**SEMESTER – II**

**DSCC – V**

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| **YEAR** | **SEMESTER** | **Title** | **L** | **T** | **P** | **C** |
| **I** | **II** | **ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING METHODOLOGY** | **4** | **0** | **0** | **4** |

**Objectives:**

1. To understand the history and evolution of English Language
2. To understand the different approaches and methods in English Language Teaching.
3. To learn the different tools effective in English Language teaching.

**UNIT I: History of ELT**

The brief history of Language Teaching

English in India – Past, Present and Future

**UNIT II: Approaches and Methods**

Communicative Language Teaching Method - Total Physical Response -The Silent Way

The nature of Human language – Linguistics, Psychology and English Teaching– Methods – Approach, Method and Technique

**UNIT III: Grammar and LSRW Skills**

Essential Word – Grammar for teachers – Teaching of vocabulary – Essentials of English Grammar -The Teaching of Grammar – Essentials of English speech – Teaching spoken English: Some Techniques– Reading and Teaching of Reading -Writing and teaching of writing and composition

**UNIT IV: Teaching Literature**

Teaching Prose – Teaching Poetry – Teaching Drama – Teaching Fiction

**UNIT V: Teaching Tools and Assessment**

Use of Blackboard and Other Instructional Aids– Study skills and reference skills - Test and Testing– Common Errors and remedial English – Planning and lesson planning

**REFERENCES**

* Jack.C.Richards, Theodore.S.Rodgers, Approaches and Methods in Language Teaching. UK: Cambridge University Press, 2001.
* Martin Parrot, Tasks for Language Teaching. New Delhi:CUP, 1993.

 **UNIT - I**

 **APPROACHES AND METHOD**

**COMMUNICATIVE LANGUAGE TEACHING**

The origins of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) are to be found in the changes in the British language teaching tradition dating from the late 1960s. Until then, Situational Language represented the major British approach to teaching English as *a*foreign language. In Situational Language Teaching, language was taught by practicing basic structures in meaningful situation-based activities.

British applied linguists emphasized another fundamental dimension of language that was inadequately addressed in current approaches to language teaching at that time - **the functional and communicative potential of language**. They saw the need to focus in language teaching on communicative proficiency rather than on mere mastery of structures.

Another impetus for different approaches to foreign language teaching came from changing educational realities in Europe. With the increasing interdependence of European countries came the need for greater efforts to teach adults the major languages of the European Common Market and the Council of Europe, a regional organization for cultural and educational cooperation. **Education was one of the Council of Europe's major areas of activity.** It sponsored international conferences on lan­guage teaching, published monographs and books about language teaching. **The need to articulate and develop alternative methods of language teaching was considered a high priority.**

In 1971 a group of experts began to investigate the possibility of developing language courses on a unit-credit system, a system in which learning tasks are broken down into "portions or units, each of which corresponds to a component of a learner's needs and is systematically related to all the other portions" (van Ek and Alexander 1980: 6). The group used studies of the needs of European language learners, and in particular a preliminary document prepared by a British linguist, D. A. Wilkins (1972), which proposed a functional or communicative defi­nition of language that could serve as a basis for developing commu­nicative syllabuses for language teaching. **Wilkins's contribution was an analysis of the communicative meanings that a language learner needs to understand and express. Rather than describe the core of language through traditional concepts of grammar and vocabulary, Wilkins attempted to demonstrate the systems of meanings that lay behind the communicative uses of language**.

The work of the Council of Europe; the writings of Wilkins, Wid­dowson, Candlin, Christopher Brumfit, Keith Johnson, and other British applied linguists on the theoretical basis for a communicative or func­tional approach to language teaching; the rapid application of these ideas by textbook writers; and the equally rapid acceptance of these new principles by British language teaching specialists, curriculum develop­ment centers, and even governments gave prominence nationally and internationally to what came to be referred to as the **Communicative Approach, or simply Communicative Language Teaching**. (The terms *notional-functional approach*and *functional approach*are also sometimes used.) Although the movement began as a largely British inno­vation, focusing on alternative conceptions of a syllabus, since the mid-1970s the scope of Communicative Language Teaching has expanded. **Both American and British proponents now see it as an approach (and not a method) that aims to (a) make communicative competence the goal of language teaching and (b) develop procedures for the teaching of the four language skills that acknowledge the interdependence of language and communication.**

Howatt distinguishes between a "strong" and a "weak" version of Communicative Language Teaching:

*There is, in a sense, a 'strong' version of the communicative approach and a 'weak' version. The weak version which has become more or less standard practice in the last ten years, stresses the importance of providing learners with opportunities to use their English for communicative purposes and, characteristically, attempts to integrate such activities into a wider program of language teaching.... The 'strong' version of communicative teaching, on the other hand, advances the claim that language is acquired through com­munication, so that it is not merely a question of activating an existing but inert knowledge of the language, but of stimulating the development of the language system itself. If the former could be described as 'learning to use' English, the latter entails 'using English to learn it.' (1984: 279)*

Finocchiaro and Brumfit (1983) contrast the major distinctive [features of the Audiolingual Method and the Communicative Approach](http://www2.vobs.at/ludescher/Alternative%20methods/audio_lingual_communicative_contrasting.htm) , according to their interpretation.

 **UNIT - II**

**Approach**

***Theory of language***

The communicative approach in language teaching starts from **a theory of language as communication**. **The goal of language teaching is to develop** what Hymes (1972) referred to **as "communicative competence**." Hymes coined this term in order to contrast a communica­tive view of language and Chomsky's theory of competence. Chomsky held that linguistic theory is concerned primarily with an ideal speaker-listener in a completely homogeneous speech community, who knows its language perfectly and is unaffected by such grammatically irrelevant conditions as mem­ory limitation, distractions, shifts of attention and interest, and errors (random or characteristic) in applying his knowledge of the language in actual performance. (Chomsky 1965: 3)

For Chomsky, the focus of linguistic theory was to characterize the abstract abilities speakers possess that enable them to produce gram­matically correct sentences in a language. Hymes held that such a view of linguistic theory was sterile, that linguistic theory needed to be seen as part of a more general theory incorporating communication and culture. **Hymes's theory of communicative competence was a definition of what a speaker needs to know in order to be communicatively com­petent in a speech community**. In Hymes's view, a person who acquires communicative competence acquires both knowledge and ability for language use with respect to

1. whether (and to what degree) something is formally possible;

2. whether (and to what degree) something is feasible in virtue of the means of implementation available;

3. whether (and to what degree) something is appropriate (adequate, happy, successful) in relation to a context in which it is used and evaluated;

4. whether (and to what degree) something is in fact done, actually per­formed, and what its doing entails.

This theory of what knowing a language entails offers a much more comprehensive view than Chomsky's view of competence, which deals primarily with abstract grammatical knowledge.

Another linguistic theory of communication favored in CLT is Halliday's functional account of language use. "Linguistics ... is concerned... with the description of speech acts or texts, since only through the study of language in use are all the functions of language, and therefore all components of meaning, brought into focus" (Halliday 1970: 145). In a number of influential books and papers, Halliday has elaborated **a powerful theory of the functions of language**, which complements Hymes's view of commu­nicative competence for many writers on CLT (e.g., Brumfit and Johnson 1979; Savignon 1983). He described (1975: 11-17) **seven basic functions that language performs for children learning their first language:**

1. the instrumental function: using language to get things;

2. the regulatory function: using language to control the behaviour of others;

3. the interactional function: using language to create interaction with others;

4. the personal function: using language to express personal feelings and meanings;

5. the heuristic function: using language to learn and to discover;

6. the imaginative function: using language to create a world of the imagination;

7. the representational function: using language to communicate information.

Learning a second language was similarly viewed by proponents of Communicative Language Teaching as acquiring the linguistic means to perform different kinds of functions.

At the level of language theory, Communicative Language Teaching has a rich, if somewhat eclectic, theoretical base. Some of the characteristics of this communicative view of language follow.

1. Language is a system for the expression of meaning.

2. The primary function of language is for interaction and communication.

3. The structure of language reflects its functional and communicative uses.

4. The primary units of language are not merely its grammatical and struc­tural features, but categories of functional and communicative meaning as exemplified in discourse.

**Theory of learning**

In contrast to the amount that has been written in Communicative Language Teaching literature about communicative dimensions of language, little has been written about learning theory. Neither Brumfit and Johnson (1979) nor Littlewood (1981), for example, offers any discus­sion of learning theory. Elements of an underlying learning theory can be discerned in some CLT practices, however. One such element might be described as the communication principle: **Activities that involve real communication promote learning**. A second element is the task principle: **Activities in which language is used for carrying out meaningful tasks promote learning** (Johnson 1982). A third element is the meaningfulness principle: **Language that is meaningful to the learner supports the learn­ing process**. Learning activities are consequently selected according to how well they engage the learner in meaningful and authentic language use (rather than merely mechanical practice of language patterns). These principles, we suggest, can be inferred from CLT practices (e.g., Little-wood 1981; Johnson 1982). They address the conditions needed to promote second language learning, rather than the processes of language acquisition.

More recent accounts of Communicative Language Teaching, however, have attempted to describe theories of language learning processes that are compatible with the communicative approach. Savignon (1983) surveys second language acquisition research as a source for learning theories and considers the role of linguistic, social, cognitive, and in­dividual variables in language acquisition. Other theorists (e.g., Stephen Krashen, who is not directly associated with Communicative Language Teaching) have developed **theories cited as compatible with the principles of CLT**. **Krashen sees acquisition as the basic process involved in developing language proficiency and distinguishes this proc­ess from learning.** Acquisition refers to the unconscious development of the target language system as a result of using the language for real communication. Learning is the conscious representation of grammatical knowledge that has resulted from instruction, and it cannot lead to acquisition. It is the acquired system that we call upon to create utter­ances during spontaneous language use. The learned system can serve only as a monitor of the output of the acquired system. Krashen and other second language acquisition theorists typically stress that language learning comes about through using language communicatively, rather than through practicing language skills.

Johnson (1984) and Littlewood (1984) consider an alternative learning theory that they also see as compatible with CLT-a skill-learning model of learning. According to this theory, the acquisition of communicative competence in a language is an example of skill development. This involves both a cognitive and a behavioral aspect:

The cognitive aspect involves the internalisation of plans for creating appro­priate behaviour. For language use, these plans derive mainly from the language system — they include grammatical rules, procedures for selecting vocabulary, and social conventions governing speech. The behavioural aspect involves the automation of these plans so that they can be converted into fluent performance in real time. This occurs mainly through practice in con­verting plans into performance. (Littlewood 1984: 74)

This theory thus encourages an emphasis on practice as a way of de­veloping communicative skills.

**Design**

**Objectives**

Piepho (1981) discusses the following levels of objectives in a communicative approach:

1. an integrative and content level (language as a means of expression)

2. a linguistic and instrumental level (language as a semiotic system and an object of learning);

3. an affective level of interpersonal relationships and conduct (language as a means of expressing values and judgments about oneself and others);

4. a level of individual learning needs (remedial learning based on error analysis);

5. a general educational level of extra-linguistic goals (language learning within the school curriculum).

(Piepho 1981: 8)

These are proposed as **general objectives**, applicable to any teaching situation. Particular objectives for CLT cannot be defined beyond this level of specification, since such an approach assumes that language teaching will reflect the particular needs of the target learners. These needs may be in the domains of reading, writing, listening, or speaking, each of which can be approached from a communicative perspective. Curriculum or instructional objectives for a particular course would reflect specific aspects of communicative competence according to the learner's proficiency level and communicative needs.

**The syllabus**

Discussions of the nature of the syllabus have been central in Communicative Language Teaching. We have seen that one of the first syllabus models to be proposed was described as a notional syllabus (Wilkins 1976), which specified the semantic-grammatical categories (e.g., frequency, motion, location) and the categories of communicative function that learners need to express. **The Council of Europe expanded and** **developed this into a syllabus that included descriptions of the objectives of foreign language courses for European adults, the situations in which they might typically need to use a foreign language (e.g., travel, business), the topics they might need to talk about (e.g., personal identification, education, shopping), the functions they needed language for (e.g., describing something, requesting information, expressing agreement and disagreement), the notions made use of in communication (e.g., time, frequency, duration), as well as the vocabulary and grammar needed. The result was published as *Threshold Level English***(van Ek and Alex­ander 1980) and was an attempt to specify what was needed in order to be able to achieve a reasonable degree of communicative proficiency in a foreign language, including the language items needed to realize this "threshold level."

**22.Explain the types of Learning and Teaching activities?(5 marks)part-a**

**Types of learning and teaching activities**

**The range of exercise types and activities compatible with a commu­nicative approach is unlimited, provided that such exercises enable learn­ers to attain the communicative objectives of the curriculum, engage learners in communication, and require the use of such communicative processes as information sharing, negotiation of meaning, and interaction.**Classroom activities are often designed to focus on completing tasks that are mediated through language or involve negotiation of in­formation and information sharing.

**Learner roles**

The emphasis in Communicative Language Teaching on the processes of communication, rather than mastery of language.

**Teacher roles**

Several roles are assumed for teachers in Communicative Language Teaching, the importance of particular roles being determined by the view of CLT adopted. Breen and Candlin describe teacher roles in the following terms:

The teacher has **two main roles: the first role is to facilitate the communica­tion process between all participants in the classroom, and between these participants and the various activities and texts. The second role is to act as an independent participant within the learning-teaching group.** The latter role is closely related to the objectives of the first role and arises from it. These roles imply a set of secondary roles for the teacher; first, as an organizer of resources and as a resource himself, second as a guide within the classroom procedures and activities.... A third role for the teacher is that of researcher and learner, with much to contribute in terms of appropriate knowledge and abilities, actual and observed experience of the nature of learning and organi­zational capacities. (1980: 99)

Other roles assumed for teachers are needs analyst, counselor, and group process manager.

8.Write in detail about CLT materials with conclusion.(part-B)10marks

NEEDS ANALYST

The CLT teacher assumes a responsibility for determining and respond­ing to learner language needs. This may be done informally and personally through one-to-one sessions with students, in which the teacher talks through such issues as the student's perception of his or her learning style, learning assets, and learning goals. It may be done formally through administering a needs assessment instrument, such as those exemplified in Savignon (1983). Typically, such formal assessments contain items that attempt to determine an individual's motivation for studying the language. For example, students might respond on a 5-point scale *(strongly agree*to *strongly disagree)*to statements like the following.

I want to study English because...

1. I think it will someday be useful in getting a good job.

2. it will help me better understand English-speaking people and their way of life.

3. one needs a good knowledge of English to gain other people's respect.

4. it will allow me to meet and converse with interesting people.

5. I need it for my job.

6. it will enable me to think and behave like English-speaking people.

On the basis of such needs assessments, teachers are expected to plan group and individual instruction that responds to the learners' needs.

counselor

Another role assumed by several CLT approaches is that of counselor, similar to the way this role is defined in Community Language Learning. In this role, the teacher-counselor is expected to exemplify an effective communicator seeking to maximize the meshing of speaker intention and hearer interpretation, through the use of paraphrase, confirmation, and feedback.

