical devices indicating repetitive statements or rephrasings , etc.

As for Option 3 of rereading a sentence , every teacher we know will tell his students it's a terrible habit for a multitude of reasons . Still , it would be interesting to know how many readers reread gor you a nice quiet horrorshow fifteen minutes admiring Bog in the exercise above . The fact is that we do reread , but not so much because we don't understand a word as because we have scrambled the syntactic clues. Horrorshow is an adjective here, and that confused most of us the first time we read it so that we could not decode the sentence - even though it really makes little difference what the exact meaning of that adjective is. We doubt that anyo can or should stop students from reading a sentence over again if it is important to the reading passage , but they need to be taught rereading to concentrate on syntactic meaning rather than on the semantic which they processed during the first reading.

 Students will read strange words aloud to themselves , and we don't know why . It may be with cognate languages that saying the word aloud obscures the spelling and makes the relationship cleare but that is mere speculation . If it helps , there seems no sense stopping it . Finally we come to Option 5, the strategy we want the studen on to confirm or reject the hypothesis . It is hopeless as well as w to develop : noticing the word , guessing at the meaning , and read to insist that this be the only strategy that the students use , but

certainly should be presented to them as a viable alternative and the one they should resort to first . They need exercises like the one above but with English words of course where they can draw on all the other work they do for reading . grammar pattern recognition, vocabulary,

word study, and dictionary exercises. They need to have the process and separate steps of hypothesis formulation and testing made clear to them so that they attack new words in a systematic way rather than through aimless guessing.

Testing

There should be frequent testing of vocabulary in combination with the reading program . We see little sense in giving formal tests on the reading itself ; Every assignment with its comprehension questions is a test of reading comprehension. But the learning of vocabulary is effectively reinforced by frequent testing , tests should be frequent (once a week) and short (10 minutes) with , if convenient , a longer midterm and final exam. The format of the test depends on the teaching point of the vocabulary items - whether the words were taught for recognition or production . Recognition words are best tested by multiple choice questions ; The time spent on preparing the test is more than made up for in correcting it. Or the students may be asked to write a definition for each word . Production words can of course also be tested in such a way , they can also be tested by a dloze test , by supplying the word to a written definition or by using the word in a sentence . But the single - the most important point is to test frequently .

EXTENSIVE READING

Extensive reading simply refers to the outside reading students do on their own with no help or guidance from the teacher . Smith and many before him point out that you learn to read by reading, and the objective of extensive reading is exactly that to learn reading by reading.

The two major problems of reading are (1) selecting extensive reading material and (2) getting the students to do the reading . Students should begin to read extensively as soon as they can Posibly manage ;

Usually this will be at the advanced beginning stage. Ideally they should be reading books that test out at the independent

level In a large class this will vary from individual to individual and since all work is done outside of class , students may very well read different books . At the beginning levels, where the major emphasis is on getting students used to reading in the target language, they will need to read books that have been adapted for second language teaching since their language skills are still not proficient enough for unexpurgated prose. At this level , bilingual dictionaries are likely to be more efficient , and no one is a more accurate judg of that than the students themselves . If they prefer to use biling dictionaries, let them.

At the intermediate level , the students need to begin to tackle unsimplified English prose . This is where the difficulty in text selection enters in . One frequently sees suggestions to use magazines like Time and Newsweek, but the fact is that their writing is exceedingly difficult and idiosyncratic, and even our advanced students have difficulty with such readings. Short stories, novels, and plays are usually the best bet. What works very well is to have the students read a book they have already read in their mother tongue adventure and mystery stories tend to have lively and natural dialogues, nonspecialized vocabulary, and not too complicated grammar. They are excellent except for the sad fact that some students don't like them , and then there is no sense in using them The students must be interested in what they read extensively. Some authors, like Hemingway, may seem to write in very simple straightforward language and so appear easy, but the complexity of the argument and the cultural references make the reading quie difficult.

Our intermediate level students at the Institute, who are going on to do academic work in their own fields, read a text on their o subject matter for extensive reading. At times it is difficult for them. becoming more and more discouraged . In order to expedite the to settle on a

final selection and they make several false starts selection of a text for extensive reading, they are given the following

exercise:

Some Questions to Ask When Surveying ing a Book or Article 1. Questions that can be answered without reading the text of the book or article . 45 This is easily tested by a cloze test passage taken from the intended text ..

1. What is the title ?

2 Who is the author ?

3. What are his credentials?

4. Is the book or article up - to - date ?

5. Are there pictures, graphs, charts, or exercises?

II . Questions that can be answered after reading a small part of the text . conclusion . (The first few lines of several paragraphs, the introduction and the

I. Is the reading level too easy, too difficult, or about right? from the title)

2. What is the topic of the book or article? (This may not be clear

3. Who is the book or article written f

4. Will the book or article be useful for me?

We then train them in the techniques of SQ3R and hope that it is not a waste of time. SQ3R , which stands for Survey. Skim quickly over the topic headings , look at pictures , graphs , charts , or diagrams , see if there are questions or a summary at the end . have surveyed . This helps you to read with a purpose , looking for specific answers and anticipating essential points of information . be faster than if you had

not first survey ed the pages and formulated questions for which you are seeking answers .

4. Recite: At the end of each section, summarize the material by reciting to yourself the important points. This helps you consolidate the information you have read , relate it to previous information , and prepare yourself for what is to follow . 5. Review: Finally, when you have finished the assign ment, immediately review the material so that it will form an unified whole. Also , when you have the next assignment in the text , review the preceding material,

surveying it rapidly to refresh your memory each section , though read separately and at different times will fit together into the total organization of the material that the author intended . 46

The teacher should be braced for a veritable jeremiad from the students after their first extensive reading assignment of unex purgated English . They should be told firmly that it will get much easier as they read along and that they should not worry about all the words they don't understand as long as they get the major outline of the reading. The important thing is to keep them reading We begin with ten pages a week for the first two weeks with a gradual increase over fifteen weeks to at least fifty pages a week.

Periodic and systematic feedback on the extensive reading is crucial in order to keep students reading . Such feedback is not only a police action (although it is certainly partly that), but our students like to discuss their readings, and they like the teacher to take a personal interest in their individual work. Without such interest on the part of the teacher , the students ' motivation to read drops off noticeably . The feedback most easily takes the form of a written report. If this is done in conjunction with the writing part of the curriculum a proper short report albeit may be expected, if not, a few sentences on a five by eight inch card summarizing the main ideas are sufficient.

Alternatively, students may give an oral report to the teacher while the class is otherwise occupied, or they may give the report to the class. If the whole class is reading the same selection for extensive reading , the feedback may take the part of class discussion or role play. It is important that the major focus is on main ideas, and that the students don't get harassed by picky questions or asked about individual vocabulary items. Not only do the students need to learn to ignore some of the words they don't understand , but they also need to learn to enjoy their reading For many students of English , extensive reading is the one skill which will stay with them long after they have finished their formal studies and is a skill which in itself holds a major reward for the study of English 46 Richard Yorkey, Study Skills for Students of English as a Second Language (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1970), citing Francis P. Robinson , P 130 .

WRITING

Writing

The last of the four skills of listening, speaking, reading, and writing has been much neglected in the audio-lingual approach and less than efficiently dealt with in other approaches to language teaching. This chapter examines the role of writing in language teaching and proceeds to discuss writing as a skill in its own right: the techniques and procedures of teaching composition.

Motives and Objectives

Writing is one way of providing variety in classroom procedures , and it also makes possible individualized work in large classes . Writing tends to increase retention and makes available a source for later, "Part of this chapter was based on an article by CB Paulston," Teaching Writing in the ESOL Classroom: Techniques of Controlled Composition, which appeared in the TESOL Quarterly (March 1972), we are grateful for permission to quote .

reference Very importantly , it provides a student with physical evidence of his achievements and becomes a source whereby he can measure his improvement . As teachers of intensive oral courses know , an accurate evaluation of increased oral proficiency by the students themselves is rare . They frequently voice the feeling that they are not progressing ; A record of the students written work may alleviate this problem.

We do know that " materials presented visually are more easily learned than comparable materials presented aurally" and certainly writing contributes to the visual presentation Another fact in verbal learning is the following . "The more numerous kinds of association that are made to an item, the better are learning and retention. Again this principle seems to dictate against the use of systems of language teaching that mainly employs one sensory modality, namely, hear ing." 2

Another exceedingly Important consideration is that of langu age ability and different styles of learning Pimsleur has one component of language learning ability "auditory ability" and he considers this " the main differentiating normal achievers from underachievers in foreign language learning . factor which accounts for differences in people's language learning ability which are not explained by intelligence or interest . " People with low " auditory ability " need to use compense tory skills such as writing in learning languages exercises for writing as a service activity which serve to reinforce and consolidate the other language skills have been discussed in the chapters on grammar , pronunciation , listening comprehension , and reading , and will not be mentioned any further in this chapter.

In this chapter we are primarily concerned with writing as a skill in its own right. Skill in writing is a basic necessity in the academic environment, and even the nonacademic student, who has no need to John B. Carroll. "The Contributions of Psychological Theory and

Educational Research to the Teaching of Foreign Languages," in Trends in Language Teaching A. Valdman, ed. (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1966), p. 105. 2 Ibid, p. 105. * Paul Pimsleur, "Testing Foreign Language Learning," in Trends in Language Teaching, A. Valdman, ed. (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1966). P 182 . Wilga Rivers, The Psychologist and the Foreign - Language Teacher, (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1964), p. 112 .

write reports and term papers, will occasionally need to write letters, messages, memos, invitations, and the likes. Practice in this type of writing is customarily referred to as composition writing beyond the sentence level , putting together words in a grammatically acceptable form and ordering the resultant sentences in an appropriate way. At the beginning level, we have three major teaching points in the writing of compositions: (1) correct form of the language on the sentence level. (2) mechanics of punctuation , and (3) content organization.

on the intermediate and advanced levels , the purpose of teaching writing is mainly to teach the writing of research papers , reports , essay , and the like - objectives no different from the teaching of writing to native speakers . But writing also serves as a reinforcement for reading , and this purpose is reflected in the specific teaching points . At this level the teaching points of composition include some work on syntax and vocabulary , but the major emphasis is on rhetorical organization on the paragraph level as well as on the overall composition level. This work includes rhetorical devices like transition words and parallelism , and outlining , note taking , the writing of footnotes and bibliographical entries .

Techniques and Procedures

The following discussion is organized according to the three major teaching points of composition: (1) correct language form. (2) mechanics of punctuation , and (3) organization of content . These

topics will be included on all levels of proficiency (with the possible exception of punctuation); it is primarily the emphasis which differs rather than the techniques and procedures. On the beginning level we concentrate on the correct language form of sentences and their punctuation, but students also learn rudimentary principles of organization. On the intermediate and advanced levels we concen trate on the organization and development of ideas, but the students still need to work on sentence level language skills.

COMPOSITION: CORRECT LANGUAGE FORMS

There are basically two methods for teaching correct language form in writing. One is free composition , where the student writes whatever comes into his head . The other is controlled composition . where by certain controls similar to those in pattern drills the student is helped to produce a correct composition. Controlled

composition has several advantages and we use it on all levels Controlled composition makes it possible to teach one thing at a time while focusing the student's conscious attention on the critical features of the language pattern . Controlled composition makes sequencing and grading of patterns possible, and it gives the student maximum practice in writing correct forms of the language, consequently, correcting is easy.

However, as we will discuss later, it is important to remember that on all the levels the students should have a chance to occasionally write free compositions, and that this practice should become frequent on the intermediate and advanced levels.

Controlled Composition

Typically a controlled composition consists of a written model of some type with directions for conversions or specific language manipulations in rewriting the model. The degree of control lies both within the

model and within the type of manipulation the student is asked to execute on the model. In a substitution table composition like the following, where all fillers for each slot are interchangeable, there is complete control, and all the student need do is copy correctly:

A (1) man (2) walked (3) down the street. A (4) girl (5) was waiting for him outside a (6) shop . As he approached her , she smiled (7) and said , " Hello. How are you ?"

