

EVOLUTION OF METHODS AND
TECHNIQUES IN FOREIGN
LANGUAGE TEACHING

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DEDICATION

I dedicate this book to my wife, our children and grandchildren. Thank you all for your support and encouragement.

To my parents Mawini and Chilatebe, thank you for sending me to school. You made a right decision, which has made me excel in my academic life and ultimately became a professor. I wish you were alive to witness your son's success. That child you brought up in a village.

INTRODUCTION

Written evidence points to the Middle East in Iraq at Sumer (Baghdad) as the place of origin regarding the teaching of second / foreign languages. This was around 3,000 BC when a group of invaders conquered the area. Surprisingly, instead of imposing their language, they opted to learn the language of the conquered (the Sumerians). The method used to teach the language involved rewriting or analysing old texts (Philology). This then marked the beginning of the first methods in second / foreign language teaching.

So, the communicative/task-based methods currently in use widely in the world, in the teaching of second/foreign languages, did not emerge like manner from Heaven. To the contrary, they are part of a long methodological evolution. We have in this book, attempted to critically discuss the evolution in question. For each method, we have highlighted its origin, main features (characteristics) and its application in the classroom setting. That is, a sample lesson as it was taught at that time.

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My wife, children and grandchildren for your moral support and encouragement.

PART ONE

PRELIMINARIES

CHAPTER ONE

BASIC CONCEPTS

1.0 Overview

This chapter attempts to explain some key terminologies as a way of clearing the way for what follows in the subsequent chapters. Hence, the title basic concepts. The first such terminology we would like to define as a point of departure, is language.

1.1 Language

Language is a tool used by community members for interacting. It is a system of communication among human beings. It can be either oral (spoken) or written. It should be noted in passing, that it is not only human beings that communicate with each other. Other beings do also interact among themselves but this area is the focus of this book.

To be equally noted, is the fact that language is part of a community's culture as such, it assumes the role of a vehicle of value system and cultural expression, which determines the identity of groups and individuals. It contains a wealth of literature of folklore, songs, riddles, proverbs, and wise sayings. "Grosso modo" language is a store house for indigenous knowledge about a community's history. In this vein, killing that society's language means killing its identity. After defining what language is, we now look at its various forms or types will then be considered.

1.2 Forms or Types of Language

The next section will discuss different labels used to explain variations within the language concept. These variations depend on the proximity and sequencing of languages to the speaker.

1.2.1 First Language (L1) (Mother Tongue)

Is there a difference between a mother tongue and a first language? To answer this question, let us define the two. A mother tongue is the language an individual speaks right from birth. In other words, it is his or her parents' language. On the other hand, first language also known as arterial language is the language one speaks best or in which he or she is very competent. If an individual speaks best both his or her mother's and father's languages, then the two are his or her first languages. This scenario is known as first language bilingualism.

If we closely examine these definitions of mother tongue and first language, it is clear that an individual's first language is actually his or her mother tongue. But, there are cases where one's first language may not be necessarily the mother tongue. For example, a child of Zambian parents who is right from birth introduced to say English instead of the parents' language and ends up being proficient in English, his or her first language is English and not the parents' language. These cases are, however, very rare but they do exist.

1.2.2 Local Language

A local language also known as indigenous, autonomous or native language is simply a language of a country that an individual is “born in”. For example, *Nsenga, Cisoli, Citonga, Kikaonde, Cibemba* are all Zambian local languages, while *Cishona* and *Ndebele* are local languages in Zimbabwe. Likewise, *Cichewa* and *Lingala* are local Languages in Malawi and the Democratic Republic of Congo respectively.

1.2.3 Second and Foreign languages

Is a second language different from a foreign language? This question can only be answered by examining the definitions of the two types of language. A second language is defined as a language which is not the child’s mother tongue. It is the language learnt later on in life either formally at school or informally in a natural setting. A foreign language, on the other hand, is defined as a language originally coming from another country. For example, French, Chinese, Portuguese are foreign languages in Zambia. If we strictly follow the definition, although English has the status of a second language in Zambia, it is actually also a foreign language. So, a second language can also be foreign. Equally, languages from other African countries are foreign in Zambia. Since Zambia has more than one local language it is possible that some are second languages to some Zambians? The answer is in the affirmative if we adhere strictly to the definition of a second language stated above.

1.2.3 Target Language

A target language is a language learners are studying either as a second or foreign language. In Zambia, for example, English, French, Portuguese or Chinese are target languages in the institutions teaching them.

1.2.4 Lingua Franca and Regional Language

Lingua franca (plural *linguae francae*), also known as intra natural language, is a language used as a means of communication between populations speaking languages that are not mutually intelligible (<https://www.britanica.com/topiclingua-franca> accessed on 30/01/ 2019). A clear example of *linguae Francae* in Zambia are Silozi in western Province which is used by communities from there with different linguistic background (different ethnic groups.), Nyanja in Eastern province, *Icibemba* on the Copperbelt and of course English. On the other hand, a regional language is a language used in a particular geographical area. For example, in Zambia there are seven regional languages. These are; Silozi (western province), *Citonga*, (Southern province), *Cibemba* (Northern, Muchinga, Copperbelt provinces and some part of Central province, *Kikaonde*, *Luvale* and *Luvale* (North-western province). It should be noted that a regional language can have what are known as dialects (from latin *dialectus, dialectos*). These are simply variations of a language and are mutually intelligible.

According to the definitions we have stated above, a regional language is actually a *lingua franca*. That is, it is almost the same as a *lingua franca*.

1.2.5 National and Official Language

A national language is a language which is a symbol of a country. Very often, a national language is linked or tied to historical, cultural and ethnic factors. Examples of national languages are Kiswahili in Tanzania, Swana in Botswana, English in England and French in France. For a language to acquire the status of a national language, it should be widely spoken in that particular country, roughly not less than 80% of the population in the country should speak that language. Currently, Zambia does not have a national language.

An official language also known as standard language, is a language given a special legal status in a nation. For example, Zambia does not have a national language instead it has eight official languages namely: English, Citonga, Cibemba, Cinyanja, Luvale, Kikaonde, Silozi and Lunda. These languages have been recognised as languages widely spoken in the country hence, have been given special status with legal backing. These are the languages used in the country for official purposes (courts, parliament, administration, education, etc) in a nutshell, an official language is not a national language.

1.2.6 Modern Language and Classic Language

A modern language is a language which is in use in the everyday interactions. It may be local or foreign. In other words, a modern language is normally studied for communication. On the other hand, a classic language is an ancient or a “dead” language. For example, Latin or Sanskrit. Classic languages are usually studied in Universities for literary value.

1.3 Didactic Terminologies

We have in the preceding lines, explained the various types of languages. In this section of the chapter, we define terminologies which are linked to the teaching-learning of languages.

1.3.1 Acquisition and Learning

In this book, we have used the terminology acquisition to mean the process of mastering one’s mother tongue (L1). Language acquisition is a natural process which involves interaction with parents and other adults speaking the same language. In other words, the process involves socialization in an informal setting. Learning a language has been used to mean a formal way of mastering a second or foreign language. that is, languages one learns after acquiring his or her mother tongue. The process happens in a well-planned environment. That is, in a school. In language learning, there is a specific teacher (trained), an official syllabus and a designated venue. However, it must be noted that a second or foreign language can also be learnt informally like the mother tongue. For example, most refugees or immigrants in Zambia have learnt the local languages through this process (informal process). So for us, we have used the two terminologies differently. Some scholars have used them interchangeably for example, Krashen (1982).

1.3.2 Didactic and Pedagogy

The next pair of terminologies we would like to clarify are didactic and pedagogy. Didactic is defined as the science of teaching and learning and involves activities which inculcate into learners knowledge and skill. In other words, it “is a theory of teaching and in a wider sense, a theory and practical application of teaching and learning”. This terminology was first used by a scholar and school teacher by the name of Christopher Wase during the middle of the seventeenth century (1627-1690). In the field of language teaching and learning, didactic borrows activities of teaching from various sources such as: linguistics, Sociolinguistics, Psycholinguistics, and Biolinguistics. As for the term pedagogy, this involves child related education. “Ped” means child education. In short, the term means teaching (the art of teaching).

According to the definitions given to the two terms above, the difference between them is, didactics involves both teaching and learning while pedagogy focuses only on teaching leaving out the aspect of how learners learn.

1.4 Approach, Methodology, Method and Technique

The most common terminologies in language education are approach, methodology, method and technique.

An approach describes the nature of a language and how it should be taught. It is in other words;

Theoretical positions and beliefs about the nature of language, the nature of language learning, and applicability of both to pedagogical settings. “<http://www.englishraven.com/methodologies.html>/(accessed 29/01/2019).

As for the term methodology, it is all about the study of methods, that is:

“The pedagogical practices in general including theoretical implications and related research. It includes what is involved in how to teach. <https://www.myenglishpages.com/definitions-of-methodology-and-other-elt-terms/> (accessed 29/01/2019).

As regards method, it is simply what a teacher employs to deliver a lesson to his or her learners.

“Set of classroom specifications for accomplishing linguistic objectives. Methods are concerned with teacher/learner roles, subject matter, objectives, sequencing and materials. <http://www.englishraven.com/methodology.html> (accessed 29/01/ 2019).

Finally, a technique in language teaching is a tool a teacher uses to facilitate the delivery of his or her lesson.

Any of a wide variety of exercise, activities or devices used in the language classroom for realizing lesson objectives. <http://www.englishraven.com/methodology.html> (accessed 29/01/ 2019).

When one examines the definitions above, we note one factor common to all of them. It is the issue of how to teach a language that is, procedures in language teaching.

1.4.1 Language of Instruction

Language of instruction also known as medium of instruction or language of learning, is the language which institutions of learning use in teaching and learning. For example, in Zambia, from early education to grade four local languages are used as official languages of instruction then from grade five to university level, English is used as the official language of instruction. However, on the ground this policy is not being adhered to in private schools. As they have continued to use English as language of instruction in the lower grades, this means that these institutions are defying the official decision taken by the government through executive actions. There is therefore need to enforce the policy in private schools. Anyway the issue is does the policy only apply to the public primary schools or both public and private? The ministry of General Education should come in the open and guide the institutions.

1.4.2 Bilingual and Multilingual Education

To understand bilingual and multilingual education, it is first necessary to define the two terminologies. Bilingual is a state in which an individual is able to speak two languages. While multilingual means being able to express oneself in more than one language (several languages). Most Zambians are bilingual. In fact, most of them are multilingual.

So, it follows that bilingual or multilingual education is a scenario in which, two or more languages are used as languages of instruction.

1.4.3 Immersion Education

Immersion education is one of the ways or models in language teaching in which learners of a second or foreign language are totally immersed in that language. Let us take the example of French, Portuguese or Chinese in Zambia, immersion would mean the learners of these languages are entirely taught in these languages. This is a scenario in which immigrants usually find themselves in in terms of language learning. They are immersed in the language of the country to which they have immigrated.

1.4.4 Code Switching

Code-switching should not be equated to bilingual or multilingual education. This is a scenario/ in which a teacher while teaching shifts from one language to another. For example, he or she uses two languages within a discourse to explain something. Code-switching is very common in Zambian primary schools where teachers when they observe that most learners have not understood an explanation in English would use local languages. In fact, code switching is very common among multilingual speakers.

1.5 Summary

In this chapter, we have attempted to define what was considered key concepts in language teaching-learning as a way of clearing the way for the subsequent chapters. Let it be noted that the list of the terminologies we have explained is not exhaustive. Equally, to be noted is the fact that some definitions to these terms may not be in tandem with how other scholars have defined them. Hence, you may come across definitions of these terms different from ours. It is not uncommon for scholars to define terminologies or concepts differently. This is so because, they are influenced by the background in which they were nurtured. For example, a scholar from Europe may define a concept in Linguistics differently from an American but in essence, the message is the same.

CHAPTER TWO

THEORIES OF LEARNING

2.0 Overview

Learning is a process that brings together personal and environmental experiences and influences for acquiring, enriching or modifying one's knowledge, skills, values, attitudes, behaviour and world views (Author <http://www.p21.org>) (<http://www.ibe-unesco.org/technical-notes>). On the other hand, learning theories develop hypotheses that describe how this process takes place (ibid).

There are several theories of learning. In this chapter, we will only dwell on those that are considered very influential namely: Behaviourism, Cognitive Psychology, Constructivism, Social Learning theory, Socio-Constructivism and Experiential learning.

2.1 Behaviourism

The origin of Behaviourism can be traced to the 1900s. It was founded by Watson in 1924 but is usually associated to Skinner F.B. It was very popular worldwide in the 1940s and 50s. According to this theory, learning involves behaviour change through associations between external stimuli (from the environment) and response by the individual followed by positive reinforcement. S-R-R.

In other words, language learning involves subjecting learners to imitation and repetition of structures of the target language. In this way, it is believed that learning becomes stronger (through drill and practice or pattern drills).

In spite of its popularity, the theory was challenged by some scholars such as Noam Chomsky, who considered it too simplistic, artificial and mechanical. In this theory, learners are not given an opportunity for creative language input. In addition, external factors are not key in language learning. The proposed imitation and repetition activities are inadequate for meaningful learning to occur.

2.2 Cognitive Psychology

Cognitive psychology surfaced in the 1950s. It was influenced by the emergence of the computer as a processing tool of information. The focus of the theory was on acquisition of knowledge. According to cognitive psychology, learning involves acquiring knowledge. The learner is viewed as an information processor just like the computer.

The acquisition of knowledge involves the learner absorbing it, then proceeds to work on it and undertakes a cognitive operation. Once the mental operations are done, the information is stocked in memory. In this theory, the learner remains passive.

The proposed instructional methods for cognitive psychology are lecturing and reading of books. Through these activities, the learner gains knowledge and then keeps it in memory (knowledge acquisition).

In language, the information received is later supposed to be used in interactions in situational communications. But since it is stocked in memory, there is need

for authentic activities to reactivate it such as debates, discussions, storytelling, simulation and so on.

Cognitive psychology is closely related to Chomsky's innateness (mentalism) theory which believes in the inborn or innateness of linguistic features in individuals. They have a device known as a Language Acquisition Device (LAD) (competence or grammar). All what is required to be done by teachers is to reactivate it through authentic classroom activities.

2.3 Constructivism

Constructivism emerged in the years 1970s and 1980s. Contrary to the "knowledge acquisition" associated with cognitive psychology, constructivism believes in "knowledge construction". Learners do not remain passive when they receive information. Through the reorganisation of their mental structures, and interaction with the environment, they construct their knowledge. Learning is learning to think. It involves reflecting on the received information. In this vein, learners are viewed as sense-makers and interpreters. The teacher is not seen as a transmitter but a cognitive guide of learners' learning (Piaget, Brunner Jerome).

In the classroom, the theory leads to the learner-centered approach in which the teacher's role is that of a facilitator. The learners are supposed to take responsibility of their own learning through discovery or enquiry.

2.4 Social Learning Theory

The Social Learning Theory was developed by Albert Bandura. It postulates that social learning does explain human behaviour in terms of continuous reciprocal interaction between cognitive behavioural and environmental influences. For example, television commercials can lead an individual to buy the products being advertised. The theory further asserts that observation, modelling the behaviour, and emotional reactions of others serve as a guide for action (imitation). These concepts facilitate learning. In a nutshell, Bandura believed that individuals learn with a social context. That is, children learn through model behaviour (attention, retention and reproduction).

2.5 Socio-constructivism

Socio-constructivism, also known as socio-cognitive, emerged during late 20th century and is associated with the Russian psychologist by the name of Semionovich Vygotsky. It was a complementary or improvement to Bandura works (Social-Learning Theory).

For Vygotsky, social interaction plays a key role in the development of cognition. As for a child cultural development, he postulates that it appears at two levels; at social level where the child interacts with peers and adults for the purpose of communication (interpsychological). At individual level, that is inside the child (intrapyschological), the utterances at the social level are internalised (Memory and form action of concepts).

In addition, Vygotsky coined two concepts namely: Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) and Scaffolding. That is, the distance between what is known and what is not known and the guidance a child gets on the skills difficult to master from teachers or those who know respectively. The application of Vygotsky's theory in class requires provision of learning contexts in which learners can play an active role in learning. Furthermore, the teacher is encouraged to collaborate with his or her learners so that learning becomes reciprocal. As for classroom activities, plays, problem solving, group work, and so on, are encouraged.

2.6 Experiential Learning

Experiential learning is associated with Rogers C, a scholar in person-centered counselling. In this theory, learning is considered as meaningful everyday life experiences, which lead to change in a person's knowledge and behaviours. A human person is an active reactive and experiencing being. The theory further postulates that experiential learning is self-initiated and self-discovered learning.

Individuals learn when they fully participate in the learning problem. Learning can only be facilitated, we cannot teach another person directly (Rogers). Rogers's theory is closely linked to Maslow's hierarchy of needs, which recognises that our basic needs are inborn and we are motivated by these needs which should be satisfied, for learning to take place.

In the classroom situation, Rogers's theory recommends learners' active participation in the learning process, provision of conditions, which lead to self-directed learning. The role of the teacher is that of a facilitator. That is, the creation of an atmosphere of acceptance, understanding and respect is the most effective basis for the facilitation of the learning which is called therapy (Rogers).

The teacher will be concerned primarily with understanding and not judging the individual that the teacher will keep at the centre of the teaching process. Problems and feelings, not his own are the most important of all, the teacher will realise that constructive effort must come from the positive or active forces within the student (Cantor quoted by Rogers, 1976: p384).

2.7 Summary

In this chapter, we have only presented the theories considered influential and their application in the learning of a foreign language. However, this does not in any way imply that the others are less important.

CHAPTER THREE

ACQUISITION OF FIRST LANGUAGE (L1)

3.0 Overview

In chapter one, the word acquisition was defined as the natural process of mastering one's parents' language (s). Before we go into details describing how this is done, we would like to point out in passing that, before birth, that is toward the end of pregnancy, a baby already starts to hear sounds from the outside the mother's body (<https://www.washington.edu/news/2013/01/02/wh>). This then suggests that a baby's life actually begins even before it is born. Children master their languages through a subconscious process in the same way they learn to crawl and walk. Linguistic competence is developed in phases from babbling to one word, to two, to telegraphic speech, to syntactic phase. Those from bilingual homes master both languages.

For the sake of clarity, we will now stage by stage describe how a child masters his or her language. It should be noted that the process is universal among all the children regardless of their race or colour.

(a) Pre Linguistic Stage (0-12 months)

At birth, a baby is supposed to cry. This is known as the "first cry". The absence of the cry suggests there is something wrong with the baby. The period between birth and about twelve months is known as pre-linguistic because it is marked by the absence of semantic units in the baby's language, activities. The stage is also known as pre-verbal speech. Notable in the baby's language, at this stage, is crying to cooing then babbling. In short, this stage involves phoneme perception.

(b) Holophrastic Stage (12-18 months).

The next stage a baby passes through in language acquisition is known as Holophrastic. It is during this period that the baby starts to produce one-word utterances, which have a meaning. Usually these words are in the form of nouns, adjectives including those invented by the babies themselves (monosyllabic in consonant-vowel clusters). Some example of these words are; milk, ball, tata, mama, dada.

(c) Telegraphic Stage (18-20 months)

After the holophrastic stage the baby attains the phase known as telegraphic. The baby's language at this stage is similar to the way telegrams were written hence, naming it telegraphic. This is the period when the baby is able to produce two units or word utterances such as; book table, baby shoe, bye-bye, mommy hat. The following example is from my *first granddaughter*: *gi me, scared me, scared it, baby scared, water nice*. These are known as

protosentences. It is also during this period when the baby starts to name objects or persons around it. Usually, this is done to attract the attention of those around. In addition, it is also during this same period that a baby may create its own words or distort names.

(d) Syntactical Stage (20 months and above)

From telegraphic stage, the baby enters the syntactical stage or the joined sentences period. The baby is now able to produce the first sentence in his or her life. The sentences uttered are characterised by lack of correctness in terms of grammar because they are unaware of the rules; “*He go out, Baby high chair, A this track, A bags.*”

3.1 Role of Parents and other Adults during the Child’s Acquisition of First Language (L1)

During the children’s language development, the parents or other adults in a community are the main source of language. The child’s speech or utterances are expanded and extended by them. The linguistic raw material that a child uses actually comes from them. In this way, the child’s cognitive development is enhanced. To illustrate what we are saying, here are some examples; the child says “Baby high chair” The parents would tell the child “yes the baby is in the high chair” “Dog bark” “yes the dog is barking at the kitty.

During this period, children learn to speak implicitly. They develop knowledge about three language systems. These are; (a) the phonological (sound) system, (b) the syntactic (grammar) system, and (c) the semantic (meaning) system.

3.2 Summary

So “grosso modo”, acquisition of the first language is a natural process, which involves interaction or socialisation between a child and the parents or other adults in a community. It is estimated that by the time children go to school, they have roughly accumulated about five thousand words.