GROUP PROCESS MANAGER

CLT procedures often require teachers to acquire less teacher-centered classroom management skills. It is the teacher's responsibility to organize the classroom as a setting for communication and communicative ac­tivities. Guidelines for classroom practice (e.g., Littlewood 1981; Finocchiaro and Brumfit 1983) suggest that during an activity the teacher monitors, encourages, and suppresses the inclination to supply gaps in lexis, grammar, and strategy but notes such gaps for later commentary and communicative practice. At the conclusion of group activities, the teacher leads in the debriefing of the activity, pointing out alternatives

and extensions and assisting groups in self-correction discussion. Critics have pointed out, however, that non-native teachers may feel less than comfortable about such procedures without special training.

The focus on fluency and comprehensibility in Communicative Language Teaching may cause anxiety among teachers accustomed to seeing error suppression and correction as the major instructional responsibil­ity, and who see their primary function as preparing learners to take standardized or other kinds of tests. A continuing teacher concern has been the possible deleterious effect in pair or group work of imperfect modeling and student error. Although this issue is far from resolved, it is interesting to note that recent research findings suggest that "data contradicts the notion that other learners are not good conversational partners because they can't provide accurate input when it is solicited" (Porter 1983).

**The role of instructional materials**

A wide variety of materials have been used to support communicative approaches to language teaching. Unlike some contemporary methodologies, such as Community Language Learning, practitioners of Com­municative Language Teaching view materials as a way of influencing the quality of classroom interaction and language use. Materials thus have the primary role of promoting communicative language use. We will consider three kinds of materials currently used in CLT and label these text-based, task-based, and realia.

TEXT-BASED MATERIALS

There are **numerous textbooks** designed to direct and support Communicative Language Teaching. Their tables of contents sometimes sug­gest a kind of grading and sequencing of language practice not unlike those found in structurally organized texts. Some of these are in fact written around a largely structural syllabus, with slight reformatting to justify their claims to be based on a communicative approach. Others, however, look very different from previous language teaching texts. Morrow and Johnson's *Communicate*(1979), for example, has none of the usual dialogues, drills, or sentence patterns and uses visual cues, taped cues, pictures, and sentence fragments to initiate conversation. Watcyn-Jones's *Pair Work*(1981) consists of two different texts for pair work, each containing different information needed to enact role plays and carry out other pair activities. Texts written to support the Malay-sian *English Language Syllabus*(1975) likewise represent a departure from traditional textbook modes. A typical lesson consists of a theme (e.g., relaying information), a task analysis for thematic development (e.g., understanding the message, asking questions to obtain clarification, asking for more information, taking notes, ordering and presenting in­formation), a practice situation description (e.g., "A caller asks to see your manager. He does not have an appointment. Gather the necessary information from him and relay the message to your manager."), a stimulus presentation (in the preceding case, the beginning of an office conversation scripted and on tape), comprehension questions (e.g., "Why is the caller in the office?"), and paraphrase exercises.

TASK-BASED MATERIALS

A variety of games, role plays, simulations, and task-based communication activities have been prepared to support Communicative Lan­guage Teaching classes. These typically are in the form of one-of-a-kind items: exercise handbooks, cue cards, activity cards, pair-communication practice materials, and student-interaction practice booklets. In pair-communication materials, there are typically two sets of material for a pair of students, each set containing different kinds of information. Sometimes the information is complementary, and partners must fit their respective parts of the "jigsaw" into a composite whole. Others assume different role relationships for the partners (e.g., an interviewer and an interviewee). Still others provide drills and practice material in inter­actional formats.

**REALIA**

Many proponents of Communicative Language Teaching have advo­cated the use of "authentic," "from-life" materials in the classroom. These might include language-based realia, such as signs, magazines, advertisements, and newspapers, or graphic and visual sources around which communicative activities can he built, such as maps, pictures, symbols, graphs, and charts. Different kinds of objects can be used to support communicative exercises, such as a plastic model to assemble from directions.

**Conclusion**

Communicative Language Teaching is **best considered an approach rather than a method.** Thus although a reasonable degree of theoretical con­sistency can be discerned at the levels of language and learning theory, at the levels of design and procedure **there is much greater room for individual interpretation and variation than most methods permit**. It could be that one version among the various proposals for syllabus models, exercise types, and classroom activities may gain wider approval in the future, giving Communicative Language Teaching a status similar to other teaching methods. On the other hand, divergent interpretations might lead to homogeneous subgroups.

Communicative Language Teaching appeared at a time when British language teaching was ready for a paradigm shift. Situational Language Teaching was no longer felt to reflect a methodology appropriate for the seventies and beyond. **CLT appealed to those who sought a more humanistic approach to teaching, one in which the interactive processes of communication received priority**. The rapid adoption and implemen­tation of the communicative approach also resulted from the fact that it quickly assumed the status of orthodoxy in British language teaching circles, receiving the sanction and support of leading British applied linguists, language specialists, publishers, as well as institutions, such as the British Council (Richards 1985).

Now that the initial wave of enthusiasm has passed, however, some of the claims of CLT are being looked at more critically (Swan 1985). **The adoption of a communicative approach raises important issues for teacher training, materials development, and testing 'and evaluation.** Questions that have been raised include whether a communicative approach can be applied at all levels in a language program, whether it is equally suited to ESL and EFL situations, whether it requires existing grammar-based syllabuses to be abandoned or merely revised, how such an approach can be evaluated, how suitable it is for non-native teachers, and how it can be adopted in situations where students must continue to take grammar-based tests. These kinds of questions will doubtless require attention if the communicative movement in language teaching continues to gain momentum in the future.

The origins of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) are to be found in the changes in the British language teaching tradition dating from the late 1960s. Until then, Situational Language represented the major British approach to teaching English as *a*foreign language. In Situational Language Teaching, language was taught by practicing basic structures in meaningful situation-based activities.

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**Approach**

***Theory of language***

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**Theory of learning**

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More recent accounts of Communicative Language Teaching, however, have attempted to describe theories of language learning processes that are compatible with the communicative approach. Savignon (1983) surveys second language acquisition research as a source for learning theories and considers the role of linguistic, social, cognitive, and in­dividual variables in language acquisition. Other theorists (e.g., Stephen Krashen, who is not directly associated with Communicative Language Teaching) have developed **theories cited as compatible with the principles of CLT**. **Krashen sees acquisition as the basic process involved in developing language proficiency and distinguishes this proc­ess from learning.** Acquisition refers to the unconscious development of the target language system as a result of using the language for real communication. Learning is the conscious representation of grammatical knowledge that has resulted from instruction, and it cannot lead to acquisition. It is the acquired system that we call upon to create utter­ances during spontaneous language use. The learned system can serve only as a monitor of the output of the acquired system. Krashen and other second language acquisition theorists typically stress that language learning comes about through using language communicatively, rather than through practicing language skills.

Johnson (1984) and Littlewood (1984) consider an alternative learning theory that they also see as compatible with CLT-a skill-learning model of learning. According to this theory, the acquisition of communicative competence in a language is an example of skill development. This involves both a cognitive and a behavioral aspect:

The cognitive aspect involves the internalisation of plans for creating appro­priate behaviour. For language use, these plans derive mainly from the language system — they include grammatical rules, procedures for selecting vocabulary, and social conventions governing speech. The behavioural aspect involves the automation of these plans so that they can be converted into fluent performance in real time. This occurs mainly through practice in con­verting plans into performance. (Littlewood 1984: 74)

This theory thus encourages an emphasis on practice as a way of de­veloping communicative skills.

**Design**

**Objectives**

Piepho (1981) discusses the following levels of objectives in a communicative approach:

1. an integrative and content level (language as a means of expression)

2. a linguistic and instrumental level (language as a semiotic system and an object of learning);

3. an affective level of interpersonal relationships and conduct (language as a means of expressing values and judgments about oneself and others);

4. a level of individual learning needs (remedial learning based on error analysis);

5. a general educational level of extra-linguistic goals (language learning within the school curriculum).

(Piepho 1981: 8)

These are proposed as **general objectives**, applicable to any teaching situation. Particular objectives for CLT cannot be defined beyond this level of specification, since such an approach assumes that language teaching will reflect the particular needs of the target learners. These needs may be in the domains of reading, writing, listening, or speaking, each of which can be approached from a communicative perspective. Curriculum or instructional objectives for a particular course would reflect specific aspects of communicative competence according to the learner's proficiency level and communicative needs.

**The syllabus**

Discussions of the nature of the syllabus have been central in Communicative Language Teaching. We have seen that one of the first syllabus models to be proposed was described as a notional syllabus (Wilkins 1976), which specified the semantic-grammatical categories (e.g., frequency, motion, location) and the categories of communicative function that learners need to express. **The Council of Europe expanded and** **developed this into a syllabus that included descriptions of the objectives of foreign language courses for European adults, the situations in which they might typically need to use a foreign language (e.g., travel, business), the topics they might need to talk about (e.g., personal identification, education, shopping), the functions they needed language for (e.g., describing something, requesting information, expressing agreement and disagreement), the notions made use of in communication (e.g., time, frequency, duration), as well as the vocabulary and grammar needed. The result was published as *Threshold Level English***(van Ek and Alex­ander 1980) and was an attempt to specify what was needed in order to be able to achieve a reasonable degree of communicative proficiency in a foreign language, including the language items needed to realize this "threshold level."

**Types of learning and teaching activities**

**The range of exercise types and activities compatible with a commu­nicative approach is unlimited, provided that such exercises enable learn­ers to attain the communicative objectives of the curriculum, engage learners in communication, and require the use of such communicative processes as information sharing, negotiation of meaning, and interaction.**Classroom activities are often designed to focus on completing tasks that are mediated through language or involve negotiation of in­formation and information sharing.

**Learner roles**

The emphasis in Communicative Language Teaching on the processes of communication, rather than mastery of language.

**Teacher roles**

Several roles are assumed for teachers in Communicative Language Teaching, the importance of particular roles being determined by the view of CLT adopted. Breen and Candlin describe teacher roles in the following terms:

The teacher has **two main roles: the first role is to facilitate the communica­tion process between all participants in the classroom, and between these participants and the various activities and texts. The second role is to act as an independent participant within the learning-teaching group.** The latter role is closely related to the objectives of the first role and arises from it. These roles imply a set of secondary roles for the teacher; first, as an organizer of resources and as a resource himself, second as a guide within the classroom procedures and activities.... A third role for the teacher is that of researcher and learner, with much to contribute in terms of appropriate knowledge and abilities, actual and observed experience of the nature of learning and organi­zational capacities. (1980: 99)

Other roles assumed for teachers are needs analyst, counselor, and group process manager.

NEEDS ANALYST

The CLT teacher assumes a responsibility for determining and respond­ing to learner language needs. This may be done informally and personally through one-to-one sessions with students, in which the teacher talks through such issues as the student's perception of his or her learning style, learning assets, and learning goals. It may be done formally through administering a needs assessment instrument, such as those exemplified in Savignon (1983). Typically, such formal assessments contain items that attempt to determine an individual's motivation for studying the language. For example, students might respond on a 5-point scale *(strongly agree*to *strongly disagree)*to statements like the following.

I want to study English because...

1. I think it will someday be useful in getting a good job.

2. it will help me better understand English-speaking people and their way of life.

3. one needs a good knowledge of English to gain other people's respect.

4. it will allow me to meet and converse with interesting people.

5. I need it for my job.

6. it will enable me to think and behave like English-speaking people.

On the basis of such needs assessments, teachers are expected to plan group and individual instruction that responds to the learners' needs.

counselor

Another role assumed by several CLT approaches is that of counselor, similar to the way this role is defined in Community Language Learning. In this role, the teacher-counselor is expected to exemplify an effective communicator seeking to maximize the meshing of speaker intention and hearer interpretation, through the use of paraphrase, confirmation, and feedback.

GROUP PROCESS MANAGER

CLT procedures often require teachers to acquire less teacher-centered classroom management skills. It is the teacher's responsibility to organize the classroom as a setting for communication and communicative ac­tivities. Guidelines for classroom practice (e.g., Littlewood 1981; Finocchiaro and Brumfit 1983) suggest that during an activity the teacher monitors, encourages, and suppresses the inclination to supply gaps in lexis, grammar, and strategy but notes such gaps for later commentary and communicative practice. At the conclusion of group activities, the teacher leads in the debriefing of the activity, pointing out alternatives

and extensions and assisting groups in self-correction discussion. Critics have pointed out, however, that non-native teachers may feel less than comfortable about such procedures without special training.

The focus on fluency and comprehensibility in Communicative Language Teaching may cause anxiety among teachers accustomed to seeing error suppression and correction as the major instructional responsibil­ity, and who see their primary function as preparing learners to take standardized or other kinds of tests. A continuing teacher concern has been the possible deleterious effect in pair or group work of imperfect modeling and student error. Although this issue is far from resolved, it is interesting to note that recent research findings suggest that "data contradicts the notion that other learners are not good conversational partners because they can't provide accurate input when it is solicited" (Porter 1983).

**The role of instructional materials**

A wide variety of materials have been used to support communicative approaches to language teaching. Unlike some contemporary methodologies, such as Community Language Learning, practitioners of Com­municative Language Teaching view materials as a way of influencing the quality of classroom interaction and language use. Materials thus have the primary role of promoting communicative language use. We will consider three kinds of materials currently used in CLT and label these text-based, task-based, and realia.

TEXT-BASED MATERIALS

There are **numerous textbooks** designed to direct and support Communicative Language Teaching. Their tables of contents sometimes sug­gest a kind of grading and sequencing of language practice not unlike those found in structurally organized texts. Some of these are in fact written around a largely structural syllabus, with slight reformatting to justify their claims to be based on a communicative approach. Others, however, look very different from previous language teaching texts. Morrow and Johnson's *Communicate*(1979), for example, has none of the usual dialogues, drills, or sentence patterns and uses visual cues, taped cues, pictures, and sentence fragments to initiate conversation. Watcyn-Jones's *Pair Work*(1981) consists of two different texts for pair work, each containing different information needed to enact role plays and carry out other pair activities. Texts written to support the Malay-sian *English Language Syllabus*(1975) likewise represent a departure from traditional textbook modes. A typical lesson consists of a theme (e.g., relaying information), a task analysis for thematic development (e.g., understanding the message, asking questions to obtain clarification, asking for more information, taking notes, ordering and presenting in­formation), a practice situation description (e.g., "A caller asks to see your manager. He does not have an appointment. Gather the necessary information from him and relay the message to your manager."), a stimulus presentation (in the preceding case, the beginning of an office conversation scripted and on tape), comprehension questions (e.g., "Why is the caller in the office?"), and paraphrase exercises.

TASK-BASED MATERIALS

A variety of games, role plays, simulations, and task-based communication activities have been prepared to support Communicative Lan­guage Teaching classes. These typically are in the form of one-of-a-kind items: exercise handbooks, cue cards, activity cards, pair-communication practice materials, and student-interaction practice booklets. In pair-communication materials, there are typically two sets of material for a pair of students, each set containing different kinds of information. Sometimes the information is complementary, and partners must fit their respective parts of the "jigsaw" into a composite whole. Others assume different role relationships for the partners (e.g., an interviewer and an interviewee). Still others provide drills and practice material in inter­actional formats.

**REALIA**

Many proponents of Communicative Language Teaching have advo­cated the use of "authentic," "from-life" materials in the classroom. These might include language-based realia, such as signs, magazines, advertisements, and newspapers, or graphic and visual sources around which communicative activities can he built, such as maps, pictures, symbols, graphs, and charts. Different kinds of objects can be used to support communicative exercises, such as a plastic model to assemble from directions.