(1) tall , young , well – dressed

(2) with a beard , in a black hat , with sunglasses

(3) rapidly , hurriedly , impatiently

(4) pretty , fair - haired , dark – skinned

(5) in high - heeled shoes , with an umbrella , in a pink hat

(6) chemist's , grocer's bicycle

(7) pleasantly , attractively , in a friendly manner

However, if with a beard had appeared as a possible selection in (5) it would not have been an appropriate selection, and the student must understand that in order to write an acceptable paragraph. Finally , the student might be asked to provide a suitable $ D . H. Spencer, "Two Types of Guided Composition Exercise," English Language Teaching XIX, no. 4 (July 1965): 158. See also D. H. Spencer. Guided Composition Exercises (London Longmans, 1968).

expression of his own for indicated slots . The degree of control depends on the degree of choice the student has in writing his composition .

the same sequencing from mechanical to communicative exercise which was employed for the structural pattern drills is possible with some types of controlled composition exercises. In the following

examples by Moody , which are similar in kind if not in format to Spencer's above , the first frame is a mechanical exercise :

Two of our old students

 Mr. Mrs. Oladipo

 Mrs. Ademola

 My uncle

 David's eldest brother

 He She traveled by There is complete control since all alternatives are fully Interchangeable ; students will write correct compositions as long as they can copy carefully the correct answers supplied by the teacher . It is important to realize that the students can produce a correct composition from such a frame and still not understand what they have written. For any learning to take place the teacher must make sure that the students do understand , or the writing practice will become mere busy work. Such mechanical exercises should only be used at the very beginning level. The following frame is meaningful: They went to sea train air car lorry bus because she England Logos Nsukka Zaria Badagry they he last year last week. two days ago three months ago did not have a car . could not afford an air ticket . could not go there by train knew the ships were all full wanted to get there quickly . did not want to pay too much money . Traching XIX, no. 4 (July 1965): 150. See also K. W. Moody, Written K. W. Moody, "Controlled Composition Frames," English Language English Under Control (Ibadan: Oxford University Press, 1966). p.150 .

Students cannot write correct composition if they do not onderstand what they are doing structurally as well as lexically . The control is diminished, thus, the correct response directly depends on the students knowledge of English. The information for responding is still supplied by the teacher, but there is now a right and a wrong choice for the

students to make. The final step is to have students write compositions of their own , using the same patterns as in the model but making up their own stories. In the drills this step was wwwd commonicative, since the students talk about their own world and opinions, but it may well be that in writing it is not so much communicative as imaginative. In any case , there is no control of and much less of structural patterns ; The students now supply the information for responding, and the problem-solving type of learning process is very different from the habit formation of the mechanical exercises. This type of control , then , employs several composition exercises to cover one grammatical feature , the first rigidly controlled while the last may at times come close to free composition.

There is another type of control , such as that found in Paulston and Dykstra's Controlled Composition and in Sandberg's " Drills for Writing Laboratories where the controls are relaxed throughout the program and once relaxed do not go back to a closer control on . There is no evidence that one type of control is better than another , but for the beginning levels we believe the zigzag contros from mechanical or meaningful to communicative is fecessary . No amount of mechanical writing is going to teach a productive generating of sentences , and the students need to work with the relaxed controls , albeit within very simple patterns. prefer the diminishing controls where the students gain confidence by their steadily increasing liberty.

TYpologY EXEERCISES

In the Following a list of techniques of controlling writing, there is no attempt to clify these techniques according to control, but they are listed according to type. The reason for this is that many types of controlled composition techniques can serve with Chata Bratt Pauleton and Gerald Dykstra, Controlled Composition in English as a Second Language (New York: Regents, 1973). Kart C. Sandberg, "Drills for

Writing Laboratories" in NAPSA Studies and Papers, English Language Series, D. Wigglesworth, ed. (1967).

varying degrees of control . Moody makes the same "Controlled Composition Frame" shown above serve as the model for mechani cal , meaningful and communicative writing . The teacher should be activities to the needs of the students .

 Aware of the importance of the degree of control and suit the typology of techniques has been culled from existing texts and from articles on producing materials for teaching composition. It is intended both as a guide for teachers to prepare their own exercises and as a source of reference to more exercises of these types. There seem to be basically four kinds of controlled composition where the writing exercises derive from (1) substitution tables or frames, (2) models with directions for rewriting the model, (3) pictorial control, or a combination of pictorial control and a written or oral model, and (4) exercises with semicontrol where content and ideas are suggested but with a minimum suggestion for structural patterns. This discussion is limited to techniques of controlled composition where the control is generated by written stimuli.

Substitution Tables

 Substitution tables go by many names but primarily they are referred to as tables or frames. They differ from the substitution conversions written from model passages in that all necessary substitutions are indicated to the student either by slot or by number. In the substitution exercises of rewriting models the student has to find all necessary correlative substitutions himself . There are (1) single, (2) correlative and (3) multiple substitution exercises. This is a single substitution exercise from Costinett based on a previous reading:

 I feel

Tired

 Sick

 exhausted

horrible

 today 10.

 A correlative substitution exercise may be quite simple as this one from Moody on page 210 or as complicated as the one form Arapoff[1]2 on page 211: 10 Sandra Costinett, Structure Graded Readings in English, Book Two (Philadelphia: Center for Curriculum Development, 1970), p . 78. "Moody, p. 150." Nancy Arapoff, "Controlled Rhetoric Frames," English Language Teaching XXIII, no 1 (October 1968); 31 .

Two of our old students

 Mrs. Oladipo Ademola

 My uncle

 David's eldest brother .

 He She who which He She They His Their Her The A An went there and took works teaches takes makes They produces an friends brother sister manager bus taxi old friend her them him traveled by air car lorry bus to inspect a new factory , to study at the university , to see Mr. to meet to visit went to students sea train many kinds of in the Ministry of Foreign Affairs . in the office of a big company . 9 to because England Lagos Nsukka Zaria Badagry met her his the his her 3 them him her friend sister - in - law, she they he last year. last week two days ago three months ago from many different countries of many nationalities . tires , cloth . electrical equipment . battery . did not have a car . could not afford an air ticket . could not go there by train knew the ships were all full wanted to get there quickly . did not want to pay too much

money . at the house . factory . hotel . office . airport , docks , bus station , railway station , motor park , hotel ,

(7) Hawai's wed ther The weather in Hawail

(1) Hawaii Hawaii's weather The climate in Hawaii In Hawaii the weather Hawaii's climate

(8) The climate in Hawaii In Hawaii the weather be shown to have is said to have can is said to be

(9) There are no seasons in Hawaii ,

(14) four TWO

(15) no

(16) is said to be is 15 can be considered

(2) is said to have 15 can be shown to be has doesn't have seasons in no variety, no changes, no seasonal changes n't any seasons

(17) monotonous four

(18) two

(21) seasons , changeable

(19) a lot of variety . just as more not as fess

(3) no variety ,

(10) unchangeable ,

(20) seasonal changes monotonous , no seasonal changes , no seasons , n't any seasons , changes , seasons , either too stimulating comfortable monotonous enjoyable changeable four . two . In Hawai

(22) as than

(11) while but and however although and similarly the weather the climate

(24) The weather in Hawail The climate in Hawai Hawai's weather Hawai's climate Hawaii trame of your country's weather . the weather in . the climate in (6)

(12) the climate in there are

(13) can be shown to br ' s climate sweather the climate

What they have in common is that the students are asked to d one filler from each slot and that their initial choice will necesita later choices. If Mrs. Ademola is chosen in the first sentence Moody's frame , then the pronoun must be she in the second Is the same way , in Arapoff's " rhetoric frames " the choice in box (5) grammatical one , but " if a student chooses ' Hawaii's weather in bo (1) " he will then select the parallel to this , ' s weather is bo essay (6) for he will have learned that grammatical parallelism i rhetorical device used to promote coherence between ideas in 13 The latter is a rhetorical choice and involves A manipulations much more sophisticated than in the Moody fre multiple substitution exercises may also be very simple:

 stole the apples, the children student / borrow / book: woman / choose / cake: porter / lift / suitcase with the model rewritten as: The students Borrowed the books, e. They may be made meaningful by adding choices which are appropriate as I pointed out above (a girl would not go well with beard). Finally, a paraphrase of a model maintaining structur patterns may be considered the ultimate in multiple substitution

 exercises:

 Mary was a foolish girl who thought only about beautiful clothes. Our morning, she was walking along a road, carrying a basketful of per was going to the city to sell them and to buy clothes with the moory. S was

walking in the middle of the road, thinking of the clothes she was going to buy. Suddenly a big car came around the corner Mary p out of the way, dropped the basket, and all the eggs were broken. The student is asked to rewrite it beginning with "John was a you man":

John was a young man who cared mainly about lively parties . One was drinking at a party , enjoying an evening full of fun . He was singing the guests to amuse them and to impress Joan with his clevernes standing on the chair in the corner , singing of the girl he was marrying Suddenly the host came into the room . John jumped off the da sprained his ankle , and all the fun was spoiled . Is 15 Anita Pincas, "Teaching Different Styles of Written English Language Teaching XVII, no. 2 (January 1964) 78. Ibid, p. 28. 14 Spencer, p. 157.

The teacher needs to take care that the exercise does not become one serves as a guide of patterns and organization of ingenuity even for a native speaker , but that the model merely serves as a guide of patterns and organization .

Models with Directions for Rewriting

By far the most common among extant texts is the type of controlled composition which employs a written paragraph or two with directions for rewriting it , employing specific language manipu student to write a correct composition. reasons. The written paragraph serves as a model, which guides thestudent to write a correct composition .

Slager lists the characteristics of models for use in controlled composition they should be short, contemporary, and rather simple in style with a careful and clear organization. On the more advanced level they should include a variety of those syntactic features which are characteristic of mature prose and they should represent a variety of writing: narrative, descriptive, reflective, which serves factual, analytical, critical, instructional, and hortatory . The model , guide the student to a correct composition , should be in excellent English , and

so should the resultant composition . A paragraph with ten verbs in the past perfect tense is just un - English . and it is not worth sacrificing a decent composition for the maximum practice:

Janet Ross[17] and Paulston have offered suggestions for preparing models: the teacher can write his own, he can adapt existing materials, or he can use passages from the readings In looking for model passages to convert to specific patterns, one is at first likely to be discouraged since it seems at times difficult to find what one is looking for . Parallelism, for instance, is not very frequent in modern English but it can be found in essays, editorials, sermons, political speeches, in writing which attempts to convince readers. Passives are much rarer than one might think ; Newspaper accounts are a good place to look," William R. Slager, "Controlling Composition: Some Practical Classroom Techniques," NAFSA Studies and Papers, English Language Series, No. 12, RB Kaplan, ed. p. 84. Janet Ross, "Controlled Composition," NAFSA Studies and Papers English Language Series, D. Wigglesworth, (1967), pp. 47-49, Los Altos Calif: Language Research Associates. Christina Bratt Paulston, "The Use of Model Passages in a Program of Guided Composition," On Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages, Series III, B. W. Robinett, ed. (1966), p. 152. Washington, DC TESOL

for them, as are grammars. You can read many pages of fiction without coming across any sentence connectives - the place to look for them is in writing which deals with involved abstract facts , especially in comparison. I remember looking for them in B. A.G. Fuller's History of Philosophy, and there in two short paragraphs were nine sentence connectives. Imperative they can be found in cookbooks and how - to are surprisingly scarce. books . Modifications are most easily used with fiction, i.e.. the adding of adjectives and adverbs, of relative clauses and the likes.19

For lower levels one should limit the vocabulary, but the sentence structures (which must of course be known by the students) control

themselves, as they were. The control lies in the conversion: either you can convert a structure or you can't, and the difficulty lies in finding or writing convertible structures. Once this is achieved, the other structures in the passage are merely rewritten, and, in fact, all structures are controlled. Of course, if a structure causes semantic difficulty, that is another matter, the one necessity is that the model passage be understandable to the student.

Conversions

Model passages lend themselves to two kinds of writing activity conversions and what might be called semicontrolled composition , where the model passage serves to suggest content and ideas but with little structural control. The latter is an important step in going from controlled to free composition . We will discuss various types of conversion exercises here. The techniques of semicontrolled compos tion will be dealt with later .

There are three types of conversions: substitutions, transforma tions, and modifications. In a substitution conversion the structural patterns of the sentence remain the same as in the model while slots are filled by a specific class of fillers. In a transformation the structural patterns differ from the model although the output remains controlled by the original sentence structures. Modification exercises involve primarily expanding the patterns in the model and are the result of the student's choice: Substitution Conversions as with substitution tables, there are single, correlative, and multiple substitution conversions. They themselves primarily to exercises in the grammatical categories of [19]Ibid . p . 152

gender , number , and tense , and in replacing synonyms and transition words . Here's a correlative substitution conversion on gender changes:

model: from Clarence Day , Life with Father

Father had the same character as a boy. I suppose , that he had as a man , and he was too independent to care if people thought his name fancy. He paid no attention to the prejudices of others, except to disapprove of them. He had plenty of prejudices himself, of course, but they were his own. He was humorous and confident and level - headed , and I imagine that talking about . if any boy had tried to make fun of him for being named Clarence , Father would simply have laughed and told him he didn't know what he was talking about

Assignment :

Rewrite the entire passage , changing the word Father to Mother each time it becomes necessary it   appears .   Remember to change the pronouns , nouns and names wherever it becomes necessary .

