बी.एड. स्पेशल (मुक्त एवं दूरस्थ शिक्षा)

स्व-अधिगम सामग्री

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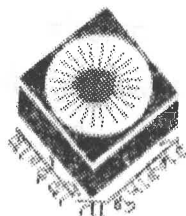
First Year

Pedagogy of Teaching English

मध्यप्रदेश भोज (मुक्त) विश्वविद्यालय, भोपाल (म.प्र.)

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Self Learning Material

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First Year

PEDAGOGY OF TEACHING ENGLISH

Madhya Pradesh Bhoj (Open) University
BHOPAL (M.P.)

Index

Block IV : Instrumental Material

Block V : Evaluation

Block I :

Nature of English Language & Literature

Unit 1 :   Principles of Language Teaching

Unit 2 :   Language Proficiency: Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills (BICS) and Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency(CALP)

Unit 3 :   English Language in the school context: An Evolutionary Perspective

Unit 4 :   Current Trends in Modern English Literature in Indian context

Unit 5 :   Teaching as second language in Indian context.

NOTES

1.1 | Principles of Language Teaching

Study material included in this unit -

- Objectives
- Introduction
- Language Teaching
- Activity Based Language Teaching and Learning
- Communicative Teaching and Learning
- Examination useful questions

Objectives

After study this chapter you will understand the following facts.

- Language Teaching
- Activity Based Language Teaching and Learning
- Communicative Teaching and Learning

Introduction

It is significant to recognize that methods link brainwork and activity because teaching is not entirely about one or the other. Of course this is as true about your own teaching as it is about any strategy you will read about in this book. As a teacher of language, you have thoughts about your subject matter-what language is, what culture is-and about your students-who they are as learners and how it is they learn. You also have thoughts about yourself as a teacher and what you can do to help your students to learn. Many of your brainwork have been formed by your own experience as a language learner. It is very significant for you to become aware of the thoughts that guide your agility in the classroom. With this awareness, you are able to examine why you do what you do and it may be choose to think about or do things otherwise. As an example, let us relate an anecdote about a teacher with whom Diane Larsen- Freeman was working some time ago. We will call her Heather, even so that is not her real name. From her study of methods in Stevick (1980), Heather became interested in how to work with teacher domination and student initiative in her teaching.

Heather determined that during her student teaching internship, she would exercise less control of the lesson in order to inspire her students to take more hustate. She decided to narrow the goal down to having the students take the initiative in posing the questions in the classroom, diagnose that so often it is the teacher who asks all the questions, not the students.

Diane was Heather's teaching supervisor. When Diane came to observe her, Heather was very disappoint. She felt that the students were not taking the hustate that she was trying to get them to take, but she could not see what wasinaccurate.

When Diane steped in class, she noticed the following:

HEATHER: Juan, ask Anna what she is wearing.

JÜAN: What are you wearing?

ANNA: I am wearing a dress.

HEATHER: Anna, ask Muriel what she is writing.

ANNA: What are you writing?

Language Teaching:

Languages are taught and learned in various places, some in breezy settings, others in formal contexts, such as classrooms. It is common knowledge that regardless of the method used, second language learners achieve mastery of the target language to varying degrees. Although 10 personage may be in the same language class for a year, their conditional proficiency level and profile will be altere from one another. This is the result of a combination of the factors briefly mentioned above, compounded with the pedagogical system that the learner has encountered. Generally speaking, it can be stated that most personage learn to correspond basic information through a conversation in the target language in the first few years of active language study (provided that there are opportunities to use the language to create personal meaning). It is significant to note that mere acknowledgement or contact with the target language in most cases is not appreciate to result in productive language skills.

Second language development follows a developmental process, which coincidence that of the first language. Yet, mature, unlike children, are often more analyticalof themselves and have fears, which children do not experience. Adult learners are also more affected by the type of language input they experience and often control its amount and affirmation, meaning that they can either "tune out" the language if so admiration, or they can seek chance to speed up the learning strategy. Adult learning is a relatively mindful process. Most language learners seem to be able to clear whether they are "good" at learning languages or not, whether they seem to enjoy it or not, and whether they want to go after it or not. Since adults have experimental tools available to them which they use to study other subjects in general, these

same study skills can help them in identifying personally effective and meaningful learning way to second language acquisition.