**Conclusion**

Communicative Language Teaching is **best considered an approach rather than a method.** Thus although a reasonable degree of theoretical con­sistency can be discerned at the levels of language and learning theory, at the levels of design and procedure **there is much greater room for individual interpretation and variation than most methods permit**. It could be that one version among the various proposals for syllabus models, exercise types, and classroom activities may gain wider approval in the future, giving Communicative Language Teaching a status similar to other teaching methods. On the other hand, divergent interpretations might lead to homogeneous subgroups.

Communicative Language Teaching appeared at a time when British language teaching was ready for a paradigm shift. Situational Language Teaching was no longer felt to reflect a methodology appropriate for the seventies and beyond. **CLT appealed to those who sought a more humanistic approach to teaching, one in which the interactive processes of communication received priority**. The rapid adoption and implemen­tation of the communicative approach also resulted from the fact that it quickly assumed the status of orthodoxy in British language teaching circles, receiving the sanction and support of leading British applied linguists, language specialists, publishers, as well as institutions, such as the British Council (Richards 1985).

Now that the initial wave of enthusiasm has passed, however, some of the claims of CLT are being looked at more critically (Swan 1985). **The adoption of a communicative approach raises important issues for teacher training, materials development, and testing 'and evaluation.** Questions that have been raised include whether a communicative approach can be applied at all levels in a language program, whether it is equally suited to ESL and EFL situations, whether it requires existing grammar-based syllabuses to be abandoned or merely revised, how such an approach can be evaluated, how suitable it is for non-native teachers, and how it can be adopted in situations where students must continue to take grammar-based tests. These kinds of questions will doubtless require attention if the communicative movement in language teaching continues to gain momentum in the future.

# METHODS: The Silent Way – Total Physical Response – Suggestopedia.

**FEB 2**

**The Silent Way**

In the silent way method the teacher must not interfere with the learning process, he/she should concentrate on how students learn; not on how to teach. Learners draw on everything that they already know, especially their native language. Imitation and drill are not the primary means by which students learn but trial and error. The teacher refers students to a color – coded wall chart identifying individual sounds in the target language and students use this to build sentences.

In relation to the advantage of this method, the teacher usually provides single words or short phrases to stimulate the students into refining their knowledge of the language.

Against this method, the teacher is typically stayed “silent” most of the time, only giving help when it is absolutely necessary, for that reason sometimes is difficult for students to solve some activities and they spend more time than the timming in the activity.

Suggestopedia.

In this method learning is facilitated in an enviroment that is as comfortable as possible because it has to be made up by some posters, flashcars that represent the grammatical information of the language to give  them the change to fit the sound and images. The teacher has the total authority and control in mental relaxation and allow the students to feel comfortable about getting the new lesson. Moreover, grammar and vocabulary are presented and given by the teacher. Studdents have to practice the lesson through lengthy dialogues and the homeworks are limited for them, they have to re – read thedialogues at night before going to sleep and in the morning before getting up.

Its really important to take into account the tecniques or resources that are used in this method because they create a nice environment and motivate students to pay attention to the lesson.

The disadvange of this method, the teacher has the total control of the class and the students have no so much participation.

Total Physical Response.

This methos is built around the coordination of speech and action, this process involves amount of listening and comprehension. refers to a verbal stimulus ( a syllable, a word, a phrase and so on ) , physical movements the child makes in response to the verbal stimulus. the movement may involve touching, grasping or manipulating some object.

This method has as advantage that children develop the ability to speak. They can understand complex utterances that they cannot spontaneously produce or imitate. Also learning is dynamic (physical activity), fun and strees free.

##  Nature of Human language development

## Humans, especially children, have an amazing capability to learn language, and several theories exist to explain language development.

#### LEARNING OBJECTIVE

* Differentiate among the major theories of human language acquisition

#### KEY POINTS

* + [**B. F. Skinner**](https://www.boundless.com/psychology/definition/b-f-skinner/) believed children learn language through [**operant**](https://www.boundless.com/psychology/definition/operant-conditioning/)[**conditioning**](https://www.boundless.com/psychology/definition/conditioning/)—that children receive “rewards” for using language in a functional manner.
	+ Noam Chomsky’s [**theory**](https://www.boundless.com/psychology/definition/theory/) states that children have the [**innate**](https://www.boundless.com/psychology/definition/innate/) biological ability to learn language; however, his theory has not been supported by [**genetic**](https://www.boundless.com/psychology/definition/genetics/) or [**neurological**](https://www.boundless.com/psychology/definition/neurological/) studies.
	+ Jean Piaget’s theory of language development suggests that children use both [**assimilation**](https://www.boundless.com/psychology/definition/assimilation/) and [**accommodation**](https://www.boundless.com/psychology/definition/accommodation/) to learn language.
	+ Lev Vygotsky’s theory of language development focused on [**social learning**](https://www.boundless.com/psychology/definition/social-learning/) and the zone of proximal development (ZPD).
	+ Several areas of the brain must function together in order for a person to develop, utilize, and understand language, including Broca’s area, Wernicke’s area, the primary auditory cortex, and the angular gyrus.
	+ Damage to any of the areas of the brain involved in language development, such as through illness or stroke, can result in [**problems**](https://www.boundless.com/psychology/definition/problem/) with language and comprehension.

#### TERMS

* [**accommodation**](https://www.boundless.com/definition/accommodation/)The act of fitting or adapting, or the state of being fitted or adapted; adaptation; adjustment.
* [**assimilation**](https://www.boundless.com/definition/assimilation/)The absorption of new ideas into an existing cognitive structure.
* [**zone of proximal development**](https://www.boundless.com/definition/zone-of-proximal-development/)A concept developed by Soviet psychologist and social constructivist Lev Vygotsky that describes the difference between what a learner can do without help and what he or she can do with help.
* [**shaping**](https://www.boundless.com/definition/shaping/)A method of positive reinforcement of behavior patterns in operant conditioning.

#### FULL TEXT

# Theories Of Language Development

Humans, especially children, have an amazing ability to learn language. Within the first year of life, children will have learned many of the necessary [**concepts**](https://www.boundless.com/psychology/definition/concept/) to have functional language, although it will still take years for their capabilities to develop fully. Some people learn two or [**more**](https://www.boundless.com/psychology/definition/mores/) languages fluently over their lives (often starting from childhood); these people are bilingual or multilingual. Multiple theories have been proposed to explain the development of language, and related brain [**structures**](https://www.boundless.com/psychology/definition/structure/),  in children.

## Skinner: Operant Conditioning

B. F. Skinner believed that children learn language through operant conditioning; in other words, children receive “rewards” for using language in a functional manner. For example, a child learns to say the word “drink” when she is thirsty; she receives something to drink, which reinforces her use of the word for getting a drink, and thus she will continue to do so. This follows the four-term contingency that Skinner believed was the basis of language development—motivating operations, discriminative [**stimuli**](https://www.boundless.com/psychology/definition/stimuli/), response, and reinforcing stimuli. Skinner also suggested that children learn language through imitation of others, prompting, and [**shaping**](https://www.boundless.com/psychology/definition/shaping/).

## Chomsky: Language Acquisition Device

Noam Chomsky’s work discusses the biological basis for language and claims that children have innate abilities to learn language. Chomsky terms this innate ability the “language acquisition device.” He believes children instinctively learn language without any formal instruction. He also believes children have a natural need to use language, and that in the absence of formal language children will develop a system of communication to meet their needs. He has observed that all children make the same type of language errors, regardless of the language they are taught. Chomsky also believes in the existence of a “universal grammar,” which posits that there are certain grammatical rules all human languages share. However, his research does not identify areas of the brain or a genetic basis that enables humans’ innate ability for language.

## Piaget: Assimilation and Accommodation

Jean Piaget’s theory of language development suggests that children use both assimilation and accommodation to learn language. Assimilation is the process of changing one’s environment to place information into an already-existing [**schema**](https://www.boundless.com/psychology/definition/schema/) (or idea). Accommodation is the process of changing one’s schema to adapt to the new environment. Piaget believed children need to first develop mentally before language acquisition can occur. According to him, children first create mental structures within the mind (schemas) and from these schemas, language development happens.

## Vygotsky: Zone of Proximal Development

Lev Vygotsky’s theory of language development focused on social learning and the zone of proximal development (ZPD). The ZPD is a level of development obtained when children engage in social interactions with others; it is the distance between a child’s potential to learn and the actual learning that takes place. Vygotsky’s theory also demonstrated that Piaget underestimated the importance of social interactions in the development of language.

Piaget’s and Vygotsky’s theories are often compared with each other, and both have been used successfully in the field of education.

# Language And [Cognition](https://www.boundless.com/psychology/definition/cognition/)

The following timeline gives an overview of the ages at which children generally acquire language:

* 4–6 months: Babbling using all sounds.
* 6–9 months: Babbling becomes more focused—narrowing of sounds.
* 10–12 months: First words develop.
* 18–24 months: Children begin using two-word phrases (example: “Me up” or “Get milk”).
* 2–3 years: Children begin using three-word phrases in correct order with inflection.
* 4–5 years: Children start speaking with nearly complete syntax.
* 5–7 years: Children begin using and understanding more complex language.
* 9 years and older: Children understand almost all forms of language.

In language acquisition, there is a [**hypothesis**](https://www.boundless.com/psychology/definition/hypothesis/) that a “critical period,” or a time when it is optimal to learn a language, exists in children. Part of this hypothesis is that if a child is not exposed to a language in the early years of life, he or she will never have full intuitive command of a first language.

One of the canonical [**case studies**](https://www.boundless.com/psychology/definition/case-study/) that supporters of the critical-period hypothesis turn to is Genie the “feral child,” a young girl born in 1957 who, due to horrible abuse and neglect, never learned a language. She never managed to fully acquire verbal language as a result.

# ENGLISH TEACHING METHODS

Throughout the history of teaching languages a number of different teaching approaches and methodologies have been tried and tested with some being more popular and effective than others. If you’re just beginning your TEFL career, it would be beneficial to be familiar with a few of these.

## The Direct Method

If you’ve ever heard the Direct Method being taught, you may have rightly mistaken it for some sort of military drill, which is not far off as it was first established in France and Germany in the early 1900’s to assist soldiers to communicate in a second language quickly.

The direct method of teaching English is also known as the Natural Method. It’s used to teach a number of different languages not just English, and the main idea of the Direct Method is that it only uses the target language that the students are trying to learn.

Its main focus is oral skill and it is taught via repetitive drilling. Grammar is taught using an inductive way and students need to try and guess the rules through the teacher’s oral presentation.
Today popular forms of the Direct Method are Callan and Berlitz.

## The Grammar Translation Method

Just like its name suggests, this method of teaching English is grammar heavy and relies a lot on translation. This is the traditional or ‘classical’ way of learning a language and it’s still commonly used when learning some languages. Some countries prefer this style of teaching and the main idea behind this method is that the students learn all grammar rules, so they’re able to translate a number of sentences. This is particularly common for those students who wish to study literature at a deeper level.

## The Audio Lingual Method

The Audio Lingual Method otherwise known as the New Key Method or Army Method is based on a behavirourist theory that things are able to be learned by constant reinforcement. However, just like in the army when someone behaves badly (or in this case bad use of English), the learner receives negative feedback and the contrary happens when a student demonstrates good use of English.

This is related to the Direct Method and just like its predecessor it only uses the target language. The biggest difference between the Audio Lingual Method and the Direct Method is its focus of teaching. The Direct Methods focuses on the teaching of vocabulary whereas the Audio Lingual Method focuses on specific grammar teachings.

## The Structural Approach

As the name suggests, the method is all about structure. The idea is that any language is made up of complex grammar rules. These rules, according to this approach need to be learnt in a specific order, for example the logical thing would be to teach the verb “to be” prior to teaching the present continuous which requires using the auxiliary form of the verb “to be.”

## Suggestopedia

This is a behaviourist theory and related to pseudoscience. This method relies heavily on students’ belief about the method’s effectiveness. This theory is intended to offer learners various choices, which in turn helps them become more responsible for their learning.

It relies a lot on the atmosphere and the physical surroundings of the class. It’s essential that all learners feel equally comfortable and confident. When teachers are training to use the Suggestopedia method, there’s a lot of art and music involved. Each Suggestopedia lesson is divided into three different phases – 1. Deciphering 2. Concert Session 3. Elaboration.

## Total Physical Response

Total Physical Response, otherwise known as TPR is an approach that follows the idea of ‘learning by doing’. Beginners will learn English through a series of repetitive actions such as “Stand up”, “Open your book”, “Close the door”, and “Walk to the window and open it.” With TPR, the most important skill is aural comprehension and everything else will follow naturally later.

## Communicative Language Teaching (CLT)

The idea behind this approach is to help learners communicate more effectively and correctly in realistic situations that they may find themselves in. This type of teaching involves focusing on important functions like suggesting, thanking, inviting, complaining, and asking for directions to name but a few.

## The Silent Way

The Silent Way emphasises learner autonomy. The teacher acts merely as a facilitator trying to encourage students to be more active in their learning. The main of this way of teaching is for the teacher to say very little, so students can take control of their learning. There’s a big emphasis on pronunciation and a large chunk of the lesson focuses on it. This method of learning English follows a structural syllabus and grammar, vocabulary and pronunciation are constantly drilled and recycled for reinforcement. The teacher evaluates their students through careful observation, and it’s even possible that they may never set a formal test as learners are encouraged to correct their own language errors.

## Community Language Learning

This is probably one of the English teaching methods where the student feels the safest as there’s a great emphasis on the relationship and bond between the student and teacher. Unlike a lot of the other methods and approaches of teaching English as a Second Language, a lot of the L1 (mother tongue) is used for translation purposes.

## Task Based Language Learning

The main aim of this approach to learning is task completion. Usually, relevant and interesting tasks are set by the teacher and students are expected to draw on their pre-existing knowledge of English to complete the task with as few errors as possible.

## The Lexical Approach

The Lexical syllabus or approach is based on computer studies that have previously identified the most commonly used words. This approach in teaching focuses on vocabulary acquisition and teaching lexical chunks in order of their frequency and use. Teachers of the Lexical Approach place a great emphasis on authentic materials and realistic scenarios for more valuable learning.

**13.Explain in detai labout Human language and Brain?**

**Nature of human language**

## Introduction to Human Language

Human language is unique because it is generative, recursive, and has displacement.

### LEARNING OBJECTIVES

Analyze the factors that distinguish human language

### KEY TAKEAWAYS

#### Key Points

* Human language is generative, which means that it can communicate an infinite number of ideas from a finite number of parts.
* Human language is recursive, which means that it can build upon itself without limits.
* Human language uses displacement, which means that it can refer to things that are not directly present.
* The origins of human language are disputed because there is a lack of direct evidence.
* Proto-Indo-European is the ancestor language of hundreds of languages today.

#### Key Terms

* **recursive**: Used to describe a language with units (such as sentences or phrases) that can contain themselves (such as sentences within sentences or phrases within phrases).
* **generative**: Used to describe a language that can convey an infinite number of ideas based on different combinations of words or symbols.
* **dead language**: A language with no remaining native speakers.
* **displacement**: The ability of a language to describe things that are not present.