Student's Composition :

Mother had the same character as a girl, I suppose, that she had as a woman, and she was too independent to care if people thought her name fancy She paid no attention to the prejudices of others, except to disapprove of them. She had plenty of prejudices herself, of course, but they were her own. She was humorous and confident and level - headed , and I imagine that if any boy had tried to make fun of her for being named Clarissa , Mother would simply have laughed and told him she didn't know what he was talking about 20

If the student is asked to underline his changes from the model , the teacher can correct the composition at a glance .   The following exercise is a multiple substitution.conversion . As is obvious from this example , substitution exercises need not be as easy as those cited above .   Model: from Gerald Dykstra, "A New Dimension in Laboratories" The National Interest and Teaching of English as a Foreign Language, a 20paulston and Dykstra, p. 59

document prepared by the National Council of Teachers of English , quotes a conservative estimate that 400 million people now speak English . Since a very large part of this number speaks English as a second language , the continuing need for teachers of English as a foreign or second language is immediately apparent. In addition, there are millions who are now in English classrooms who will not make extensive use of English as a spokes language but who will use textbooks, reference books and scholarly work in English to complete their own education in almost all professional fields. All of these need qualified teachers . Finally, of course, there are the vast numbers of studying English who will never advance far enough to make practical use of English, spoken or written, but who might do so if they had qualified teachers now.

Assignment:

Rewrite the entire passage, changing English to 400 million people now speak 400 million men are now learning to cook Follow the general structure of the model but make whatever changes in vocabulary that are necessary for the passage to make sense. Use your imagination freely 21

This is our contribution resulting in the women's liberation movement, the compositions from this exercise are always very funny . The reader can concoct his own .

Transformation Conversions The usual transformation conver sions are exercises on changing the imperative to various tenses passive to active and active to passive, statements to questions and questions to answers, negative to positive and positive to negative. adjectives and adverbs to clauses and phrases and phrases to clauses direct to indirect and indirect to direct speech . There are as well , in Dacanay's terminology, integration, reduction, and transposition exercises22. Here is a typical transformation from Baskoff :

Change the following sentences from passive to active voice. If there is no agent you must supply one as the subject in the Note: active voice . 21Ibid, p. 57 . 22Fe R. Decanay, Techniques and Procedures in Second Lang Teaching (Dobbs Ferry, New York: Oceana Publications, 1963), pp. 107-151. Caluma Co

1. First I was directed to my seat by the stewardess

2. We were told to fasten our seatbelts. buted .

3. A few minutes after take-off, magazines and newspapers were disto
4. I was given some gum to chew because my ears hurt.

5. We were given instructions on what to do in case of an emergency. The student's composition will be something like this :

First the stewardess directed me to my seat . Then she told us to fasten our seatbelts . A few minutes after takeoff , the stewardesses distributed case of an emergency 2 magazines and newspapers . One of them gave me some gum to chew because my ears hurt . The captain gave us instructions on what to do in The next exercise is a direct to indirect speech transformation conversion from Arapoff . This exercise is very complicated and is followed by two pages of analysis (in the form of questions) in order to enable the student to write such a conversation himself.

 Conversation :

John : Don : John : I've heard San Francisco is a beautiful city .. Bob went there on his vacation . I didn't know that . I've been thinking he'd gone to Los Angeles . I'd have liked to've heard about San Francisco . I am planning to go there on vacation .. He might've visited both cities . He'll be arriving in a few minutes . You can ask him then . Indirect address : John mentioned to Don that he had heard San Francisco was a beautiful city . Bob had gone there on his vacation . Don replied that he hadn't known that . He had been thinking Bob had gone to Los Angeles

. He would have liked to have heard about San Francisco . He was planning to go there on his vacation . John said that Bob might have visited both cities . He would be arriving in a few minutes . Don could ask him then Integration exercises joining sentences by conjunctions and 23 Florence Baskoff, Guided Composition (Philadelphia: Center for Curri culum Development, 1971), p. 156. 24Nancy Arapoff, Writing through Understanding (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1970), p. 25 .

relative pronouns - appear in most texts. These examples are on the sentence level .

Que : Response Cue : Response : The suitcase is lost , and the handle of the suitcase is red The suitcase , whose handle is red , is lost. 25

Steve never watches commercials .

Stan does not like them. Steve never watches commercials , nor does Stan like them 34 They are pure pattern drill , and very effective . They should be taken to the paragraph level:

Model: from Ernest Hemingway, A Farewell to Arms 1 I did not believe the Germans did it. I did not believe they had to . There was no need to confuse our retreat . The size of the army and the fewness of the roads did that nobody gave any orders , let alone Germans . Still , they would shoot us for Germans . They shot Aymo . The hay smelled good and lying in the barn in the hay took away all the years in between listened to the firing to the north toward Udine. I could hear machine gun firing . There was no shelling . That was something. They must have gotten some troops along the road . I looked down in the half - light of the hay barn and saw Piani standing on the hauling floor. He had a long sausage, a jar of something and two bottles of wine under his arm. "Come up." I said, "There is the."

Assignment:

Hemingway is describing the retreat in Italy during World War I. One of his stylistic characteristics is his short sentences. Rewrite the entire passage combining with subordinate conjunctions as many sentences as you can with ease . See Appendix V (which contains a list of conjunctions) 27 A less controlled integration exercise presents a model with the directions to add a relative clause , a reason clause , a purpose clause , etc. to certain specified sentences ; Model : from Irving Howe , " TE Lawrence : The Problem of Heroism (1) To an age that usually takes its prose plain , Lawrence's style is likely to 25Earl Rand , Constructing Sentences (New York Holt , Rinehart and Winston , 1969), p 75 26 Jacqueline P. Griffin and G. Howard Potect, Sentence Strategies (New York: Harcourt, Brace, Jovanovich, 1971), p. 267. 27 Paulston and Dykstra, p. 54

sem mannered (2) Unquestionably there are passages that fail through Surphs of effort passages that contain more sensibility than Lawrence simply because we have been trained to suspect the grand could handle or justify.   (3) But it is dangerous to dismiss such writing

Assignment:

Rewrite the entire passage, adding comparison clauses to sentences 1 and 3 See Appendix V (which lists conjunctions to use for comparison clauses).

The student's composition may look like this :

To an age that Usually takes its prose plain , Lawrence's style is likely to seem more dressed than we are used to Unquestionably there are passages that fail through a surplus of effort, passages which contain more sensibility than Lawrence could handle or justify.   As it is consistently to submit to bathos dismiss such writing simply because we have been trained to suspect the This adding of clauses type of controlled composition is a much more complicated kind of language

manipulation than it seems at first , and requires very clear thinking on the   Part of the student. Many writers have been concerned about reduction exercises, ie, reducing sentences or clauses to verbal phrases (embedding) in order to pack information into a sentence . A high degree of predication within a sentence is typical of mature written English, especially those for native speakers.

 And this type of exercise is a primary concern of many writing texts , Cue: A boy was frightened by a dog. The boy quickly ran to the door door . 29 Response: Frightened by the dog, the boy quickly ran to the Even if Phil is drafted, he will propose to Nadyne Even if drafted, Phil will propose to Nadyne. 30

Cue: Response: These exercises should also be taken to the paragraph level. Janet Ross suggests one way of doing so : Directions : Included clauses help indicate the precise relationship between ideas . In bid, p. 22 . Rand, p. 83 . Mary E. Whitten, Creative Pattern Practice: A New Approach to Writing (New York: Harcourt, Brace and World, 1966), p. 133

under to make the following selection less wardy , express in one sentence the ideas between the bars . You will probably use included clauses to do this .

At the Airport

/ At the airport I always like to conjecture about the people . I see my people at the airport / That lady is a grandmother . She is standing bes jewelry counter . She is meeting a plane . Her daughter and two ma grandchildren are on the plane. /

 This is a composition which one of her students wrote:

 I always like to conjecture about the many people I see at the airport. That lady standing by a jewelry counter is a grandmother meeting a plane on which are her daughter and two grandchildren.31

Reduction exercises may also be done as modifications, in which case the student is simply asked to add certain types of verbal phrases to indicated sentences. Earl Rand reports on an interesting procedure for teaching embedding, which he calls a synthesis, following ing traditional British terminology The model paragraph, which contains many embeddings, is rewritten in simple sentences .

The problem of how these atoms are arranged in a protein molecules of The most interesting and challenging now being attacked by work in the physical and biological sciences.

The students rewrite this sentence, which is the last of a paragraph as they have done all the others, in simple, active sentences:

 The problem is one of the The most interesting and challenging problems The problem is that these atoms are arranged somehow in a pro molecule workers are now attacking the problem .

The workers are in the physical and biological sciences a week later the student was asked to combine the paraphrased, simple sentences into one sentence. He is urged (1) to place the new of main information in the independent clause and the secondary, Janet Ross, "Controlled Writing: A Transformational Approach" Tel Quarterly II, no. 4 (December 1968): 260-261.

Supporting material in the subordinate clauses or phrases , (2) to pronominalize , (3) to make a sentence with an unimportant use transition words . The actor-subject into a passive and to delete the by-phrase, and (4) to use transition words .32

 Modification Conversions. Modification exercises are primarily compositions to which the student has added or completed some patterns of the model. They are similar to expansion drills in pattern practice. They lend themselves primarily to the adding of adjectives and

adverbs, articles and noun modifiers, phrases and clauses, and transition words. the sentence level:

Complete the following sentences using adjective clauses

a. This is the house where

b. The lawyer whom

c. The class which lives in San Diego, starts at 9:00 AM."

Complete the following sentences using noun clauses

a. I believe.

b . I asked the policeman

c . I don't know.

They can be done equally well on the paragraph level:

A Familiar Procedure Directions: Complete the four following paragraphs of partial statements with time clauses in the simple present tense , underlining the time clauses. Hing will go to the college cafeteria in a few minutes for another meal . He He will not take off his coat until after will take off his cap as soon as ... He will continue to carry his briefcase while 31 "Earl Rand," Analysis and Synthesis: Two Steps Toward Proficiency in Composition, "Work papers in English as a Second Language: Matter, Methods, Materials. Department of English, University of California at Los Angeles, (Los Angeles: April 1967), pp. 87-91.. 33Baskoff, p. 156. 34Ibid, p. 157. Lois Robinson, Guided Writing and Free Writing A Text in Composition for English as a Second Language (New York: Harper and Row, 1967), p. 28.

The degree of control in these exercises depends on the degree to which possible answers have been discussed in class. There may be oral preparation or the exercises may be based on a previous reading The student may also simply be presented with a passage and asked to

add certain patterns to indicated sentences. Passages taken from fiction lend themselves best to this kind of writing activity, it is not as easy as it may seem to find appropriate passages. Here is one which lends itself particularly well to modification conversions:

(1)I was on the patio, pulling faces, when I noticed Tom Wells standing a the shadow of the fountain. (2) I do not know how long he had been standing there watching (3) The object of my facial contortions was to attempt to discover what felt like to be Jimmie and Tom Wells respectively (4) My method was to sometimes infallible , but it served as an aid to perception . Practiced it since childhood.(6) You simply twist your face into the expression of the person whose state of mind and heart you wish to know and then wait and see what sort of emotions you feel.(7)1 had begun with Jimmie. (8) First I considered myself to be standing high and lean , very fair , with a straight wide mouth , and I pulled my mouth straight and wide I made my eyes close down at the far corners , widening at the inner corners ; my eyebrows and furrowed my brows ; I put my tongue inside my lower lip , pulling my chin long ; my nose , so concentratedly did imagine it , curving up slightly at the bridge . (9) Then I was self-consciously Jimmic.36

With this passage the student can be asked to add verbal phrases to sentences 5, 7, and 9, relative clauses at his own discretion, reason clauses to sentences 2, 4, and 7 ; purpose or result clauses to 2, 5 , and 7 , or concessive clauses to 2, 5 , and 7. It must be emphasized that directions for rewriting passages must be very clear , and that are examples of reasons , etc. should always be given Because there is a considerable degree of copying involved in writing these types of controlled compositions , the student should not be asked to do the same passage twice just because several language manipule passage tions are possible with one. Here is a last example of a modification in sentence

connections:

Factual Account: American higher education has a rural tradition. America began a MPaulston and Dykstra , page 53 .

civilized but rural nation . Its first colleges and universities quite naturally began in the country . Land was cheap in rural areas . It was less expensive to build schools there . Country people thought city life would have a bad influence on their children . They wanted them to go to rural schools .

Unified Report:

American higher education has a rural tradition for three reasons. First , America began as a civilized but rural nation. Therefore, its first colleges and universities quite naturally began in the country. Also , land was cheap in rural areas, so it was less expensive to build schools there . In addition , country people thought city life would have a bad influence on their children ; Thus they wanted them to go to rural schools. "

Techniques of Semicontrolled Composition

As Maryruth Bracy has pointed out , there " exists a broad gap between the least-controlled writing and entirely free compositions . Left to his own devices the student will still make a great number of errors, but his proficiency is such that he needs to move beyond carefully controlled manipulation of structures and vocabu lary. Bracy comments on an experiment where her students wrote fewer errors when the Content was controlled:

The problem is not to structure the content so that specific sentence structures will result, otherwise, the students are back to controlled writing. The result would be a range of "freeness" in composition similar to the already well-defined range of control in writing.39

In the absence of such an established range, we can merely list some established techniques of semicontrol. share is that the model supplies

the content or the ideas for the composition, while there is little structural control. p . 87. Maryruth Bracy, "The Move from Controlled Writing to Free Composition, or," Write 300 Words on "Being a Foreign Student at UCLA," Workpapers in English as a Second Language, Vol. IV Department of English, University of California at Los Angeles, (Los Angeles: June 1970), p. 22 . Ibid, p. 22 .

procedure is to present the student with a model passage and ask him to paraphrase it, to write a summary of it, to add a beginning, middle or end to it, or to outline it. Or he may be given an outline and asked to write a composition from it . Another technique uses topic sentences to control the student's composition:

Directions :

Add three more sentences that develop the topic sentence:

1. Once I visited a village which was located

 2. The people of the village had their own distinct customs. 40

 Karl C. Sandberg suggests drills for what he calls "writing laboratories" and we quote examples from his NAFSA paper at length, since his suggestions are excellent.