Cummins (1988) in his classic work has disconnected language skills into two major categories of proficiency. Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills (BICS) typically requires a few years to develop. This means that the language scholar is able to converse about every day affairs and often appears to be a proficient user of the language, being fluent and able to respond to most concrete stimuli. However, according to Cummins, Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency (CALP), the capability which allows the learner to discuss and study conceptual, academic, material in the second language takes several years longer, being the result of years of extended study in the target language. In other words, although a person may be completely capable of carrying on a comment in the target language, that same individual may not be armed with the skills needed to study abstract concepts in the same language. That requires academic knowledge of complex sentence edifice, understanding of the written and spoken rhetoric of the language, and possession of a sophisticated fine-tuned vocabulary. This level of language proficiency is potential only through directed academic study and, therefore, can be achieved only through hard work, native speakers included.

Working adults often have the necessary to acquire new knowledge as fast as possible; yet, language places its own routine on the learner and tends not to respond to "cramming." Language requires its own time, for the learning of a language is, indeed, a process. The process can be speeded up by intensive language courses in those cases where the focus is solely on the systematic study of language for several hours each day. Scholarse who, for example, have the chance to attend intensive language courses may be able to advance sooner and take greater leaps of advancement than those who lack the time or the property to do the same.

Activity-Based Language Teaching and Learning

Principle 1 Active Engagement

Scholars play enjoyable, engaging, active roles in the learning experience. Language and literacy development are facilitated by a comfortable atmosphere—not only one that values, encourages, and celebrates efforts but also one that give the appropriate level of challenge to motivate and engage scholars (Cummins, 2007; Guthrie et al., 2004; Jensen, 1998; Sprenger, 1999; Krashen, 2003). When **active engagement** is practiced, language is learned while doing something with it, not just learning it. Language is best viewed as a verb (language as something to use and do) than as a noun (language as a satisfied to be learned). School-age learners develop language and literacy best first by using language as a tool for creating and sharing meanings (Vygotsky, 1986); and after, as they are developmentally ready, by studying interchange structures and fascility as they are needed and used in authentic contexts (Lightbown & Spada, 2006).

Principle 2 Cultural Relevance

Classrooms respect and incorporate the cultures of learners in those classes while helping them to understand the new culture of the people, the school, and the classroom. Teachersplay the most important role in determining the quality and quantity of participation of ELs intheir classrooms. When teachers develop a situation of trust, understand children's social andcultural needs, and model for the rest of the class how they, too, can include English learnersin classroom conversations and activities as significant members of the classroom learning peoples, ELs' active involvement in the classroom and their learning show improvement (Yoon, 2007).

Research has also led to a special consensus concerning the value of fatherly involvement in scholars' school achievement and social development (Cummins, 1986; Delpit, 1995), and in

NOTES

literacy development in special (Bronfenbrenner, 1975; Tizard, Schofield, & Hewison, 1982; Heath, 1983; Snow, Burns, & Griffin, 1998; Reese, Garnier, Gallimore, & Goldenberg, 2000). Creating a culturally susceplible and culturally relevant classroom goes beyond "parental involvement" and requires thoughtfulness and effort on the part of teachers to learn about students' cultures from students themselves, families, people members, and library and Internet resources; to appraisal and include what learners bring to the classroom from their cultures; and to take into account the various world views represented in the classroom.

Creating such a classroom requires an understanding of culture that is deeper than viewing the "exotic" differences between cultures, or focusing on holidays, foods, and impasts. Instead, it integrates a multicultural perspective on the every day life of the classroom (Derman-Sparks & Edwards, 2010).

Principle 3 Collaboration

Scholars develop and practice language in collaboration with each other and with teachers. As language is a tool for meaning-making, and communication and thinking are developed through using language to consummate things (Vygotsky, 1986), and as learning cooperatively has been shown to be effective at improving learning (Kessler, 1991; Slavin, 1995), so instruction should be organized to facilitate interaction and combination. Learning should contribute twoway experiences through which learners solve problems, consult meaning, and demonstrate what they have learned.

Principle 4 Learning Strategies

Scholars use a variety of language and learning systems to expand learning beyond the classroom and to become independent, lifelong learners. Learning strategies (also called learner strategies) (Chamot & O'Malley, 1996; Nunan, 1996; Oxford, 1996; Lessard-Clouston, 1997) are steps taken by scholars to enhance their learning and develop their language competence.

These systems can be observable behaviors, steps, or techniques, such as SQ3R (survey, question, read, recite, review) (Robinson, 1970), a studying strategy, or nonobservable thoughtsor mental practices, such as visualization or positive thinking. eventual learners do use strategiesunconsciously, the focus in teaching learning systems is to bring them to the scholars'attention and make them consciously part of the learners' repertoire. Learning strategiesallow learners to control and direct their own learning. These systems also expand the roleof languageteachers beyond teaching language to that of assisting learners develop their ownstrategies. They are generally acclimatize toward solving problems and can involve many aspectsof language to be learned beyond the subjective.