CHAPTER FOUR

LEARNING A FOREIGN LANGUAGE

4.0 Overview

Most of the information we have presented in this part of the chapter is actually from the works of Germain (1993). Written evidence points to the Middle East, specifically at Sumer, the present Bagdad in Iraq as being the area where second or foreign language teaching and learning originated from. This was around 3,000 BC. What actually happened was that a group of people known as the Akkadians, who arrived in the area from the North West, conquered the people of Sumer. Surprisingly, instead of imposing their language on the conquered community, they instead opted to learn the local language (the Sumerians language). So to them, it was a second language. It is not clear why they (the conquerors) would prefer to learn the language of a people they had conquered. Maybe, it was for security and cultural reasons. The teaching was mainly focused on the written language using ideogrammes and vocabulary and involved rewriting old texts.

The second phase in the history of second or foreign language teaching –learning took place in Egypt and Greece during the sixth and fifth centuries. What was taught and learnt was not actually a second or foreign language *per se* but archaic languages (Form of the same language).

In Egypt it was called hieratic language while in Greece it was known as classic Greek. The learning process involved writing and memorising what was written. It is not clear why learners were subjected to “memorising “dead” form of language-maybe for mere literary works.

The third phase in the history of second or foreign language teaching-learning occurred during the third century in Greece. The scenario was the same as the one at Sumer. The conquerors (Romans) learned Greek, the language of their conquered subjects (the Greeks). Again, maybe this was for cultural and security reasons. To the Romans, Greek was their second language

The fourth phase took place during the Roman Empire. During this period most of the Western Europe was under the Empire. Therefore, Latin, the language of the conquerors became the language of administration, law, religion, and education. In other words, Latin became the international language of communication. It was learned as a foreign language *per se*. The teaching-learning process was centred on grammar (morphology and syntax) reading, translation, and literary activities.

When the Roman Empire was no more, Latin became a “dead” language because it was only taught in isolated cases. In its place, national languages such as English, French, Spanish and so on were taught (the beginning of the teaching of modern languages). This reform in language teaching-learning occurred from the beginning of sixteenth to nineteenth centuries. This was also the period during which the first language text books were published (printing was invented during this period) and the approach which was used to teach these modern languages was known as the “Grammar”-Translation Approach (details on this are in chapter five). Suffice to note that the approach centred on the written language (grammar, translation, reading,

literary works). Meaning it was just a replica of the one which was used to teach Latin during the Roman Empire.

After this reform, modern languages were also taught overseas (outside) the western world. For example, English was taught in the British colonies (first in trading areas). After the Second World War, it became the language of international communication. French was equally taught in the French colonies (first in the trading areas) and became the second international language of communication after English.

4.1 Learning a Foreign Language

In this part of the chapter, we describe how a foreign language is learnt.

There are two ways of learning a foreign language. The first one is through a natural process. That is through informal interactions or socialisation with speakers of that language as is the case with immigrants or refugees. The second one is done through an organised or formal process. In other words, through a conscious and active process (explicit instruction and education). Our focus is on the later process. Let it be noted that anyone can learn a foreign language.

Five components are involved in foreign language learning namely; the teacher, the learners, the language being learnt, the teaching and learning materials, and a classroom (venue). These elements can be illustrated in a diagram form as follows

(3) Language

(4) Teaching-learning materials and aids

(5) Classroom

(1) Teacher

(2) Learners

4.1.1 Teacher

The teacher has the knowledge and skills to be able to teach the target language. Usually he or she acquires these in teacher training institutions.

4.1.2 Learners

There are various reasons why the learners choose to learn a particular language (political, economic, social and cultural reasons). In most cases, the introduction of new languages is dictated by government educational policy. For example, in Zambia, the introduction of French, Portuguese and Chinese in schools was as a result of the government policy through the Ministry of Education.

4.1.3 Language (Target Language)

As already stated under “learners” the language(s) to be taught in public schools is or are decided by the government and takes into consideration regional and international cooperation. English, French, Portuguese, and Chinese are taught for regional and international co-operation.

4.1.4 Teaching –Learning Materials and Aids

In the teaching-learning process of a foreign language, pedagogical materials and aids are used to facilitate learning such as text books, radio, television, CDS, cassettes, computers. This is not the case when one is acquiring L1.

4.1.5 Classroom

There is a venue in which the teaching-learning process takes place. This is not the same when one is acquiring the first language.

4.2 Stages of second language Learning/acquisition

We will now describe the stages involved in learning a foreign language. Our main source for this information is the article by Judie Hayes titled “*Stages of Second Language Acquisition*” “(web everything ELS net) including (<https://learningcenter.edu/tips-and-tool/learning-a-second-language>. See also Krashen’s 5 stages [http//pediaa.com>language>linguistics:difference between first language and second language acquisition by Hasa \(2020\).](http://pediaa.com>language>linguistics:difference between first language and second language acquisition by Hasa (2020).)

Phase 1: Reception

The first phase in learning a foreign language is referred to as a “silent” period, learners do a lot of listening accompanied by repetitions of what they are hearing. Some scholars have named this period as a “comprehensive input” meaning listening and reading. At this stage, learners are not yet speaking the target language but merely exposed to it. At this phase, teachers, are encouraged or advised to expose the learners to a lot of listening class activities. If possible, native speakers of the target language can be invited to speak to the learners. Some of the activities which a teacher can use are; news items from the radio, television, CDS and visuals. The application of the Krashen’s learning theory (1982) (the monitor theory) is appropriate during this period. Krashen (1982) calls this period the “acquired system” during which learners are exposed to the language with the focus on comprehension.

Phase 2: Production

Phase two, is the period during which production in the target language starts. Some scholars have named this stage as the “comprehensive output”. Under this Phase, Hayes (1998) identifies four speech developments namely; early production, speech emergency, intermediate fluency, and advanced fluency.

(a) Early Production

Early production is a period during which the learners can manage to communicate in the target language using one or two word(s).

(b) Speech Emergency

During this period, learners are able to communicate using simple utterances, which are normally not grammatically correct.

(c) Intermediate Fluency

It is during the intermediate fluency period when learners commence to use complex sentences and improve their fluency in the target language.

(d) Advanced Fluency

In this period, learners become fluent and their communication in the target language is almost equal to that of the native speakers. They are able to identify errors and can make changes to their speech. Some scholars have called this stage the review or feedback “period”.

It is during phase 2 when learning of the foreign language takes place. Krashen (1982), identifies this level as the “learned system” in which learning is monitored by the teacher.

4.3 Summary

In conclusion, it can be said that learning a foreign language involves mastering its phonological and morphosyntactic rules. In addition, unlike the acquisition of first language which is a natural (informal) process, learning a foreign language is an organised (formal) process. Lastly, foreign language learning in terms of duration and fluency differs from one individual to another. For example, children learn a foreign language faster than adults. This is because as one advances in age, the brain becomes rigid (Girard, 1994 p.34). There is also a hypothesis which alludes to the fact that, girls are better at learning foreign languages than boys (a possible research area for a longitudinal study).

PART TWO

METHODS AND TECHNIQUES

CHAPTER FIVE

GRAMMAR-TRANSLATION METHOD

5.0 Overview

The grammar translation method was the first method to be formalised. In the next section, its origin, characteristics, classroom application among others will be discussed.

5.1 Origins

The grammar-translation method focuses on reading and translation of sentences from one language to the other. It is also called classic or traditional method. It was once used to teach Latin and Greek as second languages. Under this method, translation was used to demonstrate rule application and how this would be done in another language. The grammar translation method was not recommended for a while until it was revived in the 19th century by German to be the preferable method again (Aqel, 2013).

According to Larsen Freeman (2000), the main aim of the grammar translation method was to make learners read and understand literature in written foreign languages. It was an efficient way of learning vocabulary and grammatical structures. Fish (2003), explains that by focusing on the target language's rules of the grammar, learners would be able to understand the features of two languages that would make language learning easier. As mentioned earlier, the central element of this method is translating one language into the other.

5.2 Characteristics of the Grammar Translation Method

Prator and Celce-Murcia (1979), outlined the important aspects of the Grammar Translation Method as follows:

- (a) the native language is used to teach second language which emerges by some exercises.
- (b) the meanings of difficult words are given in the list form.
- (c) the teacher explicates grammar points and exceptions that students might face.
- (d) the rules present the right forms and their influences in words.
- (e) starting with reading literary texts.
- (f) then, the students apply the grammatical rules on the read texts.
- (g) translation a variety of sentences to the first language.
- (h) a little concentration on communication activities.
- (i) The main attention is placed on reading, translation, and grammatical rules with a notable ignoring to the pronunciation.
- (k) The role of the teacher is to convey knowledge.

5.3 Classroom Activities in the Grammar Translation Method

A number of activities are used when implementing the Grammar translation method. These are:

- a. Reading loudly;
- b. Writing;
- c. Memorisation of grammar rules;
- d. Translation both to and from the target language; and
- e. Analysis of literary texts.

5.4 Observations on and classroom application of the Grammar Translation Method

The use of translation in foreign language learning has been considered detrimental as it does not allow the achievement of fluency and foster communicative language use (Newson, 1998); therefore, it has been mostly avoided. It has been thought that learners will learn better if they are given maximum exposure to the target language. The Grammar-Translation method has been criticised for not giving enough opportunity to learners to get involved in the target language (Mart, 2013). Regardless of the weaknesses of the grammar translation method, there is consensus that first time learners of the language need the help of mother tongue. Thus, grammar translation is not only useful for early grades but for all the learners who are not proficient in the target language or the language of classroom instruction. For this reason, this method is still very useful today. With the popularisation of translanguaging, grammar translation becomes central to the teaching and learning of second and foreign languages to learners without adequate proficiency in the target language.

5.4.1 Sample Lessons (French Students learning English)

Past Tense

Teacher: Morning class!

Class: Morning sir/madam

Teacher: Today we will learn about past tense in English.

Teacher: Explains the rule for putting the verbs in the past tense.

Rule: In English, a verb is put in the past tense by adding -ed at the end of it.

Example:

- play – played
- walk – walked
- Laugh – laughed
- enjoy – enjoyed
- John *played* football yesterday.
- This morning I *walked* to school
- He *laughed* at me.
- Mary *enjoyed* reading this book.

Exceptions

Teacher explains that there are some exceptions to the rule. Some verbs do not take on-ed for example:

- Sleep – slept
- Read – read
- Cut – cut
- Put – put
- Hit – hit
- Yesterday I *slept* at midnight.
- I *read* this book sometime back.
- The car *hit* into a tree.
- This shirt *cost* me a lot of money.
- He *cut* pieces of bread and then *applied* some jam.
- The bush fire *was* quickly put off.

Exercise 1

Put the following sentences in the past tense:

- When I was young, I (like) eating chicken.
- Peter (ring) his friend John.
- He (visit) his grandparents last week.
- We (talk) about this same issue sometime back.
- Class we already (discuss) this not so?
- When I was growing up, I was (teach) to respect elderly people.

Exercise 2

Translate the following sentences into English

1. Hier je suis arrivé à e`ecole à huit heures.
2. Pour le petit dejeuner, nous avons mangé des saucissons
3. Piere est parti à Londres ilya trois jours.
4. Hier j`ai joué avec mon ami paul.

Summary

In this chapter, we have described the Grammar-Translation method; its origin, main features and how it is applied in the classroom. In the next chapter, we present the Direct method.

CHAPTER SIX

DIRECT METHOD

6.0 Overview

The Direct Method was the second method to be developed after the Grammar Translation Method. As the name suggests, there was a major shift in the medium of instruction where, unlike in the grammar translation method, the target language now became the language of classroom teaching and learning. In this chapter, the origin, meaning characteristics, and how the direct method will be applied in the classroom will be discussed.

6.1 Origins of the Direct Method

The Direct Method was developed in response to perceived weaknesses of the grammar translation method, which involved very little spoken communication and listening comprehension. The primary objective of the direct method was to teach foreign language learners how to use language for communication purposes. Benati (2018), explains that the main principles of the direct method included: learners being taught in the target language; the target language was the medium of instruction; inductive teaching of grammar; and focus on oral and listening language skills. The demand for oral communicative competence in the nineteenth century made the direct method gain massive popularity. As the name suggests, the Direct Method was a monolingual approach to learning a language. The method receives its name from the fact that meaning was conveyed directly in the target language through the use of demonstration and visual aids as opposed to analytical procedures that focused on explanation of grammar rules in classroom teaching. The goal of language learning was communication and pupils needed to make a direct association between the target language and meaning. Thus, correct pronunciation and grammar were also emphasised. The role of the teacher also changed because teachers started to encourage direct and spontaneous use of the foreign language in the classroom (Li, 2012). According to Krashen (1982), the direct method emphasises accuracy and errors are corrected instantly in class. In terms of classroom interaction, Freeman (2000) explains that despite the teacher directing class activities, interaction goes both ways, from the teacher to the learners and vice-versa. This implies that the role of the learners is less passive because they can initiate classroom interaction.

6.2 Characteristics of the Direct Method

There are a number of features which describe what the Direct Method means in theory and practice. The following are some of them:

- a. Reading in the target language should be taught from the beginning of the language instruction. However, the reading skill will be developed through practice with speaking. Language is primarily speech. Culture consists of more than the fine arts.

- b. Objects (e.g., realia or pictures) present in the immediate classroom environment should be used to help students understand the meaning.
- c. The native language should not be used in the classroom.
- d. The teacher should demonstrate, not explain or translate. It is desirable that students make a direct association between the target language and meaning.
- e. Students should learn to think in the target language as soon as possible. Vocabulary is acquired more naturally if students use it in full sentences, rather than memorising.
- f. The purpose of language learning is communication (therefore, students need to learn how to ask questions as well as answer them).
- g. Pronunciation should be worked on right from the beginning of language instruction.
- h. Self-correction facilitates language learning.
- i. Lesson should contain some conversational activity - some opportunity for students to use language in real contexts. Students should be encouraged to speak as much as possible.
- j. Grammar should be taught inductively. There may never be an explicit grammar rule given.
- k. Writing is an important skill to be developed from the beginning of language instruction.
- l. The syllabus is based on situations or topics, not usually on linguistic structures.
- m. Learning another language also involves learning how speakers of that language live.

6.3 Classroom Activities in the Direct Method

The Direct Method uses a number of classroom activities and exercises. These are:

- a. Question and answer;
- b. Dictation;
- c. Composition;
- d. Pronunciation through repetition of phrases;
- e. Student self-correction;
- f. Fill in the blanks; and
- g. Conversational exercises.

6.4 Observations on and Application of the Direct Method

This method recorded progress in learners' language use through question and answer. Learners could now speak the language unlike the grammar translation method. Some of the advantages of this method are; it helps learners acquire correct pronunciation, provides better understanding, improves fluency, there is no gap between active and passive vocabularies, and it saves time, since the target language is also the language of classroom instruction.

However, there are also notable difficulties in using the Direct Method. For example, lack of the use of mother tongue makes learning difficult for foreign language learners who need their mother tongue of any familiar language to function as a stepping stone to acquiring the foreign language. As such, the method may not be appropriate for average and weaker learners. The method also requires various teaching aids. It also places too much emphasis on listening and speaking. It was also found to be ineffective in the early stages of learning.

Despite the weaknesses of the method, it is still useful in the 21st century second or foreign language teaching. Below, we present samples of how the method is realised in the classroom.

Sample Lesson

Exercise 1

Teacher: Greets The Class

Class: Responds to the greeting

Teacher: This is a book, repeat a book.

Class: A book



Teacher: A pencil. Repeat a pencil

Class: A pencil



Teacher: A rubber. Repeat a rubber.

Class: A rubber



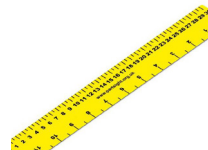
Teacher: A piece of paper. Repeat a piece of paper.

Class: A paper



Teacher: A ruler. Repeat a ruler.

Class: A ruler



Teacher: A table. Repeat a table

Class: A table



Teacher: A chair. Repeat a chair

Class: A chair

Exercise 2

- Teacher:** What is this? (shows a book)
Class: A book
Teacher: What is this? (shows a pencil)
Class: A pencil.
Teacher: What is this? (shows a table)
Class: A Table
Teacher: What is this? (shows a ruler)
Class: A ruler.
Teacher: What is this? (shows a chair)
Class: A Chair.
Teacher: What is this? (shows a piece of paper)
Class: A piece of paper.
Teacher: What is this? (shows a rubber)
Class: A rubber.

Source: *adapted from Purkis H. M. (1965). A French Course for West Africa. Volume 1 Cambridge: Cambridge University press.*

6.5 Summary

The Direct Method rejects the use of the mother tongue to teach a second or foreign language. It uses the target language as a language of instruction. In addition, explanations are done through demonstration (use of objects). Lastly, oral language is introduced right from the beginning mainly through the question and answer technique.

CHAPTER SEVEN

ORAL METHOD

7.0 Overview

What is called the Oral Approach is actually an amalgamation of three methodologies realised differently in different contexts. This method was influenced by structural linguistics and psychological theories. It holds that language is first and foremost, oral and that language is a social phenomenon. The American version of the oral approach is called Audiolingual Method. The British version is called the Situational Method, while the French version is called the Audio Visual. Therefore, this chapter will discuss these three different methodologies.

7.1 Audiolingual Method

The Audiolingual Method is also called the Army Method. This is because of the context in which it was developed. It was developed as a reaction against the weaknesses of the methods which preceded it. This section, discusses the Audiolingual Method in terms of its origin, characteristics and classroom application.

7.1.1 Origins of the Audiolingual Method

The Audio Lingual Method was developed during the second world war. It is sometimes called the Army Method because contextually the method was developed to respond to the urgent need for the development of oral proficiency among military personnel. Theoretically, the Audiolingual Method is influenced by behavioural psychology, which looks at language as a behaviour and that language learning is behaviour learning. The belief was that humans can be taught language using the system of reinforcement. In this sense, correct behaviour receives approval while bad behaviour receives punishment. In the context of language teaching and learning, correct use of the language is considered as as correct behaviour whereas incorrect use of language was viewed as bad behaviour. The Audio-lingual Method was widely used in the 1950s and 1960s, and the emphasis was not on the understanding of words, but rather on the acquisition of structures and patterns in common everyday dialogue. These patterns are elicited, repeated and tested until the responses given by the student in the foreign language are automatic. The Audio-Lingual Method, like the Direct Method, is also an oral approach. However, it is very different in that rather than emphasising vocabulary acquisition through exposure to its use in situations, the Audio-lingual method drills students in the use of grammatical sentence patterns (Larsen-Freeman, 2000).

7.1.2 Characteristics of the Audiolingual Method

Prator and Celce-Murcia in Brown (2001), outline the following characteristics:

- a. New material is presented in dialogue form;
- b. There is dependence on mimicry, memorisation of set phrases, and over-learning;
- c. Structures are sequenced by means of contrastive analysis and taught one at the time;
- d. Structural patterns are taught using repetitive drills;
- e. There is little or no grammatical explanation. Grammar is taught by inductive analogy rather than by deductive explanation;
- f. Vocabulary is strictly limited and learned in the context;
- g. There is much use of tapes, language labs, and visual aids;
- h. Great importance is attached to pronunciation;
- i. Very little use of the mother tongue by teachers is permitted;
- j. Successful responses are immediately reinforced;
- k. There is a great effort to get students to produce error-free utterances; and
- l. There is a tendency to manipulate language and disregard content.

7.1.3 Classroom Activities of the Audiolingual Method

Larsen-Freeman (2000 :47-50), provides expanded descriptions of some common or typical techniques closely associated with the Audiolingual Method. These are:

- (1) **Dialogues memorisation:** Students memorise an opening dialogue using mimicry and applied role playing.
- (2) **Backward Build-up (Expansion Drill):** Teacher breaks a line into several parts; students repeat each part starting at the end of the sentence and “expanding” backwards through the sentence, adding each part in sequence.
- (3) **Repetition drill:** Students repeat teacher’s model as quickly and accurately as possible.
- (4) **Chain drill:** Students ask and answer each other one by one in a circular chain around the classroom.
- (5) **Single-slot Substitution drill:** Teacher states a line from the dialogue, and then uses a word or phrase as a “cue” that students, when repeating the line, must substitute into the sentence in the correct place.
- (6) **Multiple-slot Substitution drill:** Same as the single slot drill, except that there are multiple cues to be substituted into the line.
- (7) **Transformation drill:** Teacher provides a sentence that must be turned into something else, for example a question to be turned into a statement, an active sentence to be turned into negative statement, etc.
- (8) **Question and Answer drill:** Students should answer or ask questions very quickly.

- (9) **Use Minimal Pairs Analysis:** teacher selects a pair of words that sound identical except for a single sound that typically poses difficulty for the learners-students are to pronounce and differentiate the two words.
- (10) **Complete the dialogue:** Selected words are erased from a line in the dialogue-students must find and insert.
- (11) **Grammar games:** Various games designed to practice a grammar point in context, using lots of repetition. These exercises are known as pattern drills.