 Instructions: Write a biographical sketch of the imaginary Russian novelist Ivan Ivanovich. You may describe him as you like , but the following questions and information may help you . Most of the action will, of course, be in the past tense.

 Parentage

 Born 1812. Father dies when Ivan is three - How ? from tuberculosis ? by political assassination? of grief over his wife's infidelity ? from being thrown from a horse ? Mother - rich or poor ? beautiful or homely ? aristocratic or commoner ? strong (domineering , self - willed) or weak ? selfish or generous? like or unlike her husband ?

Ivan's Education

Was it solid or sketchy ? Did he study classical or modern subjects How many languages did he learn to read ? to speak ? French ? German ? Spanish ? Chinese ? Latin ? How widely did he readin economics and political theory ? 40Slager, p. 82.

Early Manifestations of Revolutionary Tendencies

Why ? Because of social abuse of his mother ? Revolt against maternal were anarchists in disguise ? authority? Being influenced by a group of young intellectuals who

His Siberian Experience

Arrested in 1842 for plotting on the Czar's life . Was he guilty or not guilty ? How was he treated in Siberia ? harshly or kindly ? How did in 1847 he stand the weather ? Did he lose his mind or remain sane ? Released

Declining Years in Paris

Writes his masterpiece Confessions of a Siberian Exile - acclaimed or rejected by Parisian society? Died rich or poor ? from starvation, gout, or tuberculosis?

If the student possesses a large vocabulary he branches out from the suggested possibilities If he does not , he still finds enough alternatives in the drill for him to do something imaginative and original (no two biographies of Ivan Ivanovich resembled each other). The next drill is less controlled and is intended for a more advanced group , It presupposes previous drill on the patterns of conjecture After these patterns are reviewed in class , the following announce mention is made : You have probably heard of the revolution yesterday in Costra Incognita . The information which has come to us by radio and TV is unfortunately quite incomplete. We have only the facts listed below . Tell what you think must have happened .

7:10 A.M. The national radio goes off the air . What did people think had happened ? Power failure in the electrical system ? Strike by the broadcasters ' union ?

7:30 A.M. The national radio comes back on the air , a different announcer plays the national anthem. Why?

7:50 A.M. Numerous shots are heard in the vicinity of the presidential palace What did people think was happening ? Fireworks in celebration of the president's wife's birthday ? A fire in a nearby ammunition factory ? A bank was being robbed ? What do you think was happening ?

9:50 A.M. The national radio announces that the air force has gone over to the rebels . 10:00 A.M. Airplanes bomb rebel positions . Who was flying the

pilots mistakenly bomb their own positions ? planes ? Did the air force remain loyal to the president ? Did rebel a 11:00 AM . The radio has gone off the air . No further word will happen ? been received What do you think has happened ? What do you think another technique which has proved helpful is to ask the students to write on a topic similar to that of the model passage. Here is a writing assignment from Ross and Doty: Model passage: Language and Culture To know a person's language is to understand his culture, for language grows out of and reflects culture. The Tzeltal tribe in Mexico , for instance has twenty - five different words for expressing the idea to carry . Tzeltal speakers can indicate by one word each of these concepts: carrying on the shoulder, carrying on the head, carrying in a bundle, carrying in the palm of the hand, or carrying in a container.

Writing assignment:

Following the model in the preceding exercise, write a composition in which you show how knowing your own native language helps a person

understand your culture. Underline the verbal constructions in your paragraph, using as many as are appropriate to express your ideas but varying their function in the sentence. Also underline the subject sentence of your paragraph. 12

J. A. Bright has some good exercises for letter writing:

SUDAN LIGHT AND POWER COMPANY, LTD. (Incorporated in England) Khartoum P. O. Box 86 Tel . No. 2217 (Accounts) Tel . No. 2479 (Repairs) BRANCHES: Omdurman. Tel . No. 561 Khartoum N. Tel . No. 221 KHARTOUM ELECTRICITY AND WATER SUPPLY 41Sandberg, pp. 56-57 42Janet Ross and Gladys Doty , Writing English : A Composition Test a English as a Foreign Language (New York : Harper and Row , 1965) p . 144

(a) Write to the above company saying that you have been sent the bill for somebody else's house .

(b) Write to the above company asking whether it is not possible for them to run later buses between Omdurman and Khartoum , and whether the bus service could not be extended to cover Khartoum North (c) Reply to (b), agreeing to the first suggestion, but rejecting the second. Give reasons , special buses may be hired . Answer your own (d) write to the above company asking about the terms upon whichspecial buese may be hired. Answer your own letter . 43

And finally here is a semicontrolled composition exercise on attempt at guiding the structures. parallelism. This differs from the others in that there is still an

Model: from Gerald Dykstra, "A New Dimension in Writing Laboratories," such supporting materials should also contribute toward meeting one of the major shortcomings inherent in most classroom teaching-oversize classes. Yet , if having thirty to eighty students under one teacher is not conducive to normal interpersonal linguistic

communication , neither is the ideal to be found in the opposite extreme of having each student hermetically sealed off from his fellows in a laboratory booth.

Neither classroom situation nor laboratory nor textbook nor trained teacher nor any other element by itself will provide us with a panacea for all our ills, but through use of varying combinations of these some people seem to be learning some English. There is every reason to believe , and little reason to doubt , that English teaching can be further improved by new and better supporting materials which may take the best from current materials or classroom situations while meeting some of the shortcoming .

Assignment:

Rewrite the entire pasage , changing Such supporting materials to such a political system . Make up your own shortcomings or change oversize classes to overcrowded housing in slum apartments follow the general structure of the model, especially in the parallel structures, but make whatever changes in vocabulary that are necessary for the pasage to make sense. Use your imagination freely 44 1. A. Bright, English Composition Course for Overseas Students (London: Longmans, 1962), p. 121 60 . Vulston and Dykstra, p

PROCEDURES

Specific procedures in teaching with controlled composition will vary from text to text . Some will allow the students to work at their own pace on individual assignments while others require that the entire class do the same assignment at the same time. The following steps constitute the basic procedures .

1. The teacher gives the assignment. He must make certain that the students understand the model . Even more important , he must make certain that the students understand and know the particular linguistic

rule which will generate the specific language manipulation of the controlled composition . In practice , this does lead to teacher talking about language , and it cannot be avoided. Such linguistic explanations should be carefully planned and timed prior to their presentation in class or they will become rambling and time consuming.   On the beginning levels, when the students' writing in more complex than the patterns they are taught for oral use in grammar, very little explanation is necessary and our students work at their own pace with primarily individual explanations. But on the intermediate and advanced levels, many of the patterns they are taught are typical of written usage only and are quite complicated. and we have found it more efficient to keep the entire class working on the same exercises preceded by a brief linguistic explanation. Following the presentation of the model and the explanation, the teacher makes sure the students understand the directions of what they are supposed to do. Even if the composition is to be writte outside of the class, it is a good idea to have them all get started on it class so the teacher can make sure they have understood the assignment.

2. The students write . Our students have been known to hand in compositions on three by five inch note paper . Now we tell them on the first day that compositions are to be written only on eight and a half by eleven inch standard size lined paper and on even other line in order to facilitate corrections. With controlled com positions , the students are instructed to underline that part of the composition which differs from the model so that the teacher can primarily check the underlined parts . With free compositions , the students are told to write on only one side of each page so that they can later cut and paste to improve on organizational weaknesses Writing is one area of language learning where fastidious insistence of neatness (penmanship, paper) and carefulness correct language does

pay off . It may seem old - fashioned to the reader, but when we know how susceptible we are ourselves to the face value of the examina tions we are correct, it would simply not be fair to our students to insist on anything less than neat, legible, and correct compositions . It is also necessary to decide whether the students are to write in class or at home . Our beginning students always write in class so that they can have the teacher's help whenever they need it, the correct compositions. Emphasis of controlled composition being to help the students write The attitudes of students toward their composition in a course of controlled composition differ markedly from students who only write free compositions .

the attitudes of Students become accustomed to writing correct compositions, and they will carefully ask questions if they are not certain of the correct response. Because of the nature of the control , they know exactly what questions to ask before they make a mistake , and this is a habit that we want to reinforce from the very beginning . On more advanced levels, when students can work with reference grammars, controlled composition lends itself very well to homework.

3. Compositions are corrected. It is important that the students receive feedback as soon as possible on their writing. Some exercises lend themselves to oral checking in the same way as the reading comprehension questions were checked. The teacher needs to make sure that the students do check their papers, so after the oral checking the compositions should be collected and briefly checked through. Mistakes should be indicated by underlining and corrected by the students themselves. In order for the student to be able to do that , the teacher will either have to explain the mistake to him , or indicate the page in the reference grammar where the rule is explained , or mark the mistake with a proofreader's symbol. It saves a lot of time if the students are given a list of symbols for common mistakes in the beginning of the term , like this one : sp S - V prep Ins 1 ww neg spelling

subject - verb agreement wrong preposition wrong tense new paragraph wrong word wrong negation form etc.

Errors on patterns for which no rules can be found like in the sentence: "Certainly operations research was developing (sic , but th is a rule) in many ways , as fields where can be applied it will have s be proofed by the teacher , Le , he will have to write in the com version above the erroneous pattern if he wants the student to learn that pattern. Otherwise he can just ignore it. Advanced level students should become famil with a thesaurus mistakes although it is doubtful that it will help tho 3 wrong word choice With all indicated , the student so then copy over the entire sentence in his corrections . It makes sense at all to have the teacher spend time in connecting a composition which the student then barely glances at . To have the student copy the same sentence seems more than once like fruites drudgery: written p Attern practice of the type discussed in the chapter on grammar is much more efficient. No students like to do corrections, and it is easy for the trader to forget to check up on them. If the teacher explains to the dis that he will not record the grade or credit for the composition after he has okayed the corrections, the students will soon chase the teacher with their corrections, rather than the other way around There are times when half the class makes the same mistake whatever the reason , that particular pattern was apparently not w taught , and it usually makes sense to go back and retrach it to the entire class, maybe with some written exercises on the sentenar as reinforcement. In addition to the controlled compositions, students * beginning levels need to write occasional

 free compositions

 Stad give vent to their feelings, put across their own ideas and F need a feeling of independent achievement in the new language. The guideline, then, to procedures dealing with free compositions level should be to preserve this sense of achievement by the possibility for

emphasis on errors . Students intermediate and advanced levels need much practice in w compositions . Our students write a composition a work , h useful guideline is probably to have the students write a many compositions as the teacher can reasonably correct .

Topics should be selected with care On the higher levels , topics will depend on the particular point of rhetorical organization the students are , but on the beginning levels , students are usually assigned topics which require only description or straight narrative , such as My Best Friend or My First Day in School A Hero of My Country . Folktales and Legends of My Country, National Holidays, and the like seem ideal topics of this type, but in fact they often lead directly to trouble. The vocabulary and mode of expressions of such topics are permeated by the students' culture and mother tongue. They very likely have written about them before in their own language , and the resultant compositions are often a great mish - mash of translation and interference errors. A simple guideline for the selection of topics is to pick subjects which: (1) the students are interested in and (2) they know something about . Hence topics the reading selections. for free composition lend themselves ideally to be correlated with the reading selections.

The students should be trained to work with a checklist for sentence level errors . It can very well be the same as the list of symbols for common errors . Prior to handing in the composition , they read through it only for the purpose of looking for these errors. Such a checklist can also be used for controlled composition . On the more advanced levels , they might also be trained to work with a checklist like Knapp's:

Rough Outline

A clear thesis statement that can be supported or proved

Three or more useful points

Rough Draft

Show examples of thoughtful editing

Final Draft

Mechanics give a clean , orderly impression

The title - is correctly capitalized,

shows imagination in phrasing.

Indicates the subject clearly

Adequate margins - sides , top , bottom

Clear indentation for paragraphs

Clear , easy - to - read handwriting

or typing Logical development of one idea in a paragraph

A topic sentence that gives the idea of the paragraph

A clear controlling idea in the topic sentence

Supporting statements that focus on the controlling idea

Clear relationship or transition between sentences

imaginative sentences, precise use of language

Connectives used with precision to show relationship (1)

Careful, correct use of expanded vocabulary (2)

Examples of artful phrasing (3)

Correct spelling and hyphenating (4)

Correct punctuation to develop the meaning of sentences (5)

Good use of parallel structure in series (6)

Good use of phrases or clauses to modify or to tighten the expression of an idea (7)

Good selection of detail to suggest larger meaning (8)

A good conclusion that draws the paragraph together (9)

Good idea content

A clearly expressed idea , easy for the reader to understand

An interesting idea , worthy of adult communication

challenge , Original thinking

corrections with adequate practice to insure mastery

Corrections under all "Red Marks"

Spelling: 5 times + used in five sentences. Listed .