Communicative Teaching and Learning

Principle 5 Differentiation

Learning activities accommodate different language, literacy, and subjective levels and incorporate many dimensions of learning: different learning styles, intelligences, and preferences.

All scholars are not the same: they have different native intelligence, learned intelligence, learning styles, and preferences. Including English scholars in a grade-level classroom expands the differences by adding different language training, educational levels, cultural experiences, experiences of culture change, and sometimes the trauma of war, famine, or poverty.

When scholars are limited in their comprehension of English, giving input through other means—pictures, gestures, sounds, movement, graphics—helps give them the "hook" they need to be included in the classroom discussion. Effective differentiation to include English scholars involves expanding the dimensions of learning across various learning styles—verbal, auditory, kinesthetic—and different brilliance. Gardner's (1983, 1996) categories of brilliance include linguistic (language, e.g., writer), logical-mathematical (e.g., mathematician or engineer), musical (guitarist), bodily-kinesthetic brilliance (athlete, dancer), spatial intelligence (artist, designer), interpersonal brilliance (counselor, politician), intrapersonal brilliance (philosopher), and naturalist (oceanographer). Teachers differentiate the language they use and recommend in the classroom, the

content they use, the classroom systems, the output that learners are asked to produce, and the assessment of those products. Many states and school districts are implementing a model called response to intervention (RTI) to provide previous intervention for at-risk scholars, but in this book, we also explain how it can be used within a framework of differentiated learning. We will introduce culturally and linguistically responsive RTI in this chapter, and throughout the book, we offer RTI Samplers to narrate how the principles and practices we propose can be used through culturally and linguistically responsive RTI.

Principle 6 Comprehensible Input with Scaffolding

Teachers provide rich input with appropriate context and support, to make that input comprehensible to learners, and appropriately and increasingly more challenging. English scholars cannotlearn from language they do not understand. Comprehensible input is a term first used by StevenKrashen (2003) that refers to language applyed by teachers and others in ways that English scholars can understand as their language ability is developing. It ties back to Vygotsky's (1986) thinking about the social nature of learning. Oral and written input from teachers can be adapted to convey meaning to language learners at differents levels and to be more understandable in a variety of ways. To make scholars better understand oral language in the classroom, teachers make sure they face scholars when they speak (so that scholars can see their mouths and facial expressions), speak slowly, and articulate clearly (so that scholars can listen the separate words), and increase wait time (the time after a question is asked before a student or students are inquire to respond). To improve the comprehensibility of written input, teachers select texts with rich graphic elements and teach scholars how to understand and use these graphics; teach scholars to use a variety of print and online sources to find word meanings, pronunciations, and examples of use; teach scholars to organize and keep their own vocabulary notebooks or personal dictionaries (see example in Figure 1.2); give alternate texts when texts are clearly beyond scholars comprehension; and use a variety of systems to help students access texts that are near their instructional level. Table 1.2 suggests means to increase comprehensible input both orally

and in writing. Strategies and techniques in Chapter 5, Oral Language Development, and in Chapters 8 and 9 on studying and writing will expand on these ideas to add to your sepertory of tools to support English learners by assisting them to understand the language of your classroom.

Principle 7 Prior Knowledge

Teachers help learners use their prefference knowledge of language, content, and the world to develop new language and increase learning. If we already know a lot about a topic— globalwarming, for instance—we will find television programs, spech, or written materials onglobal hatness much easier to follow. If a scholar has learned many about a topic in his homelanguage, it is easier to develop new language about that topic. Prior knowledge or backgroundknowledge is key to comprehension for all learners (Marzano, Pickering, & Pollock, 2004), but it is of particular significant for English learners. If learners are less familiar with a topic and frames of the oral discussion or written text, they will have more hard with comprehension (Upala et al., 2007; Carrell & Eisterhold, 1988). Language hard increases with cognitive hard, unfamiliarity, and lack of context. So, when developing language with English learners, teachers must work to start where students are. This includes searching out what pupils already know about a new topic and assisting them to make joines between what they already know and what they are learning. It includes making joines between learners' fashions and stimultating knowledge and the new fashion of the school and the people. It also may include, at starting levels, selecting topics that learners are likely to be familiar with, giving necessary background statements on new topics in home languages, Pre teaching key vocabulary to expand background knowledge before reading a topic, or helping learners make connections between what they know about language in their home language (L1) to uses of this knowledge in English (L2). It also might include giving background illumination in L1 before proceeding to read a theme or topic in L2. In a bilingual classroom, gratified could be taught in two languages. In a monolingual classroom teachers might, for example, have scholars read or listen to a home language substance of a text before they will be reading it in English.