7.1.4 Observations on the Classroom Application of the Audiolingual Method

This extensive memorisation, repetition, and over-learning of patterns were the keys to the method's success, as students could often see immediate results, but it was also its weakness. It was discovered that language was not acquired through a process of habit formation. The method's insistence on repetition and memorisation of standard phrases ignored the role of context and knowledge in language learning. As the study of linguistics developed, it was discovered that language was not acquired through a process of habit formation, and that errors were not necessarily bad (Alemi and Tavakoli, 2016).

7.2 Situational Method

As the name suggests, the Situational Method views language as situational and that language teaching should, therefore, be done situationally. The next section, will discuss the origin, characteristics, and classroom application of the situational Method.

7.2.1 Origins of the Situational Method

The Situational Teaching Method was put forward in the middle of the nineteenth century by British specialists. During the 1920s to 1960s, the Situational Teaching Method was put forward and developed by Harold Palmer, Hornby, and other British language teaching specialists. The intention under the situational method is to create and use vivid situations in which learners would use language since the belief is that language use is situational and, therefore, that language teaching should also be situational. The use of situations can be done through vivid situations according to teaching contents, such as showing pictures or giving language description, whose aim is to develop interest in the learners to use language in context. The situational method is influenced by the language theory of structuralism where the teacher needs to teach language structures or language rules in situations. The teaching materials should be arranged according to the grammatical structure and sentence patterns from easy to difficult (Wenrong, 2018).

7.2.2 Characteristics of the Situational Method

There are a number of characteristics which define the situational method. Here, only a few are listed. According to Sulistianto *et al.* (2011), the following are the main characteristics of the situational method:

1. Language teaching begins with the spoken language. Material is taught orally before it is presented in written form.
1. The target language is the language in the classroom.
2. New language points are introduced and practiced situationally.
3. Vocabulary selection procedures are followed to ensure that an essential general service vocabulary is covered.
4. Items of grammar are graded following the principle that simple forms should be taught before complex ones.
5. Reading and writing are introduced once a sufficient lexical and grammatical basis is established.

7.2.3 Classroom Activities of the Situational Method

According to Sulistianto (2011), the situation will be controlled carefully to teach the new language material. In such a way that there can be no doubt in the learner's mind of the meaning of what he hears. Almost all the vocabulary and structures taught in the first four five years and even later can be placed in a situation in which the learning is quite clear. By situation, Pittman means the use of concrete objects, pictures and realia, which together with action and gesture can be used to demonstrate the meaning of new language. The practice techniques employed generally consist of guided repetition and substitution activities, including chorus repetition, dictation, drills, and controlled oral based reading and writing task. Other oral practice techniques are sometimes used, such as pair practice and group work.

7.2.3 Observations on the Situational Method

Scholars have conducted empirical researches on situational teaching approach and its impact on teaching and learning. According to Yu (2012), situational teaching approach creates a condition, physical and psychological, favourable for teaching and learning. In such an environment, students are motivated to learn and they are aroused in the pleasure of inquiry. As a result, learning activities are transformed from passive into self-need, an essential initiative towards acquiring desirable quality education. In addition, situational teaching optimises the learning process. Students are able to manipulate their perceptions on education and embrace it as something constructive behoving the perception that education is torturous and tough (Szeto, 2015). Ideally, situational teaching helps students to make out textbooks as tools that provide knowledge in an aesthetic fashion. Li (2018), consents that listening analysis is a multifaceted feeling that requires efforts more than just attention thus better teaching experiences aggravate students' enthusiasm to learn hence better performance.

Further, situational teaching approach deepens the outcomes of teaching and learning (Li, A, 2011). Cognitive capacities are improved since in the pleasures of creation, situational teaching naturally co-operates with the interaction between the two hemispheres of the brain whose integration optimises their functionality (Pennington, 2014; Wenrong, 2018). Therefore, depending on situational strategies

is essential in transforming the memory of the recurrence into a flexible use of knowledge.

The application of situational teaching in the education system widens students' knowledge on modernisation and globalisation. The teaching approach involves activities that make students cognisant with their environment and the world at large. As a result, students' capacities to balance the development of two signal systems; variable closed readouts are open-ended broad-based storage, are widened (Pennington, 2014; Wenrong, 2018).

7.3 Audio-Visual Method (Méthode Audio-Visuelle)

This is the third and French version of the oral method. Consistent with the other two. This section will present the origin, characteristics and classroom use of the method.

7.3.1 Origins of the Audio Visual Method

The audio-visual method was first developed by CREDIF in France in the 1950s. This method is intended for teaching everyday language at the early stage of second or foreign language learning. It was based on a behaviourist approach, which held that language is acquired by habit formation. Based on the assumption that foreign language is basically a mechanical process and it is more effective if spoken form precedes written form. The stress was on oral proficiency and carefully-structured drill sequences (mimicry/memorisation) and the idea that quality and permanence of learning are in direct proportion to amount of practice carried out (<https://ekayantipt.wordpress.com/2012/06/07/audio-visual-method/#:~>). This method was a part from the behaviourist psychology also influenced by the Gestalt theory, which states that learning should be holistic.

During the Second World War, the English language became the language of international communication. The French government resolved to counter this state of affairs. Hence, a research commission was set up to create a document containing the “basic” French necessary for communication by the non-speakers of French. The commission was led by Guberina and Rivenc. Their works culminated into the publication of a reference framework titled “Le Francais Fondamental Premier Degre.” A further study was conducted, which resulted in yet another reference document named *Le Francais Fondamental Deuxéme Degre*. These were the documents, especially the first one, which were used to write textbooks meant for the teaching of French as a foreign language such as; *Voix et Images de France*, *De vive Voix*, *Freres Jacques* and so on. These textbooks were known as SGAV (Structuro-Gobal Audio-Visuel).

7.3.2 Main Characteristics of the Audio Visual Method

1. new material was presented in a dialogue.
2. priority was accorded to oral language.

3. Repetition of structures was cardinal through substitution and transformation (exercices structuraux or pattern drills).
4. In the audio-visual method, listening was accompanied by pictures (film fixes).
5. There was no grammar taught, as such. It was taught inductively.

7.3.3 Classroom activities of the Audio Visual Method

- A dialogue was presented using a projector and film fixes.
- New words were explained.
- The dialogue was memorised by the learners.
- They then dramatised it in front of the class
- Pattern drills were conducted (les exercices structuraux) orally in the language laboratory.

7.3.4 Observations on the classroom application of the Audio visual method

The focus in this method was repetition and memorisation of structures. However, this was done devoid of a context. Since the structures were repeated in isolation, the whole exercise was rendered artificial and at some time, became boring because the exercises were mechanical. However, unlike the audiolingual, in this method listening to the dialogue was facilitated by the addition of film fixes (pictures). That is, there was listening and seeing. Lastly, the method necessitated extensive use of equipment; film fixe, projector, tape recorder.

7.3.4.1 Sample lesson in the Oral Approach

Exercise 1

Replace one word with another.

Example: John is eating a banana (an orange)

John is eating an orange.

John speaks English (peter)

Peter speaks English (Mary)

Mary speaks English (Josephine)

Josephine speaks English

Exercise 2

Replace one word with another.

Example: John speaks Citonga. (Silozi)

John speaks Silozi.

John speaks English (French)

John speaks (French) (Spanish)

John speaks Spanish (Cisoli)

John speaks Cisoli (Nsenga).

John speaks Nsenga.

Exercise 3

Replace one word with another.

Example: John is going to the bank (to the market)

John is going to the market.

John is going to the market (cinema)

John is going to the cinema (post office)

John is going to the post office (bank)

John is going to the bank (school)

John is going to school.

Exercise 4

Replace one word with another.

Example: John loves listening to rhumba music (Zambian Music)

John loves listening to the Zambian music.

Peter is learning English (understands)

Peter understands English (writes in)

Peter writes in English (does not like)

Peter does not like English (loves)

Peter loves English.

Exercise 5

Replace one word with another.

Example: John likes rhumba music (Zambian Music)

John likes Zambian Music.

1. I stay in Lusaka (Chongwe)
_____ (I am going).

I am going to Chongwe.

2. I stay in Chongwe (Petauke).
_____ (I like).

I like Petauke.

3. I don't enjoy western music (Kalindula music).
_____ (I love).

I love kalindula music.

4. I enjoy English lessons (French).
_____ (I don't enjoy).

I don't enjoy French lessons.

Exercise 6

Expand the sentence by adding a word.

Example: She left yesterday.

She left yesterday morning.

1. He arrived yesterday (Evening).
2. He arrived yesterday evening.
3. He will arrive tomorrow (morning).
He will arrive tomorrow morning.
4. He will address a meeting (tomorrow at 10.00 hrs.).
He will address a meeting tomorrow at 10:00 hrs.
5. He is leaving for Chipata (on Wednesday next week).
He is leaving for Chipata on Wednesday next week.

Exercise 7

Put the sentence in the negative form

Example: Is Paul thin? (No he...)

No he is not thin.

1. Is Peter tall? Non he is not tall.
2. Is Mutinta Married? No he _____
3. Is Chomba working? No he _____
4. Is Malita a student? No She _____
5. Is Chester your nephew? No he _____

Exercise 8

Use yes plus a pronoun at the beginning of the sentence

Example: Lusaka is a capital city of Zambia.

Yes it is the capital city of Zambia.

- | | |
|---------------------------------|------------------------------|
| 1. Chomba has a lot of Money. | Yes he has a lot of money. |
| 2. Mwanza has a lot of clothes. | Yes he has a lot of clothes. |
| 3. He has a lot of wisdom. | Yes he has a lot of wisdom. |
| 4. Zambia has rich culture. | Yes it has rich culture. |

Exercise 9

Put the pronouns in plural form

Example: I bought an egg.

I bought eggs.

I bought a banana.

I bought an orange.

I bought a pencil.

I bought a book.

Summary

The oral approach was influenced by the structural linguistics and psychological theories, especially the behaviourist approach. The main focus of the method is on the oral language. In this method, grammar is learnt inductively. Just like the direct method, the oral approach rejects the use of L1 in the classroom, the main activities are memorisation, and repetition of structures (pattern drills).

CHAPTER EIGHT

COGNITIVE CODE METHOD

8.0 Overview

The Cognitive Code Method was developed as a reaction to the weaknesses of the Audiolingual Method. It particularly opposed the idea that learners were passive and needed to learn through memorisation. In this chapter, the cognitive method will be discussed by showing its origins, characteristics, and classroom application.

8.1 Origins of the Cognitive Code Method

Cognitive-Code Learning Theory (CCLT) is a theory of L1 and L2 studies and research. This method was developed in the 1960s as an alternative to Behaviourism (Richards and S. Rodgers (2014:26). It was advocated for by cognitive psychologists and applied linguists such as J. B. Carroll (1916–2003) and K. Chastain (1971). The Cognitive Code Method is also influenced by Gestalt psychology, which states that learning should be holistic.

The cognitive code method involves conscious learning of language, where rules are presented and explained to learners because it is important for them to understand the structures. Since learners are believed to be born with a language learning device called the LAD, the ability in learners to deduce rules develops with the use of language in meaningful situations. In psychology, the method is influenced by cognitive psychology, which considers learning as a creative process and the learner is considered as an active actor of the teaching and learning process. Thus, the method is largely learner centred.

8.2 Characteristics of the Cognitive Method

The Cognitive Code Method stresses the importance of rule explanation and rule practice in the lesson with the learner as an active participant. According to Carroll (1966:102), the following are the characteristics of the Cognitive Code Method:

1. Learning occurs through cognitive memory structures, which perceive, process, store for short- or long-term recall, and retrieve information, located in the brain. Learning occurs through internal processing of information.
2. The central precept of cognitive-code theory is to provide learners with opportunities for a great deal of meaningful practice in a second language.
3. Learning a foreign language requires explicit instruction and a study of the language as a complex and rule-governed system (Carroll, 1964). Students need to understand the linguistic rules before drilling can be implemented in practice.
4. Learning should be holistic; learning becomes easier when one treats the target as part of a structure or system and understands how it is related to the rest of the system (Gestalt theory).

5. Learning a second or foreign language is a study of language as a complex system with the goal of gaining conscious control of the auditory patterns (segmental and supra-segmental phonemes) lexical (vocabulary) stock, and grammatical patterns.
6. Thinking, comprehension, and memory must be emphasised.
7. Language learning must be promoted as an active mental process rather than a process of habit formation, or learn-by-doing activity.
8. Classroom activities are designed to encourage learners to work out grammar rules for themselves through inductive reasoning
9. Content over form must be emphasised.
10. Lessons must be highly structured around a deductive process, often giving “the rule of the day”.
11. The cognitive control works as follows: phonemes are to be learned before words, words before phrases, clauses before sentences, and simple sentences before compound, complex, and compound-complex sentences. This process will assist them anticipate the outcome or make inferences on what may happen next.
12. Learners must work out grammar rules deductively for themselves.
13. The learner is an active processor of information processing; he or she is a thinking being.
14. The learner must be firmly at the centre of the learning process.
15. Learning will only take place when the matter to be learnt is meaningful to the learner.
16. The conscious study of language rules is central to the learning of a foreign language.
17. Learning a language is a process of acquiring conscious control of the phonological, grammatical, and lexical patterns of the second language, largely through study and analysis of these patterns as a body of knowledge.

8.3 Classroom Activities of the Cognitive Code Method

In the Classroom, the method included the clear and structured use of concept questions to help learners identify the limits of use of structure and lexis, and teachers still find this useful. The PPP methodology, (Presentation, Practice and Production), through which learners gain a clear understanding of a grammatical rule before they practise it in meaningful contexts, may still suit some learning contexts and teachers. Major activities or techniques under the Cognitive Code Method include question and question, teacher exposition, class discussion, Pair work and problem solving activities.

8.3.1 Sample lesson under the Cognitive Code Method

Title: Borrow and Lend

Teacher: today we will learn how the two verbs “borrow” and “lend” are used.

Exercise 1

Teacher presents the following sentences to the class.

- Mary has lent her pen to John
- I have borrowed Mary’s pen
- Will you lend me your book?
- May I borrow your book?

Exercise 2: Rule Presentation

- We use borrow when we take something from a person for a period of time with the intention of returning it.
- We lend when we give something to a person for a period of time.

Exercise 3

Teacher: use “borrow” or “lend” appropriately in the following sentences.

1. Father, may I -----my bicycle to peter/
2. Philip is a nuisance. He is always.....money from me.
3. He asked his uncle if he wouldhis car to go to Lusaka.
4. She went next door to.....a saucepan.
5. That was a good book which youme
6. Can youme K20, please?

Source: Luangala J.R, Milimo J.B Mudenda S.J Taylor R. C Zulu A. M (1994). English 10 pupils book 2 Zambia Basic Education Course (p15) Ministry of Education. Lusaka: Zambia Publishing House.

Summary

The cognitive code method briefly replaced the audiolingual method in the 1960s. It was influenced by the cognitive psychology. Rule learning is central in this method.

CHAPTER NINE

TEXT-BASED INTEGRATED METHOD

9.0 Overview

The text based integrated method is one of the recommended methods in many educational settings. For example, the Zambian English language senior secondary school syllabus recommends communicative language teaching and text based integrated method and that the two should be used concurrently. This chapter is dedicated to discussing the text based integrated method by focusing on its origin, characteristics, and classroom teaching.

9.1 Origins of the Text Based Integrated Method

Mohlabi-Tlaka (2016), defines Text Based Integrated Approach as the teaching of language built on the exposure to, and the handling and manipulation of different text types. Crystal (1992), defines a text as “ a piece of naturally occurring spoken, written, or signed discourse identified for the purpose of analysis”. Richards and Schmidt (2010:604) define Text-based Integrated Approach as “a methodology that focuses on teaching explicitly about the features of spoken and written texts and links to the cultural context of their use”. Tsakona (2015) and Mumba (2019), argue that the aim of the Text-Based Integrated Approach is to encourage learners to produce and understand oral and written discourse in various natural or stimulated communicative setting in which they participate with a specific and explicit intention. Thornbury (2005), argues that language always happens as text and not as isolated words and sentences. The Text-Based Integrated Method was formed out of Halliday’s (1978) theory of language as Social semiotic theory. The social semiotic theory holds that language in different forms is for meaning making. The Text based integrated method aims at developing communicative competence in learners through appreciation of the text. It focuses on developing all four language skills namely, listening, speaking, writing and reading. Arimbawa (2012), explains that the Text-Based Integrated Method is based on the idea that learners can improve their language abilities if they are introduced to a wide range of spoken and written texts in appropriate contexts. Learners develop their vocabulary and general communicative competence through handling, manipulation and explanation of language texts. According to Kress (2010), the multimodal nature of most texts means that learners will understand meaning through the use of two or more modalities which enhances their language development receptively and productively. Hailong (2011) and Mumba (2019), add that TBIA does not only help learners develop communicative competence by dealing correctly with language usage but by helping them use language in appropriate real situations.

9.2 Characteristics of the Text Based Integrated Method

According to Mickan (2011), the following are some of the features which define the method:

1. Teaching is characterised by natural language use. This implies that teaching of language should be conducted where there is purposeful use of language. It also entails that the unnatural use of language such as rote learning should be avoided.
2. Teachers choose texts relevant to the learners' purposes. The texts chosen must also be of interest to learners. Learners learn best when they are taught what is applicable in their daily lives. If learners are not taught what happens in their daily lives, they may have problems in understanding the concepts being taught.
3. Making sense of texts from the beginning. Learners' familiarity with certain texts, their purposes and contexts of use positions them to make meanings from texts in a target language.
4. There is use of language for real purposes in lessons. Texts enable lessons for authentic communication.
5. Texts must be tailored to suit class communities. The teaching objectives must correspond to the function and purpose of the speech community. Learners derive interest from learning what happens in their communities. This allows them to relate what occurs in their community to the classroom situation. The prior experience of what happens in their society prepares them to work with texts.
6. Language awareness: analysis of the lexico-grammar of texts (function of grammar and vocabulary together in texts). The approach to teaching grammar is through the analysis of texts. Texts are functional in different contexts for the realisation of different purposes. Learners learn effectively when both grammar and vocabulary are taught simultaneously.
7. Extensive reading and reading clubs. Extensive reading is a practical strategy for text based instruction. Learners access a variety of books, magazines, or selected databases and websites for selection of reading materials. The learners need to be exposed to different materials for effective learning to occur.
8. Learner autonomy. Learners have opportunities to select texts out of interest and to read them at leisure for pleasure or information. In cases where learners are not given chance to choose texts which may interest them, they may not focus their attention on what is being taught.
9. Integrated skills and multimodality. Text based instruction integrates spoken and written language as in natural language use. The four language skills i.e. speaking, reading, listening and writing should not be taught in isolation. Teaching should also involve the use of different modes for all learners to grasp the concepts easily.

Text-based Integrated method integrates all the four skills in language activities. All activities in the method are designed with direct reference to the text. It is also cardinal to note that activities in the approach are performed in the hope of understanding the text (Hailong, 1991).

9.3 Classroom Applications of the Text Based Integrated Method

Mohlabi-Tlaka (2016), suggests the following as the lesson procedure when using the Text based integrated approach:

- (i) Teacher introduces the text and new vocabulary. This is done to draw out learners' prior knowledge. The teacher explains various points of vocabulary to let the learners familiarise themselves with the topic. The explanation on vocabulary is also meant to raise the learners' interest in the topic.
- (ii) Teacher to read a text modelling a reading strategy for example predicting, noticing story structure, reading different types of text, reading diagrams and graphs. The teacher develops the topic by going through the text. Both the teacher and the learners should analyse the text to understand its linguistic features.
- (iii) Teacher to read the text with the learners joining in using shared reading techniques or write a short text using shared writing techniques. The teacher and the learners work together to come up with a text similar to the model presented by the teacher.
- (iv) Once learners are confident enough, the teacher will allow them to construct texts on their own. The text constructed should be similar to the one the teacher presented in class. The lesson concludes with the teacher collecting learners' work for assessment.
- (v) As a follow-up, the teacher should check understanding and encourage learners to respond to the text through focused oral questions.

9.4 Observations on the Text Based Integrated Method

Text-based Integrated method has a number of advantages one brings to the teaching and learning of target language. The following are the advantages of the Text-based Integrated method;

- (a) It expands capacity to express meanings (Mickan, 2011).
- (b) Multimodal learning enhances comprehension, memorisation and learning.
- (c) It builds potential for understanding and for expression of meanings and share meanings, which helps them participate in community practices with language.
- (d) TBIA provides foundation and context for teaching all language skills and for teaching learners new things they had not experienced before.
- (e) Learners link stories they read to their daily lives, which increases their vocabulary.
- (f) The approach is designed to help learners build up confidence in different contexts.

- (g) It helps learners become competent, confident and critical readers, writers, viewers and designers of texts.