Focus items used in at least 10 true sentences. Listed 45

Knapp uses his checklist for correction purposes as well . An item on the checklist receives a plus if that item appears in the composition, the absence of a plus indicates that the students have not mastered this particular point or at least that it has not appeared in their composition. The hope is that the students in future compositions will endeavor to remedy particular shortcomings in past compositions. The procedures for correcting free compositions are similar to those for controlled compositions .

The teacher is not a proofreader and should most certainly not rewrite the student compositions or even necessarily correct all mistakes. Free compost Correction to Teaching Aims, "Teaching English as a Second Language, I 45Donald Knapp," A Focused, Efficient Method to Relate Composition Allen and R. Campbell, eds. New York: McGraw-Hill 1972), pp. 213-221

tions have very many more mistakes than controlled compositions . And it is very disheartening for both teacher and student to have the on the beginning level.

 end up covered with red composition marks . This is especially true There are some alternatives . The teacher can mark as incorrect only those patterns that the students have covered in the grammar class . He can announce at the time he assigns the composition that he will only correct certain patterns , and then list them . He can select the " worst " three or four errors in each composition and check expected to those . He can correct errors on the patterns the students are know with red ink and others with green . Knapp suggests that the teacher simply underline performance errors so that the students can see the extent of their sloppiness , and then no further issue is made of them. Instead , Knapp recommends , the emphasis should be on competence errors in patterns the students are expected to learn during the course each student keeps an individualized list of "patterns to be learned" on which list are entered the patterns selected by the teacher from the student's own set of errors . The student then writes from ten to forty true (meaningful and verifiable) sentences until the pattern to be learned has been mastered.

 Each teacher will have his own idiosyncracies when it comes to correcting compositions. Certainly we don't know that one system is better than another . We do believe that competence errors on patterns the teacher wants the student to learn should be corrected , that is , used by the student in a sentence or preferably more than one (although forty sounds a bit extreme). We tend to have students correct performance errors as well as those errors for which the students know the rule once the error is pointed out to them for the reason that it is very difficult to tell competence errors from true performance errors with foreign students. Negative reinforcement

students do dislike correcting errors for which they think they know the rule - is quite efficient in promoting carefulness in writing.

Some of our instructors feel that giving grades on the compositions also serves to encourage carefulness in writing . We willingly concede that such practice may not conform with the highest principles of testing and grading, after all, it is encouragement punitive purpose as much as an evaluative one. But , alas , our students of the " an offer he couldn't refuse " type , and the grading serves a do not always conform with the highest principles of studenthood

either , and it is a fact, however deplorable, that with some classes matter of grading free compositions to the individual strategies of their compositions improve when they are graded. We leave the teacher personality . Also , one should remember that many students like to be graded . But surely there is no need to grade free compositions given in a beginner's program of controlled composi tion, nor is there any need to grade controlled compositions are graded , they should be given two grades , one for general thoughtfulness. language and style, and another for organization, content, and general thoughtfulness.

MECHANICS OF PUNCTUATION

Punctuation may seem exceedingly trivial in a program of composition but nevertheless it is necessary. Principles of punctur tion differ from language to language , and our students do not know how to punctuate in English . They need this knowledge for two reasons: one, to be able to write comprehensibly and two, for their reading.

we are much more dependent on punctuation for clues for efficient reading than we are likely to think but even something so simple as lack of periods and commas is likely to confuse us more important dashes and semicolons also serve as transition words and syntactic markers of a semantic Nature and our students need to recognize that punctuation serves a more serious purpose than decoration the at

times only apparent purpose in their own production. We hope this paragraph has convinced the reader of the point we are making.

No specific rules need to be discussed here. Any high school r college text in freshman English will include a chapter on punctua tion . The important thing to remember is not to teach more than one thing at a time and to give the students sentences for exercises . In the Institute we teach punctuation in the language laboratory , a practice which has turned out to be remarkably successful for reasons we ca only speculate at . The punctuation exercise takes on aspects of game . The student reads the rules for, say, ellipsis. He does the finished he checks his answer with the correct one in the back of the exercise but he can only do it by listening to the tape. When he has a book , adds up his score and figures it into percentages , and finally quizzes and tests on sundry matters that keep appearing in the enters it into his own progress chart . It is very much like the word newspapers, presumably because of their popularity with the readers

We ourselves can never pass up a word quiz . Here is a sample lesson from Jaramillo's Conventions in the Mechanics of Writing:

An Ellipsis (...) consists of three spaced periods.

An Ellipsis ( ) indicates that one or more words have been omitted from a quotation.

example : " All governments depend on the honesty and good will of the people.

Becoming

" " All governments depend on the good will of the people .

Note that " honesty and " from the original quotation has been omitted . These words have been replaced by an ellipsis (….). Punctuate the following quotations . If something has been omitted from the quotation , a space for an ellipsis (..) has been provided . I

will read each quotation in its ORIGINAL FORM , followed by the place an ellipsis (-) there . author's name . If I read something that is not included in your quotation , Be sure that all punctuation is correct for the following quotations . Listen carefully , NOT all quotations will need an ellipsis .

POINTS

1. things that we have to learn to do , we learn them Aristotle

2. Knowing how to do a thing is easier than doing it Anonymous tells a different story to

3. everything all eyes that see and ears that hear ingersoll makes men happy or 4. comparison wretched thomas fuller 5. a man travels in search of what he needs and returns home to find it george more TOTAL

POSSIBLE NUMBER RIGHT 30 NUMBER RIGHT

-UNNECESSARY MARKS

TOTAL

PERCENTAGE

ORGANIZATION OF CONTENT

Objectives

It is frequently said that writing is a thinking process. At the th level of writing compositions, of organizing thought and argane into a coherent and logical whole, writing is undeniably based on thought. The difficulty is, as Kaplan "has pointed ways out , that logie as an organizing principle of phenomena is not an extension of intelligence but culturally conditioned. Our students do think , but they organize and express those thoughts in which differ from what we are accustomed to in analytical writing Frequently , therefore , their

compositions strike us as illogical , long - wide unfocused and bad .This is a complaint that instructors in writing for foreign students share with instructors in writing for native stude principles of good writing as we know it come Our students not only have not been taught principles of American English rhetoric , they have frequently been taught systems which conflict with our rhetoric accordingly, a large part of the curriculum in writing on de intermediate and advanced levels deals with an explicit analysis of principles of writing in English and does not differ markedly content from a class in freshman composition . Indeed, it is at uncommon for the instructors to comment that teaching such a course has improved their own writing.

There are three basic teaching points: paragraph development development of paragraphs in a series, and the organization and development of a composition. These three share the basic proble of making the sentences and paragraphs stick together, of rela * Barbara Jaramillo, Conventions in the Mechanics of Writing A Lag Manual for Foreign Students (Pittsburgh: English Language last 1973), p. 31 . 47 Robert Kaplan, "Cultural Thought Patterns in Inter - Cultural Education in K. Croft, ed., Readings in English as a Second Language (Cambridge Massachusetts: Winthrop Publishers, Inc., 1972).

thought to argue in an orderly and logical manner. We achieve coherence in writing by rhetorical devices and by logic of thought , and these we must teach.

The following discussion deals primarily with writing on the intermediate and advanced levels . Our beginning students do work on simple outlining, but most of their writing is spent on controlled and semicontrolled composition in order to perfect their written language skills. Their English is still so awful that little is gained by having them work primarily on free compositions, nor would they be able to follow the explanations in English. If students can't understand , in the target

language , the reading of analytical prose or the explana attempt such writing .

 tions of their rhetorical principles, there is no sense in having them The main objective of our writing courses after the beginning course is to write a full-fledged research paper. For nonacademic situations , a research paper can easily be modified to a report , an essay and the like , but the important point is that there is one important overriding objective . From this objective follows the selection of all items in the curriculum, and all activities serve to support the successful writing of, in our case, a research paper, a major achievement for the students. At the beginning of the term the students are handed what

amounts to a list of deadlines:

 Week 2: Selection of topic

 Week 3: Bibliography cards (at least 2)

 Week 4: Thesis statement

 Week 4 : Rough outline

 Week 7: Sample note cards

Week 8: Second polished outline (if needed a revised thissis statement)

 Week 10: Rough draft

 Week 12: Footnotes and bibliography

 Week 14: The finished research paper 48

Again, these items can easily enough be adapted to fit individual classes' needs. Such a list serves to break down the major objectives" Lois I Wilson, Curriculum Notes, mimeographed (Pittsburgh English Language Institute, 1974).

Chapter Seven
Classroom MANAGEMENT

PART C : **MANAGEMENT**

11.1 The role of the teacher

11.1.1 The teacher as controller

11.1.2 The teacher as assessor

11.1.3 The teacher as organiser

11.1.4 The teacher as prompter

11.1.5 The teacher as participant

11.1.6 The teacher as a resource

11.1.7 The teacher as tutor

11.1.8 The teacher as investigator

11.2 Student groupings

11.2.1 Lockstep

11.2.2 Pairwork

11.2.3 Groupwork

11.2.4 The use of the mother tongue

11.2.5 Individual study

11.3 Disruptive Behavior

11.3.1 Causes of discipline problems

11.3.2 Action in case of indiscipline

11.4 Conclusions

Discussion / Exercises / References

In this chapter we will consider various aspects of class management including the role of the teacher , student groupings , and disruptive

behaviour . We will show that class management skills are important since they help to ensure the success of the teacher and the activities which are used . The most effective activities can be made almost useless if the teacher does not organise them properly , and disruptive behaviour can spoil the best

 classes if it is not checked . teachers who do not use a variety of student groupings (pairs and groups etc .) may be missing valuable opportunities to create a cooperative atmosphere in the class and to maximize student practice .

  In Part B of this book we have looked at a variety of activities that have ranged from tightly controlled accurate reproduction work (in Chapter 6) to free communicative activities (in Chapter 8), from controlled reading to extract specific information to the more communicative jigsaw listening and reading Chapter 10) It will be clear that the way the teacher behaves in these different kinds of activities will change according to the nature of the activities Perhaps the most important distinction to be drawn here is between the roles of controller and facilitator, since These two concepts represent opposite ends of a cline of control and freedom . A controller stands at the front of the class like a puppet - master or mistress controlling everything , a facilitator maintains a low profile in order to make the students' own achievement of a task possible. We will represent these extremes in the following way (see page 236):

Controlling ───────────── Facilitations

          Figure 19

We will indicate where the different roles we are about to discuss can be placed on this cline . We will examine the roles of controller , assessor organtier prompier , participant , resource , tutor and controversy .

As we have said , teachers as controllers are in complete charge of the class They control not only what the students do , but also when they speak and end of the cline:

Controlling X——————————— Facilitative

Figure 20

Certain stages of a lesson lend themselves to this role very well . The introduction of new language, where it makes use of accurate reproduction and drilling techniques, needs to be carefully organized. Thus the instruct cue - nominate cycle is the perfect example of the teacher acting as controller . All attention is focused on the front of the class , and the students are all working to the same beat (see 11:21).

The teacher as controller is closely allied to the image that teachers project of themselves . Some appear to be natural leaders and performers . While some are quieter and feel happier when students are interacting amongst themselves Where teachers are addicted to being the center of attention they tend to find it difficult not to perform the controlling role and this has both advantages and disadvantages.

We can all recall teachers in our past who were able to inspire us Frequently this was because they possessed a certain indefinable quality Frequent which attracted and motivated us . Frequently, too, it was because they had interesting things to say and do which held our attention and enthusiasm. The same is true in language classes . Some teachers have a gift of inspiring and motivating us even though they never seem to relax their control. And at their best teachers who are able to mix the controlling role with a good ' performance are extremely enjoyable to be taught by or observed. When teachers are acting as controllers , they tend to do a lot of the talking , and whilst we may feel uneasy about the effect this has on the possibilities for student talking time it should be remembered that it is frequently the teacher , talking at the students level of comprehension , who is the

most important source they have for roughly - tuned comprehensible input (see 4.3).

We should not let these advantages fool us , however , into accepting the controller role as the only one that the teacher has . It is vital that control should be relaxed if students are to be allowed a chance to learn (rather than be taught) Even during immediate creativity (6.3) teachers will have .

began to relax their grip , and during communicative speaking and welling (see Chapter 8) their role must be fundamentally different , otherwine the students will not have a chance to participate in property.

11.1.2

The teacher as

Assessor

Clearly a major part of the teacher's job is to assess the sides work , to see how well they are performing or how well they performed Not ay is after communicative activities (see below) this important pedagogically , but the students quite expect it , even and naturally organising feedback .