NOTES

Principle 8 Content Integration

Language learning is integrated with meaningful, relevant, and useful content—generally the same academic gratified and higher-order thinking skills that are appropriate for the age and grade of scholars. Teaching language along with age-appropriate academic content has several advantages: it is efficient because two goals—procurement of language and gratified learning—are accomplished at once. It is impressive first because language is learned better when learners are doing something purposeful and important to them—and learning the content for their grade level is very significant. It is also necessary because scholars cannot afford to take a year or two off from gratified learning while they develop language: they will end up only further behind their peers. Content-based language learning can happen in a variety of settings: in a pull-out English language development (ELD) class (also called an ESL class), in which the teacher introduces satisfied through integrated themes (this is often applied with newcomers/beginners); in a special section of a content class with a grade-level teacher with training in teaching ELD who teaches the satisfied using approaches that make the content comprehensible to language student and promote language development (this is now and than done in middle and high schools with significant numbers of English learners); or in grade-level classes that include both English proficient scholars and English language learners and in which teachers have training to attend to both gratified and language needs of learners and to differentiate instruction to include scholars at different language and learning levels. These integrated models are used because research findings have shown that they are the most impressive at both language learning and gratified learning for English scholars (Cummins, 1986; Thomas & Collier, 2003). Teachers can differentiate through adapting the language, content, process, or output classrooms (Tomlinson, 1999).

Principle 9 Clear, Appropriate Goals and Feedback

Teachers set and communicate attainable goals for learners and give students appropriate and consistent feedback on their progress in attaining these goals. Setting clear goals helps both teachers and learners have a much big chance to attain those aims. Goals

begin our modules, inform our modules, and new, more advanced goals are the outcome of our curriculum.

As John Dewey once said, "Arriving at one goal is the starting point to another."

We expect English learners to attain the as it is high goals as their English-proficient peers, but to do this, we must set the right goals—goals that comprise the next step go ahead for individual learners. Learners want to do well, and will do much better when they understand what is expected of them and when our hopes are appropriate. We must establish clear language and content goals for learners and provide them feedback on their progress toward those goals. We can also, in developmentally accurate ways, encourage learners to begin to evaluate their own develop toward accomplishing goals to help them become free, self-motivated learners.

We must determine intermediary steps toward grade-level standards that are attainable at learners' language level. World-Class informatory Design and Assessment (WIDA), a consortium of states dedicated to the design and implementation of high standards and equitable educational chance for English language learners, collaborated with the standards of the professional organization Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages globally Association (TESOL) for school-age scholars of English (Gottlieb, Cranley, & Cammilleri, 2007; TESOL, 2006). These English language proficiency standards in the core gratified areasfor grades PK-12 outline standards for teaching English student the language they necessary to develop essential content concepts. The general standards are included on Table 1.4. The standards document offers wants in the areas of language arts, science, math, and social read for learners at five grade-level clusters of English language proficiency (PreK–K, 1–3, 3–5, 6–8, nd 9–12) across the domains of listening, talking, studying, and writing. Many states and districts have purposeful their own standards for English learners and selected equipments to assess their achievement.

But good assessment goes far beyond summative tests at the starting or end of the year. Good assessment includes multiple assessments. Good teaching includes assessment as an integral

NOTES

part of every chapter so that children and teachers can clearly see the develop they are building. Teachers may assess in many ways that range from informal to formal: by asking questions of personal, groups, and the whole class; by having learners give signs or signals; by having learners demonstrate their understanding with reply on slates; by providing group quiz; by having learners score themselves along a rubric or on a checklist; by keeping checklists of scholars accomplishments; by writing portfolios; by using state and national English language assessment instruments; and when scholar are ready, by giving district, state, and national norm- referenced or standardized tests designed for all learners.

We have now outlined nine rules included in two dimensions— rules that we hope will guide you toward supporting the learning of English language learners in your setting. Table 1.6 summarizes these principles for your review. The following lesson will show these principles at work in various matter of your instructional program for English language scholars in organizing your classroom, teaching oral language vocabulary, reading, writing, assessing, and putting it all together through content-based learning.

Examination Useful Questions

Long Type Questions :

1. Why is language teaching necessary ? Explain.

2. Discuss the principle of Language Teaching and Learning.

3. What do you understand by communicative teaching.

Short Type Questions :

1. Write few lines about Language Teaching.

2. What do you mean by Cultural Relevance ? Explain.

3. What is Learning Strategies ? Discuss.

4. What do you know about comprehensible input with scaffolding ?

1.2 | Language Proficiency: Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills (BICS) and Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency

Study material included in this unit -

- Objectives
- Introduction
- International communication is hamanity's greatest accomplishment
- Why do we need
- Can we improve our communication skills ?
- Cognitive academic language proficiency
- Examination useful questions

Objectives

After study this chapter you will understand the following facts.