Despite having a number of merits, the Text-based Integrated Approach has not been spared from criticism. The Text-based Integrated Approach has been criticised because:

1. Learners thinking is limited to texts.
2. There is over-reliance on the text (Burn and Richards, 2012).
3. The method is regarded as boring since activities are repeated on the same text (Richards, 2006).

9.5 Sample language Lessons under the Text Based Integrated Method (Teachers and pupils Unit)

The sample lessons presented below are an extract from the English 8 Pupils and Teacher's Book text book by the Zambian Ministry of Education (1994). They show the text and how the text can be used to teach different skills of the English language.

UNIT 1

SCHOOL DAYS, HAPPY DAYS

1 READING

Bulling at School

I still remember- my hands and finger-tips still remember! - what used to lie in store for us on our return to school from the holidays. The guava trees in the school yard would be in full leaf again, and the old leaves would be strewn around in scattered heaps. In places there were more than just heaps of them: it would be like a muddy sea of leaves.

“Get all that swept up!” the head master would tell us. “I want the whole place cleaned up, at once!”

“At once!” There was enough work there, damned hard work, too, to last us for a week. Especially since the only tools which were provided were our hands, our fingers, our nails.

“Now see that it’s done properly, and quick about it,” the head master would say to the older pupils, “or you will have to answer for it.”

So at an order from the older boys we would all line up like peasants about to reap or glean a field, and we would set to work like members of a chain-gang. In the school yard itself, it wasn’t too bad: the guava trees were fairly well spaced. But there was one part where the closely planted trees grew in a hopeless tangle of leaves and branches. The sun could not penetrate here, and the strong stench of decay lingered in the undergrowth even during the hot months of summer.

If the work was not going as quickly as the head master expected, the big boys, instead of giving us a helping hand, used to find it simpler to whip us with branches pulled from the trees. Our flesh stung and smarted, while tears of anguish sprang from our eyes and splashed on the rotting leaves at our feet.

In order to avoid these blows, we used to bribe our tyrants with the sweet tasting cakes of Indian corn, and the couscous made of meat or fish which we used to bring for our midday meal. And if we happened to have any money on us, the coins changed hands at once. If we did not do this, if we were afraid of going home with an empty stomach or an empty purse, the blows were redoubled. They were administered with such force and cruelty that even a deaf person would have gathered that we were being flogged not so much to make us work harder, but rather to put us in a situation where we would only be too glad to give up our food and money.

Occasionally, one of us, worn out by such calculated cruelty, would have the courage to complain to the headmaster. He would, of course, be very annoyed, but the punishment he inflicted on the other boys was always negligible – nothing compared to what they had done to us. And the fact is that however much we complained, our situation did not improve in the slightest. Perhaps we should have let our parents know what was going on, but somehow we never dreamed of doing so. I don’t know whether it was loyalty or pride that kept us silent, but I can see now that we were foolish to keep quiet about it. This is because such beatings were completely foreign to our nature.

But one day, one of my little school-mates, Kouyate Karamoko, who had just been brutally assaulted, declared openly that he had had enough of this sort of thing. Kouyate was extremely small and thin, so small and thin that we used to tell him jokingly that he couldn't have any stomach, or at least one only as big as a bird's-a gizzard. Moreover, Kouyate did nothing to develop his little gizzard or whatever it was that served him for a stomach. He only liked sour, acid things, and citrus fruits. At lunch break he wasn't happy unless he could exchange his couscous for guavas, oranges or lemons. But if Kouyate was to be deprived even of fruit, it was obvious that his gizzard or whatever it was would finally become even smaller-like the stomach of a grasshopper, perhaps. Now the older boys' insistent demands forced Kouyate into periods of rigorous fasting. That day, his frustrated passion for sour fruit and also the marks on his buttocks, turned Kouyate into a rebel.

"Yes, I've had enough of it!" he said to me, sniffing through his tears. "Do you hear? I've had enough! I am going to tell my father."

"You keep quiet," I said. "Telling your father won't do us any good."

"Do you really believe that?"

"Don't forget, the big boys..." But he would not let me finish.

"I'm going to tell him!" he cried.

"Hush, don't shout like that!"

We were working in the same row, and he was the nearest to me in it. I was afraid that this outburst would bring another flogging from the big boys.

"You know what sort of man my father is, don't you?" he said.

"Yes, of course."

Kouyate's father was one of the most respected praise singers in the district. He was an educated man, welcome everywhere, though he no longer practised his art.

"But your father's an old man now," I said.

"He's tough," said Kouyate proudly.

He drew his thin little body up to its full height.

"You make me laugh sometimes!" I said.

He began to whimper again.

"Oh, well, do as you like!" I told him.

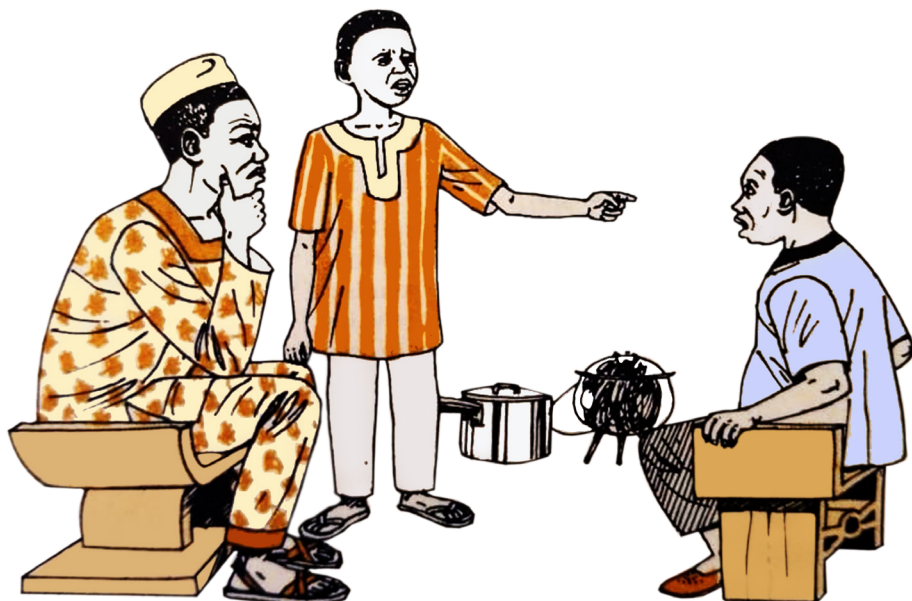
The next day, Kouyate had no sooner entered the school yard than he went over to Himourana, the big boy who had thrashed him mercilessly the day before.

"My father is most anxious to meet the boy who has been kindest to me in the top class, and I thought of you at once. Can you come and share our dinner this evening?"

"You bet I can!" answered Himourana, who was as stupid as he was brutal, and probably as greedy as he was stupid.

That evening, at the appointed time, this big bully Himourana showed up at Kouyate's compound. Now this compound is one of the best guarded ones in Kouroussa. It has only one gate, and the fence around it, instead of being made of woven reeds, is constructed of mud bricks, with pieces of broken glass bottles fixed to the top. It could be entered and left only with the permission of the owner of the house. Kouyate's father came in person to open the gate, and when Himourana was inside, he carefully bolted it.

"Would you care to sit down in the courtyard?" he said. "Our whole family is expecting you."



“My Father,” he said, “this is the big boy who never stops beating me. . .”

Himourana took a quick look at the pots and pans, which seemed to give promise of a delicious meal. He sat down with the rest of the family, expecting some praise. Kouyate, however, got up and pointed at him.

“My father,” he said, “this is the big boy who never stops beating me, and takes my food and my money.”

“Well, well,” said Kouyate’s father, “that’s not a nice thing to say about him. Are you sure you are telling me the truth?”

“I swear by Allah!” said Kouyate.

“So it must be the truth,” said his father. And he turned towards Himourana.

“Well, young man, it’s time you gave an explanation of your behaviour. Be quick. I haven’t much time to spare, but I don’t want to be unfair.”

It was as if a thunderbolt had dropped at Himourana’s feet. He couldn’t have been more surprised. He had obviously not heard a word of what Kouyate’s father had said to him. As soon as he had recovered a little from his surprise, his one thought was to get away. This was obviously a good idea, but it needed a stupid bully like Himourana to imagine he could escape from such a well-guarded compound. He had not run more than a few steps before he was caught.

“Now, sir,” said Kouyate’s father, “listen carefully to what I have to say to you. Get this into your head once and for all: I do not send my son to school to learn how to become a slave of boys like you.”

And then Himourana felt himself lifted in the air by his feet and arms. Everything had been carefully planned. He was held in a convenient position, while, despite his screams, Kouyate’s father whipped him on his bare backside with his cattle-whip. Then he was allowed to run away, shamefaced, with his tail on fire, like a scalded cat.

(Slightly adapted from The African Child, by Camara Laye)

2 COMPOSITION

The following composition is a description by a pupil of his school.

My School

My school is Nsansa Secondary School. The school is clean. The classroom blocks are painted blue and green. The headteacher's office is painted white. The staffroom is painted white.

The school yard has many flowers. Some of the flowers are planted along the wire fence. Some flowers are planted outside the staffroom. Other flowers are planted in front of the headteacher's office.

This description is very boring. We can improve the description by:

- (a) including words and expressions which will make it more interesting.
- (b) avoiding repetitive sentences.
- (c) varying the length of the sentences.
- (d) using a wider variety of sentence patterns.

Now study the following description which is an improved version of the same composition.

My school is Nsansa Secondary School. The teachers and pupils at the school work very hard to keep it clean and attractive. Last year, the school engaged a contractor to paint the school building. The classroom blocks were painted blue and green while the staffroom and the headteacher's office were painted white.

Many of our visitors speak very highly of the beautiful flowers we have grown around the school yard. These look and smell wonderful, especially before the start of the rains in November. They are very colourful indeed! This is why we are all very proud of our school.

As you can see, this version is more lively and interesting. It contains words such as 'attractive', 'beautiful', 'wonderful', 'colourful' and 'proud'. These improve the description of the school. You can also see that in the improved version there are no unnecessary repetitions, and that there is more variety in the length of the sentences and the sentence patterns.

Exercise

Now look at the following notes. These will help you write a lively and interesting description of your own school.

Paragraph 1

- Name of school
- Classroom blocks: colour, appearance and any special buildings
- School grounds: flowers, trees
- Who looks after them

Paragraph 2

- Describe school uniform
- Describe school badge
- Describe prefects' badges
- Describe school tie

Paragraph 3

What the pupils do

- At break time
- At lunch time
- After classes

Paragraph 4

- School sports activities
- How successful school has been in sports

3 COMMUNICATION GAME- WHAT'S MY JOB?

Your teacher will tell you what to do.

4 COMMUNICATION GAME- WHAT'S MY JOB?

Early days at school

I did not go to school until I was six. My name was enrolled in the school register when I was five but somehow I managed to play truant for a whole year. During this time I used to spend my time at all sorts of occupations. My favourite one was grinding flower petals between two stones, pretending to mix herbs the way I had seen Father do.

In spite of this, however, I was able to read and write Yoruba even before I went to school. I do not remember who taught me to read but I know it was Father who taught me how to write a letter. I still remember the occasion vividly.

My elder sister was away at boarding school. When she was home on holidays, we often quarrelled, mainly because I would insist on our playing ludo and other games together. These games usually ended in a fit of temper on my part because I hated losing. But as soon as she had gone away I missed her terribly and wished she were back home again. She always bought a present for my brother and me each time she came home, and I began to imagine that she lived in a glittering city where the most beautiful and luxurious things could be had for nothing. I had no idea of money values at the time, so whenever I started writing a letter to her I used to make a lot of demands.

“My dear sister,” I would write in Yoruba, “please buy me shoes, buy me a hat, buy me a doll, buy me a handkerchief, buy me...”

It was a long list. She never bought me these things, but I never stopped hoping. One evening, Father stood over me as I was laboriously writing.

“That is not how to write a letter,” he said. He dragged up a chair and, sitting beside me, said: “The purpose of a letter is not simply to make demands. You love your sister, don’t you?” he asked.

I nodded.

“And you would like her to be happy?”

Again, I nodded.

“Then the first thing to do is to ask after her health. This will make her happy. Next you should tell her about yours. This will make her even happier. After that you should tell her what is happening in the house and in the village. Because she is far away, she will want to know about your brother, Ize, your mother, Okhen-in fact, everybody in the house. You see, a letter is the same as a conversation. If your sister were here, you wouldn’t converse with her the way you’ve written this letter, would you?”

I said, “No.”

“Let’s write another letter then, shall we?”

And with Father’s help I wrote a less selfish letter. It was my first lesson in consideration for others, and I have never forgotten it.

School was not as bad as I had expected. I found my lessons easy, in fact much too easy, because I was ahead of the other children. I could read and write, whereas they were just learning their ABC.

The discipline, however, was severe. Schools in those days were rigidly organised. For instance, one thing that struck me forcibly was the way the girls’ hair styles were regulated. There was a chart in every classroom showing different hair plaiting styles, each with its name written underneath. On Friday afternoons the Senior Girl announced the hair style for the next week, and woe betide anyone who appeared in school on a Monday in a different hair style.

The school was also strict about personal hygiene. Every morning we would line up in front of the school with the school band in attendance. Then there would be prayers and afterwards inspection. We had to stretch our hands forward with the palms down while the teachers inspected our finger nails. Then we had to expose our teeth in a grin so that the teachers could look at them. Our uniforms were also inspected. As the teachers went up and down the rows they would send out boys - it was usually boys - who had not cleaned their teeth that morning or whose nails or uniforms were dirty. These boys had to stand apart from the others until the inspection ended.

At the end of inspection, Father would come out of the Manager’s office with a cane. He would lift one of the dirty boys up with his right hand and place him face down over his left arm. He would then give him two strokes of the cane, which the boy had to take without struggling, otherwise he would fall since Father was very tall. After this he would be ordered to go and fetch water or a chewing stick and he had to clean his teeth or bathe himself in the presence of everybody. This was considered a disgrace, and the offender had to submit to taunts from his classmates for the rest of that week. After inspection we marched into our classrooms to the music of the school band.

(Slightly adapted from My Father’s Daughter, by Mabel Segun)

QUESTIONS

1. In the second paragraph of the passage the writer says that
 - A. her father taught her how to read and write Yoruba.
 - B. her father taught her how to write a letter.
 - C. her father taught her how to read and write a letter.
 - D. she was able to read and write even though she never went to school.

2. The writer and her sister quarrelled after they played games because
 - A. her sister always lost her temper.
 - B. her sister did not like playing games.
 - C. the writer became angry when she did not win.
 - D. the writer insisted on playing games like ludo.

3. Supply the missing words. Use only one word for each blank.
The writer used to _____ her sister to buy her _____. Although she _____ bought her anything, the writer was always _____.

4. 'Next you should tell her about yours.' (line 39) The word 'yours' is used to refer to
 - A. the writer's happiness.
 - B. the writer's health.
 - C. the sister's health.
 - D. the sister's happiness.

5. The writer is advised by her father to include three important things in her letters to her sister. The first one has been done for you. Write down the other two.
 1. Ask after her sister's health.
 - 2.
 - 3.

6. The letter which the writer's father helped her to write
 - A. contained more enquiries about her sister's feelings and interests.
 - B. was less selfish but not as good as the ones she had written before.
 - C. was less selfish and better than the ones she had written before.
 - D. taught her not to write long letters to her sister.

7. According to the passage, the writer
 - A. found school life to be worse than she had expected.
 - B. had expected lessons to be easy.
 - C. found school lessons difficult and school discipline harsh.
 - D. found school work very easy but discipline harsh.

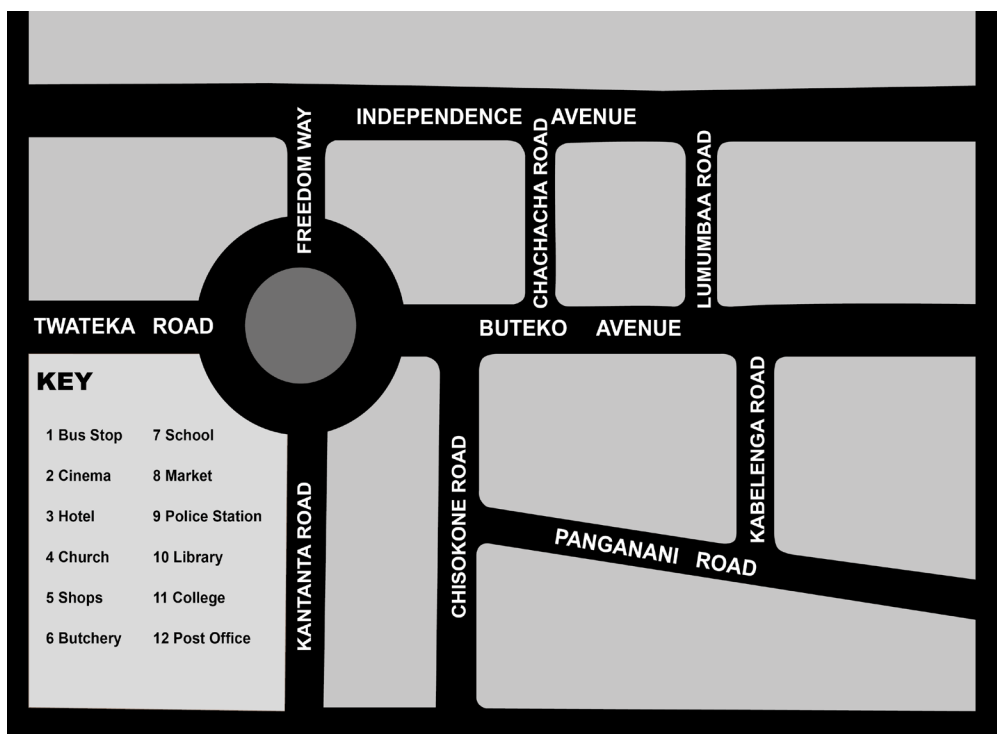
8. According to the story the writer's father
 - A. whipped a dirty boy with the cane in his left hand while he made him bend over his raised right arm.
 - B. lifted a dirty boy in the air before giving him two strokes of the cane with his right hand.

- C. lifted a dirty boy in the air before giving him two strokes of the cane with his left hand.
 - D. whipped a dirty boy with the cane in his right hand while he made him bend over his raised left arm
9. The story suggests that a boy being caned by the writer's father
- A. did not struggle for fear that he might fall from the raised arm on which he was suspended.
 - B. struggled in order to avoid falling from the raised arm on which he was suspended.
 - C. did not struggle for fear of being ordered to go and fetch water or a chewing stick.
 - D. did not struggle for fear of being given more strokes of the cane.
10. (Last paragraph). The writer says it was considered a disgrace for a pupil
- A. to receive two strokes of the cane at the end of inspection.
 - B. to be ordered to clean his teeth or bathe himself in front of the whole school.
 - C. to be ordered to bathe himself in front of the whole school.
 - D. to submit to taunts from his classmates for the rest of that week.
11. The writer says: 'After inspection we marched into our classrooms to the music of the school band'. This means that
- A. the pupils marched into their classrooms where the school band was playing music.
 - B. the pupils marched into their classrooms followed by the school band.
 - C. the pupils went into their classrooms to join the school band in playing music.
 - D. the pupils marched into their classrooms to the beat of music played by the school band.
12. Which three of the following statements are true according to the story?
- A. Although the writer was enrolled in school when she was five years old, she only started attending lessons a year later.
 - B. The writer knew how to read and write Yoruba by the time she was six years old.
 - C. The writer did not look forward to her sister's coming for holidays because the two often quarrelled.
 - D. The writer's sister lived in a glittering city where there were a lot of beautiful and luxurious things.
 - E. When the writer first went to school, she found the other pupils learning the first three letters of the alphabet.
 - F. None of the girls at school was ever punished for reporting to school with dirty teeth, nails or uniform.
 - G. It was a serious offence for any girl to wear a different hair style from the one announced by the Senior Girl the previous Friday.

Your teacher will tell you what to do.

5 LISTENING COMPREHENSION

Your teacher will tell you what to do.



6 COMPOSITION

Your school held a dance last weekend. At the dance two boys from another school came to the function and started a fight with some of the boys at your school. The police later came and took the boys to the police station. You were one of the organisers of the function. The police have asked for a report from you, and the following is your report.

My name is Simon Munthali and I am the secretary of the Social Club at Nsengu Secondary School.

On Saturday, 27th June, our club held a dance in the School Hall. This was after we had obtained permission from the Headteacher on Monday, 19th June.

The dance started at 16.00 hours. At about 17.30 hours, two boys from Chibolya Secondary School came to our school hall. They appeared to be drunk. I was at the hall entrance, together with Misheck Ngoma and Titus Chisanga, who are both members of the Social Club. We were responsible for the selling of tickets.

When the two boys approached me, they said that they had come to collect their girlfriends who, they claimed, were inside the hall. So I allowed them in.