We must make a difference between two lynes of iesimest correction During an accurate reproduction stage, where the teacher is totally in control, student error and mistake will be corrected almost instantly (see 6.3.3). The teacher's function, we have suggested, is to show where that it can be put right.

incorrectness occurs and help the student to see what has gone wrong so A slightly less formal style of correction can occur where students are involved in immediate creativity or in doing a drill - type activity in pairs (asking and answering ser questions , for example) Teachers will still want to correct , but we have suggested that such correction will be

gentle (see 5 4: 2 and 6.3.3) Gentle correction involves showing students that a mistake has been made but not making a big fuss about it. Whereas , in the accurate reproduction stage , we insist on students saying the sentence , phrase or word correctly once they have been told their shout mistake , with we don't say "he goed gentle correction the teacher says things like " Well that's not quite Right we say "went." The important point is that nothing more happens. The student doesn't have to repeat his or her sentence correctly, it is enough that a mistake has been acknowledged. This the atmosphere of pairwork or freer conversation kind of gentle correction , used in the right way, will not seriously damage We can represent these two kinds of correction in the following way on our cline:

Controlling

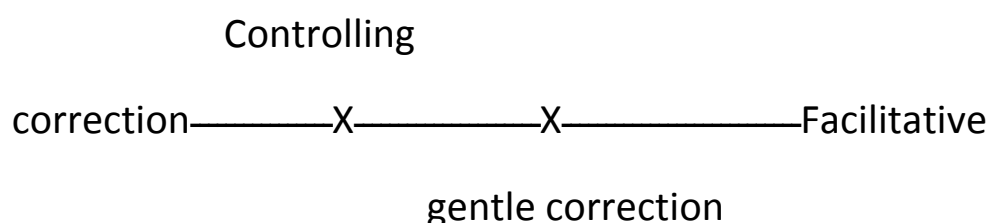correction————X—————X—————————Facilitative

gentle correction

Figure 21

Organising feedback occurs when students have performed some kind of task , and the intention of this kind of assessment is for them to see the extent of their success or failure and to be given ideas as to how their (language) problems might be solved .

We must make a distinction between two different kinds of feedback Content feedback concerns an assessment of how well the students performed the activity as an activity rather than as a language exercise . Thus , when students have completed a role play (see 8.1.7) the teacher first discusses with the students the reasons for their decisions in the simulation .

grammar In the travel agent activity (see 8.1.7 (a)) teacher and students discuss why the pairs chose a particular hotel and if it was the most sensible choice . In other words, where students are asked to

perform a task (including writing tasks - see 8.3) it is their ability to perform that task which should be the focus of the first feedback session. If the teacher merely concentrates on the correctness of the students language, then they will conclude that the task itself was unimportant.

Form feedback on the other hand , does tell the students how well they have performed linguistically , how accurate they have been . When students are involved in a communicative activity the teacher will record the errors whatever content feedback is appropriate , that are made so that they can be brought to the students' attention after There are a number of ways of recording errors and organising feedback .

(a) Pen and paper The teacher can listen to what is being said and write down the errors that are made. This kind of record keeping can be done with a simple form , in the following way:

Grammar votabulary   pronun citation   style and appropriacy

when the activity is over and the class have discussed it (during the content feedback stage) the teacher can write some of the more prominent and serious errors from the list on the board . In pairs students have to identify the errors and correct them . Alternatively the teacher can go to class armed with a number of small cards or pieces of paper . These can be given to individual students , detailing the errors they made and suggesting a cure . This is especially suitable for small groups .

(b) Tape recorder

The teacher might want to record the students ' performance on tape . After the activity and the content feedback the students listen to it and discuss the errors . With very small groups the teacher can take the

tape home and transcribe it . The next day individual students can be given their errors and a correct version . This is often done in a variation on Community Language Learning (see 4.1.5). With large groups teacher and students can listen to the tape together, though this is often not very successful.

(c) Video Video is far more successful for whole class feedback than the tape recorder . It can be done in the following way: First of all the teacher makes sure that the activity is filmed. When it is over , students can watch the video for content feedback , and then they can

watch it again in order to concentrate on the language: One group can be detailed to watch/listen for any grammar mistakes, another group cas be asked to listen for pronunciation problems, another for vocabulary problems, etc. That way students are actively involved in the feedback process .

Teachers should be aware, however , that feedback of this kind using audio or videotape will take a long time and only a small amount of the recording can be dealt with .

Two final points need to be made . Firstly it is important to stress again that feedback does not just include correcting language mistakes. It also means reacting to the subject and content of an activity Secondly we have been discussing errors and mistakes, but feedback also means telling students what went right. Where they have achieved a successful outcome , or when they have used good and appropriate language , they need to be told this One of the groups of students watching the video playback (see (c) above) can be watching for anything which they think worked particularly well , should be written down as well as problems.

when the teacher records language using pen and pencil , student successes our cline .

We can put the organising feedback function in the following place on
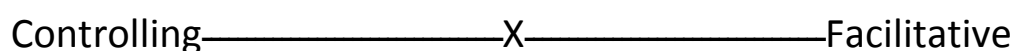
Controlling————————X————————Facilitative

Figure 22

11.1.3

The teacher as

Organizer

Perhaps the most important and difficult role the teacher has to play is that of the organiser . The success of many activities depends on good organization and on the students knowing exactly what they are to do. A lot of time can be wasted if the teacher omits to give students vital information or issues conflicting and confusing instructions .

The main aim of the teacher when organising an activity is to tell the to talk about (or write or read about) , give students what they are going clear instructions about what exactly their task is , get the activity going , and then organize feedback when it is over . This sounds remarkably easy , but can be disastrous if teachers have not thought out exactly what they are going to say beforehand.

Certain things should definitely not be done when organising an activity: teachers should never , for example, assume that students have understood the instructions. It is always wise to check that they have grasped what they have to do , and where possible , the students native language can be used for this. Teachers should never issue unclear instructions ; it is wise to plan out what you are going to say beforehand and then say it clearly and concisely In lower level classes with monolingual groups , the students ' language could be used for this if absolutely necessary It is essential for the teacher to plan exactly what information the students will need . For example , if an information gap exercise is being used (such as those in 7.1.2)

students must be told not to look at each other's material . If they do the exercise will be ruined . If students are reading for specific

information (see 10.4.2) they must clearly understand at they w try to understand everything , but only need to get the snower to see they do not understand this a lor lost Lastly teachers at be careful about when they get student look at the material they will be using for the activity. If they hand ou give instructions they will find that the desc looking at the material and not listening to the instructions

In Part B of this book we have seen many activities and described the teacher will organise them Expecially in chapter 8 we have led the stages the teacher should go through when organising communication The organization of an activity. and the instructions the teacher is gar of vital importance since if the students have set understood dearly what they are to do they will not be able to perform their task satisfactory The organization of an activity can be divided into three main parts s the finst the teacher gives a lead - in . Like the lead in for presentation or for the treatment receptive skills this will probably take the form of a troduction to the subject . The teacher and students may briefly discute topic order start thinking about it . This 17 (4) , for examplc . In 8.13 (c) (the describe and draw game) the teacher's lead - in might be very simple, you're going to test your artistic powers by drawing a picture. The idea of this exenose is to see how well you can talk about a picture and ge instructions in the case of many of the reading and listening exercises we looked at in Chapter 10 the lead concerned a familiarization with the topic (sce , for example 10.4 1. (a) and

10.4.2 (a) .

When the lead - at stage has been accomplished the teacher intrace This is where the students are told exactly what they should do. The teacher many of our examples in Chapter 8 tell the students they are going to work in pairs and then designate one member of each pair as A

and the other as B. In the describe and draw example the teacher the gives each student A a picture and says , " Do not show this pictate to Ban the A students have their pictures the When the end of the game . Want all the B students to draw the same picture as the one A has . A will give you instructions and you may ask questions.You must not look at A's picture until the game is complete at this stage particularly in a monolingual class, it may be a good idea to get an of these instructions to make sure the students have understood. well organise a demonstration of the activity before giving instructions (see the information pap practice activities in 7.1.2) Finally the teacher initiates the activity A final check is pres that students have understood , eg Has got any questions good. you go The teacher may ask the students to see if they can be the first to finish , thus adding a competitive element which is the highly says , 1 teacher motivating.

The lead - in - instrict (demonstrate) initiate organise feedback sequence can almost always be followed when the teacher is setting activities - when the teacher is acting as organiser . For the sequence to have the right effect the teacher must remember to work out carefully what

instructions to give and what the key concepts for the activity are (mucha we work out what key concepts are necessary at the lead - in stage when introducing a new language). The job is then to organize the activity s efficiencies as possible, frequently checking that the students have understood. Once the activity has started the teacher will not intervene (where pais! to prompt (see 11.1.4), groupwork is being used) unless it is to use gentle correction (see 11.1.2) .

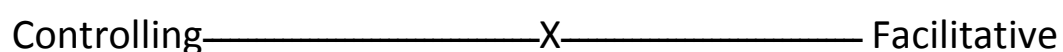The teacher's role as organiser goes on our cline in the following way :

Controlling————————————X————————— Facilitative

Figure 23

11.1.4

The teacher as

Prompter

Often the teacher needs to encourage students to participate or needs to make suggestions about how students may proceed in an activity when there is a silence or when they are confused about what to do next. This is one of the teacher's important roles , the role of prompter . In 7.1.4 we looked at follow - up questions and real answers and we saw the teacher prompting the students to use these devices . The teacher encouraged the students to ask follow - up questions and was ready with suggestions about what those questions might be in case the students could not think any themselves. We also said that in simulations the teacher might need to prompt the students with information they have forgotten. The role of prompter has to be performed with discretion for if teachers are too aggressive they start to take over from the students , whereas the idea is that they should be helping them only when it is necessary The teacher's role as prompter goes on our cline in the following way :

Controlling————————————X———————————— Facilitative

Figure 24

11.1.5

The teacher as

Participant

There is no reason why the teacher should not participate as an equal in an activity especially where activities like simulations are taking place Clearly on a lot of occasions it will be difficult for us to do so as equals (since we often know all the material and all the details, etc. such as

with information gap exercises, jigsaw listening, etc.). In 8.1.7 we said that teachers might join simulations as participants , sometimes playing roles themselves The danger is that the teacher will tend to dominate , and the students will both allow and expect this to happen. It will be up to the teacher to make sure it does not .

Teachers should not be afraid to participate since not only will it probably improve the atmosphere in the class , but it will also give the students a chance to practice English with someone who speaks it better than they do.

The teacher's role as participant goes on our cline in the following way:
Controlling————————————X-Facilitative

Figure 25

11.1.6

The teacher as a

resource

We have stressed the importance of teacher non-intervention where a genuinely communicative activity is taking place in the classroom and this means that the teacher is left , to some extent , with nothing to do. There are still two very important although roles , however One is to be aware of what is going on as an assessor - discreetly and the other is to be a kind of walking resource center . In other words the teacher should always be ready to offer help if it is needed . After all we have the language that the students may be missing , and this is especially true if the students are involved in some kind of writing task . Thus we make ourselves available so that students can consult us when (and only when) they wish. are at the facilitative end of our cline :

Controlling————————————X—Facilitative

Figure 26

11.1.7

The teacher as

Tutor

We can talk about the teacher as a tutor in the sense of someone who acts as a coach and as a resource where students are involved in their own work. and call upon the teacher mainly for advice and guidance . This is the role the teacher adopts where students are involved in self-study or where they are doing a project work of their own choosing (see 8.4). The teacher will be able to help them clarify ideas and limit the task , for example ; the teacher can help them by pointing out errors in rough drafts , the teacher can also offer the students advice about how to get the most out of their learning and what to do if they want to study more .

This tutorial role- which approximates to a counseling function - ischen appropriate at intermediate and advanced levels. It is a broader role than the others we have since it incorporates parts of some of the other roles, i.e. organiser , prompter and resource . It is , nevertheless , a facilitative role and therefore occurs to the right on our diagram :

Controlling————————X—Facilitative

Figure 27

11.1.8

The teacher as

Investigator

All the roles we have mentioned so far have had to do with the teacher's behavior as it relates to the students . But teachers themselves will want to develop their own skills and they will hope for a deepening insight into the best ways to foster language learning .