- International communication is hamanity's greatest accomplishment
- Why do we need
- Can we improve our communication skills ?
- Cognitive academic language proficiency

Introduction

Present federal legislation needs that all scholars must perform well on stateissued proficiency tests in order that educational equity is realized and that high academic standards are upheld. Teachers are provided the task of addressing the low achievement of particular populations that have been historically or practically dishonorable. The challenge is to discover the particular vacants in knowledge or skill that keep these cognitively able scholars. the past twenty years, a number of researchers have addressed one area that recurrently surfaces as a disparity between high achieving and low achieving scholars. Language proficiency has been identified by various authors, among different subgroups as a major factor.

One group of researchers has focused their efforts on the special reasons that underlie the failure of bilingual scholars to negotiate western schooling successfully. Jim Cummins has developed a theoretical framework that relies on linguistic information and qualitative research in his articles, "Empirical and Theoretical Underpinnings of Bilingual Education," (1981), "Language, Power and Pedagogy: married Children in the Crossfire," (2000) and "Reading and the Bilingual Scholars : Fact and Friction," (2003c). He makes a distinction between language that is generally used in conversational English (Basic Interpersonal Communicative Skills or BICS) and language that is used in written academic contexts (Cognitive/Academic Language efficiency or CALP) in his articles "Putting Language efficiency in Its Place: Answering to Critiques of the Conversational/Academic Language Distinction," (2003b) and "BICS and CALP." (2003a). David Corson, supports this understanding by his examination of written and spoken English language in Language Diversity and Education (2001). He narrates that written and spoken English language are essentially different:

The Graeco-Latin vocabulary of English creates special hard for children from some sociocultural backgrounds. This academic vocabulary is different in important ways from the basic vocabulary of English. Apart from conceptual difficulty, academic words tend to be much longer; they tend to be various in shape;

they are drawn almost completely from Latin and Greek, rather than from Anglo-Saxon sources; they emerge very rarely or not more in daily language use. Academic Graeco-Latin words are mainly literary in their rules of use. Most native speakers start to encounter these words in quantity in their upper primary school studying and in the formal secondary school setting. So their inauguration in literature or textbooks, rather than in conversation, restricts people's access to them.

This difference in language explained the small difference in academic performance that is described between bilingual students and monolingual scholars in early elementary school, which rapidly widens in later elementary school and results in important failure or drop out rates by high school. Even though a scholar may speak English so they are understood in conversation, they may not have the language efficiency to understand and manipulate the language that is used and hoped in the schools from fourth grade onward.

Other research indicates that other subgroups besides ESL students share the susceptibility to scrabble with academic advancement, and connect language efficieney as a major culprit. Some key research in this area done by David Corson has made the connection between language ability in different groups (including aboriginal peoples, newcomer, urban poor and minority language groups) and low literary performance.

Through the lens of a postmodern worldview, Corson gives an significant explanation of the indulgence for addressing the academic deficits of certain subgroups in order to give justice and reduce partiality. Pertinent literature in this regard is Changing Education for Diversity (1998), Language Policy in Schools: A expendient for Teachers and Administrators (1999) and Language Diversity and Education (2001). A well-knownlongitudinal study that established the "fourth-grade gap" among poor scholars was The Reading Crisis: Why Poor Children Fall Behind, by Chall, Jacobs, and Baldwin (1990). Another critical reading that verified that many low-achieving scholars have no access to formal language registers at home was "exchange Features of Written Mexican Spanish: Current Research in Contrastive Rhetoric

NOTES

and Its Implications" by Montano-Harmon (1991) as quoted in the continuing research on linguistic capacity related to academic achievement of low-income scholars conducted by Ruby Payne in A Framework forUnderstanding Poverty (2003).

Finally, the read relies on research by Anna Uhl Chamot and J. Michael O'Malley in The CALLA Handbook: Implementing the subjective Academic Language Learning Approach (1994) and Chamot, Sarah Barnhardt, Pamela Beard El-Dinary and ill Robbins in The Learning Systems Handbook (1999) who have applied Cummins' framework by developing a system to implement the theory. The approach is designed individually for language minority scholar, but has a chapter recommend its application to a much wider population including compensatory and remedial programs and students with learning disabilities, though no research for those populations has been found.

The program attraction on integration of three major components to improve performance: "language development; content area instruction; explicit didactic in learning systems." This study proposes to make the connection between the theory of Cognitive/Academic Language Effeciency (CALP) and achievement on Ohio efficiency. Tests, using a quasiexperimental model and a treatment of low-performing scholars with an intensive compensatory program utilizing the CALLA methodology. It proposes to use a small test group to show that Cognitive/Academic Language Proficiency narrate one cause of poor performance. Because learning and students are complex and personal, it is not suggested that a language ineffiency will be the reason that all students fail to perform successfully. However, this research may shed light on one reason that will direct more effective tutor, thus leading to higher proficiency achievement.