The world is full of communication. From sparrows chirping and talk radio in the morning to owls hooting and The Tonight Show at night, people and animals are constantly exchanging information through a wide variety of channels. However, there are some key differences between how humans and animals communicate. Specifically, human language is unique on the planet because it has the qualities of generativity, recursion, and displacement.

### Generativity

Human language is generative, which means that it can communicate an infinite number of ideas. This is because it is combinatorial: words can be combined in different orders to create different larger meanings of a sentence. Animal communication does not have this freedom; animals communicate within closed systems, with limited possible ideas to communicate. Birds may have different chirps to signify danger or the location of food, but they cannot combine those chirps together to convey a novel meaning.

### Recursion

Human language is recursive. This means that we can put words, phrases, and sentences inside of themselves without limits. For example, we can say the sentence “Mark likes anchovies.” But we can also put that sentence inside of a sentence: “Carol thinks that Mark likes anchovies.” Then we can put that sentence inside of another sentence: “Greg said that Carol thinks that Mark likes anchovies,” and on and on forever. Obviously, the recursive abilities of language are constrained by the limits of time and memory. But in theory, because units of human language have the ability to be self-containing, we could have an infinite sentence. Animal communication does not have this same flexibility.

### Displacement

Human language has displacement. This means that through the power of language, we can refer to things that aren’t present spatially or temporally. This is obviously a useful trait (it allows us to ask questions like “Where did I leave my wallet?”), and it is one that is largely missing from the animal kingdom. Bees actually do have limited displacement in their communication: They perform a waggle-dance to communicate to other bees the location of the most recent food source they have visited. However, there is no temporal nuance beyond this. Ants and ravens also have limited displacement systems.

Human language is also modality-independent—that is, it is possible to use the features of displacement, generativity, and recursion across multiple modes. Speaking is the auditory form of language, but writing and sign language are visual forms. There are also tactile forms, like Braille.

### Origins of Human Language

The earliest origins of human language are hotly contested, as it is hard to find direct evidence for when people first began to speak. It is also likely that there was an intermediate period during which our communication systems were comparable to those of other primates, and even if we did have knowledge of what this was like, it would be hard to say exactly when we crossed over from animal communication to human language.

### Proto-Indo-European

Proto-Indo-European (PIE) is the name for the common ancestor of the Indo-European language family. A language family is a group of languages descended from a common language. The Indo-European language family contains 445  current languages, and all of them are thought to have descended from PIE.

Not all languages that have ever been spoken are still commonly used. For example, Latin, which was spoken in the Roman Empire, is now considered a dead language, or a language that has no native speakers.

## Human vs. Animal Language

While both animals and humans use systems of communication, the use of complex symbols and open vocal systems is unique to humans.

### LEARNING OBJECTIVES

Name differences between human language and animal communication

### KEY TAKEAWAYS

#### Key Points

* Communication in both animals and humans consists of signals. Signals are sounds or gestures that have meaning to those using them.
* Human communication consists of both signals and symbols. Symbols are sounds, gestures, material objects, or written words that have specific meaning to a group of people.
* Key differences between human communication and that of other primates are that (1) humans have an open vocal system while other primates have a closed vocal system, and (2) humans have a larger bank of symbols to use in communication.

#### Key Terms

* **signal**: A sound or gesture that has meaning to those using it.
* **lexigram**: A symbol that represents a word but is not necessarily indicative of the object referenced by the word; used in studies of communication.
* **symbol**: Any object, typically material, that is meant to represent another (usually abstract), even if there is no meaningful relationship.

All animals use some form of communication, although some animal communication is more complex than others. Animal language is any form of communication that shows similarities to human language; however, there are significant differences. Some animals use signs, signals, or sounds to communicate. Lexigrams, or figures and symbols that represent words, are commonly used by chimpanzees and baboons, while animals such as birds and whales use song to communicate among one another. Bees uses complex “dances” to convey information about location. Other animals use odors or body movements to communicate.



**Honeybee communication**: Bees use body movements to communicate with one another.

Communication in both animals and humans consists of signals. Signals are sounds or gestures that have some meaning to those using them. The meaning is often self-evident based on context: for example, many animals roar, growl, or groan in response to threats of danger; similarly, humans may wave their arms or scream in the event of something dangerous. These signals in these situations are designed to let others in the species know that something is wrong and the animal or human needs help.

Human communication consists of both signals and symbols. Symbols are sounds or gestures that have a specific meaning to a group of people. This meaning could be cultural, group-related, or even related between two specific people. For example, two people may create a “secret” handshake, or a group may develop a passcode that only members are aware of. Symbols, unlike signals, must be taught and learned; they are not instinctual or self-evident.

**The dog who knows 1,000 words**: Meet Chaser, a dog that “knows” 1,000 words. Chaser’s owners claim that he understands language, as evidenced by his ability to understand novel linguistic stimuli (such as the names of unknown toys). Critics claim that Chaser is not understanding language as humans can, but that he has been conditioned or trained to discriminate between certain phoneme sounds.

What about nonhuman primates, who share many similarities with humans? Nonhuman primates communicate in ways that are very similar to those used by humans; however, there are important differences as well. First and foremost, humans use a larger repertoire of symbols, and these symbols are substantially more complex. Second, and more importantly, nonhuman primates (and other animals who communicate with one another) have what is known as a closed vocal system: this means different sounds cannot be combined together to produce new symbols with different meanings. Humans, by contrast, have open vocal systems, which allow for combinations of symbols to create new symbols with a totally new meaning and therefore allows for an infinite number of ideas to be expressed.

Human language is also the only kind that is modality-independent; that is, it can be used across multiple channels. Verbal language is auditory, but other forms of language—writing and sign language (visual), Braille (tactile)—are possible in more complex human language systems.

One of the most famous case studies in the debate over how complex nonhuman-primate language can be is Koko the gorilla. Koko is famous for having learned over a thousand signs of “Gorilla Sign Language,” a simple sign language developed to try to teach nonhuman primates complex language. Koko can respond in GSL to about two thousand words of spoken English. However, it is generally accepted that she does not use syntax or grammar, and that her use of language does not exceed that of a young human child.

**Kanzi with lexigram**: Kanzi is a bonobo, whose trainers claim that not only can he understand human language, but he can manipulate human language to create sentences. Here, Kanzi is in a research session at Great Ape Trust of Iowa using a lexigram with his trainer. There continues to be debate as to whether nonhuman primates, including bonobos, are actually learning and understanding languages or are simply demonstrating the effects of operant conditioning (learning to associate words and signs via reinforcement).

**Parrot vs. Child: The Intelligence Test—Extraordinary Animals—Earth**: It’s Griffin versus the nursery school children in another bird brain test for this Extraordinary Animal. Subscribe to BBC Earth: http://www.youtube.com/subscription\_center?add\_user=BBCEarth BBC Earth YouTube Channel: http://www.youtube.com/BBCEarth BBC Earth Facebook http://www.facebook.com/bbcearth (ex-UK only) BBC Earth Twitter http://www.twitter.com/bbcearth Visit http://www.bbcearth.com for all the latest animal news and wildlife videos This is a channel from BBC Worldwide who help fund new BBC programmes.

Explain in detail the theories of Language Development.

## Human Language Development

Humans, especially children, have an amazing capability to learn language, and several theories exist to explain language development.

### LEARNING OBJECTIVES

Differentiate among the major theories of human language acquisition

### KEY TAKEAWAYS

#### Key Points

* B. F. Skinner believed children learn language through operant conditioning —that children receive “rewards” for using language in a functional manner.
* Noam Chomsky’s theory states that children have the innate biological ability to learn language; however, his theory has not been supported by genetic or neurological studies.
* Jean Piaget’s theory of language development suggests that children use both assimilation and accommodation to learn language.
* Lev Vygotsky’s theory of language development focused on social learning and the zone of proximal development (ZPD).
* Several areas of the brain must function together in order for a person to develop, utilize, and understand language, including Broca’s area, Wernicke’s area, the primary auditory cortex, and the angular gyrus.
* Damage to any of the areas of the brain involved in language development, such as through illness or stroke, can result in problems with language and comprehension.

#### Key Terms

* **assimilation**: The absorption of new ideas into an existing cognitive structure.
* **accommodation**: The act of fitting or adapting, or the state of being fitted or adapted; adaptation; adjustment.
* **zone of proximal development**: A concept developed by Soviet psychologist and social constructivist Lev Vygotsky that describes the difference between what a learner can do without help and what he or she can do with help.
* **shaping**: A method of positive reinforcement of behavior patterns in operant conditioning.

### Theories of Language Development

Humans, especially children, have an amazing ability to learn language. Within the first year of life, children will have learned many of the necessary concepts to have functional language, although it will still take years for their capabilities to develop fully. Some people learn two or more languages fluently over their lives (often starting from childhood); these people are bilingual or multilingual. Multiple theories have been proposed to explain the development of language, and related brain structures,  in children.

### Skinner: Operant Conditioning

B. F. Skinner believed that children learn language through operant conditioning; in other words, children receive “rewards” for using language in a functional manner. For example, a child learns to say the word “drink” when she is thirsty; she receives something to drink, which reinforces her use of the word for getting a drink, and thus she will continue to do so. This follows the four-term contingency that Skinner believed was the basis of language development—motivating operations, discriminative stimuli , response, and reinforcing stimuli. Skinner also suggested that children learn language through imitation of others, prompting, and shaping.

### Chomsky: Language Acquisition Device

Noam Chomsky’s work discusses the biological basis for language and claims that children have innate abilities to learn language. Chomsky terms this innate ability the “language acquisition device.” He believes children instinctively learn language without any formal instruction. He also believes children have a natural need to use language, and that in the absence of formal language children will develop a system of communication to meet their needs. He has observed that all children make the same type of language errors, regardless of the language they are taught. Chomsky also believes in the existence of a “universal grammar,” which posits that there are certain grammatical rules all human languages share. However, his research does not identify areas of the brain or a genetic basis that enables humans’ innate ability for language.

### Piaget: Assimilation and Accommodation

Jean Piaget’s theory of language development suggests that children use both assimilation and accommodation to learn language. Assimilation is the process of changing one’s environment to place information into an already-existing schema (or idea). Accommodation is the process of changing one’s schema to adapt to the new environment. Piaget believed children need to first develop mentally before language acquisition can occur. According to him, children first create mental structures within the mind (schemas) and from these schemas, language development happens.

### Vygotsky: Zone of Proximal Development

Lev Vygotsky’s theory of language development focused on social learning and the zone of proximal development (ZPD). The ZPD is a level of development obtained when children engage in social interactions with others; it is the distance between a child’s potential to learn and the actual learning that takes place. Vygotsky’s theory also demonstrated that Piaget underestimated the importance of social interactions in the development of language.

Piaget’s and Vygotsky’s theories are often compared with each other, and both have been used successfully in the field of education.

### Language and Cognition

The following timeline gives an overview of the ages at which children generally acquire language:

* 4–6 months: Babbling using all sounds.
* 6–9 months: Babbling becomes more focused—narrowing of sounds.
* 10–12 months: First words develop.
* 18–24 months: Children begin using two-word phrases (example: “Me up” or “Get milk”).
* 2–3 years: Children begin using three-word phrases in correct order with inflection.
* 4–5 years: Children start speaking with nearly complete syntax.
* 5–7 years: Children begin using and understanding more complex language.
* 9 years and older: Children understand almost all forms of language.

In language acquisition, there is a hypothesis that a “critical period,” or a time when it is optimal to learn a language, exists in children. Part of this hypothesis is that if a child is not exposed to a language in the early years of life, he or she will never have full intuitive command of a first language.

One of the canonical case studies that supporters of the critical-period hypothesis turn to is Genie the “feral child,” a young girl born in 1957 who, due to horrible abuse and neglect, never learned a language. She never managed to fully acquire verbal language as a result.

## Human Language and the Brain

Several areas of the brain must function together in order for a person to develop, use, and understand language.

### LEARNING OBJECTIVES

Describe the role each brain structure involved in language production

### KEY TAKEAWAYS

#### Key Points

* Broca’s area is primarily responsible for language production; damage to this area results in productive aphasia.
* Wernicke’s area is primarily responsible for language comprehension; damage to this area results in receptive aphasia.
* The primary auditory cortex identifies pitch and loudness of sounds.
* The angular gyrus is responsible for several language processes, including (but not limited to) attention and number processing.

#### Key Terms

* **aphasia**: A loss of the ability to produce or understand language.

Without the brain, there would be no language. The human brain has a few areas that are specific to language processing and production. When these areas are damaged or injured, capabilities for speaking or understanding can be lost, a disorder known as aphasia. These areas must function together in order for a person to develop, use, and understand language.



**Language and the brain**: The areas of the brain necessary for processing language: Broca’s area, Wernicke’s area, the primary motor cortex, the posterior middle temporal gyrus, and the middle and posterior superior temporal gyrus.

### Broca’s Area

Broca’s area, located in the frontal lobe of the brain, is linked to speech production, and recent studies have shown that it also plays a significant role in language comprehension. Broca’s area works in conjunction with working memory to allow a person to use verbal expression and spoken words. Damage to Broca’s area can result in productive aphasia (also known as Broca’s aphasia), or an inability to speak. Patients with Broca’s can often still understand language, but they cannot speak fluently.

### Wernicke’s Area

Wernicke’s area, located in the cerebral cortex, is the part of the brain involved in understanding written and spoken language. Damage to this area results in receptive aphasia (also called Wernicke’s aphasia). This type of aphasia manifests itself as a loss of comprehension, so sometimes while the patient can apparently still speak, their language is nonsensical and incomprehensible.



**Language and the brain**: The areas of the brain necessary for language. Spoken word, cognition, and written word all are processed in different parts of the brain in different orders.

### Auditory Cortex and Angular Gyrus

The primary auditory cortex, located in the temporal lobe and connected to the auditory system, is organized so that it responds to neighboring frequencies in the other cells of the cortex. It is responsible for identifying pitch and loudness of sounds.

The angular gyrus, located in the parietal lobe of the brain, is responsible for several language processes, including number processing, spatial recognition and attention.

## Linguistic Relativity

Language and thought tend to influence one another in a dual, cyclical relationship.

### LEARNING OBJECTIVES

Characterize the relationship between language and thought in humans

### KEY TAKEAWAYS

#### Key Points

* The theory of linguistic relativity states that the structure of a language influences the way its speakers conceptualize the world.
* The Sapir-Whorf hypothesis discusses the grammatical structure of a particular language and how it influences its speakers’ perceptions of the world.
* Cognitive -behavioral theory claims that what people think impacts what they say and do.
* According to behavioral economics, people are more likely to believe an event is true if it is described vividly.

#### Key Terms

* **cognitive distortion**: Exaggerated and irrational thoughts, believed to perpetuate psychological disorders.
* **semantics**: The study of the relationship between words and their meanings.

It is easy to wonder which comes first, the thought or the language. Does an individual first think of an idea or did speaking, hearing, or reading about an idea spur a thought? Can thought exist without language? You might as well ask which came first, the chicken or the egg.

Language and thought (or “cognition”) tend to interact in a dual and cyclical relationship, a theory known overall as linguistic relativity. What one thinks becomes what one communicates, and what one communicates can lead to new thoughts. There are several different theories that aim to discuss the relationship between cognition and language, and each will be discussed in this chapter.