Of course it is possible to go on teacher training courses and to attend .

teachers' seminars. These will certainly help teachers to come acrossw ideas and keep abreast of what is happening . But teachers can develop by themselves or with colleagues , too . The best way to do this is by investigating what is going on , observing what works well in class and what e appropriacy does not , trying out new techniques and activities and evaluating their efficiency.

teachers who do not investigate the new methods and who do not Actively seek their own personal and professional development may find the job of teaching becoming increasingly monotonous. Teachers who constantly seek to enrich their understanding of what learning is all about constantly rewarding . and what works well, on the other hand, will find the teaching of English 11.2 Student groupings) 11.2.1 Lockstep[3] Lockstep is the class grouping where all the students are working with the teacher , where all the students are locked into the same rhythm and pace , the same activity (the term is borrowed from the language laboratory) Lockstep is the traditional teaching situation , in other words , where a teacher - controlled session is taking place . The accurate reproduction stage usually takes place in lockstep (though this is not necessarily the only way it can be done) with all the students working as one group and the acting teacher as controller and assessor. In previous chapters we have often talked about activities where students work in pairs or in groups . We will now consider briefly the relative merits and uses of various student groups . We will consider lockstep, pairwork, groupwork, the use of the mother tongue, and individual study. Lockstep has certain advantages . It usually means that all the class are concentrating , and the teacher can usually be sure that everyone can hear what is being said. The students are usually getting a good language model from the teacher , and lockstep can often be very dynamic . Many students find the lockstep stage (where choral repetition , etc. takes place) very che de a comforting . There

are , in other words , a number of reasons why lockstep is a good idea . There are also reasons , though , why the use of lockstep alone is less than satisfactory . In the first place , students working in lockstep get little chance to practise or to talk at all . Simple mathematics will show that if a ten-minute accurate reproduction stage takes place in a class of forty, and if cach student response takes thirty seconds (including instructing and correcting) only half the class will be able to say anything at all. If this is true of controlled sentences, then the situation with language use is far more serious. In a class of forty only a very small percentage of the class will get a de pe chance to speak .

 Lockstep always goes at the wrong speed ! Either the teacher is too slow for the good students (and therefore there is a danger that they will get bored) or the lesson is too fast for the weak students (in which case they may panic and not learn what is being taught). Shy and nervous students also find lockstep work extremely bad for the nerves since they are likely to be exposed in front of the whole class .

Most seriously, though, kockstep, where the teacher acts as a controller, cannot be the ideal grouping for communicative work. If students are going to use the language they are learning they will not be able to do so locked into a teacher - controlled drill And if they are to attain student autonomy they must be able to do so by using the language on their own. Lockstep, in other words, involves too much teaching and too little learning! This rather bleak view of lockstep activities does not mean we should abandon the whole class grouping completely . As we have said , it has its uses . Where feedback is taking place after a reading or listening task clearly it will be advantageous to have the whole class involved at the same time both so that they can check their answers and so that the teacher can assess their performance as a group Where pair and groupwork are to be set up clearly the whole class has to listen to instructions , etc.

11.2.2

Pairwork

We have mentioned pairwork before (e - g for question and answer practice , information gap exercises , simulations , etc.) and students can be put in pairs for a great A variety of work including writing and reading .

Pairwork seems to be a good idea because it immediately increases the amount of student practice. If we refer back to our imaginary class of forty students we can immediately see that at any one time (in an oral pairwork exercise) twenty students are talking at once instead of one . Pairwork allows the students to use language (depending of course on the task set by the teacher) and also encourages the student.co - operation which is itself important for the atmosphere of the class and for the motivation it gives to learning with others. Since the teacher as controller is no longer dominantly present students can help each other to use and learn language . The teacher will still be able to act as an assessor, prompter or resource, of course. With pairwork , then , students can practice language use and joint learning . Certain problems occur with pairwork , however . Incorrectness is a worry , but as we have repeatedly said accuracy is not the only standard to judge learning by : communicative efficiency is also vitally important and pairwork encourages such efficiency .

Teachers sometimes worry about noise and indiscipline when paitwork www W is used particularly with children and adolescents. A lot depends here on the de during task we set and on our attitude during the activity . If we go and concentrate FRON on one pair in the corner of the room to the exclusion of the others , then indeed the rest of the class may forget their task and start playing about ! If there is a danger of this happening the teacher should probably remain at the front of the class (where without interfering in any way we can get a

general idea what is going and then organise feedback when the pairwork task is over to see how successful it was. We should try and make sure that the pairwork task is not carried out for too long. Students who are left in pairs for a long time often become bored and are then not only not learning, but also become restless and perhaps badly behaved. If the noise rises to excessive levels then the teacher can simply stop the activity , explain the problem and ask the students to continue more quietly. that the type of pairwork the teacher will organization depends on the type of activity the class is working

with In Chapter 6 we saw many examples where students worked in pairs doing drills , or asking and answering questions using language that had just been presented . Sometimes they will merely be practising a learnt dialogue (see , for example , 6.6.3 (a) where students have a brief pairwork session in which they repeat the dialogue before using it - later - as a model for their own conversations) or working together to agree on the answers to a reading exercise .

The point being made here is that it may be a good idea to familiarize students with pairwork at the beginning of a course by giving them this kind of very short , simple , task to As students get used to the idea of working in pairs the teacher can extend the range of activities being offered A decision has to be taken about how students are put in pairs .

Teachers will have to decide whether they will put strong students with weak students or whether they will vary the combination of the pairs from class to class. Many teachers adopt a random approach to putting students together. in pairs while others deliberately mix students who do not necessarily sit .

there seems to be no research to give an answer to the ideal combinations for either pairs or groups (see 11.2.3).

Teachers should probably make their decision based on the particular class and on whether they wish to put special students together ,

whether they want to do it at random (eg by the letter of the alphabet which begins the student's name) or whether they simply put students Sitting next to each other in pairs

Pairwork , then , is a way of increasing student participation and language use . It can be used for an enormous number of activities whether speaking , writing or reading .

11.2.3 Groupwork

Many of the activities in Chapter 8 were designed for students in groups (see for example 8.1 1 (a), 8.1.4 (c), 8.2.3 (a), etc.) and teachers have been realising for some time now the The advantages of organizing the students into groups of five , for example , to complete certain tasks.

Groupwork seems to be an extremely attractive idea for a number of reasons . Just as in pairwork , we can mention the increase in the amount of student talking time and we can place emphasis on the opportunities it gives students really to use language to communicate with each other . When all the students in a grou a group are working together to produce an advertisement , for example , they will be communicating with each other and more importantly co - operating among themselves . Students will be teaching and learning in the group exhibiting a degree of self - reliance that simply is not possible when the teacher is acting as a controller .

In some ways groupwork is more dynamic than pairwork : there are more people to react with and against in a group and , therefore , there is a greater possibility of discussion . There is a greater chance that at least one member of the group will be able to solve a problem when it arises, and working in groups is potentially more relaxing than working in pairs , for the latter puts a greater demand on the student's ability to co - operate closely

often be more exciting and dynamic than some pairwork tanks. with only one other person . It is also true to say that groupwork tanks can of course the worries that apply to pairwork (like the use of the students native language (see 11.2.4), noise and indecipline) apply equally to solutions will be the same as those for pairwork groupwork the problems do not seem insuperable , though , and the once again the biggest problem is one of selection of group members Some teachers use what is called a sociogram where , for example , students are asked to write down the name of the student in the class they would most like to have with them if they were stranded on a desert stand . This technique certainly tells the teacher who the popular and unpopular staden are, but will not help to form groups of equal sizes since popularity is not shared round a class in such a neat way. At the beginning of a coune a know each other.

A sociogram may not be appropriate anyway since students will often not A lot of teachers form groups where weak and strong students are mixed together. This is often a good thing for the weak students (although there is a danger that they will be overpowered by the stronger members of the group and will thus not participate) and probably does not hinder the stronger students from getting the maximum benefit from the activity Sometimes, however, it is probably a good idea to make groups of strong students and groups of weaker students.

worth The teacher can then give the groups different tasks to perform . It is pointing out here that one of the major possibilities offered by groupwork is just this fact that where there are students of different levels and interests in a class, different groups can be formed so that not all the students are necessarily working on the same material At the same time PESON s Group size is also slightly problematical : in general it is probably safe to say that groups FACE of more than seven students can be unmanageable since the amount of student dent

participation obviously falls and the organization of the group itself may start to disintegrate . But this is not always the case and a lot depends on the activity being performed . Where decisions have to be taken as a result of the activity it is probably a good idea to have an odd number in each group since i in that way a split decision is impossible (see for example the activity in 8.1.1 (b)) . In more general tasks (e.g. designing material together or doing the first stage of jigaw listening, etc.) the necessity for odd numbers in the groups is obviously not so great.

A major possibility for groupwork is the idea of flexible groups . Here students start in set groups , and as an activity progresses the groups split up and re-form , or they join together until the class is fully re-formed. An example of this type of flexible grouping is 8.1.4 (c) where students start in groups of six and then re - form with each member of the original groups now being a member of another group . The activities in 8.1.1 . however, in which students work to reach a consensus, start by having small groups of students. Gradually these groups are joined together . Thus if the class starts in groups of three , two groups will then be joined to make groups of six then of twelve , etc. (see pages 122 and 123).

One other issue confronts us with groupwork , and that is the possibility

of having group leaders. We have already said that different grimps may be doing different tasks . There is nothing intrinsically wrong with the idea that while one group is doing a fluency activity, another group should be doing something like an accurate reproduction stage of a listening or reading activity. It may be advantageous in such cases to have one student acting as a group leader . The group leader could have two functions on would be to act as the group organiter , making sure that a task was properly done , that the information was properly recorded or collected , ete , and the other could be as a mini - teacher

where a student could conduct a drill or a dialogue , etc. In the latter case the teacher would have to make sure that the student was properly primed for the task . Certainly in mixed - ability groups (where students do not all have the same level of English) the idea of a student acting as a mini - teacher is attractive . In practice, though, even where groups are leaderless, students tend to take on definite roles. While one student is permanently commenting on what is happening (e.g. "We seem to be agreeing on this point") another in permanently disagreeing with everybody ! Some students seem to need to push the group towards a quick decision while others keep quiet unless they are forced to speak. This seems to be a matter of individual personality and few teachers are equipped to make reasoned judgments about exactly how to handle such situations. Ideally all teachers would take a training in psychology including a lot of work on group dynamics : if teachers have not done this , common sense and a degree of sensitivity seem essential .

Groupwork offers enormous potential . It can be used for oral work , tasks where decisions have to be taken , joint reading tasks , listening tasks , co - operative writing and many other things it also has the great advantage of allowing different groups of students to be doing different things in the same classroom .

11.2.4

The use of the

Mother tongue

One of the biggest problems in the use of pairwork and groupwork is the use of the mother tongue by students in monolingual groups . It sometimes seems that they are unable or unwilling to take part in activities in English . How can a teacher try to discourage the use of the

mother tongue ? Should a teacher always discourage it ? We If students are speaking in their own language rather than English during an oral communicative activity then clearly the activity is fairly pointless. If, however, students are comparing their answers to reading comprehension questions, or trying to do a vocabulary - matching exercise in pairs then their occasional use of the mother tongue need not concern us. They are concentrating exclusively on English , and if a bit of their own language helps them to do this in a relaxed way that is all to the p have already said that teachers may want to have students translate the instructions they have given to check if the students have understood them (see 11.1.3). In other words, our attitude to the students' use of their own language will change , depending on the activity they and we are involved in . It is important that students realise that our attitude to their language depends on the activity in question . If they don't know this they will not know why and when we are insisting on English only

 There are three things we can do about the use of the students language :

 (a) Talk to the class M Have a discussion with the students (in their own language if they are beginners) about the use of their language . Get them to understand that whilst sometimes it is not too much of a problem , during oral activities it is not helpful. Ask them what they think the point of communicative activities is and get them to agree that it is essential for them to try and stick to the use of English in such activities even where it is difficult.

 (b) During an activity encourage the students to use English . Go round the classroom helping students away from their language for this activity Students will naturally slip into their language unless you remind them and prompt them. In most classes the use of discussion and explanation, and the prompting of students during activities,

ensures that English is used most of the time. With some groups , however , your efforts may not appear to be successful .

 (c) Back to basics With some groups of your attempts to have them use English do not work: despite your explanations and promptings, students will not use English. In such cases tell them that as a consequence of this you are not going to use that type of activity any more . Use only tightly controlled activities for pairwork until you are confident that they will take part properly . Then become a little more adventurous and gradually move back in stages towards the use of freer activities in groups.

11.2.5

Individual study

Sometimes we must let students work on their own at their own pace . If we do not we will not be allowing the individual any learning ' space ' at all . Individual study is a good idea precisely because students can relax from outside pressure (provided there is no time limit or competitive element) and because they can rely on themselves rather than other people. Both reading and writing work can be the focus for individual study although as we have seen in Chapters 9 and 10 there are many uses for pair and groupwork upwork here as well .

 Individual study is also frequently quiet ! This attribute should not be underestimated . Sometimes we need a period of relative silence to reassemble our learning attitudes . Of course language laboratories, listening centres, learning centers and individual computer terminals are ideal for students working on their own. Where such facilities exist, teachers should try and ensure that self-study is a planned part of the weekly programme. Where they do not exist, however, teachers should not forget the importance of individual study in their enthusiasm for pair and groupwork.

The use of different student groupings must be sensitively handled . While we , as teachers , may be clear on the value of groupwork , for example . Students may resent always having to work with their peers . There are

occasions where a class needs to have a teacher controlling what is going on The nature of the task has a lot to do with this as well , as do the studente reactions to each other . In other words, while we may rightly conclude that the use of different student groupings is vital in any language program, we should also use these groupings intelligently and appropriately in order to create positive learning for our students, not provoke negative reactions.