INTERPERSONAL COMMUNICATION IS HUMANITY'S GREATEST ACCOMPLISHMENT

Mutual communication is humanity's most significant characteristic and its greatest accomplishment. It is humans ability to turn meaningless grunts into spoken and written words, by which they are capacity to make known their needs, wants, ideas and

feelings. Interpersonal Communication is a complex system that can be narrate in simplified terms by a Sender and a Receiver who interchange messages containing ideas and feelings, mixed together.

The Sender encodes the messages using Verbal, Vocal and Visual elements.

The words form the Verbal element.

The Vocal suspicion includes the tone and straength of our voice and the "music of our language".

The Visual element incorporates everything the Receiver can see. It might be a amaze to you but the Visual, non-verbal suspicious is the most powerful element, grabbing and catching Receiver's attention. Vocal and Verbal elements follow.

The Receiver takes in the messages and decode them by sorting out and make clear the elements according to their own experiences, beliefs and needs.

WHY DO WE NEED

Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills (BICS)?

We cannot be human alone.

We live in a world filled with other people.

We live together, work together and play together.

We necessary each other for security, at home, friendship and love.

We need each other to mature through dialogue.

We need each other to achieve our goals and objectives.

None of these necessary could be addressed without mutual communication.

We communicate in order to:

Get acquainted

Express sampathy to others

Share information

Persuade others to understand our personal views

Build relationships

Mutual Communication is the lifeblood of every relationship. Good relations are nurtured by open, clear and sensitive communication.

We are able to send information from the moon, but we find it hard to relate to those we love. Ineffective communication causes loneliness, quarrels, family problems, professional dissatisfactions, psychological stress, physical illness and even death, when communication breaks down.

Emperor Frederick, the 13th century ruler of the Holy Roman Empire wanted to know what language had been spoken at the birth of human in the Garden of Eden. Was it Hebrew, Greek or Latin? He ordered an experiment in which the original situation would be rebuilding as closely as possible. A group of infants were to be isolated from hearing human speech from the moment of birth until they told their language. The babies were to be raised by care taker who were strictly charged to maintain complete silence when with the babies. The result? Every one of the babies died. The lack of communication can be lethal.

From Robert Bolton, People Skills

CAN WE IMPROVE OUR COMMUNICATION SKILLS?

It would be a complete world if communication would work as in the Science Fiction movie "Star Trek", where Mr. Spock, by touching skulls, transferred knowledge from one mind to another in a faultless process – free of mistake, emotional content and personal perspectives. miserably in our world, mind melting is not available. We have to struggle with an imperfect system containing considerable opportunities for transmission breakdowns.

Many people are discouraged about their transmission skills. We hope you are not one of those who tend to think that the way they talk and speak is a "given" like the color of their eyes.

We trust the opposite and hope to be able to persuade you that:

Everyone can learn to communicate more efficiently

Everyone can change.

Actually change is inevitable, so everyone will change. People change frequently from infancy to old age. And the law of change says: "Things do not stay the same. If they don't get better, they get worse".

If the quarrel does not decrease it will escalate.

If relationships do not get stronger, they will get weaker.

If the relations do not become closer, they will become more far.

If the relations do not become more productive, they will become less productive.

It is significant to have the transmission skills to manage changes than to let them happen to you.

People who understand the communication system have more control over it and less breakdowns.

This handbook will help you foster the kinds of changes you desire by improving your understanding of the Interpersonal transmission process, focusing on:

- Communication Roadblocks

  o   The way our minds work

  o   Sender's conduct

  o   Receiver's conduct

- How to success Communication Roadblocks by

  o   Listening, Listening, Listening

  o   Reading, Reading, Reading body language

  o   Speaking

  o   Skill Training

Pattern is a printing stamp, used to built multiple copies from a single mould. Walter Lippmann in his 1920 book "Public Opinion" used the term to describe the way people categorize – stamp – human beings with a set of temperament.

Pattern is a natural function of the human mind, aimed to simplify the complex reality and make our body and mind develop responses to similar catalyst.

Pattern in social relations has a useful function by classifying individuals and helping us predict their nature and plan our reactions.

But Stereotyping is also hazardous. Cultural stereotypes frequently result from or lead to prejudices, negative opinions about others. Stereotypes and Prejudices are sources of communication unsuccess, and more than that, of bad actions and ugly discrimination based on the oversimplification of any race of people into exclusive, negative pattern can have tragic consequences such as prejudicen, violence and in extreme cases, genocide.