### The Sapir-Whorf Hypothesis

The Sapir-Whorf hypothesis states that the grammatical structure of a person’s language influences the way he or she perceives the world. The hypothesis has been largely abandoned by linguists as it has found at best very limited experimental support, and it does not hold much merit in psychology. For instance, studies have not shown that speakers of languages lacking a subjunctive mood (such as Chinese) experience difficulty with hypothetical problems. The weaker version of this theory does have some merit, however. For example, different words mean different things in different languages; not every word in every language has a one-to-one exact translation in a different language. Because of these small but important differences, using the wrong word within a particular language (because you believe it to mean something else) can have dire consequences.

The canonical example of studying linguistic relativity is in the area of color naming. Sapir and Whorf, as believers in linguistic relativity, would believe that people whose languages partition the color spectrum along different lines actually perceive colors in a different way. However, recent research has supported the idea that human color perception is governed more by biological and physical rather than linguistic constraints, regardless of how many color words a language has.

### Cognitive-Behavioral Therapy

According to the theory that drives cognitive-behavioral therapy, the way a person thinks has a huge impact on what she or he says and does. Founded by Aaron T. Beck, this school of thought discusses the interplay among emotion, behavior, language, and thought. Since internal dialogue is a form of language, the way we speak to ourselves can influence our daily lives. Problems with our internal dialogue, known as cognitive distortions, can lead to negative behaviors or serious emotional problems.

### Behavioral Economics

The field of behavioral economics studies the effect of psychological and cognitive factors on individuals’ behavior in an economic context. In this field (and others), researchers have shown that the more vividly an event is described, the more likely people will believe it is true. Thus, people will draw different conclusions and make different choices about a situation based on the language used to describe that situation.

**Linguistic and psychology**

# Psychology and linguistics: what do we need to teach each other?

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## Abstract

In this section of the Web Guide the relationship between psychology, and linguistics is considered with respect to learning and teaching. The main questions adressed are: what linguistics does a psychologist need to know and why? What psychology does a linguist need to know and why? A brief historical background to the relationship between linguistics and psychology is provided. An overview is given of how this has fed in to the curriculum of undergraduate courses in psycholinguistics in UK psychology and linguistics departments. Samples of web resources for psycholinguistics are provided.

## Table of contents

* [Background](https://www.llas.ac.uk/resources/gpg/295.html#toc_0)
* [What do UK undergraduates typically learn in psycholinguistics?](https://www.llas.ac.uk/resources/gpg/295.html#toc_1)
* [Web resources](https://www.llas.ac.uk/resources/gpg/295.html#toc_2)
* [Bibliography](https://www.llas.ac.uk/resources/gpg/295.html#toc_bib)
* [Related links](https://www.llas.ac.uk/resources/gpg/295.html#toc_links)

## Background

The main area of overlap between linguistics and psychology is in the domain known as psycholinguistics. The field expanded in the 1960s as a response to the intellectual excitement generated by the work of Chomsky. Then the question of what linguistics a psychologist needed to know was relatively clear. As the goal for psychologists of language was to investigate the psychological reality of grammars, notably transformational grammar, then clearly psychology courses needed to provide students with a sufficient grounding in Chomskian syntax to evaluate the evidence. This fairly direct mapping between linguistics and psychology held sway for a number of years.

Over time psychologists became less enthused by this direct relationship between the concerns of linguistics and psychology. From the later 1970s onward the range of research questions which psycholinguists wished to address widened and depended far less on a direct relationship with linguistics. This made it harder to define the linguistics that a psychologist needed to know.

The leading US psychologist [Kintsch (1984)](https://www.llas.ac.uk/resources/gpg/295.html%22%20%5Cl%20%22ref%203) advocated a new approach to the relationship between psychology and linguistics. He asserted that psychologists need to draw on linguistics, but he emphasised that this must be guided by the phenomena of study. For Kintsch, interested in how people understand complete texts, there is little of relevance in theories of sentence syntax but much to be learned from text linguistics. This pragmatic approach to the relationship between psychology and linguistics has implications for the curriculum.

Although the psycholinguistic research agenda has broadened from the 1970s, there are topics which are extensively studied and which therefore feed into the curriculum. Many psycholinguists today would acknowledge the claim made by [Garnham (1985)](https://www.llas.ac.uk/resources/gpg/295.html%22%20%5Cl%20%22ref%202) that there are certain biases in psycholinguistic research. There is more emphasis on comprehension than production and on written rather than spoken language. This is often reflected in curricula. So most psychology students in psycholinguistic courses across the UK will acquire enough knowledge of syntax and parsing to appreciate studies of sentence processing. They will be less likely to gain an understanding of phonetics or phonology as they are less likely to be studying spoken language production.

[Altmann (1997)](https://www.llas.ac.uk/resources/gpg/295.html#ref%201) describes the relationship between linguistics and psycholinguistics. 'Linguistics provides a vocabulary for talking about the ways in which sentences are constructed from individual words and the ways in which words themselves are constructed from smaller components ... psycholinguistics attempts to determine how these structures ... are analysed to yield meaning ... If linguistics is about language, psycholinguistics is about the brain.' Psychologists then need to learn at least enough linguistics to have this systematic vocabulary and conversely linguists need to have a grasp of cognitive processes and their possible neural underpinnings.

An important point is the way that the two disciplines draw on different intellectual traditions. [Reber (1987)](https://www.llas.ac.uk/resources/gpg/295.html%22%20%5Cl%20%22ref%204) reminds us that for linguistics this is the rationalist approach where argumentation is the prime method of evaluating the validity of theoretical approaches. For psychology empiricism is the bedrock, with hypothesis testing by data collection as the main scientific method. These rather different approaches influence the way psycholinguistics is generally taught.

## What do UK undergraduates typically learn in psycholinguistics?

The definitions of psycholinguistics and the range of phenomena that are its concerns also clearly impact on issues of curriculum design: what to teach and how to teach it. In UK psychology departments, psycholinguistics usually appears as part of options or courses for final year students although elements may be covered in cognitive psychology courses taken in earlier years. There is usually a focus on students acquiring key skills: evaluating research evidence; becoming aware of laboratory techniques; appreciating how theories develop and their relationship to the empirical evidence.

In the University of Glasgow, psycholinguistics is taught along with cognitive science. Students are introduced to relevant linguistic concepts for topics studied in the courses. This includes word meaning, sentence processing, discourse comprehension, Thus students are introduced to formal semantics, grammatical structure and parsing theories, as well as to concepts such as coherence, schemata and discourse structure. The psychological research agenda of the academic staff drives the selection of linguistics to be taught.

A similar approach to psycholinguistics is taken in psychology in Edinburgh University, with a cognitive approach, and a particular focus on how syntactic structure is assembled during sentence processing. Students acquire linguistic principles of syntax and parsing to enable them to appreciate how scientific arguments develop, and to appreciate the relationship of language processing to general cognitive architecture.

The empirical approach of psychology has a major impact on most psycholinguistic programmes. Many make explicit that the intended learning outcomes for students will be to enable students to use empirical evidence to argue about theoretical claims concerning language processing. As the empirical approach typified by laboratory experimentation is less common in linguistics, linguistic departments may make this scientific approach an explicit part of their teaching of psycholinguistics or in associated modules. Linguistics in Edinburgh includes both an honours module in psycholinguistics and an honours module in statistics and experimental design.

Other Linguistic departments draw on research methods more characteristic of their disciplinary tradition and illustrate how these can be used to explore psycholinguistic topics. Lancaster University draws on its strengths in language corpora to illustrate the role corpora can play in psycholinguistics. Leeds focuses on aspects of psycholinguistics such as language evolution, language pathologies and language acquisition which would be less central in many psychology courses with their greater emphasis on cognitive processes, but reflect research topics and approaches common in other areas of linguistics.

## Web resources

Internet resources are also available for psycholinguistics teaching from corpora to on-line experiments where students can gain first hand experience of the research methods used in many kinds of psycholinguistic research. The excellent psychology of language page of links run by Roger Kreutz at the University of Memphis provides a very valuable gateway to a wide variety of on-line resources including most of the major corpora, as well as databases, tests and questionnaires. The psycholinguistic research group at the University of York runs a series of on-line experiments as does the Human Communication Research Centre at Edinburgh University, who run a web portal with access to a range of experiments in different languages hosted by a variety of psycholinguistic research centres.

The use of such resources is likely to be a welcome addition to future courses and potentially could enable students from either disciplinary background to gain a wider exposure to a wealth of educationally valuable resources. The global reach of the internet and hence to accessibility of resources from other countries and languages may help overcome one of the problems of psycholinguistics: its bias towards teaching and research studies of the English language.

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Reber, A. (1987). The rise and (surprisingly rapid) fall of psycholinguistics. Synthese,72,325-339.

## Related links

[Psychology of Language Page of Links](http://www.psychologydegree.net/resources/psychology-of-language/)
http://www.psychologydegree.net/resources/psychology-of-language/

[Psycholinguistics Research Group Web Pages at the University of York](http://www.york.ac.uk/res/prg/)
http://www.york.ac.uk/res/prg/

[University of Edinburgh Human Communication Research Centre Portal for Psychological Experiments on Language](http://www.hcrc.ed.ac.uk/)
http://www.hcrc.ed.ac.uk/

## Referencing this article

Below are the possible formats for citing Good Practice Guide articles. If you are writing for a journal, please check the author instructions for full details before submitting your article.

* MLA style:
Canning, John. "Disability and Residence Abroad". Southampton, 2004. Subject Centre for Languages, Linguistics and Area Studies Guide to Good Practice. 7 October 2008. http://www.llas.ac.uk/resources/gpg/2241.
* Author (Date) style:
Canning, J. (2004). "Disability and residence abroad." Subject Centre for Languages, Linguistics and Area Studies Good Practice Guide. Retrieved 7 October 2008, from http://www.llas.ac.uk/resources/gpg/2241.

**9.Write in Detail about teaching Spoken English?part-B(10mark)**

**Teaching spoken English**

## 1. Keep instructions clear and simple

It can be tempting when addressing a class of students, especially ones that you’ve only just met, to explain activities in your politest language. After all, no one likes to be rude. However, a student who has only a few words of English, if any at all, won’t appreciate the courtesy of (or even understand), “OK, so now what I’d like you all to do, if you don’t mind, is just to stand up for a moment and come to the front of the class. Oh, and please bring your book with you. Could we all just do that?”

Instead, make instructions crystal clear by using as few words as necessary and by gesturing whenever possible, and break down series of instructions into smaller units. If you want to be polite, “please” and “thank you” will do. “Everybody – take your book, please. Stand up. Now, come here, please. Thank you.”

## 2. Let them listen first

More than likely, your students will want to start practising speaking pretty much from the get-go. However, it takes a while for one’s ear to acclimatise to the sounds of a new language, and not everyone will be so keen; don’t pressure students into speaking before they’ve had lots of opportunity to listen to you using it (which doesn’t mean you should just be rambling on at the front of the classroom – with beginners more so than with other levels, you really have to consider what you say and grade your language accordingly).

## 3. Drill, repeat, drill, repeat, drill…

Beginners need lots of repetition and drilling, especially as they get to grips with the sounds of their new language. It might seem boring to go over the same sentences again and again, but it is necessary. When practising a new sentence, try back-drilling, breaking the sentence down into manageable units and then building it back up, working backwards from the end of the sentence to the beginning; this helps to ensure that your intonation is natural and that you get elements of connected speech right. For example, break down “Would you like a cup of tea?” as follows:

tea > cup of tea > like a > like a cup of tea > Would you > Would you like a cup of tea?

## 4. Establish classroom language early on

Classroom language – Can you speak more slowly? What do we have to do? I don’t understand. What does… mean? How do you say… in English? – is usually associated with [teaching children](http://eltlearningjourneys.com/2015/10/13/recommendations-for-teaching-english-to-children/), but it really helps with adult beginners as well. No matter how friendly and relaxed you make your classroom atmosphere, learning a new language can still be daunting, especially when you feel you’re not completely following what’s going on, or that you might be called on to say something that you don’t feel ready to say. It’s much better to equip students early on with classroom language that will help them navigate the lesson smoothly.

## 5. Avoid metalanguage

There’s no point in students knowing the terms past simple, irregular verb or adverb of frequency if they can’t use the actual structures or words they refer to. Don’t tell them how to say something: show them. Give as much context as you can (visual prompts work well). Furthermore, make sure you check they have understood by asking questions that test their comprehension – never ask “Do you understand?” as a) many people are reluctant to let on that they haven’t understood and will pretend instead that they have; and b) a student may think they have understood when in fact they haven’t.

## 6. Don’t forget that your students are fluent in their own language(s)

This may seem a trivial point, but it’s all too easy when listening to somebody speaking broken English to forget that behind the errors and the mispronunciation is **a**person with cogent thoughts, no doubt articulate in their first language, attempting to communicate his or her opinions or ideas.

As teachers, we not only have to be patient and proactive listeners, alert to the reasons why certain errors are being made while filling in the gaps in less-than-perfect communication, we also have to steer clear of adopting the Me-Tarzan-You-Jane approach to teaching, bastardizing the very language we are aiming to teach. Rather than degrading our language we have to grade it carefully so as to keep it comprehensible while maintaining its naturalness, rhythm and spirit, ensuring all the while that, as far as possible, we actually converse with our students and listen to what they have to say. After all, even from the very first lessons, from the ‘A’ in the alphabet and the ‘am’ of ‘to be’, communication is the goal.

What we should always avoid is this:

Teaching of vocabulary.

**Teaching English Vocabulary**

10 Fabulous Ways to Teach

**Did you know that a student needs to encounter a new word 10 to 16 times to effectively "learn" it according to recent research?**

Considering the number of new words students have to learn per course, this means us teachers have our work cut out for us. We all know that although it is important for students to use correct [**grammar**](https://busyteacher.org/classroom_activities-grammar/) and structures, words are the main carriers of meaning. This means that the more words students are able to handle accurately, the better their chances of understanding English and making themselves understood.

To effectively acquire new vocabulary, students must go through four essential stages:

* first, they notice a new word with help;
* secondly, they recognize the word at first with help,
* then later on their own;
* and lastly, they are able to both recognize and produce the word.

It is essential that you, as the teacher, make use of activities that target **each of these stages**; more often than not, we make the mistake of merely introducing new [**vocabulary**](https://busyteacher.org/classroom_activities-vocabulary/), and we don’t give students the opportunity to put these new words to use.

**So, here are 10 great ways to teach English vocabulary, outlined for each of the stages of vocabulary acquisition:**

**Stage 1: Noticing and understanding new words**

**Introducing nouns, things, objects, animals, etc…**

Visual elements work best with concrete nouns, but try to go beyond [**flashcards and illustrations**](https://busyteacher.org/teaching_ideas_and_techniques/flashcards-worksheets/). Try to use [**real objects**](https://busyteacher.org/2842-realia-esl-classroom.html) whenever possible, or even sounds, smells, and tastes. Appeal to all of your students’ senses!

**Introducing adjectives**Opposites, like “big” and “small”, “long” and “short”, are usually illustrated with pictures, but here’s another case where realia will help you [**teach new adjectives**](https://busyteacher.org/classroom_activities-grammar/adjectives-worksheets/); the use of real life objects is wonderful for words like “soft” and “rough”, adjectives that may take precious minutes of class time to explain. For more advanced adjectives, like “stunning”, “gorgeous”, “spectacular”, “huge”, or “immense”, bring in photos of famous sights from around the world like the Louvre, Egyptian pyramids, the Eiffel Tower, etc…then use these new adjectives to describe these places in ways that clearly illustrate their meaning.