11.3

Disruptive

behaviour

 at some stage of their lives all teachers encounter disruptive behavior - a student or student whose behavior gets in the way of the class Such disruption can be difficult to deal with. outbursts are frequently hostile to the teacher or the other students and they Disruptive behavior is not confined to one age group . Eleven-year olds can become incredibly unruly and noisy, and adolescents may become different ways. They may publicly disagree with the teacher or try to completely unresponsive and unco - operative . Adult students are disruptive in ways of disrupting a class !

 become the class character to the detriment of their peers . There are lots of One way of avoiding most disruptive behavior (though not all) is by making sure that all your students of whatever age know where you stand Somehow you and they have to agree upon a code of conduct . With many need to be spelled out . adult classes this is an unspoken arrangement : with younger students it may A code of conduct involves

the teacher and students i forms of behavior in the classroom . Certain things do not comply with such forms of behavior - for example arriving late, interrupting other students when they speak, bringing drinks and food into the room, forgetting to do homework . not paying attention , etc. Where a code of conduct is established both teacher and students will recognise these acts as outside the code. The teacher's role in the first few classes with a new group will be to establish the code through discussion and example . If this is done it will be easier to show students where they are going wrong later on . It is worth emphasising that the establishment of a code will be done differently , depending on the age of the students. With adults you may discuss the behavior of behavior that should apply, whereas with younger children you may be a bit more dictatorial - although here too the agreement of the class about what the code should greatly improve the chances of success. Now that you have a code of conduct things should be all right . And yet students still behave badly . Why is this ?

There seem to be three possible reasons for discipline problems , the teacher , the students and the institution . We will examine each of these in turn.

(a) The teacher's behavior and the attitude of the teacher is perhaps the single most important factor in a classroom, and thus can have a major effect on discipline. We can make a list of things that teachers should probably not do if they want to avoid problems:

Don't go w class unprepared Students automatically identity a are not sure what to do in the droom . Particularly for the classes t knowledgeable about the subject.

might cause trouble , the teacher has to appear to be well prepared and Don't be inconstiene if the teacher als students to come te class late without taking action one work they cannot be reproached for

doing the same thing again the week after Teachers have to be content , in other respect for it.

Don't issue threats: Teachers who threatens students with terrible punishments and then do not carry them out are doing both the class and themselves a diservice . Hopefully threats are not necessary, but it is absolutely fatal to say that some action is going to be taken if it is no Don't raise your voice. One of the great mistakes of many teachers is to try and establish control by raising their voices and shouting. This was has disastrous consequences for it contributions to a general raising of the level of cose in the classroom. Very often a quiet voice is far more effective.

 Don't give boring classes: We saw in Chapter 1 how important students found in that classes should be interesting (see page 6). It seems true that perhaps the greatest single cause of indiscipline is boredom . Interested students do not misbehave in the same way.

 d Don't be unfair Teachers cannot allow themselves to be unfair , either to the class as a whole or to individuals . Teachers should always try to have favorites or picking on particular individuals . Most teachers, of chure , have students that they like or dislike more than others, but a may part of their job is not to show these preferences and prejudices in the Don't have a negative attitude to learning A teacher who does not really care and who is insensitive to the student reactions to what is happening in the classroom will love the respect of the students - the first step to problems of disruptive behavior.

 Don't break the code: If part of the code is that the students should arrive on time , then the teacher must too . If there is a ban on chewing gum, then the teacher should not chew gum. If homework must be handed in on time it must also be corrected promptly . A teacher who behaves in a way that is considered anti-social and which is dinapproved of if imitated by the students will destroy the code of

conduct , for it either exists for the group as z whole (including the teacher) or it does not exist at all.

 (b) The students A teacher who does everything to avoid trouble may still have problems because of the students and all practicing teachers know that while one group may cause no trouble, another may be difficult to handle.

There are, of course, a number of reasons why students behave badly

and we can mention a few of these:

 Time of day: The attitude of the students is often affected by when the class takes place. If the students are all tired after a long day of study, they may find exacting classes too challenging. If the class takes place just before i lunch students may tend not to pay too much attention as the lunch hour approaches . Early morning classes may cause students to be sleepy , classes after lunch are often full of drowsy students. The teacher must take these factors into account when planning the class (see Chapter 12).

 The student's attitude: A lot depends on how the student views the class, the teacher, and the subject being learned. Clearly , therefore , it is important for these to be seen in a positive - or at least neutral- light . For many reasons , though , students are often hostile to English classes and their teachers . Where a student starts with a negative attitude, however, much can be done: if the class is interesting - if students can become interested even against their better judgment - a lot of the problem will disappear.

 A desire to be noticed: It is generally accepted that adolescence is a difficult time and that young adolescents often need to be noticed or have a desire to be recognised in some way. This is not just special to adolescents , however . And most teachers are familiar with students in their classes who demand attention and who are quite prepared to

be disruptive in order to gain the recognition they need . Its seems somewhat short - sighted , then , to label such bad behavior as in some way wicked and punish it harshly . Much more important is the possibility of channelling this behavior and involving the student ; if recognition is what is needed then the teacher should try to make sure that it can be given within the context of the language class.

Two's company . Two students being disruptive together are far more effective than one ! They may encourage each other in their anti - social behavior and gradually influence whole group . Action in such cases has to be taken fairly rapidly, and much can be achieved if students are reseated, if the troublemakers are separated, and if particularly disruptive students are made to sit at the front. Students have a number of reasons for behaving badly : they cannot always be easily controlled and much will depend on the particular group and the particular teacher . In general , though , a bored student is a discipline problem , whereas an interested student who knows and understands the code is not .

(c) The institution

A lot depends on the attitude of the institution to disruptive student behaviour. Ideally there will be a recognised system for dealing with problem classes and students. It is to be hoped that the teacher can consult co-ordinators or department heads when in trouble, and that cases of extremely bad behavior can be acted upon by such people. If the institution does not have a recognised policy for dealing with discipline problems then it is up to the teachers to press for such a system.

Ultimately a student who causes a severe problem has to be handled by the school authority rather than by teachers on their own and it is , therefore , in the teachers ' interest to see that there is a coherent policy bad effect Teachers should be careful about showing that they disagree with the policy of the institution (where they do) since this can have generally on other classes in the same area Teachers who disagree about things like the choice of A textbook, for example, should not show this disagreement too openly to the students, but work with the administration to have the decision changed.

11.3.2

Action in case of

Indisipline

There are many causes of discipline problems, some of which we have looked at in this section. Generally we have been dealing with classes of children and adolescents , but many of the comments we have made apply equally well to adult classes for here too the teacher must have some kind of code of conduct and must take account , for example , of the time of day when the class takes place . There are a number of things a teacher can do when students behave badly . but in general two points can be made . Any ' punishment that hurts a student physically or emotionally is probably dangerous and harmful in many ways . Its effect cannot be measured and it probably encourages in the student behavior and psychology that we would want to avoid as educators. The ability to control a group of students when things get out of hand depends on a large extent on the personality of the teacher , and some teachers certainly appear to find it easier than others. There are , however , a y number of measures that can be taken .

(a)   Act immediately

 We have stressed the need for a code. When it is broken the teacher should Tact immediately.   If the indiscipline involves anti-social

behavior in the classroom the teacher should take steps at once. Where it involves things like not bringing books to class the teacher should speak to the student á either during or immediately after the class. The longer a discipline problem is left unchecked, the more difficult it is to take action.

(b) Stop the class

where the indiscipline involves disruptive behavior of the teacher should immediately stop the class. This is a clear indication to all the students that something is wrong. The teacher may then tell the students who are behaving badly what is wrong . Many teachers refuse to re-start the class until the student has settled down , they simply stop the class , make it clear that the student's behavior is unsatisfactory , and wait until things improve .

(c) Reseating

An effective way of controlling a student who is behaving badly is to make the student sit in a different place immediately. Certainly where troublesome students are sitting together they should be separated . Often if LITHINUBARS LITÀ students are moved to the front of the class they will be better.

(d) Change the activity Particularly where a majority of the class seem to be gradually getting out of control, a change of activity will often restore order thus a quick writing task will often quieten students down and at the same time provide good writing practice. The same effect can often be achieved by a reading task or a listening exercise. In general , anti - social behavior can usually be cured if students are given something to do which will involve them .

(e) After the class where one student is continually giving trouble the teacher should probably take that student to one side after the class is over . It will be necessary to explain to the student why the behavior is

anti - social . At the same time the student should be given a chance to say why he or she behaves in this way The teacher can also clearly spell out the consequences if the disruptive behavior continues .

(f) Using the institution when problems become extreme it will be necessary to use the institution - the school or institute - to solve them. Many institutes will then seek the help of the child's parents (where children are concerned). This seems a reasonable thing to do since it is important for parents to be involved in their children's education . They can be contacted in cases of continual lateness , truancy , forgetting to bring materials and bad behaviour. The institution, of course, has the final power of expulsion or exclusion: it is to be hoped that it is almost never used. The institution does also have the power to warn students of the consequences of their action , to change students from one class to another and to explain to students their attitude towards bad behavior. Teachers should not have to suffer serious problems on their own. They should consult their co - ordinators , department heads and principals when they need help .

There are, of course, other possible courses of action where indiscipline takes place, the options we have considered at avoiding the possibility of either physical assault or humiliation: both are seriously wrong particularly for children and adolescents.

In this chapter we have discussed the subject of class management We have seen that a teacher has a number of different roles and that the adoption of only one of these (e.g. teacher as controller) will be detrimental to a and interesting class. Teachers must be aware of the different roles they can adopt and know when and how to use them . and shown how lockstep on its We have discussed student groups own is not sufficient . We have shown the advantages and disadvantages of pairwork, groupwork and individual study and discussed their importance during the learning process, showing that it is during group - and pairwork that a lot of real learning (rather than teaching) takes

place since the students can really use language to communicate with one another.

We have discussed the difficult problem of discipline and said that involves a code of conduct designed so that learning can be found effective. We have shown some reasons for indiscipline and we have suggested some action that can be taken when the side of conduct is no adhered to .

Discussion

1. When do you think the teacher should act as a controller ? Why

2. Can you think of any other roles the teacher might adopt in de classroom apart from the ones mentioned here ?

3. How much time do you think should be devoted to lockstep , pairwork groupwork and individual study ?

4. Why do you think groupwork is important ?

5. Can you think of any other reasons why discipline problems might other than those quoted in 11.3.17

6. Do you agree with the various courses of action in 11 327 What other action would you be prepared to take in cases of indiscipline ?

Exercises

1. Take any two activities from Chapters 6-10 of this book and say what roles the teacher will be adopting for each activity and why

2. Look at the textbook you are using for one you are familiar with) and identify those activities which are intended for pair - and/or groupwork

3. Take any activity from your textbook (or one you are familiar with) which is concerned with the practice output of communicative output and say how you would organize the activity

4 Take a reading and/or listening exercise from your textbook (or one you are familiar with) and say what you will do for the lead - in stage. What instructions will you give ?

5 What items would you include in a ' code of conduct for a class of thirteen - year - olds ? Make a list and then decide how you would present the code to the class .

References

1. On the role of the teacher see A Wright (1987), and H Widdowson (1987) in more philosophical vein A McLean's provocative views on the traditional role of the teacher (McLean 1980) are also worth reading. R. Gower and S Walters (1983) Chapters

2. and 3 discuss the behavior of the teacher and t the management of a classroom. 2 K Blanchard et al. (1987) in their book Leadership and the One Minute Manager - written for corporation managemer in the USA - see the extremes in four stages: directing coaching - supporting - delegating where delegating is directly opposite to the directing (or controlling) role.

3. See C Crouch (1989) for examples of successful performance teaching 4 See T Lowe (1985).

5. The teacher's role in lockstep can change . W Plumb (1978) shows examples of this .

6. On groupwork see D Byrne (1986) pp . 76-80 , A Littlejohn (1987) and G Jacobs (1988) .

7. D Byrne (see reference 6) suggests groups of roughly equal size . M Long (1977) suggests that it is not necessary to have groups of equal size if the sociogram (or similar device) indicates unequal groups .

8. D Atkinson (1987) argues that we have ignored the benefits that mother tongue use can bring .

9. See J Reid (1987) .

 10. A number of the ideas in this section resulted from collaboration with Jean Pender and other colleagues at the Instituto Anglo - Mexicano de Cultura in Guadalajara . Mirglattial .

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14- Much of the content of this chapter is heavily influenced by work which I have been doing on vocabulary material with Richard Rossner , I have made use of many of his insights here , though the final result is entirely my own responsibility .

15- See especially the excellent Gairns and Redman (1986) written for language teachers , and the more theoretical Carter and McCarthy (1988) which explores some of the issues behind how words work and how they are learnt and acquired . McCarthy (1991) looks at vocabulary and how it is treated in teaching materials and practice .

16- See Channell (1988) who states that there is justification for teaching approaches which make vocabulary learning a separate activity . ' (page 94) .