A few minutes later we heard the sound of breaking glass. When I went inside the crowded hall, I found the two boys we had just allowed in exchanging blows with two other boys from our school. The two girls, whom the boys claimed were their girlfriends, were desperately trying to stop the fight but they failed. With the help of the other boys in the hall, I managed to stop the fight. I noticed that the floor was littered with broken bottles. One of the boys from the other school was bleeding freely from the mouth while the other's shirt was torn to pieces.

About 17.45 hours, the police arrived and took away the four boys who had been fighting, the two girls and myself.

The same incident was reported in your school magazine the following week. This is the article:

Saturday, the 27th June was a memorable day for the Social Club at our school when they staged a dance in the school hall. Although it was almost spoiled by a nasty incident, it was a great success, a crowd-puller. By 15.30 hours the hall was so full that the organisers had no choice but to turn away music enthusiasts who had come to listen and dance to the latest sounds on the rhumba and pop music scene. Those who came, especially the girls, were really dressed for the occasion. What made the event even more electrifying was the fantastic music provided by the Osadabwa Band. And, of course, to grace the occasion was our own songbird, Jessy Banda of Grade 10B, whose beautiful voice stunned the audience.

The dance, however, ended on a rather sour note. Two drunken gate-crashers, believed to be students at 'the school for drunks', managed to get into the hall and picked a fight with two of our students. Fortunately, some of our senior pupils stopped the fight before it could turn into a rough-house. They were rescued by the police who arrived just in time. One of our reliable sources has confirmed that the boys will appear in court soon for public misconduct and damage to property.

Despite all this however, the Treasurer of the Social Club, Misheck Ngoma, has said that part of the handsome profit will be used to purchase new curtains for the School Hall.

The report that Simon Munthali wrote for the police is quite different from the article in the school magazine. One of the reasons for this is that the two pieces of writing were meant to be read by different people. The report to the police is clear and precise. It contains only essential information. On the other hand, since the magazine article aims at entertaining and informing, it is written in a lively style.

Now read the following letters. Both describe a burglary incident.

The first letter is to Tom's headteacher and is therefore serious and formal. The second letter is to Tom's friend, Peter, and is lively and informal.

Here is the letter from Tom to the headteacher of his school.

*clo Mr Mulenga Chisanga,
P.O. Box 42172,
Kawambwa.
6th May, 19..*

*The Headteacher,
Lindi Secondary School,
P.O. Box 23210,
Lusaka.*

Dear Sir,

I am very sorry to tell you that I will be unable to report to school at the start of the second school term.

Last week, thieves broke into our home and stole most of the household items, including my school shoes and uniform. My father hasn't enough money to buy me another pair of shoes and uniform at present. However, my elder brother, who works in Chingola, has promised to help me. I hope to arrive back at school about ten days after the start of the term.

I am terribly sorry and I hope that you will forgive me for staying away from school for so long.

*Yours sincerely,
Tom Chisanga (Grade 8C)*

*clo Mr Mulenga Chisanga,
P.O. Box 42172,
Kawambwa.
6th May, 19..*

Dear Peter,

I hope that you enjoyed yourself during the last holiday. As for me, I must say that I had a pleasant time. It was great fun to be among my childhood friends, with whom I went fishing on Lake Tanganyika.

However, I'm afraid that I won't make it for the beginning of term. Remember my fat cousin who dropped out of school two years ago? Well, he suddenly disappeared from our home last month. Mum and Dad suspected then that he had fallen into bad company, and indeed he had! The rogue organised some of his bad friends and last week they came and cleaned out our house completely. You can imagine how shocked I was the next morning when I went into the sitting room to switch on Dad's expensive radio and found it wasn't there! Of course, at first, most of us were shocked, but by the time the police arrived, Dad had recovered

his usual sense of humour. He said that since we had lost nearly everything he didn't see much point in us keeping the security guard. You should have been here to see how the old chap took the joke.

Anyhow, my elder brother in Chingola has promised to help me replace the stolen school uniform and most other school items as soon as he gets his mid-month pay. Meanwhile, I'll just hang around and perhaps read a book or two to occupy my mind. I must confess that life has suddenly become very boring and I'm anxiously looking forward to seeing you.

Please remember me to everybody else in class.

Tom

Exercise

Read the newspaper article on page 15 about a burglary.

- (a) Imagine that you are one of the teachers whose house was broken into. Write a report to the police using the information in the newspaper article.
- (b) Imagine that you are one of the security guards on duty at the time of the burglary. Write a report to the police.

Pupils Sent Home as Teachers Protest

ALL teachers at Simba Secondary School yesterday abandoned classes to protest against poor security. Nearly 2000 students were sent home as the teachers demanded better protection in view of the constant raids.

The protest was prompted by a burglary at midnight in which bandits wielding iron bars, sticks and other weapons broke into a house belonging to two single teachers in the school grounds. The school is guarded by two security guards armed with truncheons. The bandits smashed windows, broke doors, ransacked the house, and threatened to kill the two teachers.

School authorities also said that school property had been stolen in similar raids.

“The last burglary was last week. Thieves stole bags of mealie-meal, beans and kapenta. This place is in a mess,” one of the officials said.

7 DICTATION

Your teacher will tell you what to do.

8 LET'S GET IT RIGHT!

Borrow and lend

We use *borrow* when we take something *from* a person for a period of time with the intention of returning it.

e.g. I may have *borrowed* Mary's pen.
May I *borrow* your book?

We use *lend* when we give something to a person for a period of time.

e.g. Mary has *lent* her pen to John.
Will you *lend* me your book?

Remember that we always use *borrow from* and we always *lend to*.

Exercise A

Put the correct form of *borrow* or *lend* in each of the spaces.

1. Father, may I _____ my bicycle to Peter?
2. Philip is a nuisance. He is always _____ money from me.
3. He asked his uncle if he could _____ his car to go to Lusaka.
4. She went next door to _____ a saucepan.
5. That was a good book which you _____ me.
6. Can you _____ me K20, please?

Exercise B

Pair work. Use the correct form of '*borrow*' or '*lend*'.

Pupil A: Ask your friend to lend you K50. (Use '*borrow*'.)

Pupil B: Refuse. Pupil A has not returned the K20 you gave him/her last week. (Use '*lend*'.)

Pupil A: Apologise. If pupil B will give you K50 until next week, you will be able to repay the K20. (Use '*lend*'.)

Pupil B: Say that Pupil A should not ask for any more money until she/he has paid back the first loan. (Use '*borrow*'.)

TEACHER'S BOOK

1 Reading

Ask the pupils to read the passage. This can be done outside the lesson.

Questions for Discussion

1. What kind of work awaited the pupils on their return from the school holidays?
2. What did the headteacher do about this?
3. What did the older boys do to the younger pupils?
4. What happened to the big boy who was invited to the younger boy's home?
5. Do you think what the younger boy did was a good way of solving problems at school? Give reasons for answer
6. What is bullying?
7. Do you think bullying at school is justified? Give reasons for your answer
8. What does "to turn the other cheek" mean?

2 Composition: Writing Lively and Interesting Descriptions

1. Ask the pupils to study the first description of 'My School'.
2. Discuss the comments made on this description in the Pupil's Book.
3. Ask the pupils to study the improved version of 'My School'.
4. Discuss the merits of the improved version over the first with regard to:
 - the use of descriptive words
 - avoiding repetitive structures
 - varying the length of sentences
 - varying the patterns
5. **Discussion:** Put the pupils in groups of four or five and let them discuss the notes for the composition.
6. **Writing:** Ask the pupils to write individual compositions using the ideas discussed in Step 5.

3 Communication Game: What's my job?

1. Demonstrate the game to the pupils first:
Write the name of a job on a piece of paper.
Then tell the pupils to guess the job by asking you up to twenty questions.
Sample questions and replies:
Q: Does the job require you to use a pen?
R: Yes, very often.
Q: Does it involve using a blackboard and chalk?
R: No.

Q: Does it involve a lot of travelling?

R: Yes, most of the time.

You may have to demonstrate this game two or three times in order for the pupils to understand its rules.

2. Put the pupils in groups of six. One of the pupils in each group pretends to have a certain job, which he writes on a piece of paper. He is the 'knower'.

The other players have to guess the job by asking up to twenty questions.

The 'knower' should keep a record of the number of questions he has been asked. The first player to guess the job correctly becomes the 'knower' for a new game.

Alternatively, you can suggest the jobs for the pupils. Write these on slips of paper.

4 Comprehension

1. Introducing the passage.

Discuss the following questions before the pupils read the passage.

- At what age did you start going to school?
- What did teachers do to untidy pupils?
- Did you know how to read and write (either in English or vernacular) before you first went to school?
- Mention some of the rules that you and the other pupils were required to follow

2. Reading the passage

The pupils read the passage silently.

3. Discussing the passage

Discuss and explain the following words and expressions:

- 'to play truant' (line 3)
- 'Ludo' (line 15). Discuss how this game is played. Give examples of other board games (e.g. snakes and ladders).
- 'I had no ideas of money values...' (lines 22-23). Explain what the writer means.
- 'laboriously writing' (line 30)
- 'woe betide anyone' (lines 62-63)
- 'submit to taunts' (line 86)

4. Testing

The pupils read the passage again and answer the questions in their exercise books.

Answers

1. B
2. C
3. Ask: presents/ things/ gift; never; hopeful.
4. B
5. 2. Tell her sister about her own health.
3. Tell her sister about events in the home and village.
6. C
7. D
8. D
9. A
10. B
11. D
12. A, B, G

5. Follow-up activity

Discussion of questions and answers in groups and/ or class discussion.

5 Listening Comprehension

1. Ask the pupils to study the map on page 11 of the Pupil's Book.
2. Then read out the following directions and questions. The pupils write their answers in their exercise books.
 - a. You are walking along Twateka Road until you reach the roundabout. Turn left into Freedom Way. Walk along this road until you get to the next junction. Turn right and walk along this road. What do you see on your right?
 - b. Mr Tembo approaches the roundabout along Kantanta Road. He turns right into Buteko Avenue and walks along this road. Then he takes the first turning on the left. He walks along this road until he gets to the next junction. What does he see on his right?
 - c. Mrs Musonda walks along Twateka Road until she reaches the roundabout. She proceeds along Buteko Avenue and takes the first turning on her right. She walks along this road before taking another turning to her left. She walks along this road until she comes to the next junction. What does she see on her left?
 - d. Mr Zulu approaches the roundabout from Kantanta Road. He turns right into Buteko Avenue and walks along this road until he takes a second turning to his left. He walks along this road until he comes to the next junction. What does he see on his right?
 - e. Peter approaches the roundabout along Twateka Road. He past the roundabout along Buteko Avenue and takes the second turning on his right. He walks along his road until he comes to the next junction. What does he see on his left?

3. Giving Directions

1. You are at the corner of Buteko Avenue and Kabelenga Road. A stranger approaches you and asks how to get to the bus stop. What directions would you give in order for him to get there?
2. You are with your friend at the roundabout. Tell him/her how to get to the library.
3. You are at the junction of Independence Avenue and Freedom Way. A woman says that she has lost her way to the market. What directions would you give her?
4. You are at the corner of Kabelenga and Pangani Roads. Someone approaches you and says he cannot find his way to the church. What directions would you give him?
5. You are at the bus stop and would like to go to the cinema. What directions would you take to get there?
6. A tourist meets you at the hotel and says that he would like to get to the library. What directions would you give him?
7. You are at college and would like to buy some stamps at the post office. What directions would you take to get there?
8. You and your friends are at school and would like to buy something from the shops. What directions would you like to get there?
9. You are at the college. A new student says that he has would like to go to the butchery but does not know the way. What directions would you give him?
10. You are at the church. A stranger says that he has lost his way to the bus stop. What directions would you give him?

6 Composition

1. Reading

Ask the pupils to study the first two examples in the Pupil's Book (i.e. the report to the police and the magazine article).

2. Discussion

Discuss the example showing the difference between a report for the police and a magazine article. It may be useful to refer to the work done in Unit 6, Stage 3 of English 8, Pupil's Book 1. Emphasise that a police report requires a clear and precise description, while a magazine article aims at informing and entertaining, and so needs a lively style.

3. Reading

Ask the pupils to read the second pair of examples (i.e. the two letters).

4. Discussion

Discuss the letters. Ask

(a) About the differences between the two letters.

(b) Why each letter is written in a different style.

Draw similarities between the letter to the headteacher and the report to the police on the hand, and the letter to a friend and the magazine article on the other

5. Writing

Ask the pupils to write the two reports to the police

7 DICTATION

Reading

Read out the following page to the pupils at the normal speed for the first time without pauses. Read the passage again pausing where a stroke (/) is shown. Then read the passage for the third time slowly so that the pupils can correct their work.

The Passage:

When Judy was at school, /she often dreamed of becoming a pilot. / Many people did not take her seriously. /Her parents, /she was patient / and willing to help others. / Judy's friends at school / encouraged her / to become a nurse. / She used to get / very good marks in Biology. / But Judy kept dreaming / about being a pilot. /

After completing Grade 12, / Judy applied for a place / at the pilots' training school / in Lusaka. / When she was asked to attend an interview, / her parents and friends / did not think / think / that she would do well. / To their surprise, / Judy passed the interview / and was offered a place at the school. / After three years of hard work, / Judy graduated to become / a successful pilot. / Her parents / and friends / had nothing but praise / to her.

8 Let's Get It Right!

Borrow and lend

Common error 1: Can you borrow me your pen? X

Can you lend me your pen?

This error is caused by first language interference. In many of the pupils' first languages, the distinction between borrowing and lending is not made. One verb suffices for both concepts.

Common error 2: He borrowed some money to his friend. X

He borrowed some money from his friend.

This error also results from the misconception that borrow and lend have the same meaning. The speaker subconsciously reasons that is we can say lend to, we should also be able to say borrow to.

CHAPTER TEN

COMMUNICATIVE METHOD

10.0 Overview

The Communicative Method is one of the commonly recommended methods. It is based on the idea that language is communication and that it should be taught as communication. In this chapter, the origin, characteristics, and classroom application of the communicative methods are discussed.

10:1 Origins of the Communicative Language Teaching Method

Communicative Language Teaching approach (CLT) was developed in the 20th century in Europe (Anglo-saxons). The Communicative Language Teaching Method was a reaction against the weaknesses of the methods, which preceded it. For example, the habit formation features of the audiolingual, the predictive nature of the situational method as well as the practice of sentences in the cognitive code method outside the social context. Thus, the Communicative Method took the view that language is communication and it should be taught as such. Some of the scholars who advocated for Communicative Language Teaching Method are Halliday (Functional communication), Wilkins (notional syllabus), Hymes, Labov (sociolinguistics), (pragmatics) (semantics) and the Council of Europe (the threshold level). These scholars were interested in a communicative style of language teaching with the aim of producing communicatively competent learners. Richards and Rodgers (2003:155) stated clearly that the aim of the Communicative Language Teaching Method was “to make communicative competence the goal of language teaching and to develop procedures for the teaching of the four language skills that acknowledge the interdependence of language and communication”. Thus, Communicative Language Teaching Method originated from the changes in the British Situational Language Teaching approach dating from the late 1960s (Richards and Rodgers, 2001). At the centre of Communicative Language Teaching Method is Dell Hymes concept of Communicative competence and its corresponding classic utterance “There are rules of use without which the rules of grammar would be useless” (Hymes 1972:279). This utterance suggests that while the rules of grammar are important, what are equally important are rules of language use. Thus, the Communicative Language Teaching Method emphasises the importance of both form and function as well as the application of grammatical rules in meaningful social contexts. The notion of communicative competence and its four dimensions namely, grammatical, sociolinguistic, strategic and discourse also have implications to the view of language and language teaching. These implications include the fact that under CLT, language is viewed as a communicative tool and that both correctness and appropriateness are supposed to be considered for an utterance to be successful in communication.

Richards (2006: 9), summarised this argumentation when he stated:

“while grammatical competence was needed to produce grammatically correct sentences, attention shifted to the knowledge and skills needed to use grammar and other aspects of language appropriately for different communicative purposes, such as making requests, giving advice, making suggestions, describing wishes and needs, and so on”.

Arising from the above, the Communicative Language Teaching Method considers language as being functional. In this regard, (Richards and Rodgers, 2003: 160) defined seven basic functions as follows:

- (i) The instrumental function: using language to get things.
- (ii) The regulatory function: using language to control the behaviour of others.
- (iii) The international function: using languages to create interaction with others.
- (iv) The personal function: using language to express personal feelings and meanings.
- (v) The heuristic function: using language to learn and to discover.
- (vi) The imaginative function: using language to create a world of imagination.
- (vii) The representational function: using language to communicate information.

10.2 Characteristics of the Communicative Language Teaching Method

Thus, Jacobs and Farrell cited in Richards, (2006) proposed eight changes in reference to CLT which are mentioned below:

1. Learner autonomy: Let students have the opportunity to be responsible for their learning in terms of both the content and the process.
2. The social nature of learning: Language learning is a social activity that lies in interaction with others.
3. Curricular integration: The target language is not seen as a regular subject that is taught in isolation. It should be integrated to other subjects in the Core Curriculum.
4. Focus on meaning: The core of language teaching and learning is focused on developing meaningful activities and contexts.
5. Diversity: As learners have different ways of learning, an emphasis is laid to learning strategies for the student to use.
6. Thinking skills: Critical and creative thinking should be developed by the means of language use.
7. Alternative assessment: New options of assessment should replace traditional multiple-choice and test, such as self-assessment.
8. Teachers as co-learners: the teacher acts the role of a facilitator which means that s/he constantly experiments different alternatives.

10.3 Classroom Activities under the Communicative Language Teaching Methods

A wide range of activities can be implemented on the basis of CLT principles. The method is less prescriptive although it has clear boundaries within which to view both language and teaching as well as the teacher and the learner. The activities are also life-like and should depict the social cultural realities of the learners so that it is easy to connect classroom learning and language use outside the classroom. To this extent, Magnan, 2007:251) advised as follows:

“Within that wider community, we would need to create a learning environment in which the classroom was less rigidly defined so that students could reach into the target communities and contribute actively to meaningful exchanges there. Once this multifaceted environment for learning was established, it would appear natural to reconceive learning activities in terms of real-world tasks where construction of meaning and identity could occur”.

Notwithstanding the above, the following are the common activities or teaching strategies used under the Communicative Language Teaching Method:

1. Simulation;
2. Role play;
3. Debate;
4. Brain Storming;
5. Discussion;
6. Dialogue; and
7. Gaming.

10.4 Observations on the Communicative Language Teaching Method

- (a) Although the method was popular and has remained popular to date, it has been criticised for its handling of error. It has been suggested that since error is not instantly corrected, it remains in the minds of many learners who might not realise that they made a mistake. In this view, it is its over emphasis on meaning which, if not implemented, translates into ignoring of form, which eventually leads to unsuccessful language teaching and learning.
- (b) It has been noted that the communicative method tends to focus more on the oral language than on the writing.
- (c) The teaching of grammar is given less emphasis. That is, language accuracy.
- (d) The class activities proposed are generally textbook based. The learners just imitate them. Hence, the creative language input is limited.
- (e) The teaching-learning materials are usually not available making it difficult for the teacher to execute the lessons.

- (f) In spite of the concerns mentioned above, one notes progress in the teaching-learning of foreign languages as compared to the previous approaches.
- (g) The use of authentic teaching-learning materials tends to motivate learners because they see a linkage between the language and how it is used in real life communicative situations.

10.4.1 Sample Lesson under the communicative language teaching method

In a Restaurant

Waiter: good morning sir/madam. What do I serve you?
Client: can I have the menu?
Waiter: here it is sir/madam
Client: I will have rice and chicken
Waiter: what will you have for your drink?
Client: a coke
Client: (after eating) can I have my bill?
Waiter: There you are sir/madam
Client: (pays) There you are.
Waiter: Thank you sir/madam. Please call again.

(Source: Manchishi P. C (2007) Language Teaching: games and activities. Lusaka: University of Zambia Press.)

Activity 1

The dialogue stated above is read or played on the CD, Radio or flash disk or any other way of presenting it to the class.

Activity 2

The dialogue is then analysed. That is, questions are asked by the teacher, explanations of new words and any other necessary explanations.

Activity 3

Activity 3 involves the identification of the communicative objective in the dialogue first. In this case there are four namely: welcoming a client, ordering a meal, asking for a bill and saying how much the bill is. These are discussed and written on the board for the learners to copy in their exercise books.

- (a) Asking the client what he or she wants to have
 - Something to eat?
 - What would you like to have?
 - What do I serve you?
 - This is our menu.
 - And for the drink?

- (b) Ordering a meal
 - What do you have?
 - Can I have the menu?
 - Can I have nshima and meat?
 - For my drink, I will have Fanta.

- (c) Asking for the bill
 - How much is it?
 - How much do I owe you?
 - What is my bill?
 - I want to settle my bill.

- (d) saying how much the bill the client is to pay
 - X kwacha
 - Your bill is x kwacha
 - Here is your bill.