**Introducing abstracts**

There are things you simply cannot teach with a flashcard. What works best in these cases are synonyms, definitions, substitutions, or simply placing students within a given context. Consider this simple example: To teach the difference between “early” and “late”, remind students what time class begins, then state that those who arrive before this time are “early” while those that arrive after this time are “late”.

**Stage 2: Recognizing new words**

**Bingo**Bingo is one of the most versatile games employed by ESL teachers. For younger learners, make bingo cards with illustrations, and call out each word. For those who can read, do the opposite, make the cards with words, then draw the flashcards from a bag. For teens or adult learners, you can make cards with the definition and call out the words, or vice versa.

**Matching**Another type of exercise with countless possibilities. Students may be required to match opposites, synonyms, or a word with its definition, as well as a picture to a word.

**Fill in the blanks (with options)**Hand out a piece of written text (anything from a description, [**song**](https://busyteacher.org/classroom_activities-listening/songs_and_lyrics-worksheets/), letter, to even a short story) with blank spaces that must be filled in from a list of words. You can adapt this to longer texts, and also have longer word lists.

**Stage 3: Producing vocabulary**

**Descriptions**

From a newspaper photo of a recent event to a personal account of a recent trip, there are countless things students can describe while putting new vocabulary to good use. This goes for both oral and written descriptions. You may give them some guidance, like indicating that they have to use at least five adjectives in their description, or five words related to [**sports**](https://busyteacher.org/classroom_activities-vocabulary/sports_and_hobbies-worksheets/), [**weather**](https://busyteacher.org/classroom_activities-vocabulary/weatherclimateseasons-worksheets/), etc…to no guidance at all.

**Fill in the blanks (no options)**

Supply students with a piece of written text with blank spaces that have to be filled in with any word that fits. You may give them indications for each space, like “noun”, “adjective” or “adverb”, if they’re advanced students. You can then read several out loud to compare the different words used to fill in each blank.

**Mind maps or brainstorming**

Tell students they need to think of words they can use to describe the weather. Write “weather” at the center of a blackboard or [**whiteboard**](https://busyteacher.org/2452-whiteboard-markers-stinking-monsters-or-life.html) and circle it. Write every word supplied by students as “rays” that shoot out this circle. They should reply with previously taught words, like “chilly”, “scorching”, or “mild”. You may even have sub-circles shooting off to the side for winter, summer, etc…words. This works great for vocabulary review lessons.

**Guess what I'm thinking**Students take turns describing something, like a place: “I’m thinking of a place that is so huge it takes visitors hours to see all of it. It has stunning works of art. It is a breathtaking building, very old, but with a modern glass pyramid in the front.” Students choose to be as obvious or as cryptic as they like. Even little ones can do this with simple descriptions: “It's an [**animal**](https://busyteacher.org/classroom_activities-vocabulary/animals_and_birds-worksheets/). It has a very long neck and big brown spots.” Or simply state a series of words: “Africa, black and white, stripes”.

It’s better to teach vocabulary in context, in other words, teach highly descriptive adjectives when the lesson is about [**travel**](https://busyteacher.org/classroom_activities-vocabulary/travellingculture_studies-worksheets/). Or [**clothes and accessories**](https://busyteacher.org/classroom_activities-vocabulary/shoppingclothes-worksheets/) when you’re talking about shopping. Never teach a list of words just because, or students won’t have a chance to practice this new vocabulary.

**On a final note, remember to cater to different learning styles or multiple intelligences.**

Use songs and music, real life objects, or puzzles, but the more you mix the better. Remember the difference between recognizing and producing words: to practice recognition the words have to be supplied by YOU; then students use them to fill in blanks or match them. For students to effectively and accurately produce vocabulary, they have to spontaneously recall the words.

**P.S.** If you enjoyed this article, please help spread it by clicking one of those sharing buttons below. And if you are interested in more, you should follow our Facebook page where we share more about creative, non-boring ways to teach English.

**Everything Teachers Need to Know About Teaching Vocabulary Effectively**

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*“Vocabulary size is a convenient proxy for a whole range of educational attainments and abilities – not just skill in reading, writing, listening, and speaking, but also general knowledge of science, history, and the arts.”*

*A wealth of words, by E. D. Hirsch Jr*

Vocabulary is something we continue to learn and develop throughout our entire lives – an *unconstrained skill*. While some vocabulary is acquired implicitly through everyday interactions, it’s important to teach more complex and technical vocabulary explicitly. We can’t rely on fate, osmosis and exposure for students to learn the 50,000+ words they need to thrive in school and beyond.

Further, vocabulary is becoming more important in a world of digital dependency. Autocorrect may have a chance of picking up incorrect spelling, but it can’t be relied on to help you choose the word with the right meaning.

Teaching vocabulary is about *context*and *repetition*– what they need to know about the words they’re using, and using them multiple times.

But before we get onto that, here are some key things we have to understand to teach vocabulary:

**The three tiers of vocabulary**

For the past two decades, it has been acknowledged that there are three broad tiers of vocabulary. An awareness of these tiers is critical to assist teachers in selecting the right words to teach explicitly in their classrooms – from the first day of school to the last.

Tier 1

These are basic words of everyday language – high frequency words. With around 8000 word families in Tier 1, including words like ‘dog’, ‘good’, ‘phone’ and ‘happy’, these words do not generally require explicit teaching for the majority of students. However, explicit teaching is required to make the most of this level of vocabulary particularly for homophones and words with more than one meaning.

Tier 2

Tier 2 words are the words needed to understand and express complex ideas in an academic context. Tier 2 includes words like ‘formulate’, ‘specificity’, ‘calibrate’ and ‘hypothesis’. These words are useful across multiple topics and subject areas and effective use can reflect a mature understanding of academic language.

Tier 3

Tier 3 words aren’t used often and are normally reserved for specific topics or subjects – words like ‘orthography’, ‘morphology’ and ‘etymology’ in the field of linguistics, or ‘isosceles’, ‘circumference’ and ‘quantum’ for the world of mathematics and physics. Some of these words may also exist as a Tier 1 or 2 word but have a particular use and purpose as a Tier 2 word, such as ‘substitute’, ‘similarity’ and ‘expression’ in a mathematical context. These words must be taught explicitly in the context of their meaning and purpose in a particular unit of study.

**Vocabulary development by age**

Students’ communication abilities, including their vocabulary, can vary immensely. However, there are certain milestones we can expect children to reach before starting formal schooling:

* 12 months: 2 words plus mummy/mommy and daddy (or equivalent in languages other than English)
* 18 months: 10-50 words
* 2 years: 300 words
* 5 years: 450 words
* 3 years: 1000 words
* 4 years: 2000 words
* 5 years: 5000 plus words

This early language acquisition is an essential platform for future learning. There is a huge body of evidence suggesting that deficient early vocabulary development is a strong marker for a continued difficulty in all aspects of schooling.

During the school years, vocabulary size must grow at a rapid pace in order to equip students for everyday, as well as academic, communication. By the age of 17, students are expected to know between 36 000 to 136 000 words.

So just what is it that allows some students to learn a staggering 100 000 more words than their peers?

**Teaching vocabulary**

Effective vocabulary instruction within the *6M Learning Framework* includes opportunities to motivate, model, master, magnify and maintain vocabulary knowledge with meaningful feedback guiding the sequence of learning.

Motivate

Students need to understand the benefits of a rich vocabulary knowledge. As with all teaching, some students may be naturally curious, while others will need to be coaxed into the journey. Some tips and tools for enhancing motivation are:

* Take the time to demonstrate the value of a rich vocabulary knowledge
* Make word exploration an integral part of classroom culture
* Create a word-rich environment
* Find puns, jokes and other comedic devices to add engagement to word studies, especially those that humoursly interchange multiple meanings
* Designate a word of the week with a challenge to use it creatively in that week’s work

Model

In an explicit approach to vocabulary instruction, teachers should**model** the skills and understanding required to develop a rich vocabulary knowledge.

**Say** the word carefully. Pronunciation is critical to allow students to make strong connections between written and spoken language. Use syllabification to assist in articulating each part of the word.

**Write** the word. There is a strong correlation between spelling and vocabulary. To allow students to access their vocabulary in both passive and active contexts, they must be equipped to spell new vocabulary.

Give a student-friendly **definition**. The concise nature of dictionaries means they require significant vocabulary knowledge to interpret. Simply providing students access to dictionaries and thesauruses will not necessarily give them the information they need to understand the meaning of the word. Provide a definition that is meaningful for students, their experiences and their existing vocabulary knowledge.

Give multiple meaningful **examples**. Use the word in sentences and contexts that are meaningful to students. But don’t stop at one! Provide a wide range of examples to allow everyone to connect and relate to the word.

Ask for **student examples**. It may be valuable to have students attempt to articulate their own examples of the word in context. By including this in the explicit teaching phase, there are opportunities to clarify understanding when words have **multiple meanings** and deal with any **misconceptions**.

Master

Provide opportunities for students to**master** an understanding of new vocabulary in context through hearing, saying, reading and writing.

Using words is the best way to remember them. The following methods can help learners to consolidate their vocabulary knowledge:

**Show students how to recognise new words**

The best way to help students to remember and retain the new words they’re introduced to is to connect it with an object in the real world. Pictures and flashcards are good, but real-world items are even better. This can get difficult with more abstract words, but by dedicating more time and thought, the image or object used, and your explanation of it, will help build students understanding.

**Reinforce their remember new words**

After a word has been introduced, we want students to see it at least 10 more times so it sticks. Activities like ‘fill in the blank’ and ‘word bingo’ help students make strong connections between the introduced words.

**Have them use their new words**

After new words have been introduced, students are ready to find the ways they can use these words to make meaning. Activities like using the word in a sentence, mind maps, fill in the blanks (with no options) develop students’ use of words as tools for meaning and communication.

**Graphics organisers**

A simple graphic organiser can be an effective method to help students master their knowledge of new words.





Magnify

**Magnify** vocabulary understanding through a word rich environment. Create a classroom where words are valued. Provide continued opportunities to explore words at a deep level.

1. **Explore word origins**Investigate the **etymology** of words and help students make connections within and between words. Understanding of common word parts helps learners to grasp meanings, even of words they have not encountered before.Create word families based on a particular etymological feature. For example, find words with ‘aqua’ or ‘hydra/o’ in their spelling – both referring to water. Predict the meanings of these words based on their smaller parts.
2. **Explain the word’s connotation**This is the relationship between the word and the feelings about it, whether positive, neutral or negative. Understanding how words can be interpreted enables students to use them with greater precision.Try compiling a *word scale*. Place a word on one end of the scale and a word with opposite meaning or intensity at the other. For example, if students are struggling to use words instead of ‘said’, place the word ‘whisper’ at the lower end and ‘bellow’ at the higher end. Students work together to build the scale, searching for synonyms like ‘shout’, ‘yell’, ‘plead’, ‘intone’ and placing them at appropriate points on the scale.
3. **Explaining where and when the word is or isn’t used**This can be anything from a word’s formality to its datedness. You might use ‘loo’ at home, ‘toilet’ in public or ‘lavatory’ at the Mayor’s Ball, and ‘ball’ would be outdated. This helps students understand how words can make people *sound*. Try demonstrating this by writing an inappropriately informal text to highlight the importance of word choice. Alternatively, write an overly formal text to convey a simple, friendly message.
4. **Building the relationship from words to other words**This is how students understand what words have the same, similar, opposite or related meanings. Taking them through words synonyms, antonyms and words or concept that build off words helps them develop their lexical stores. Set aside time for word study. Provide graphic organisers to assist learners to make comparisons and build connections.
5. **Showing what words occur together**This is called ‘collocation’ – it’s why we say ‘see the big picture’ instead of ‘see the tall picture’ or 10 apples is fewer than 15 apples rather than less. Collocation must occur in context, so shared reading is an excellent forum for this sort of word study. But also have a bit of fun by using synonyms to create ‘nearly but not quite’ versions of well-known sayings.
6. **How affixes change meaning**Most words can be changed by adding affixes – prefixes before the word and suffixes after the word. But a rich vocabulary can be developed by understanding the purpose of prefixes and suffixes and how they impact part of speech and inform meaning.To help students get to grips with affixes and how they can change meaning, select a ‘friendly’ root word and explore all of the word building creations that are possible. For example, the word ‘social’ can be added to create: socialise, socially, unsocial, antisocial, unsociable, etc.

Maintain

**Maintain** learning through repeated practice and revision.

There are many great game ideas to help you find creative ways to revisit learning after one day, one week and one month.

**The challenges of teaching vocabulary**

Explicit teaching of vocabulary is frequently overlooked in the busyness of the typical classroom.

Many teachers believe that vocabulary can be acquired without the need to provide targeted instruction. Others teachers are unaware of the need to teach vocabulary explicitly. Some lack the training or understanding of the skills involved. And some are simply overwhelmed by the competing voices of education priorities.

In a world where information is always available, some teachers simply provide access to the resources that students can use to build their vocabulary independently – such as dictionaries, thesauruses and online tools.

And while the end goal is autonomous and independent learners, students already struggling with a low vocabulary need significant support and explicit teaching to use these tools effectively.

The complexity of the English language presents homophones, homographs, polysemous words (words with multiple meanings) as well as the confusion of everyday words being used in idiomatic and figurative contexts.

It is essential for teachers to support students in their acquisition of a growing vocabulary. But to do so, they must themselves be equipped with a rich vocabulary and a deep understanding of the richness and value of words.

What is grammar? According to Fromkin et al.(1990:12): "The sounds and sound patterns, the basic units of meaning such as words and the rules to combine them to form new sentences constitute the grammar of a language. These rules are internalized and subconsciously learned by native speakers". In brief, grammar represents one's linguistic competence. Grammar, therefore, includes many aspects of linguistic knowledge: the sound system (phonology), the system of meaning (semantics), the rules of word formation (morphology), the rules of sentence formation (syntax), and the vocabulary of words (lexicon). With the great impact of linguistics on language teaching, the past twenty five years has seen a change in people's traditional attitudes and approaches towards the teaching of grammar. This paper aims to set out briefly my understanding of the teaching of grammar with the focus on the following questions: How is grammar viewed; Why is grammar taught; What is the role of grammar in language teaching and when, to what extent, and how should grammar be taught to language learners?

**HOW IS GRAMMAR VIEWED?**

The evolution in language pedagogy from Audiolingualism towards a more communicative approach in teaching has also brought with it a great change in the way grammar is viewed and taught. Traditionally, grammar was considered solely as prescriptive; now teachers have begun to view it in terms of its descriptive aspects as well. Garner(1989)defines descriptive grammar as a systematic way of approaching the study of linguistic facts while prescriptive grammar is a means to maintain linguistic excellence. Similarly, Fromkin et al.(1990)contrast descriptive and prescriptive grammars in the sense that while descriptive grammar describes the already existing rules which represent the unconscious linguistic knowledge or capacity of its speakers, prescriptive grammar tries to preserve what is assumed to be the standard language by telling people what rules they should know and how they should speak and write. Therefore, according to prescriptivists, grammar teaching is often seen as establishing the 'correct' way of speaking and writing. Secondly, with the communicative approach in which language is viewed as an instrument of communication, it has become clear in language teaching that grammar is viewed as a tool or resource to be used in conveying meaning and comprehending other people's messages. Unlike the traditional repetitive grammar exercises of the past -- which tended to focus only on the structures, or as Celce-Murcia(1991:460) points out the focus of instruction rarely moved beyond the sentence level, at present, more and more teachers have begun to pay attention to the spoken language and discourse structure. They are also aware of the significance of teaching grammar within context, using meaningful and purposeful communicative approaches.