We often find people stereotyped around temperament of:

Age: all teenagers love rock and roll and do not respect the elders

Sex: men want just one thing from a woman

Race: all Chinese people look alike

Religion: all those belonging to Islam are gunman

Vocation: all advocates are greedy

Nationality: all Roma people are dirty

Places: all people living in a certain city are lazy

Things: all Swiss watches are perfect

Pattern have four main characteristics :

They are more simple that the reality

They are obtained from "cultural middleman" rather than own experience

They are erroneous by their very nature

They are resistant to change when absorbed in childhood, stubbornly coloring our consciousness and behavior.

A conventional folk story from Vietnam explains us what is the difference between hell and heaven. In hell, people have tableware that are a yard long so that they cannot reach their mouths.

In paradise, the chopsticks are the same length - but people all feed one another. None of us can effectively respond to discrmination toward ourselves, but we can each intervene to help others.

COGNITIVE ACADEMIC LANGUAGE PROFICIENCY (CALP)

Increasing language variegation is one of the greatest challenges and chance for Teachers. According to a recent report, "the 5.4 million LEP (Limited English Proficient) scholars in schools are our fastest-growing scholar population and are hoped to make up one out of every four students by 2025." There are accordant data from multiple sources that indicates teachers are not meeting the needs of diverse learners. The resulting achievement gaps are especially pronounced in low-income and city communities. According one researcher, certain trends continue to keep true in some subject areas, including language arts. For example,

In 1999, by the end of high school only 1 in 50 Latinos and 1 in 100 African American 17-year-olds can read and gain instruction from specialized text—such as the science section in the newspaper (compared to about 1 in 12 whites), and fewer than one-quarter of Latinos and one-fifth of African Americans can read the hard but less particular text that more than half of white scholars can read (Haycock, 2001).

While educational inequity is certainly a daunting challenge, this thesis focused peculiarly on how linguistic research informs teaching practices to address the learning needs of ELL (English Language Learners) in today's classrooms. The work of one linguist, researcher Jim Cummins, was particularly relevant to the targets of this study. Cummins has focused on language acquisition in married children. His research began with a study conducted in 1979 that was based on the previous work of Swedish scientist Skuthabb-Kangas Toukomaa (1976). Cummins and his team followed the progress of recent Swedish immigrants as they acquired a second language, English. They noticed two important patterns in the language acquisition process. First, efficiency in the first language (L1) helped to develop the sec-

27

NOTES

ond language (L2). Cummins used the term developmental freedom to describe this interaction. The second observation was that older Swedish children seemed to do better at acquiring L2 proficiency. This observation led Cummins to trust that there was a difference between surface speedily and cognitively or academically related efficiency (1983).

In time, Cummins began to explain surface fluency as basic interpersonal conversation skills (BICS), while higher level efficiency was called cognitive academic language proficiency (CALP). Thus, the BICS/CALP distinction was born to explain the different stages of second language acquisition.

As Cummins continued his work with married children, other patterns began to emerge. A study behaviour in 1981 revealed a specific time-line for the development of CALP. Most bilingual scholar were fluent in the second language 0-2 years after reach; however, it took much longer, 5-7 years, for bilingual scholar to approach normal levels of CALP. This was a important finding considering the economical, but less than effective, "quick exit" language programs of the 1980s. During this time, many school districts operated on shorted budgets. In an try to save money and reduce class sizes, ELL scholars were rushed through language programs. Many educators by mistake felt that language students with efficient BICS levels had full mastery of the English language. Later, literacy test results showed that married scholars were unfairly inconvenience. Cummins writes, "Assessments created academic deficits because they failed to distinguish between L2 BICS and L2 CALP" (1983). One of the greatest convenience of the BICS/CALP distinction is that it prevented the inappropriate use of standardized tests and intervened successfully to reverse inappropriate labeling and/or placement of scholars (Cummins 1983).

In addition to providing educators with a new way of speaking about second language acquisition, the BICS/CALP framework also provides a continuum for explaining language ctivities in the studyroom. This continuum is based on two intersecting ranges of cognitively requiring and undemanding activities and context embedded vs. context reduced activities (see Appendix B).

Cummins's continuum (1981) together and builds on the preferance work of other linguists (Bruner, 1975; Donaldson 1978; and Olson 1977). Educators can assist scholars in acquiring CALP by scaffolding language instruction. The idea is to begin in quadrant A with context-embedded, cognitively undemanding activities and slowly progress to quadrant D, which includes fewer contexts and is more cognitively acquiring. Cummins's continuum has extremely influenced married education and the way in which classroom language activities are assessed.