Activity 4

- Learners are asked to be in pairs
- They are given the role of a waiter and client.
- They are given time to prepare
- Ask the pairs to simulate the scenario in front of the whole class (set a restaurant scenario).
- As the learners perform, the teacher notes down mistakes/errors they are making to be corrected at a later stage.
- The interactions of the paired learners may be recorded.

Summary

The Communicative Approach emerged in Britain due to the dissatisfaction with the situational method. Its emergency was pioneered by British linguists such as Halliday and Wilkins. The approach's main focus is on communication and to achieve this it makes use of simulation, role play, discussion and so on as teaching techniques.

CHAPTER ELEVEN

TASK-BASED METHOD

11.0 Overview

The task based method is a method which is framed around using language as one performs a practical activity. The belief is that language is functional and that it is used as people go about their daily lives. Therefore, this chapter will discuss the origin and meaning of the task based method, its characteristics and how it is applied in the classroom.

11.1 Origin of the Task Based Method

The emergence of the TBA is connected to what became known as the ‘Bangalore Project’ (Prabhu 1987) initiated in 1979 and completed in 1984. The word ‘task’ is often used here to refer to the special kind of activities carried on in the classroom. Such activities are characterised, among other features, by the emphasis put on meaning and the importance assigned to the process of doing things (how) vs. the prevailing role given to content in the teaching, practice of that decade. The purpose of the project was to investigate new ways of teaching which sprang from a strongly felt pedagogic intuition, arising from experience generally but made concrete in the course of professional debate in India (1987: 1). The idea of the Task Based Method is that learners will learn language as they perform a task. The task of the teacher is to come with an appropriate task and provide instructions to the learners. The tasks should be authentic and reflect the real life experiences of learners. The tasks are also based on the idea that language is functional and that learners need language to complete tasks in groups. The idea is that while learners can develop language through working with self through monologues, there is no communication which takes place. Thus, communication with others consolidates the social dimension of the speaker as a human being. The social dimension is emphasised in communication because it reflects real life and the communication demands of humans. Therefore, the teacher is expected to create and provide learners with opportunities to communicate through meaningful tasks.

11.1.1 What is a Task?

According to Nunan (1989:10), a task is a piece of classroom work which involves learners in comprehending, manipulating, producing or interacting in the target language; while their attention is principally focused on meaning rather than form. Long (1985) explains a task as an activity which people usually do in their real life. A task is any activity people do with the aim of achieving something. These may include painting a fence, dressing a child, filling out a form. buying a pair of shoes, making an airline reservation, borrowing a library book, taking a driving test. typing a letter. weighing a patient, sorting letters, taking a hotel reservation, writing a check, finding a street etc (University of Murcia, 2004). Tasks can be playful or serious such as problem solving tasks at work or at home. In language classrooms, tasks which are selected are those which are communicative in nature because the idea is to teach language through the selected tasks.

11.2 Characteristics of the Task Based Method

Swan (2005), lists the following as the widely held characteristics of the task based method:

1. Instructed language learning should mainly contain natural or naturalistic language use, and the activities are related to meaning rather than language.
2. Instruction should support learner-centeredness rather than teacher-centeredness. Because totally naturalistic learning does not normally give rise to target-like accuracy, engagement is essential to promote the internalisation of formal linguistic elements while keeping the perceived benefits of a natural approach.
3. This can be best realised by offering opportunities for focus on the form, which will attract students' attention to linguistic components as they emerge incidentally in lessons whose main focus is on meaning or communication.
4. Communicative tasks are especially suitable devices for such an approach.
5. More formal pre- or post-task language study may be beneficial. This may contribute to internalisation by leading or maximising familiarity with formal characteristics during communication.
6. Traditional approaches are unproductive and unsuitable, particularly where they require passive formal instruction and practice isolated from communicative work.

11.3 Classroom Activities under the Task Based Method

A task is an activity where the target language is used by the learner for a communicative purpose (goal) in order to achieve an outcome. Tasks in everyday life are to be found everywhere. Tasks surround us from early in the morning till late at night. Washing our face is a task, as is preparing breakfast, going to work by car, preparing a lesson, buying the newspaper, and others. Regardless of the task chosen to be used in language teaching, they need to be language rich in terms of their ability to elicit language forms which are being taught. The activity should be goal oriented and be purposeful. There is need for the activity to be time sequenced with logical steps. The tasks are also supposed to be problem solving in nature because it is through problem solving that the language teaching goal is also achieved.

11.4 Application of The Task-based Approach in Language Teaching

This section explains the stages followed when using the Task based method when teaching language. In line with University of Murcia (2004), consider the following stages and what happens at each given stage:

- (a) Pre-task phase: the description of the different activities suggested by Willis takes up again the 'presentation stage' most teachers are used to.
- (b) The task cycle: three stages are mentioned here: task, planning and report. In all of them students are supposed to produce natural language, gain fluency and confidence in themselves. Willis and Skehan insist on the need for grammatical accuracy, once the task has been performed. This is because

during task performance the learners pay attention to meaning and tend to forget grammatical correctness.

- (c) Language focus: this emphasises specific language features. It seems as if the author is considering here a kind of ‘remedial’ final task. Since focus on meaning should have been the rule throughout the two previous phases, it is now time for ‘language focus activities’. Language activities refer to semantics, lexis, morphology, syntax and phonetics or phonology.

11.5 Observations and lesson demonstration on the Task Based Method

Task-based language teaching provides many benefits to aid foreign language learning. Ellis (2009) lists these benefits as follows:

- (a) TBLT provides the opportunity for ‘natural’ learning within the classroom context.
- (b) It stresses meaning over form; however, it can also emphasise learning form.
- (c) It offers learners a fertile input of target language. It is intrinsically motivating.
- (d) It is consistent with a learner-focused educational philosophy but also gives permission for teacher input and guidance. It contributes to the improvement of communicative fluency while not disregarding accuracy. It can be deployed together with a more traditional approach.

Although task-based method presents many benefits to aid foreign language learning, it is not without some obstacles and challenges. According to Hatip (2005), some challenges of task-based method are as follows:

- (a) The drawbacks of task-based learning rely not so much on the potential powerfulness of this type of instructional content but on problems of conducting the instruction.
- (b) Task-based learning involves a high level of creativity and dynamism on the part of the teacher.
- (c) If the teachers are restricted to more traditional roles or do not possess time and resources to provide task-based teaching; this type of teaching may be impracticable.
- (d) Task-based learning necessitates resources beyond the textbooks and related materials generally available in foreign language classrooms.
- (e) Students may, at first, refuse or object to task-based language learning in that this type of instruction is not what many students expect and want from a language class.

Some learners are inclined to get caught up in making an effort to find the appropriate word, and do not worry about how it is placed into the discourse. There is a danger for learners to attain fluency at the expense of accuracy.

11.5.1 Sample Lesson under the Task Based Method

Pre-task

The teacher introduces the topic and gives the students clear instructions on what they will have to do at task stage and might help the student to recall some languages that may be useful for the task. The pre-task stage can also often include playing a recording of people doing the task. This gives the students a clear model of what will be expected of them. The students can take notes and spend time preparing for the task.

Task

The students complete the task in pairs or groups using the language resources that they have as the teacher monitors and offers encouragement.

Planning

Students prepare a short oral or written report to tell the class what happened during their task. They then practice what they are going to say in their groups. Meanwhile the teacher is available for the students to ask for advice to clear up any language questions they may have.

Report

Students then report back to the class orally or read the written report. The teacher chooses the order of when students will present their reports and may give the students some quick feedback on the content. At this stage the teacher may also play a recording of others doing the task for the students to compare.

Analysis

The teacher then highlights relevant parts from the text of the recording for the students to analyse. They may ask students to notice interesting features within this text. The teacher can also highlight the language that the students used during the report phase for analysis.

Practice

Finally, the teacher selects language areas to practice based upon the needs of the students and what emerged from the task and report phases. The students then do practice activities to increase their confidence and make a note of useful language.

Source: this is a reproduction of Richard Frost's work, British Council, Turkey. [www.ac-orleans-tours.fr/fileadmin/user-upload/anglaislp/dossier-resources task-based...ap](http://www.ac-orleans-tours.fr/fileadmin/user-upload/anglaislp/dossier-resources%20task-based...ap).

A specific example of a lesson based on Task-Based Approach.

Task: Guidelines for one to live better.

Teacher: today our task is to come up with guidelines for one to live better. Is that clear?

Class: yes sir/madam

Activity 1

Identification of vocabulary, phrases and verbs to be used in the guidelines. This is done by the class as a whole with the teacher leading the discussion. The vocabulary, phrases and verbs are written on the board for the learners to take note.

Examples:

- Exercising regularly
- Avoid stress
- Run or walking
- Avoid smoking
- Worries
- Avoid abuse of alcohol
- Visit hospital regularly.
- Enough sleep.

Activity 2

In groups/pairs the learners discuss and come up with guidelines.

Activity 3

Each group reports its guidelines to the whole class (in written form or orally).

Activity 4

Teacher leads the class in the analysis of the reports and summarises the main issues emerging from the learners' reports.

Example of the Expected Completed Task (Guidelines)

Title: Living Better

For you to live better do or do not do the following things.

- Always be happy
- Avoid stress
- Avoid smoking
- Don't abuse alcohol consumption
- Visit hospital regularly for checkups.
- Avoid worries
- Do some exercise regularly (walking or running).
- Have enough sleep.

Summary

The Task-Based Method is currently the method in use together with the communicative method to teach second or foreign languages. It focuses on communication and teaching is based on task completion in pairs or groups.

CHAPTER TWELVE

ECLECTIC METHOD

12.0 Overview

The Eclectic Method to language teaching is the method of the moment. It was developed after extensive analysis of all the methods that preceded it and finding a common ground between and among all methods to provide a more holistic way of teaching language. This chapter will explain the meaning and scope of the Eclectic Method, its characteristics and classroom application.

12.1 Origin of the Eclectic Method

The Eclectic Method is known by many labels. For instance, some call it the multidimensional method, the enlightenment method, postmethodic etc. It is a multifaceted method to language teaching, which was developed due to various dissatisfactions with all the methods which were developed and used before it. The central argument for the Eclectic Method is that no single method is capable of meeting and responding to the different characteristics and learning styles of learners. Thus, the idea is that there should be a method which is learner-sensitive even in diverse classrooms. Gilliland, James and Bowman (1994), stated that the justification for the eclectic approach lies in the weaknesses of the single approach because a single method has a narrow theoretical basis and has a delimited set of activities and is, therefore, inflexible (see also Mwanza, 2016). In fact, Brown (2002) and Mwanza (2016) argue that eclecticism provides the solution to language teaching in diverse learning contexts because the approach allows the teacher to select what works within their own dynamic contexts. Since eclecticism is context-sensitive, learning is fun and innovative, and the approach works for every type of learner regardless of their social economic background and preferences. By definition, Kumar (2013:1) stated that “the eclectic method is a combination of different methods of teaching and learning approaches”. The Eclectic method involves the use of a variety of language learning activities which are motivated by different underlying assumptions of language teaching as well as classroom characteristics (Al Hamash, 1985; Freeman-Larsen, 2000; Mellow, 2000 and 2002, Mwanza, 2016). Gao (2011:1) describes the eclectic approach as “not a concrete, single method, but a method, which combines listening, speaking, reading, and writing and includes some practice in the classroom”. He adds that the choice of what is to be combined is supposed to be done on principle because not all aspects of each method can combine with every other aspect of another method. At the centre of this argument is that the eclectic assortment should be responsive to the learners and their learning needs. Wali (2009:40), summarises this proposition when he stated the following:

...one of the premises of eclecticism is that teaching should serve pupils not methods. Thus, teachers should feel free in choosing techniques and procedures inside the classroom. There is no ideal approach in language learning. Each one

has its merits and demerits. There is no royalty to certain methods. Teachers should know that they have the right to choose the best methods and techniques in any method according to pupils' needs and learning situation. Teachers can adopt a flexible method and technique so as to achieve their goals. They may choose whatever works best at a particular time in a particular situation

To state that methods should serve pupils and not methods means that teachers should focus on helping learners to learn and not on fulfilling the prescriptions of the methods. For example, in Zambia, the syllabus recommends the use of the communicative language teaching method, which is by extension, eclectic. However, in being an eclectic teacher, the teacher may decide to provide more input rather than asking learner output if he or she knows that learners are still in the lower stages of language development. Thus, the teacher is always supposed to be sensitive to what can help learners learn rather than following the rigidity of prescription. According to Weidemann (2001), the justification for the use of eclecticism as an approach to language teaching is its fashionability, which is strengthened by the argument of critical pedagogy. Kumaravadivelu (2006), actually warns against relying on methods in their specifications because they do not provide all solutions to language teaching. She instead proposes a postmethodic approach to language teaching (See Mwanza, 2016, Mwanza, 2017). Further, Mwanza (2016, 2017) suggests that a language teacher should adopt a context-sensitive pedagogic framework which will be able to respond to special characteristics of a particular learning and teaching context. In fact, Weidemann (2001:2) notes that the eclectic approach has been so widely accepted that "today, many good teachers use it proudly as a tag to describe their teaching, wearing it almost like a badge of honour."

12.2 Characteristics of the Eclectic Method

It is important to note that the Eclectic method is not a rigid approach, thus, its characteristics may not be limited to the ones presented in here. Regardless, Ali (1981: 7) lists the following principles of eclecticism:

- (a) Teachers are given a chance to choose different kinds of teaching techniques in each class period to reach the aims of the lesson.
- (b) There is flexibility in choosing any aspect or method that teachers think suitable for teaching inside the classroom.
- (c) Pupils can see different kinds of teaching techniques, using different kinds of teaching aids, that help to make lessons much more stimulating and ensures better understanding of the material on the other hand.
- (d) Solving difficulties that may emerge from the presentation of the textbook materials
- (e) Finally, it saves both time and effort in the presentation of language activities.

12.3 Classroom Activities under the Eclectic Method

It is inappropriate to devise a procedure for teaching language. Each individual teacher will create a procedure depending on the choice of the activities and materials. These choices also depend on the quality of the pupils in the classroom and the preferences of the teacher. The Eclectic method avoids blanket prescriptions for how to teach language and instead afford the teacher the opportunity to come up with his or her own procedure. Kumar (2013), aptly argued that it is difficult to put this theory into one or two sentences to explain the lesson because each teacher will have his or her own format and set of activities. In terms of classroom procedure, Gao (2011:362) explained that the Eclectic Method is divided into three stages namely: “(a) teacher-centred at the input stage; (b) learner-centred at the practice stage; and (c) learner-centred at the production stage,” which also implies that the eclectic method is learner centred. Mwanza (2016), Li (2012), list the following as the classroom activities which teachers use when teaching using the eclectic method:

- a. group work;
- b. Pair work;
- c. Role play;
- d. Simulation;
- e. Class discussion;
- f. Problem solving activities;
- g. Debate; and
- h. Drama.

When teaching using the eclectic method, there are certain principles which should be followed in activity selection and use. For example, Mellow (2002:1) argued that for the eclectic approach to work effectively in the classroom, “activities within the lesson should (i) maintain coherence by consistently focusing upon the same formal and or functional units, and (ii) be sequenced so that by the end of the lesson , learners have engaged in activities that require contextualised attention to signs.” In addition, Li (2012:169) advises that “in class, there should be a rich mixture of activities which mainly include formal instruction and communicative tasks. The content and form of these two categories should also be versatile”. Since the Eclectic Method is about integrating different methods, which is practically realised through the integration of classroom activities, Wali (2009:36) argued that the most effective way using the eclectic method in language classrooms is “for teachers to provide a variety of activities to meet the needs of different learning styles so that all students will have at least some activities that appeal to them...teachers need techniques that work in their particular situations with specific objectives that [are] meaningful for the kind of students they have in their classes.”

12.4 Observations on the Classroom Application of the Eclectic Method

Without pre-empting the views of the scholars, it can be stated that the eclectic approach is advantageous because it makes the language teacher become open to alternatives. In addition, it embraces all the four language skills of speaking, reading,

writing and listening. Further, Brown (2002) stated that the eclectic approach is important because it gives the teacher freedom to choose what is appropriate in their own dynamic teaching contexts. Kumar (2013) mentions the following advantages:

- (a) It is easier for learners to understand the language of the text in its cultural context.
- (b) It blends listening, speaking, reading and writing.
- (c) Helps teacher to teach effectively by drawing on the strength of various methods and avoiding their weaknesses.
- (d) Learning is easy due to the use of realistic situations in the classroom.

Other advantages include the fact that the eclectic method is learner centred, context-sensitive, lively, motivating, participatory, variety of classroom activities and tasks. Moreover, pupils are aware of what is expected of them. It is flexible and accommodative to the exigencies of the classroom during the lesson (Mwanza, 2016).

12.4.1 Sample Lesson under the Eclectic Method

Topic: Vocabulary

Teacher: Morning class

Learner: Morning sir/madam

Step 1: Teacher displays on the board the following: A dog, a cat, a donkey and a cow (includes drawings)

Step two: Teacher asks the learners to repeat after him/her the words as follows:

Teacher: Points at the dog and says a dog

Class: A dog



Teacher: A cat



Teacher: A donkey



Teacher: A cow

Class: A cow



Step 3: Teacher asks the learners to translate the words in their mother tongues and any other languages they know (they may work in pairs or groups). They report their work to the class.

Step 4: Teacher asks the learners to make sentences using the words they have learnt individually in writing.

NB: In this lesson, the teacher has borrowed teaching techniques from the following methods:

- (a) Using pictures to explain words (Direct and Situational Method)
- (b) Repetition of words (Audio Lingual Method)
- (c) Translation into L1 (Grammar-Translation through Translanguaging).

Summary

The Eclectic method is a method in which a teacher draws teaching techniques, from various methods when teaching. The justification for the use of eclectic method is that no one method is responsive to the dynamic classroom context.

PART THREE

ASSESSMENT

CHAPTER THIRTEEN

LANGUAGE TESTING

13.0 Overview

Language Testing falls under applied linguistics. It originates from what is known as psychometrics. This is a discipline which is concerned with the measurement of knowledge, abilities, skills, attitudes, personality traits and educational achievement. Earliest works in this area of study centred on the measurement of intelligence and personality. In the 1940s language testing became the focus of scientific research. To date, a lot has been published on the same.

13.1 Concept of a Test

What is a test? A test is simply a technique or instrument used to measure something. For example, multiple choice questions, is one of the techniques used to measure reading comprehension. A test has certain characteristics. Brown (2010), identified five cardinal characteristics of a test. These are; validity, reliability, authenticity, practicability and wash back. We will now attempt to explain them.

13.1.1 Validity

A valid test measures what it is supposed to measure. For example, a valid driving test, is a test which requires that the candidate actually drives a vehicle. To the contrary one which does not involve actual driving, is not a valid test of driving. In languages, a speaking test should involve actual speaking by the candidate. There are different types of validity namely; face validity, content validity, predictive validity, concurrent validity and construct validity.

Face Validity: just by a glance at the test items, the test looks as though it measures what it is supposed to measure.

Content Validity: the test items sampled, are a true representation of the content from which the sampled items were extracted. In this case, one needs to check the items against the content.

Predictive Validity: the test does predict performance in some subsequent situation such as job success, performance on another test or grade in a course.

Concurrent Validity: the test gives results similar to those obtained from another measure taken at the same time (concurrently) for example performance on another test.

Construct Validity: the test is a true reflection of an underlying theory of what it is supposed to measure.

13.1.2 Reliability

The next characteristic of a test is reliability. A test is said to be reliable when it produces the same results regardless of who marks it. For example, a test using

multiple choice questions is reliable compared to composition, dictation or a speaking test.

Just like validity, there are different types of reliability namely; rater reliability, item reliability (internal consistency), test-retest reliability, split-half reliability (alternate-forms reliability).

Rater Reliability: the same test when scored over and over again by the same scorer or different scorers yields the same or similar results.

Item Reliability: all the test items remain constant in measuring for example comprehension.

Test-retest Reliability: scores remain constant for the same test administered to candidates on different times.

Split-half Reliability: candidates are subjected to a test on an occasion, then the mark is calculated for each half of the test for each candidate then the comparison is done to check on the consistency of the two halves.

13.1.3 Authenticity

The third characteristic of a test is authenticity. A test is said to be authentic if it is contextualised. In other words, test items are not presented in isolation but are put in a context and should reflect real-life situations.

13.1.4 Practicability

The fourth characteristic of a test is known as practicability. This characteristic involves practical issues such as administration, costs. For example, can the test be constructed and administered in a given time frame? Is it friendly to the test administrators? Can it be administered within the available resources?

13.1.5 Washback

The last characteristic of a test is wash back. A good test should have wash back. That is, it should have a positive effect on the teaching-learning process. It should provide feedback, which enhances learning.

13.2 Types of Evaluation

13.2.1 Formative Evaluation – is an evaluation whose purpose is to inform the progress of the teaching-learning process. This type of evaluation aims at improving teaching and learning while it is going on. It is an on-going process.