In the last decade, however, grammar instruction had been considered by many teachers as having little or no place in a communicative classroom. The argument that grammar does not facilitate language acquisition or that learners are capable of acquiring grammar through natural exposure to input rather than instruction was primarily initiated by Krashen (Krashen &Terrell,1983). His beliefs have encouraged many teachers to downplay grammar in the language classroom. Grammar is now again at a state in which it is considered an essential element of language teaching.

**WHY IS GRAMMAR TAUGHT?**

Many linguists and researchers have given support to grammar instruction in ESL and EFL language teaching and learning. For example, the communicative competence model of Canale and Swain(1980) clearly illustrates the significance of grammar. In this model, grammar is viewed as one component of communicative competence. Without grammar, learners can communicate effectively only in a limited number of situations. In addition, Hannan(1989),Lewis(1986)and Garner(1989) strongly support the teaching of grammar. According to Hannan, grammar is highly valuable as an important part of the study of language, of ideas, and of writing. Besides, he points out that grammar reflects the power and order of the human mind and it also helps us to understand the diversity of human culture.

Garner believes that grammar gives us a means to analyze and describe our language. Furthermore, many EFL learners in Thailand who want to further their studies abroad still have to take an intensive course in grammar in order to pass such exams as the Test of English as a Foreign Language(TOEFL) and the International English Language Testing System(IELTS). Research in second language acquisition, as noted by Celce-Murcia(1991), indicates that post pubescent adolescent adults need to pay attention to the form of the target language. If they do not, they ultimately develop an incomplete and imperfect interlanguage that reflects learning problems.

**WHAT IS THE ROLE OF GRAMMAR IN ESL AND EFL CONTEXTS?**

Given the preceding perspectives and as communication is a goal of second and foreign language instruction, it is obvious that grammar is now part of language teaching. In this new role, according to Celce-Murcia(1991), grammar instruction should be content-based, meaningful, contextualized and discourse based rather than sentenced-based.

**WHAT FACTORS AFFECT LEARNERS?**

With regard to the type of grammar instruction or grammar activities appropriate for ESL or EFL learners and when or how to teach grammar, teachers need to consider the following factors proposed by Celce-Murcia(1991). Firstly, each learner has his or her own learning style. Some learners have an analytic learning style preference and often feel completely adrift unless they are given analytic grammar activities. Many EFL learners at the university level in Thailand also find systematic, analytic exercises and teacher explanation of grammar appealing. Secondly, the age of the learners helps teachers to determine the extent to which they should focus on form. If EFL or ESL learners are children, they should be given little explicit grammar instruction. By contrast, adolescents or adult learners need some explicit focus on form. Thirdly, the proficiency level of learners is another factor to be considered. For advanced ESL learners, the instruction becomes more individualized and content-oriented. Teachers review those specific features that learners lack. Fourthly, the learners' educational background is also influenced by culture. Some learners demand grammar instruction because it meets cultural expectations. Fifthly, the educational objectives assist the EFL or ESL teachers to decide what to focus on. For ex ample, if listening or reading skills are emphasized, teachers will focus on form. However, formal accuracy is an important concern if teachers focus on productive skills(speaking and writing). For fluency, on the other hand, learners are asked to complete such tasks where accuracy is not essential. Finally, there is the consideration of the needs or goals of the learners in studying the language. If learners need language to be a tool for further careers, teachers should put emphasis on formal accuracy. In Thailand, teachers focus on grammatical instruction and practice because these facilitate learners' development of accuracy which they need for the university entrance examination and the proficiency tests.

**HOW IS GRAMMAR PRESENTED?**

In presenting grammar, teachers should be aware that they teach grammar but not teach about grammar or as Lewis(1986) states "language learning is more important than language teaching". Besides, the main goal in grammar teaching is to enable learners to achieve linguistic competence and to be able to use grammar as a tool or resource in the comprehension and creation of oral and written discourse efficiently, effectively, and appropriately according to the situation. Celce-Murcia and Hilles(1988) are in agreement with Larsen-Freeman(1991) that grammar should never be taught as an end in itself but always with reference to meaning, social function, or discourse or a combination of these factors. In other words, teachers are required to have a knowledge of linguistics, because teaching grammar as meaning and discourse entails a knowledge of syntax. As Fromkin et al.(1990:159)explain "syntactic knowledge plays a role in determining when two non-identical sentences have the same meaning and when they do not". Besides, a teacher's knowledge of pragmatics will help learners to understand many aspects of language use such as social function. Furthermore, teachers should teach learners to understand how language is used in context and encourage them to use it in appropriate contexts as well.

**EXPLAIN OR EXPLORE?**

In the classroom, grammar explanations should be presented clearly in simple, non-technical language. I agree with Garner(1989:209) that "the teacher should be able to explain, when it is appropriate, a point of grammar accurately and succinctly to non-native learners" because many EFL learners have gained a better comprehension from my systematic explanation of grammatical points. Teachers should also be very careful about when and how they should explain grammatical rules. Otherwise, the situation may become even worse because it may cause more confusion or prove counter-productive for learners due to the exceptions to grammatical rules. This is no doubt why Lewis(1986:15)states "In many ways language teachers are the worst possible people to teach languages." In this statement, he wants to point out that language teachers are worst in the sense that they know their subject so well that they forget the abilities and educational attitudes of their learners. Therefore, with explanations given too quickly, learners will feel confused rather than benefit from the teachers' efforts. Lewis(1986:20)is also right in saying that teachers should "stop explaining, start exploring". This can be interpreted that teachers do not need to explain everything. Wise teachers know that the rules are not a short cut and that they are only a small part of the understanding process, a process which relates to several factors. For example, knowing a language means knowing what sentences are appropriate in various situations. Teachers, then, will not tell learners how the language works but ask them to explore or to discover it for themselves. Learning takes time; some areas need to be explored more than once through a combination of explanation and helpful hints such as informal guides, examples and diagrams. Teachers, therefore, provide an appropriate atmosphere to encourage learners to explore for real understanding first. One grammar game activity can clearly illustrate and support Lewis'suggestion. In this activity, learners working in small groups are given eight statements to explore the types of present tense. Eventually, they can come up with five types of present tense: near future, habitual present, eternal truth, historical present and immediate present. Learners realize that while exploring they have to apply their grammatical knowledge first before coming to the answer. The discovery will be easier and more appealing if learners are provided with context. In addition, both lecturer and learners have to be involved in grammar instruction. The lecturer clearly defines the instructional objectives and presents grammar lesson to learners through examples. He or she then gradually releases the responsibility of teaching grammar to learners in group work in the context of language-promoting conversation where native English-speaking peers can play an important role in teaching grammar as well. In my teaching experience, I have found that the best way to improve EFL learners' linguistic ability is by encouraging them to explore a variety of texts in the language. I believe that language experience should not be confined to only what is formally taught in class. I also agree with Krashen(1992:411) that getting learners interested in books will insure continued grammatical development (as well as improvement in vocabulary, spelling, and writing style) long after the language course ends.

**LEARNER ERRORS**

Teachers should approach learner errors in a constructive, supportive, positive, sympathetic manner since errors often reflect learners' linguistic development rather than language deficiencies. Teachers should also be flexible and open-minded concerning the actual language use. For example, such statements produced by some learners such as "My brother lives in Queensland for six years, and We've been in Melbourne yesterday" in activity 2 on page 15 in Alex McKnight(1994) illustrates the fact that for descriptive grammar, grammaticality is not attached to formality. It depends on the native speakers' judgment in considering whether a statement is grammatical and acceptable or not. Activity 1 on page 17 in the same text also reveals the fact that whether a statement is acceptable or not depends on the context. Some non-standard, ungrammatical utterances such as "I didn't say nothing" and "I never said nothing" would be acceptable as spoken language to certain groups of people. Teachers cannot say what is right or wrong but rather show both grammatical statements while making clear to learners that what makes statements sound correct or incorrect is the listeners' own social value. Language is also changing, especially spoken language, and so is 'standard English'. Both issues suggest to teachers that they should not correct every error. Besides, teachers must take into account the needs and abilities of individual learners as well as the type of error made. Error correction in fluency activities is different from that in accuracy activities. For fluency activities, teachers do not interrupt learners to give correction. Burt and Kiparsky(1972) feel that it is easy to destroy a learner's confidence with too many interruptions. Over-correction cuts off learners'sentences, causes them to lose their train of thought and prevents them from relating to a new sentence. Furthermore, teachers can help learners develop strong writing skills through editing techniques. In so doing, teachers identify learners' errors by marking the major errors with correction symbols that help learners identify their errors and fix them when they go through their texts a second time.

In addition, learners can be editors themselves when they work in pairs or exchange their texts. Errors should be corrected according to the proficiency level of the learners. From my teaching experience, I have applied several techniques in my writing course. I have corrected every error and therefore have discouraged many learners. Later, I have used the technique of underlining but not correcting errors and marking major errors with correction symbols. This technique has helped my EFL learners improve their grammatical accuracy. However, every learner cannot become a 'key' person in his or her own correction work in the learning process due to class size and time availability.

 **ACTIVITIES AND TASKS**

Teachers can also make grammatical structures salient through such communicative activities as analytical activities, describing pictures, playing games, problem solving, telling stories and demonstrations. The activities must, as Nunan(1989:36) points out, "require conclusion, and construct their own (grammatical) rules from instances and examples of language use".

Larsen-Freeman(1991) offers several communicative activities for teaching specific grammatical features which expose learners to grammatical structures in the context of meaningful communication or contextualized activities. Likewise, Celce-Murcia and Hilles(1988) suggest a variety of useful techniques for grammar instruction.

**DEDUCTIVE OR INDUCTIVE INSTRUCTION?**

A grammar game (silent sentence) in which a group of learners working on a long compound-complex sentence given on the board, is very interesting and informative in the sense that at each stage, learners manage to find a way to shorten the long original statement given into a more concise but still meaningful one without making it ungrammatical. After deleting all the unnecessary words, there will be only one key word left and that word will still convey the meaning. This grammar activity reveals the creative aspect of language -- the nature of grammatical rules which are finite but creative. It is not only useful for learners to apply their grammatical competence but the activity also reflects the inductive instruction of the teacher. While many learners prefer deductive instruction (top-down strategy) where grammatical rules are made salient through teacher-directed instruction, many others prefer inductive (bottom-up strategy). In inductive learning, learners are asked to discover grammatical rules by themselves.

Some teachers argue that learners remember grammatical rules better when they discover them on their own. However, most adult learners including EFL learners seem to benefit from teacher-direct grammar instruction that is presented to correspond to their specific needs. It is recommended that learners be provided with both inductive and deductive types of grammatical activities or authentic tasks requiring meaningful communication provided that the teacher is the decision-maker and grammatical objectives are defined in advance.

In conclusion, due to the impact of linguistic research and work on language teaching, grammar is now viewed as one component of communicative competence and is part of language teaching. Grammar, including many aspects of linguistic knowledge-phonology, morphology, syntax, semantics and lexis, is viewed as a tool or an instrument to create comprehension in oral and written discourse rather than something to be learned only at the sentence level. Teaching grammar to ESL and EFL learners is aimed at helping them internalize rules and patterns that can be applied in language use. In so doing, grammatical forms are no longer taught in isolation but in relation to meaning and social functions in context. Grammar instruction is presented both inductively and deductively with concern for such factors as learners' needs, objectives, educational level, learning styles, the frequency and salience of input, the error correction feedback, and the need for varied-meaningful communicative activities and authentic tasks. The new role of grammar in language teaching, therefore, advocates what Lewis(1986) states: "language learning is above all a dynamic integrated whole".

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10.write in detail about the four methods of Teaching.

Four Methods of Teaching Reading

* December 11, 2018
* / [Teaching Reading](https://realkidsread.club/category/teaching-reading/)

Reading is one of the most important skills you can teach a child. A child’s success not only at school but also in later life depends on this skill. To teach a child how to read, you must know different methods of teaching reading and apply them. In this article, we will explain the common methods of used to teach reading. To teach your child or someone else, you can use one method or a combination of two or more methods.

**1.  The phonics method**

This is a well-known and one of the best methods of teaching reading. In this method, children are taught the alphabet first. And learning the alphabet involves learning not only the names of the letters but also the sounds they make. Children can blend two or three letters together to make words only when they have learnt letter sounds.  Among the methods of teaching reading, the phonics method is thought to be the most effective. To apply this method properly, you can buy your child phonologically written books that use regular and interesting words.

You should always try to keep the process short and entertaining, because children often find it boring to learn sounds and their blends. It often becomes boring when children focus too much on blending the sounds. They end up not learning the meaning of the words. To keep enthusiasm and make the learning process interesting, make sure you always explain the meaning of the words. To avoid boredom, you can consider teaching one letter a day. If your child needs three or four days to muster one letter, do not be disheartened. The key is to keep going. Children are naturally curious. They will try to please you and in turn gradually do well. Remember, the phonics method is one of the best methods of teaching and if you apply it well, your child will learn to read basic words or sentences within a very short time.

This method basically helps a learner learn how break words down into sound. It is effective because in the English language, to represent words on the page, we need to translate sounds into letters and letter combinations. Therefore, reading requires one’s ability to decode words into sounds.

The phonics method, unlike some other methods of teaching reading, is all about the art of breaking down words and knowing the sounds they represent. The process learning may be slow in the beginning, but gradually it becomes automatized and more fluent. Although the phonics method is one of the most effective methods of teaching reading, you still need to teach your child to memorize some words, because there are some words that are not spelled the way they sound.

**2. The whole-word approach**

Often referred to as ‘look and say’ method, the whole-word approach focuses on a learner’s ability to recognize whole words. Show your child a word, sound the word and ask him to repeat the whole word. You can use flashcards to teach your child to read. It is better to use flashcards with pictures because pictures will help your child understand the meaning of the words. Without the use of pictures, this method is not very effective. But it can be one of the best methods of teaching reading if applied properly. This method is also known as sight reading. This method is also known as sight-reading. It is based on the concept that when children are exposed to a certain words for a long time, they can eventually sight-read the words. Most specialists think that this method can be as effective as other methods of teaching reading. It’s especially useful when learning [how to teach a toddler to read](https://realkidsread.club/how-to-teach-a-toddler-to-read/) because children this young may not be ready for phonics instruction.

You can also try to teach your child whole short sentences with this method. On flashcards, write short sentences that represent pictures. Then read the sentences aloud and ask your child to repeat you. When he repeats what you said, point and look at each individual word.

In this method, students try to recognize whole words in their written forms. Context is important to make this method effective. Start with familiar words and then move on to short sentences.

This method does not involve cognitive attention for processing words. As a result, this method is faster and it facilitates reading comprehension. This method is more effective for learning to read high frequency English vocabulary.