13.2.2 Summative Evaluation – is an evaluation of student learning, skill acquisition and academic achievement at a conclusion of a defined instructional period. This type of evaluation is also known as ex-post evaluation.

13.3 Type of Tests and Their Functions

13.3.1 Diagnostic tests- these are tests which seek to establish how much language learners know and their ability to use it in their daily interactions. In other words, these tests establish learners' strength and weaknesses. There are two main tests under this category: progress and achievement tests.

13.3.2 Progress Test- these are tests which are on-going. They are conducted and administered when teaching and learning is on-going (in process). They are normally prepared and administered by teachers themselves. The purpose of these tests is to improve the teaching-learning process (to get a feedback) on the progress of the process. These tests fall under formative evaluation.

13.3.2 Achievement Tests- these tests seek to evaluate learning achievement at the end of a cycle. For example, at the end of the year, primary or secondary education. In a nutshell, their main purpose is to measure the outcome of learning. They fall under summative evaluation.

13.3.3 Prognostic Tests- prognostic tests seek to estimate future success. They have predictive value and are therefore used in making selections of learners for new programmes. There are two main tests under this category: proficiency and aptitude tests.

13.3.4 Proficiency Tests- the purpose of these tests is to establish learners' general knowledge of language and ability. They are mainly used for placement of learners.

13.3.5 Aptitude Tests- these tests attempt to establish future success in a new programme. Hence, they are mainly used for selection of learners. In this section of the chapter, we have presented the types of evaluations and their functions and we focused mainly on the education sector.

13.4 Communicative Language Testing

In this section of the chapter, our focus is on communicative language testing. What is currently in use in line with the current language teaching approaches (communicative and Task –Based approaches) but before that we would like to make some observation on the tests known as traditional or classic tests

What are known as traditional or classic tests were mainly popular during the era of Grammar Translation, Direct and Oral approaches (the details on these approaches are in chapters 5, 6 and 7). These tests were centred on syntax and morphology. In other words, they measured or measure learners' linguistic competence (how much language do they know and not the ability to use it in real-life situation). Some examples of these tests are composition, literary analysis, dictation, cloze tests, vocabulary, translation, grammar, reading and so on. As already alluded to, these tests seek to only establish how much language learners know. The ability to use it in

real life is ignored. Secondly, there is a lot of subjectivity when it comes to scoring them.

13.4.1 Some Examples of Traditional Tests

Essay- candidates are given a topic which they discuss. The purpose of this kind of test, is to assess candidates' abilities to organise ideas in a logical and coherent manner. Candidates have some degree of freedom to express themselves. However, for new teachers, marking an essay may not be so easy hence, the need to train markers. In some cases, the topics given for discussion do not take into consideration the experiences and interests of the candidates. Examples of topics;

1. What are the advantages and disadvantages of corporal punishment?
2. The woman's place is in the kitchen. Discuss
3. Write a letter to a friend describing what you did during the school holiday.

Multiple choice questions: These are test items in which candidates are required to select correct answers from say four alternatives. This type of test is usually used when testing listening and reading comprehension and grammar. Examples
Which word in the text means X?

- A-
- B-
- C-
- D-

Choose the correct word to fill the blank

John and Peter friends

- A- are
- B- is
- C- loves

Multiple choice questions are easy to mark but difficult to construct. In addition, they encourage guessing and this can have an effect on the validity of the test as a whole.

Dictation- At one time, dictation was a very popular class activity. Of late, teachers are not including it in their classroom activities or as a test item. Dictation involves listening and writing. The problem with it is that marking becomes very subjective because it involves many skills such as listening, writing, spelling and grammar. It is an integrative test. Integrative test are subjective.

Cloze Test- Cloze test involves filling in blanks in a text. It was developed by W. L Taylor in 1953. Originally, it was used to measure readability of texts. Just like dictation and essay, a cloze test is an integrative test. It involves different skills. Hence, rater subjectivity.

Example of cloze test

Zambia is in southern Africa. It eight neighboring countries.
The city is Lusaka. Its main activities include mining
and agriculture.

There are three possible ways of marking a close test these are; (1) accepting only the original word used by the author (2) accepting any other possible words and lastly (3) using multiple choice answers.

Open-Ended Comprehension Questions: These test items are used to measure both listening and reading comprehension and are based on a text read out to the students or read by the students themselves.

Example

Yesterday at around twenty hours, there was an accident on the Great East road near the University of Zambia. Two vehicles collided. Two unidentified persons died on the spot. Two others were rushed to Mwanawasa hospital.

1. Where did the accident happen?
2. What was the cause of the accident?
3. At what time did the accident happen?

These types of questions involve writing answers in a sentence form. This involves issues of spellings and grammar. Does one consider them when marking or just focus on comprehension? Maybe it is for this reason that they are no longer in use to measure comprehension.

Grammar- Traditional grammar tests focus on measuring morphology and syntax same examples of these texts are: change the following sentences into the past tense.

1. Today, I will meet my friend at school to work on our project.
2. Our teacher is not happy with us because we are making noise
3. John will tomorrow fly to London.

- Completion items

If I were you, I.....have reported him to the police.

- Transformation items

John said to his friend “lend me some money”

John asked his friend.....

- Sentence combination items

I met the teacher.

He taught me in grade seven

13.5 Emergency of the Communicative Tests

Due to inadequacies in the situational approach, a new approach to language teaching was advocated for. By mid 1970s a new approach which was named the communicative approach was quickly becoming popular in teaching second or and

foreign languages. This approach owes its emergency to a number of works in the field of language teaching – learning namely: Hymes on the concept of Communicative Competence, studies in Pragmatics by Searle and Austin, Social Linguistics by Labov, Hymes and Bernstein, studies in Semantics by Halliday and Fillmore, works by the Council of Europe and Wilkins functional communication (notional syllabus).

The approach focuses on communication as a reason for teaching languages. Learners must be able to communicate in real life situations after being exposed to a target language. To do so, the approach employs teaching techniques such as simulation, brain storming, group work, role play, discussion, debates, dialogue and gaming.

Of late, the approach has been improved leading to what has been named as “Task Based Approach.” This is an approach which requires the learners to complete tasks because in real life-life situations the use of language is focused on the completion of tasks. For example, cooking, preparing a speech, preparing an advertisement and so on. However, it should be noted that in spite of this improvement, the teaching techniques such as role play, simulation, and discussion have not changed.

In applied linguistics, it is emphasised that testing techniques should always be in tandem with the teaching approach in use. So, in line with the communicative language teaching, communicative language testing emerged (communicative tests). In communicative language testing, the purpose is to assess how much language learners have (“le savoir”) and their ability to use it in real-life situations (“le savoir-faire”).

Communicative tests have five main characteristics. These are; meaningful communication, authentic situations, unpredictable language in-put, creative language output and integrated language skills.

13.5. 1 Meaningful Communication-Communicative tests use communication which is real and useful to the students. In other words, these tests attempt to meet students’ language communicative needs. That is, language which is of value to them.

13.5.2 Authentic Situation- Communicative tests (items) are presented in a context not in isolation. Normally the contexts are those which obtain in real-life situations unlike traditional tests which are presented in isolation.

13.5. 3 Unpredictable Language Input- In real-life situations, it is rather difficult to predict what one is going to say. In this vein, communicative tests are flexible. They allow candidates to use other possible utterances.

13.5. 4 Creative Language Output- You cannot prepare for one’s reply or responses in real-life situations. Individuals respond freely. So communicative tests are not rigid. They allow for possible responses. They allow students to express themselves freely.

13.5.5 Integrated Language Skills - Traditional tests usually focus on one skill. But this is not what happens in real-life. For example, one can speak and at

the same time note the message in writing. This is the case in a telephone conversation. So there is sometimes listening, speaking, and writing at the same time. Communicative tests allow for the integration of skills. So, in a nutshell, communicative tests attempt to simulate what goes on in reality which is not the case with the traditional tests.

13.6 Examples of Communicative Tests

13.6.1 News Item (Listening)

A news item is recorded from the radio or television. Then it, is played to the students for them to listen then answer questions based on the same. For example:

Yesterday the Zambian president signed the constitution Amendment Bill at the National Heroes Stadium. This means that Zambia now has a new constitution which has replaced the 1996 one.

Questions:

1. The signing of the constitution took place at State House. True/False
2. This means that Zambia has now two constitutions. Yes/No

13.6.2 Taking Notes (Listening and Writing)

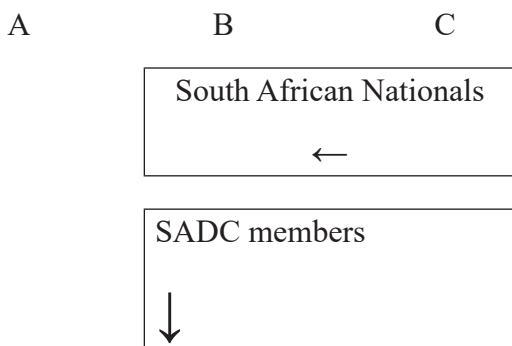
A lecture is recorded and played to the students. As they listen, they are required to take notes which are to be verified by the examiners regarding their correctness.

Example of a lecture

Today we will discuss the grammar-translation approach. This approach was ushered in during the sixteenth century. It mainly focused on morphology and syntax. That is grammar and translation. In this approach, the mother tongue was used to teach the target language. The class activities involved reading aloud, translation, learning grammatical rules.

13.6.3 Authentic Statements (Reading)

You are a Zambian visiting South Africa; you arrive at Oliver Tambo international Airport in Johannesburg. You have to present your passport to the immigration desk. In front of you, you see and read the following.



Other counties →

As a Zambian, where do you present yourself A B or C?

13.6.4 Advertisement

In a newspaper you read the following: Expatriate leaving, selling a Toyota Corolla. Price is negotiable. The car is in a good condition. If interested, ring 09755784476.

1. The price of the car is indicated. Yes/No
2. The vehicle is new. True/False.

13.6.5 Reporting an Event (Writing and Speaking)

You have been involved in a car accident. You go to the police station to give a statement. write what you are going to tell the police.

13.6.6 Self-introduction (Writing or Speaking)

You are representing your school at an interschool meeting in your district. Before discussions start, each participant is required to introduce himself or herself. It is your turn to do so. Introduce yourself.

13.6.7 Speech Writing

At your school's sports day, the head teacher has invited the Provincial Education Officer to be the guest of honour. You have been chosen to deliver a vote of thanks. Write down what you are going to say.

13.6.8 Editing (Grammar)

A passage (text) containing grammatical errors is given to the students to edit it

Example:

Fatal accident on the Lusaka-Kabwe road

Yesterday around twenty-two hours, two vecles collided and overtained, four pipo died on the spot. There bodies lying in the Kabwe general hospital mortuary. The causer of the accident is not known.

Summary

As a summary, two issues are to be noted “primo” tests are important in education because they can be used to improve the teaching –learning process. In addition, they can also be used to assess the quality of the system's outputs. “Secundo” testing techniques should always be in tandem with the approach being used in teaching.

PART FOUR

LEARNER IDENTITY

CHAPTER FOURTEEN

LEARNER IDENTITY AND FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHING

14.0 Overview

This chapter discusses the concept of identity in the context of teacher and learner identity in the education space in general, and in the classroom in particular. The concept of identity is broad and refers to different things in different contexts. There is no agreement on one definition of identity and its forms. In this chapter, different definitions will be considered with a view of arriving at one that resonates with the idea of identity in the classroom space. The four types of identity, which will be discussed, are those identified as having direct implications on teacher-learner relationships in the school space.

14.1 Meaning of Identity

As hinted above, the concept of identity is multifarious. According to Hogg and Abraams, (1988:2), “Identity is people’s concepts of who they are, of what sort of people they are, and how they relate to others.” This means that identity refers to features which define people and how those features influence how they forge relationships with others. While there is truth in this definition, its weaknesses lies in the fact that identity is not only about self-conception. How others view a person is part of someone’s identity too. This weakness is addressed by Deng (1995:1) who defined identity as “the way individuals and groups define themselves and are defined by others on the basis of race, ethnicity, religion, language, and culture.” As earlier explained, this definition argues for a way of looking at someone’s identity beyond self especially that self-identification is mostly subjective. This does not mean that others are always objective but that to have a relatively complete way of identifying an individual, there is need to consider how one is defined by both self and others. In any case, the way people conceive themselves have implications on their confidence, belief and aptitude. Similarly, the way people are conceived by others can have damaging as well as constructive effects on them. In the school system, the way learners conceive themselves and how they are conceived by fellow learners including teachers and parents have both destructive and constructive effects.

Another definition of Identity is by Jenkins (1996:4) who defined it as “the ways in which individuals and collectivities are distinguished in their social relations with other individuals and collectivities.” One unique point in this definition is that identity of an individual is not only defined or limited to self but the groups or associations one aligns him or herself with. Thus, one may be identified based on his own personal characteristics as well as the characteristics of the groups he or she belongs to. For example, a man associated with religious people will generally be understood to be religious whether or not the individual is truly religious. In the same way, a person associated with the upper class may be perceived to be upper class even if the person is poor. In other words, group identities are sometimes used

to identify an individual who belongs to the group. The final definition to consider in this chapter is one by Wendt (1992:397) who defined Identity as being “relatively stable, role-specific understandings and expectations about self.” While this definition is narrower than some which have already been considered, it is important to note that one’s identity leads to expectations from self and others. For example, when you are a student, the expectation from self and others is generally that you are studying and are knowledgeable about the subject you are studying. In the same way, when you are identified as a father, the expectation is that one is mature and responsible. In fact, it can be argued that every mark of identity has self and societal expectations attached to it. In the school systems, there are expectations for learners, teachers, school administrators, parents and caregivers on the basis of their identity. This extends to general conduct in general interaction outside formal spaces. People will expect certain behaviours or roles from an individual because of who they are and what they are thought to be.

It is important to note that several forms of identity are fluid and can easily change. Except for ascribed identity, which will be discussed in detail later, all other forms of identity can develop and grow or die/end. This is the reason why it is advisable for teachers to encourage learners to change for the better in areas where change is possible. In the event that the learner is not changing, it is important for the teacher to avoid labelling and giving up on the learners because it is possible that a learner who cannot express himself or herself well in English today may develop fluency later. Similarly, a struggling learner in one grade may be the best performing learner in later grades. It is by nature that identities can develop and end.

Identity is formed by different traits or features often referred to markers of identity. Markers of identity are personal or collective characteristics, which lead to identity formation and their related expectations. These traits are so many to exhaust. Below are some of them:

Sex: Learners are either male or female. There are often stereotypes about learners for being either male or females. For example, it is expected that females are better at language than male learners. Some may hold the idea that males are more intelligent than females, which is the stereotype. It is not helpful for teachers to hold stereotypes and prejudice towards learners on the basis of sex. All learners, regardless of sex, should be given equal opportunities to learning. If a learner is struggling, it is imperative that teachers find ways of supporting learners.

Ethnicity: Ethnicity is such a big identity marker especially in Africa and Zambia in particular. Classrooms are multiethnic and the teacher is a member of one of the multiple ethnicities present in the classrooms. Depending on the location of the school, some ethnic groups may be more dominant than others. With migration both within and across countries, schools and classrooms are becoming more multiethnic. It is the duty of the teacher to provide instruction and classroom interactions which include and encompass all ethnic groups. While belonging to one group ethnically,

the teacher is supposed to be neutral, objective and supportive of learners regardless of their ethnic belonging. It is also important that the teacher build and cultivate a culture between and among learners, which promotes cultural integration and acceptance.

Race: Race is a big identity maker and racism has attracted a lot of research interest both in applied linguistics and education in general. In the context of teaching methodology, it is imperative to state that eclectic teaching means that learners are taught and supported without racial discrimination. In the classroom, it is important that the sitting arrangement and communicative activities are inclusive of all races. The teacher and learners should ensure that a culture of oneness and unity in diversity is developed and cultivated during interaction both in and outside the classroom.

Language: Just like ethnicity, language is an important communicative resource and it can be used to forge both constructive and destructive relationships. In the school system and especially in sub-Saharan Africa, almost every classroom is multilingual. With monoglossic language policies with their related monoglossic language ideologies, it is common language practices which are exclusive because while some learners are familiar with the official medium of instruction, others are not. Further, some learners will learn a language as a first language while others will learn it as second or foreign language. In this sense, learners identify with the target language differently. In the learning of colonial languages such as English, French and Portuguese, there is a likelihood of a phenomenon called language interference in which it is thought that mother tongue is interfering with the colonial language (target language). In all of this, learners' identities are questioned and approved. It is critical to state that as central as language is to identity discourses, it is important that teachers are prepared to provide instruction in a way that affirms the learners' language identities present in the classrooms. One way of doing this is to use translanguaging in multilingual classrooms. Another way is to view language errors as a normal process of language learning and creating classroom spaces where learners support each other's language learning processes without discrimination or bullying. It is expected that different learners will have different relationships with the target language. Therefore, helping learners move from what they know to what they do not know through adopting inclusive language practices becomes key.

Poverty: Poverty is an identity. Both learners and teachers will be classified as either low class, middle class or high class based on their financial and material possessions. Learners have different social economic backgrounds, which have implications on whether they have the required resources and materials for learning and whether or not, they can access knowledge at all. In countries where uniforms are used to identify learners, poverty will mean that some may have good uniforms while others will have bad ones. In some cases, some learners may fail to have a uniform and therefore making them appear as intruders in the school and classroom spaces. Learners identified as poor normally have low self-esteem and may be dominated

both in and outside the classroom by children of the rich. School and classroom based relationships are sometimes influenced by the wealth or lack of it by learners including teachers. In every classroom in Africa, there are different identities in the classroom based on poverty and wealth.

In this view, it is critical that teachers are sensitive to the identities of the learners and deliberately build a mutually respectful culture in the classroom where all learners are equal in as far as access to learning is concerned in the classroom. This also implies that teachers are not biased in the way they interact with learners and do not discriminate when giving learning opportunities and support to learners.

Parents: Through association, parents are an identity marker to learners. Depending on the social standing of parents and what political position they have, their children will be identified by what parents do or do not do. It is also plausible that teachers may opt to advantage learners identified with powerful or advantaged parents and deny or simply not support children identified with weak parents. In education, the status of parents has been found to play an important role on their children's academic performance for better and for worse. It is the role of the school and class teachers to create learning spaces where learners feel safe and equal regardless of the status of their parents in society. It is also the role of their identities. Learners should also learn and be encouraged to relate with one another with mutual respect regardless of their different backgrounds. Some parents may have a bad reputation in society and may be considered a misfit by society. Regardless, their children need the support of teachers and protection in classrooms from possible discrimination and stigmatisation. In any case, it is inappropriate to impose parents' identities on their children. Doing so also makes children lose their confidence and are likely to develop a phenomenon called learned helplessness. Therefore, Schools and classrooms should function as sites for positive identity formation and confidence in who learners would become. Since identity is fluid and mutable, learners may need to be taught about how they change their identities for the better rather than how their parents' identities are a condemnation of their current and future identities.

Culture: Culture is basically explained as a way of life. Learners come from different cultural backgrounds. Even in one broader culture, there will be sub-cultures based on their family, clan or social belongings such as the church. Some cultures may be seen as desirable while others may be seen as undesirable. Just like other markers of identity, multiculturalism is a norm rather than an exception in education in general and language classrooms in particular. In this vein, teachers are supposed to plan and teach in a way that consider the cultural backgrounds of learners including their different ways of knowing. Cultural tolerance and acceptance in education and language classrooms, through sitting arrangement, mutual respect and integration, should be encouraged in language classrooms.

Religion: Religion is another identity marker which has both a unifying as well as divisive power. In Africa and Zambia in particular, religion is a big part of the

people and learners. Different religious beliefs have different implications on learners' behaviour, motivation and general aptitude. Religion can also prescribe how learners interact with each other. In this case, it is the duty of the teacher to study the religious beliefs present in the classroom and how they may be affecting different learners' general learning behaviours and devising constructive and supportive strategies of helping learners. There is also need for learners to learn to respect each other's religious beliefs even if they do not subscribe to the beliefs.

Intelligence: Intelligence, like any other cognitive ability, is one of the identity markers. Learners are normally categorised as gifted, ungifted or moderately gifted. In a brutal sense, learners can be identified as intelligent, dull and average. Whatever the label is, there is need for paradigm shift in which case less gifted (dull) learners should be learners who have learning challenges and deserve a chance to learn. In this case, instead of perceiving a learner as dull and condemn them, schools and teachers should help learners realise and discover their potential and expose them to educational opportunities and strategies, which can improve performance. For example, learners who are weak in language may be encouraged to read more books and be given additional work in the form of remedial work to help them improve.

Disability: Disability or more appropriately special education needs are a common mark of identity. Learners are identified by the physicality including their disabilities whether physical or mental. Today, the concept of inclusive education is mainly centred on setting up education spaces and pedagogy, which is sensitive and inclusive of all learners' identities. It is necessary that teachers study their classrooms, identify the needs and devise a plan and strategies on how to provide knowledge to everyone regardless of their conditions. It is also important that both content and materials are learner centered by recognising the special education needs of learners.

Appearance: Learners look different in many ways. Some are beautiful while others are not. In the same way, some may look tidy while others may look untidy. These appearances are caused by both natural and social factors. This means that some of these identities based on appearance can be changed and others cannot be changed. It is imperative for teachers to avoid favoritism or discrimination based on learner appearance as there are normally more deep rooted inevitable causes to learners' appearances. However, it is encouraged to attempt changing those which can change and accommodate those which cannot.

14.2 Types of Identity and their implications to Second Language Teaching

There are several types of identity and each make sense in their own right. In this chapter, four types of identity will be discussed especially in the manner that they relate to education and language teaching. Below are the four types of identity:

Ascribed Identity: This refers to a type of identity which an individual acquires naturally without choice or personal effort. For example, being male or female is a mark of ascribed identity. Others include ethnicity, race, disability, height, parents, place and country of birth etc. As one can clearly see, these markers of identity are

mostly acquired at birth or in the case of height, it can develop over time but no one has a choice over their height. In the school and classroom, there will be learners with different heights, gender, ethnicity, race and whose parents are different socially, economically and religiously. All these will contribute to the overall identification of the learner and teachers by extension. The major implication of this identity to teachers is that there is need to be accommodative, inclusive and respectful of these differences. Firstly, there is need to recognise that whatever learner weaknesses or strengths, which come as a result of ascribed forms of identity, are not by choice and learners cannot do anything about it to change. Discriminating learners on the basis of ascribed identity is not just exclusive but has the potential to keep learners away from the school or from learners through processes of symbolic violence. While teachers have the role to recognise these naturally induced differences and provide inclusive pedagogy, they should also build mutually respectful relations between and among learners. Learners may also discriminate each other based on ascribed identities. The role of the school and teachers is to create school and classrooms environments where learners live in unity and take diversity as normal. When learning English as a second language, for example, it is imperative to recognise that most learners have no exposure to the language because of their under resourced backgrounds and that others may not learnt at the same pace because of a certain disability. These situations require a teacher who understands identity and who is able to negotiate teaching and learning, which transcend differences among learners.

Achieved Identity: This is a type of identity which people acquire through effort and voluntary actions. It is called achieved because people need to do something in order to acquire it. It is also understood as an identity which one acquires by choice and effort. Some of the markers of achieved identity are being married, profession, academic or professional performance, and many others being educated. as it has been explained, this type of identity is one where people will have or not have it because of their personal attitude, hard work and choices. In the school and classroom scenarios, it is the case that learners will have different forms of achieved identity. In this case, the teacher has the responsibility to challenge learners to achieve all that there is to achieve in football. In the case of school performance, teachers should encourage other learners to work hard and pass like their colleagues. However, the idea is not for teachers to challenge learners on all aspects but to also offer solutions and strategies on how learners can achieve their desired goals. The challenge should be fair and realistic.

Imposed Identity: Imposed identity refers to how another person or people define another person. In short, this is how others think you are. Normally, imposed identity comes through experiences, stereotyping, hearsay, prejudice or simply judgement. Depending on the basis of this identity formation, it may or may not be a true reflection of the person. It is called imposed identity because often times this type of identity is one that the owner does not think is a correct or fair reflection of who they are. The labelling theory is helpful to explain imposed identity because like the labelling theory, people decide and force what they think you are and force a relationship based

on that. In addition, just like with the labelling theory, people on whom an identity has been imposed may end up accepting the imposed identity and start acting or reacting according to what is implied in the imposed identity. For example, one may have an imposed identity of being naturally dull or less gifted in the English language. In its worst form, teachers or caregivers may even claim that it is impossible to pass English for a particular person because of some reasons. When this is the case, the learner may end up accepting the imposed identity and withdraw. In withdrawing, the learner may stop reading the subject, shun formative assessment and even refuse to practice English because they think they will fail it regardless. It is for this reason that teachers should firstly avoid to impose identities on learners regardless of their disadvantaged position. Secondly, teachers should disrupt imposed identities from fellow learners. The school and the classrooms are places where imposed identities are constructed, distributed and often abused. It is important that teachers should ensure that language classrooms are free from prejudice and stereotyping to create equitable language learning spaces where everyone will be important and respected regardless of their language abilities and backgrounds.

Negotiable Identity: This is a type of identity which a person thinks he or she is. This is based on self-perception and sometimes, it is influenced by one's desired image and believes it is in fact who they are. This is the opposite of imposed identity because while imposed identity is about how others think you are, negotiable identity is about how one identifies or perceives themselves. In the school and classrooms, learners engage into different kind of identity negotiation behaviours. For example, a child who has been failing and possesses the imposed identity of a lazy learner may adopt a negotiable identity where they start coming early, to school study in the presence of everyone, and approach teachers for consultation to be noticed that they are in fact, not what they are thought to be. In so doing, the learner will be negotiating an identity which through their behaviour becomes their negotiable identity. It is necessary that teachers pay attention to negotiation techniques of learners and be supportive of those positive traits that they are negotiating and equally help correct the negative identities which they may be negotiating. Negotiable Identity can be positive or negative and this can be directed at either teachers or fellow learners, school administrators. Teachers should be sensitive to negotiable identities of learners and provide the necessary support depending on what is being negotiated. For example, some learners will always speak English as a way of negotiating an identity of being intelligent. If this is viewed as positive in developing communicative competence, the teacher may need to support and strengthen the behaviours. However, if the learner dominates conversation during group discussion because they want to show that they are more intelligent than others, the teacher needs to disrupt that sort of identity and instead, create an all-inclusive and equitable classroom.

14.3 Translanguaging and Learners' Multilingual language identities

As mentioned earlier, language classrooms in sub Saharan Africa are inherently multilingual. Learners, most of whom have a different familiar language or mother language to the second or foreign language being taught, need to have their home

language identities recognised and used as stepping stones to learning a second or foreign language. This extends to the teaching and learning of African languages where some learners taking an African language as a subject will learn it as a second language and therefore need to be supported by making their first language a resource to learning a particular African language. Although some African language policies are monoglossic and prescribe immersion, it is necessary that language classrooms should be democratised in which the curriculum is decolonised and liberating pedagogies are adopted. In this case, teachers need to focus on their teaching on learning rather than language policies. As the common saying goes, teaching serves learners and not methodologies. Multilingual learners' identities are recognised and negotiated through a language practice called translanguaging.

14.3.1 Origins of Translanguaging

“Trans” in translanguaging is taken in the sense of transcending between and beyond socially constructed or named language boundaries. “Languaging” shows “ing” in it, it is a verb not a noun. It is performance, practice and an on-going process using languages rather than a fixed product. It breaks out of static idea of languages that keep power in the hands of the few and emphasises the agency of speakers in an ongoing process of interactive meaning making.

Students are not to learn a new code, but to learn a new way of being in the world while performing with new linguistic features. Translanguaging shapes both and is shaped by context. ([www. Translanguaging education.org/principles](http://www.Translanguagingeducation.org/principles)).

Originally, Translanguaging emerged in the 1980s in north Wales in Bangor. Cen Williams is recognised as the founder of this concept. Originally, “trawsietu” as it was known then in Welsh was preoccupied with the idea of using two languages (Welsh and English) in a single lesson. The concept was later popularised by Colin Baker under the term “translanguaging” and was extended to multilingualism. ([http://ealjournal.org/2016/07/26/what is translanguaging/](http://ealjournal.org/2016/07/26/what-is-translanguaging/) accessed on 28/12/2020).

The broader meaning of translanguaging is using multiple languages in a single situation. In the classroom, it is the use of multiple languages in one lesson drawing on the learners' linguistic repertoires (home languages). Through the use of translanguaging, learners are taught to become bilingual or multilingual.

14.3.2 Definitions and meaning of Translanguaging

Translanguaging has been defined by many scholars in different ways. While some definitions have been viewed as problematic for failing to view language as a fluid resource, this chapter considers those definitions which help us see languages as bilinguals do and use it. According to Cenoz and Gorter (2011:359), translanguaging is “the combination of two or more languages in a systematic way within the same learning activity”. One of the key words in this definition is the ‘combination’ and ‘systematic’. In a translanguaging practice, two or more languages are used together to make meaning and the combination and use are done systematically. This is also the reason Hornberger and Link (2012) explained that translanguaging is a purposeful

pedagogic practice where multiple languages are used together in receptive, productively, written and spoken forms. While one can claim that translanguaging is done naturally in many domains of language use, translanguaging is planned, purposeful and systematic when used in the classroom situation. This is the reason why teachers need to integrate translanguaging in their lesson plans so that it is used to serve learning and teaching functions. Another definition of translanguaging is by Baker (2011:288) who noted that “Translanguaging is the process of making meaning, shaping experiences, gaining understanding and knowledge through the use of two languages”. Although the definition refers to two languages, it is important to clarify that translanguaging can go beyond two languages, especially in Africa where there are multiple languages in the same speech community and in language classrooms. Notwithstanding the number of languages, it is imperative to reiterate the educational power of translanguaging as stated by Baker that actually, translanguaging functions as a tool for understanding of knowledge during the teaching and learning process and thereby shaping learning experiences, which are productive and empowering on the part of the learners. Lewis, Hones and Baker (2012:641), buttresses this point they stated that in a translanguaging practice, multiple languages are “ used in a dynamically and functionally integrated manner to organise and mediate mental processes in understanding, speaking, literacy, and, not least, learning”. Therefore, it is the case that to promote both access to learning and understanding of content, translanguaging plays a mediating role in multilingual classrooms.

There is a question of whether translanguaging is the same as code switching. The answer is that the two concepts, although identical in practice, are in fact different. Actually, it is no longer fashionable to talk about code switching because of its monoglossic overtones and discriminative pedagogic implications. While code switching views languages as separate and therefore evoke the idea that when one is translanguaging in the classroom, one language is interfering with the other, translanguaging views languages as meaning making resources, which work together to encode and decode meaning in communication both in and outside the classroom. Valesco and Garcia (2014:7), underscored this point when they asserted that “translanguaging does not view the languages of bilinguals as separate linguistic systems. The term stresses the flexible and meaningful actions through which bilinguals select features in their linguistic repertoire to communicate...In fact, translanguaging becomes the framework for conceptualising the education of bilinguals as a democratic endeavour for social justice”. Thus, in seeing the languages of bilinguals as natural and use them fluidly to make meaning without thinking that one language is interfering with the other affirm learners language identities and support their mentor powers to seek new knowledge. It is in the vein that translanguaging is at the centre of learner centred teaching and has become the hall mark of social justice in multilingual classroom interaction between teachers and learners on one hand and between learners themselves on the other hand. To this extent, Garcia and Leiva (2014:200) clarified that “ what makes translanguaging different from these other fluid languaging practices is that it is transformative, attempting to wipe out hierarchy...Thus, translanguaging could be a mechanism for social justice, especially when teaching students from language minoritised communities”. In

many countries in sub Saharan Africa, the hierarchy is that the colonial language as the official language of government business is at the top and followed by the seven Zambian regional languages and later any other language otherwise referred to as community languages. In a non translanguaging class, this hierarchy is maintained meaning that one cannot tap on one language resource to help learning another. It is considered transgressive to use one language in learning a different language. In a sense, one can argue that in a non translanguaging class, the grammar translation method is equally not allowed together with its incarnations in communicative language teaching and the eclectic method. However, in a translanguaging class, the hierarchy and their related exclusive practices are discontinued and a new way of communicating emerges, which recognises the linguistic repertoires of bilingual and multilinguals and validate their identities and at the same time connect the home to the school in a supportive way. This is the reason why translanguaging is viewed as both transformative and empowering. Li Wei (2011: 1223), explained that translanguaging includes the full range of one's linguistic performances and repertoires for the "transmission of information the representation of values, identities and relationships". In second language learning, where most learners encounter the target language from the school and have to use it as a medium of instruction, Translanguaging is necessary in bridging home and school literacies in a way that makes learners move from the known to the known with translanguaging functioning as a scaffolding tool. In the Zambian context, where the language syllabi recommend communicative language teaching and it is challenging to use communicative activities due to language deficiencies of learners, it becomes inevitable that any good teacher will translanguage to reach out to learners but also give power to learners to exercise their right to education and language learning in particular. It is colonial to rigidly stick to a second language in multilingual classrooms especially if some learners cannot speak and understand it fluently. Decolonising the curriculum and classroom language teaching means that teachers and learners judiciously make use of translanguaging for purposes of epistemic access and social justice. In a nut shell, the following can be said to be some of the advantages of translanguaging in language classrooms:

- a. It affirms learners language and cultural identities thereby building their confidence;
- b. It connects the home to the school;
- c. It promotes learner centred teaching through recognising learners linguistics abilities and backgrounds;
- d. It democratises the classroom and prevents symbolic violence;
- e. It promotes understanding of content during learning;
- f. Enhances classroom participation by learners in various communicative activities;
- g. Provides opportunities for learners to ask and seek clarification in ways that are affordable to them;
- h. It is a decolonial tool linguistically and pedagogically; and
- i. It forms a central part of eclectic teaching where multiple strategies are used in a n integrated manner in ways that places the learner at the centre of the

teaching and learning process.

In conclusion, it can be reiterated that curriculum developers and teachers need to adopt translanguaging as pedagogic practice. It is not coincidence that the Communicative Language Teaching Method and the Eclectic method to language teaching both recognise the role of mother tongue in second and foreign language instruction. Teaching serves learners and not methods or policies. In this view, it is imperative that translanguaging becomes an integral part of language methodology, especially in multilingual contexts from primary to secondary school. This also has implications on teacher education programmes where student teachers have to be taught and prepared to use translanguaging in a transformative and pedagogically empowering manner.

14.3.3 Situating Translanguaging in the Classroom Space

One notable limitation that has been cited, as regards the use of translanguaging, is the issue of the teacher's knowledge of the learners' home languages. What happens in a situation where the teacher does not know his or her learners' languages? Our response to the question is that teachers who find themselves in this scenario should make use of all the available linguistic resources such as: dictionaries, electronic translation, real objects, multilingual graphic organisers, videos, audios, colleagues in school, and the learners themselves.

Below are illustrations of English language lessons on vocabulary, speaking and listening, reading and writing. In these illustrations, we attempt to show how the teacher can employ multiple languages and materialities to engender learning in a multilingual classroom. Focus in these four illustrations is on the classroom activities, which the teacher can use to teach English in a multilingual space.

14.3.3.1 Translanguaging in the Teaching of English Vocabulary

Step 1: Teacher displays words with drawings on the board.

Step 2: Teacher explains the words to the class. Learners listen.

Step 3: Learners are put in groups to discuss the following question: In your own languages including other languages you know, what is a "house" a "chicken", a "bird" a "tree"?

Step 4: Groups report to the whole class. Names are displayed on charts for all to see. Followed by clarifications, explanations, questions and so on.

Step 5: Learners are asked to construct some sentences in English, then in the languages discussed.

Step 6: Learners are allowed to make dictionary entries as follows:

House, Chicken, Bird, Tree.

Citonga	Nyanja	Silози	Luvale	Kikaonde	Lunda	Bemba

Plus, any other languages discussed in groups.



House



Bird



Tree



Chicken

14.3.3.2 Translanguaging in the Teaching of Speaking and Listening

Learners listen to a factual detail or a story in the target language then they are given a task of expressing it in their own language or and any other languages they know.

14.3.3.3 Translanguaging in the Teaching of Reading

Learners are given a text to read in the target language, then they complete the tasks on it in other languages.

14.3.3.4 Translanguaging in the Teaching of Teaching writing

Learners are given a text on a topic. They read it then they are asked to write about it in other languages (their own including those they know). (Lewis Jones, Baker, 2012).

14.4 Reflections of Learner Identity and the pedagogy

From the foregoing, learner identity is informed by different markers. Each learner will come to the classroom with multiple identities. For example, one learner may be

fat, tall, white, orphaned and less gifted. Another may be a rich, short, ugly and black Nsenga child. In addition to these identities, these children will be associated with identities of their religious affiliations, families and general wealth. Classrooms are spaces where multiple identities are gathered, circulated and sometimes recognised and misrecognised. It is also important to realise that learners have changing identities at home and at school. For example, some learners especially in under resourced countries such as Zambia, Malawi and many more may be bread winners at home but a pupil at school. Some learners may be orphans and therefore have to do a lot of manual work at home before and after school. Yet, there are some learners who may already be accomplished in life through inherited/parents' wealth and have no intrinsic motivation to learn. While other learners may come to school as parents themselves or as wives and husbands at home and change into the identity of a learner at school. These identities have huge potential to affect their participation, attendance and communicative power in language classrooms. Learner performance in both formative and summative assessments need to be analysed holistically by considering the wider context and the identities which surround the learner. Some learners, often identified as less gifted by teachers, are actually not less gifted but are simply disempowered by their family backgrounds worsened by discrimination and stigma they suffer in school and the classroom. Teachers and school authorities need to take deliberate efforts to understand each learner from multiple viewpoints and devise potential barriers and forces in their schooling and find ways of helping different learners including providing differentiated instruction. Some learners come from primary school unable to read and write for various reasons. It is crucial for teachers to know that a lot of factors may contribute to what they see. In that sense, remedial teaching, including democratic language practices like translanguaging become indispensable strategies in achieving and enhancing equity in language classrooms. Note also that learner centred pedagogy also means that as a starting point, the teacher should have the knowledge of the identities of the learners and that is when he or she can plan and deliver lessons which respond to the learning needs of diverse learners. Similarly, eclectic teaching calls for an appreciation of the learner identities so that the blend of methodologies is informed by classroom exigencies and more specifically identities of learners. To this end, it can be argued that good teachers are those who know their learners and bad ones don't bother knowing their learners and therefore base their teaching on broad assumptions about learners and learning, which often times, do not support learning.

10.5 Summary

In summary, it can be reiterated that successful teaching and learning processes largely depends on identity negotiation. Teachers need to understand each learner's identity so that they can apply inclusive and differentiated teaching pedagogies.

CONCLUSION

Although the current methods (Communicative and Task-based) in the teaching of second or foreign languages have remained popular worldwide, they have been criticised for firstly, sidelining the teaching of grammar. That is, language accuracy. Their emphasis is more on spoken language (meaning or sense).

The class activities proposed in these approaches are normally textbook-based and are usually imitated by learners. In this way, creative language input is limited. It should be noted that classroom environment cannot be equated to the real world environment or at least not fully equate to it.

What is required, I think, is to do more research on the mechanism of learning and accompany new proposals and methods with more experimental evidence before we bring them into the classroom. Abstract constructs may be well elaborated and their elements may also be logically intertwined, but something more than that is needed for them to work in practice.

So in this vein, our advocacy for translanguaging and negotiated curriculum is not in any way a suggestion that these are methods teachers have been waiting for. All we are recommending is a democratic learning process in which learners should feel free to use their linguistic repertoires and equally participate in the construction of the curriculum. Translanguaging and negotiated curriculum seem to respond to these needs at least for the time being.

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ANNEXES

Annex 1

METHODS CENTRED ON LEARNING

1. The Community Language Learning

- The method was developed by Charles A. Curren an American Psychologist.
- Emerged in the 1960s at Chicago Loyola University.
- Influenced by the humanistic psychology.
- Based on the works of Carl Rogers.
- Focuses on oral-aural skills.

2. The Total Physical Response

- Developed by James Asher a professor of psychology.
- Emerged in the 1960s.
- Focuses on oral comprehension before oral production (listening and obeying the teacher's commands).
- Priority to the message not the form. That is, performing actions (Learning Through actions).

3. The Natural Method

- Developed by Stephen D Krashen and Tracy Terell.
- Publicised in the 1970s.
- Focus on the natural process of learning a language.
- Priority to comprehension input.
- Absence of the teaching of grammar.

4. The Silent Way

- Developed by Caleb Gattegno.
- Emerged in the 1960s.
- Use of sound-color and Fidel Charts.
- Use of coloured square rulers.

5. The Suggestopedia (Applied Suggestology).

- Can be traced to medical practices such as animal magnetism, hypnotism, psychotherapy and so on. (Germain 1993 p271).
- Developed by Gergi Lazanov.
- Emerged in the 1960s.
- In order to facilitate language learning, it is important to first remove the psychological barriers blocking learning.
- We need to "Lesuggestioner" ourselves for language learning to take place.

Annex 2

Guidelines for Analysing an Approach or Method

Introduction: Conception of Language

1. The nature of language.
2. Nature of the culture.

Conception of Learning

3. The nature of learning.
4. The role of the learner.

Conception of teaching.

5. The role of the teacher.
6. The role of didactic materials.

Conception of the pedagogical relationship.

7. Didactic relationship
 - Content selection.
 - Content organisation.
 - Content presentation.
8. Learning relationship.
 - Role of L1.
 - Pedagogical activities.
9. Teaching relationship.
 - Interaction between teacher and learners.
 - Error treatment.

Source: A reproduction of C Germain's annex (1993, p343).