**3. The language experience approach**

Another method, the language experience method, uses learners’ own words to help them read. Unlike other methods of teaching reading, this method is grounded in personalized learning. In this method, every child learns different words. Children often find this method very easy because they learn words they are already familiar with.

This approach involves a shared experience such as common school experiences, excursions and everyday happenings. In other words, first hand experiences are reflected through the texts written through the language experience approach. This approach is more effective when it is combined with other methods of teaching reading.

In the primary years of schooling, it is important to understand the difference between spoken and written language. This method helps learners understand the difference. Children also develop their language skills by interacting with their parents or teachers. The method also encourages children to develop their observations and write about their experiences.

The language experience approaches works in a different way from other methods of teaching reading because this method integrates the four basic aspects of learning a language through the development of a written text which is based on a learner’s first hand experiences.

To use this method, notice which words your child likes most. Then make sentences with those words. When your child draws a picture, write a description underneath the picture. Then read the description aloud. It will help your child better understand what is written. This approach supports a child’s vocabulary growth and concept development. Using oral language and personal experiences, this method also offers children opportunities for meaningful reading and writing activities.

**4. The context support method**

The context support method is one of the least discussed methods of teaching reading, but it is not less effective than other methods. To attract and hold the attention of the learner, it uses the associative connection between words and pictures. To learn something, paying attention is of utmost importance. But children who are disinterested can not pay attention long enough. . Most educators believe that this method works because it holds a learner’s attention.

Once children have passed their early reading stage, parents often have difficulty finding good reading material for the children. Children have their particular interests. Boys usually like robots and boats and girls like dolls. If boys and girls are provided with reading materials that really interest them, they are unlikely to lose interest in reading. The key is to provide them with interesting reading materials so that they can read for pleasure.

When children discover pleasure in reading, they read more and learn more. If they can relate to the content they are reading, they read with enthusiasm. There are books that especially have been written to support this method. These books have long as well as short sentences that you can read to your child. You can combine short and long sentences. To make the teaching process more effective, use the context support method with other methods of teaching reading.

## 7. Prepare well, prepare a lot, keep them talking

Even though teaching beginners entails progressing slowly and recycling and repeating language many times, that doesn’t mean recycling the same activities, especially not during one lesson. Ensure you have a range of activities to use, and don’t go into class without having first carefully thought through how you are going to introduce new language, how you will check that the students have understood it, how you will practise it, and how you will deal with potential misunderstandings. The possibility for confusion at this level is much greater than at higher levels, and sometimes even harder to disentangle.

Also bear in mind that, unlike with higher levels, you can’t rely on conversations developing simply because the students don’t yet have the linguistic resources to engage in anything other than simple exchanges (though in time they will). This means that the onus will largely be on you to keep them talking.

Finally, enjoy this level. Although in many ways the hardest level to teach, it can also be one of the most satisfying. Seeing your learners go from knowing nothing to knowing a few words to knowing a few sentences and structures to being able to hold rudimentary conversations can be incredibly rewarding, and if they enjoy their initial exposure to the language, and feel confident and inspired to continue, then you will have helped pave the way to their further success.

This blog first appeared on the ELT Learning Journeys blog. To read more excellent strategies and tips for teaching English, check out the blog here:

9.Explain reading and teaching of Reading?10mark(part-B)

Reading and teaching of reading

# Different Reading Techniques And When To Use Them

by [Karl McDonald](https://www.howtolearn.com/author/karl-mcdonald/) | Aug 23, 2012 | [Articles](https://www.howtolearn.com/articles/) |

One of the first things you learn about teaching is that there are different [**reading techniques**](https://www.howtolearn.com/2013/02/skimming-and-scanning-two-important-strategies-for-speeding-up-your-reading/) and the students should be aware of which technique is most suited, depending on the reading task required by the text or by their teacher.

Training students to know the different *reading techniques and when to use them is*indeed important, especially under exam conditions when time constraints come into play and decisions need to be made depending on time availability and the importance of the task at hand.

### ****The four main types of reading techniques are the following:****

* Skimming
* Scanning
* Intensive
* Extensive

### ****Skimming****

Skimming is sometimes referred to as gist reading.

Skimming may help in order to know what the text is about at its most basic level.

You might typically do this with a magazine or newspaper and would help you mentally and quickly shortlist those articles which you might consider for a deeper read.

You might typically skim to search for a name in a telephone directory.

You can reach a speed count of even [700 words per minute](https://berglearning.com/a/howtolearn-home) if you train yourself well in this particular method.

Comprehension is of course very low and understanding of overall content very superficial.

### ****Skimming Saves You Time****

Skimming will certainly save you a lot of time.

But as stated above, it is not the best way to read because you’re comprehension will be lowered.

However, skimming is useful when your goal is to preview the text to get a better idea of what it’s about. It will help prepare you for [deeper learning.](https://www.shareasale.com/r.cfm?b=733599&u=1914367&m=59453)

As learning expert and author Pat Wyman says in her book, [**Instant Learning for Amazing Grades**](https://www.howtolearn.com/products/amazing-grades)**,** skimming is a terrific idea to get an overview and mental picture in your mind.

This strategy makes it much easier to recall what you’re about to read.

1. Take a look at the table of contents first.
2. Review the subheadings in each chapter
3. Quicky read the first paragrph in that section
4. Check out anything in your text that is in bold or italics
5. If there is a chapter summary, now is a good time read it over.

This completely prepares your brain to have an overview of what this chapter is about.

You can then go on to use scanning to find specific important ideas.

### ****Scanning****

Picture yourself visiting a historical city, guide book in hand.

You would most probably just scan the guide book to see which site you might want to visit.

Scanning involves getting your eyes to quickly scuttle across sentence and is used to get just a simple piece of information.

Interestingly, research has concluded that reading off a computer screen actually inhibits the pathways to effective scanning and thus, reading of paper is far more conducive to speedy comprehension of texts.

Something students sometimes do not give enough importance to is illustrations.

These should be included in your scanning. Pay special attention to the introduction and the conclusion.

### ****Intensive Reading****

You need to have your aims clear in mind when undertaking intensive [reading](https://www.howtolearn.com/2017/08/boosting-reading-skills-and-literacy/).

Remember this is going to be far more time consuming than scanning or skimming.

If you need to list the chronology of events in a long passage, you will need to read it intensively.

This type of reading has indeed beneficial to language learners as it helps them understand vocabulary by deducing the meaning of words in context.

It moreover, helps with retention of information for long periods of time and knowledge resulting from intensive reading persists in your long term memory.

This is one reason why reading huge amounts of information just before an exam does not work very well.

Students tend to do this, and they undertake neither type of reading process effectively, especially neglecting intensive reading.

They may remember the answers in an exam but will likely forget everything soon afterwards.

### ****Extensive reading****

Extensive reading involves reading for pleasure.

Because there is an element of enjoyment in extensive reading it is unlikely that students will undertake extensive reading of a text they do not like.

It also requires a fluid decoding and assimilation of the text and content in front of you.

If the text is difficult and you stop every few minutes to figure out what is being said or to look up new words in the dictionary, you are breaking your concentration and diverting your thoughts.

### ****Is the ability to learn and assimilate information also genetic?****

It is not uncommon for people to associate intelligent or bright kids with their equally intelligent parents.

Often children of parents who have a profession appear to be more intelligent.

However, it is important to note first and foremost, that academic intelligence is only one form of intelligence and even a university professor who scores high on academic intelligence, might be the most impractical person, finding it difficult to pragmatically solve problems to simple everyday tasks.

The notion of intelligence is an extremely complex and diverse one and to pin it into just a single word means whipping out the multitude of connotations and meanings that it actually embodies.

Scientists have found no plausible relationship between our genes and our ability to learn or our intelligence.

There is no genetic DNA test that can predict intelligence because intelligence is due to your environment. It is likely that children with parents who exercise a profession appear more intelligent because their parents directly or directly encourage it.

Likely, it is also evident that parents who neglect their children and do not enforce their schooling commitments (doing their homework, study periods etc) will perform less well in school and appear “less intelligent”.

Again, it is evident why children who have had no opportunity for schooling might be considered anything but “intelligent”.

Use these tips for skimming and scanning to help enhance all your reading and especially when you are studying for an exam.

# How to Teach Reading Skills

# 10 Best Practices

BY STACIA LEVY 158,971 views

## Reading classes are often very…quiet.

Of course, people are reading, and we generally don’t hold conversations and read at the same time. And we teachers usually like [**quiet classrooms**](https://busyteacher.org/12900-what-quiet-esl-students-are-not-telling-you.html), seeing the quiet as indicative of learning taking place. This is true in many cases, of course, but there are some drawbacks to these quiet reading classes: they are not interactive, and it’s been shown that interaction between students and students and teacher leads to greater processing of the material and therefore more learning. In additions, it’s difficult to impossible to assess learning taking place without some talking; indeed, it’s hard to tell if students in a silent classroom are even reading and not daydreaming or actually nodding off! Finally, these quiet noninteractive classes are simply [**boring**](https://busyteacher.org/10497-goodbye-boring-reading-classes-use-readers-theatre.html), and boredom is not an incentive for students to come to class and learn. However, there are several methods to address these concerns in reading classes by making them interactive and still [**teach reading**](https://busyteacher.org/classroom_activities-reading-worksheets/).

## 10 Best Practices for Teaching Reading

### Assess level

**Knowing your students’ level of instruction is important for choosing materials.** Reading should be neither too hard, at a point where students can’t understand it and therefore benefit from it. If students don’t understand the majority of the words on a page, the text is too hard for them. On the other hand, if the student understands everything in the reading, there is no challenge and no learning. **So assess your students’ level by giving them short reading passages of varying degrees of difficulty**. This might take up the first week or so of class. Hand out a passage that seems to be at your students’ approximate level and then hold a brief discussion, ask some questions, and define some vocabulary to determine if the passage is at the students’ instructional level. If too easy or too hard, adjust the reading passage and repeat the procedure until you reach the students’ optimal level.

### Choose the correct level of maturity

**While it’s important that the material be neither too difficult nor too easy, a text should be at the student’s maturity level as well**—it’s inappropriate to give children’s storybooks to adult or adolescent students. There are, however, edited versions of mature material, such as classic and popular novels, for ESL students, that will hold their interest while they develop reading skills.

### Choose interesting material

**Find out your students’ interest.** Often within a class there are common themes of interest: parenting, medicine, and [**computers**](https://busyteacher.org/classroom_activities-vocabulary/modern_technologies/computers_and_internet-worksheets/) are some topics that come to mind that a majority of students in my classes have shared interest in. Ask students about their interests in the [**first days of class**](https://busyteacher.org/10778-first-day-what-every-new-teacher-should-know.html) and collect reading material to match those interests. Teaching reading with texts on these topics will heighten student motivation to read and therefore ensure that they do read and improve their skills.

### Build background knowledge

**As a child, I attempted, and failed, to read a number of books that were “classics”:** Louisa May Alcott’s “Little Women” leaps to mind. It probably should have been a fairly easy read, but it was so full of cultural references to life in mid-nineteenth century New England that I gave up in defeat each time. It was not at my independent reading level, even if the vocabulary and grammatical patterns were, because of its cultural references. Why, for example, would young schoolgirls lust after limes, as the youngest daughter in the story, Amy, and her friends do? Cultural material like this would stop me abruptly. Clearly, this was not independent reading for me because of its cultural references, and I needed help to navigate this text—to explain that limes, a citrus fruit, would have been rare and prized a century ago in New England with its freezing winters and before there were effective methods of transporting and storing fruit. Similarly, our students, many new to the U.S., would need equal help with such material. It is important for the teacher to anticipate which cultural references students might need explained or discussed. This is not easy, of course, but can become so through such techniques as related discussion before the reading (e.g., “Who knows what the American Civil War was? When was it? Why was it fought?” or “Where is New England? Have you ever been there? What is the climate like?”) A discussion before the reading on its topics builds background knowledge and the comprehensibility of the text as well as giving the teacher an idea of where students’ background knowledge needs to be developed more.

### Expose different discourse patterns

**The narrative form is familiar to most students.** In addition, it is popular to teachers. It is easy to teach: we’ve been reading and hearing stories most of our lives. However, reports, [**business letters**](https://busyteacher.org/6420-how-to-teach-esl-correspondence-business-letters.html), [**personal letters**](https://busyteacher.org/6419-how-to-teach-esl-correspondence-personal-letters.html), articles, and [**essays**](https://busyteacher.org/9359-how-to-teach-argumentative-essay-writing.html) are also genres that students will have to understand as they leave school and enter the working world. We understand the discourse pattern of a story: that is, its pattern of organization. It is related chronologically, for the most part; it is in the past with past tense verb forms; it is structured around a series of increasingly dramatic events that build to a climax or high point, and so forth. The discourse pattern of an essay for example, may be less familiar but still important to understanding the text: that it is built around a series of topics related to one main idea or thesis. Knowing the discourse pattern lets the reader know what to expect, and therefore increases comprehensibility.

### Work in groups

**Students should work in groups each session, reading aloud to each other, discussing the material, doing question and answer, and so forth.** [**Working in groups**](https://busyteacher.org/13489-pairs-fours-whole-group-how-to-vary-groups.html) provides the much needed interactivity to increase [**motivation**](https://busyteacher.org/3644-how-to-motivate-esl-students.html) and learning. Students may choose their own groups or be assigned one, and groups may vary in size.

### Make connections

**Make connections to other disciplines, to the outside world, to other students.** [**Act out**](https://busyteacher.org/8184-do-be-so-dramatic-ideas-for-integrating-plays.html) scenes from the reading, [**bring in related speakers**](https://busyteacher.org/7083-top-10-ways-get-most-from-guest-speaker.html), and or [**hold field trips**](https://busyteacher.org/7445-5-tips-for-making-the-most-of-your-field-trip.html) on the topic. Help students see the value of reading by connecting reading to the outside world and show its use there.

### Extended practice

**Too often we complete a reading and then don’t revisit it.** However, related activities in [**vocabulary**](https://busyteacher.org/classroom_activities-vocabulary-worksheets/), [**grammar**](https://busyteacher.org/classroom_activities-grammar-worksheets/), comprehension questions, and [**discussion**](https://busyteacher.org/10061-8-simple-tips-encourage-student-participation.html) increase the processing of the reading and boost student learning.

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### Assess informally

**Too often people think “test” when they hear the word “assess.”** But some of the most valuable assessment can be less formal: [**walking around**](https://busyteacher.org/12936-testing-walking-around-informal-esl-assessment.html) and observing students, for example, discuss the reading. Does the discussion show they really understand the text? Other means of informal assessment might be [**short surveys**](https://busyteacher.org/6178-go-ahead-ask-how-to-use-surveys-to-teach-english.html) or question sheets.

### Assess formally

**There is also a place for more formal assessment.** But this doesn’t have to be the traditional multiple choice test, which frequently reveals little more than the test-takers skill in taking tests. The essay on a reading - writing about some aspect of Orwell’s “Animal Farm,” for example - demonstrates control of the reading material in a way a multiple choice quiz cannot as the student really needs to understand the material to write about the reading’s extended metaphor of the farm.

## Teaching reading presents a unique set of challenges because it is a receptive language skill.

However, if the instructor keeps in mind “receptive” doesn’t have mean “passive” an interactive class that improves student reading can be developed.