While many students have recognized how Cummins's work subsidize to the on-going\academic discussion related to second language acquisition (e.g. Cline & Frederickson, 1996), a recent article published by Maren Aukerman enquire whether "the CALP designation itself tells us anything pedagogically useful about the children in question" (2007). Aukerman acknowledges the positive orientation of the distinction –mainly, that it gives teachers with a way of speaking about second language acquisition and considers the scholars' proficiency in the native language—but feels that the BICS/CALP distinction is too narrowly defined and does not adequately represent a child's language capacities. Aukerman writes, "Pedagogically, there is no 'prerequisite language' for overcome, no such thing as 'not enough CALP': there is only starting from where each particular child is, and working to help new academic material become sensible and relevant" (2007). Often it is the necessary element of relevance that Aukerman feels is lossing from language assessments and activities. The author concludes by summarizing the differences between decontextualized and recontextualized language. Necessarily, Aukerman is stating that reading instructors should seek to more fully understand the student's home literacy and frame of reference rather than categorizing them by using Cummins's BICS/CALP distinction. Cummins has also been reprimand by childhood reading specialist Carol Edelsky, who questions the way in which Cummins and his colleges define literacy—studying and writing activities—in terms of accomplishment test scores and "exercises with artificial texts" (1983). She believes that once Cummins's limited definitions of literacy are welcomed,

"it becomes necessary to describe failure...by blaming the learner, the instructor, the language of instruction, the materials, anything but examining the validity of how literacy was conceptualized in the first place" (1983). In addition to criticizing Cummins's research framework, Edelsky has debate that "the notion of CALP promotes a 'deficit theory' insofar as it attributes the academic failure of married/minority scholar to low cognitive/academic efficiency rather than to inappropriate schooling" (1990). Edelsky, like Cummins, is a supporter of married education, but feels that literacy incorporates a much broader spectrum of classroom works that cannot be classified according to the BICS/CALP distinction. In addition, Edelsky has uphald for a more holistic approach to language instruction. Given the discuss expressed Edelsky and Aukerman, this study seeks to examine both the strengths and the limitations of Cummins's framework as it relates to actual teaching practices.

Examination Useful Questions

Long Type Questions :

1. What do you understand by international communication ? Discuss in details.

2. How do we develop our communication skills ? Write in detail and give your opinions.

3. What is the efficiency of cognitive academic language ?

Short Type Questions :

1. Why do necessary of mutual communication skills ? Write in short.

2. Do you feel that discrimination is like diseases in the society ? Give reason.

3. Do you think students should focus on studies only ? If yes, why ? If not, why.

4. Differenciate between spoken and written english language

1.3 | English Language in the school context: An Evolutionary Perspective

Study material included in this unit -

- Objectives
- Introduction
- A Policy For A Range Of English-Teaching Contexts
- Language And Learning In And Out Of School
- An Input-Rich Communicational Environment
- English Does Not Stand Alone
- A Judicious Multilingualism
- The Goals Of Language Teaching And The Question Of Standards
- Evolution Of The English Tool
- What Do States In India Want Their Children To Learn In English?
- International Relations
- Education
- The Future

Objectives

After study this chapter you will understand the following facts.

- A proficiency for a range of english teaching contents.
- Language and learning in and out of school.
- An input-rich communicational environment.
- English does not stand alone.
- A judicious multilingualism.
- The goals of language teaching and the question of standards.
- Evolution of the English tool.
- What do states in India wants their children to learn in english ?
- Education

Introduction

Most people in the world talk more than one language. In fact, when we see at the map of the world and analyze the number of countries (around 150) with thenumber of languages (in the many thousands) It is clear that there must be many speakers of different languages in every country, and that many people must bebilingual (Grosjean, 2010). It is much less well known that there are very manymultilinguals too, that is people who talk three, four or even five languages on adaily basis. This is especially common in Asia, Africa and South America, but also arise among immigrants in Europe and North America. In Malaysia, for example,it is very common to grow up with Chinese and Malay and to learn English at school(Azman, 1999). Multilingualism is dynamically valued in Malaysia, as everyone comprehend that being able to speak three languages gives Malaysia a global competitive edge.

Given the proliferation of native languages in the context of India, multilingualismthrives there in a same way as well. It is the monetary value of multilingualism thatis so important in the growing informal market in sub-Saharan Africa: being able tocommunicate in the language of one's customer is, of course, a distinct convenience.

In Europe and North America it is often the immigrants who are the mostmultilingual. It is not hard to find a taxi driver in New York who emigrated from Haiti, and talk Haitian French Creole, Standard French and, of course, English (Myers-Scotton, 2006).

The convenience of being able to speak more than two languages are not justof a practical nature and are not to be understated. Knowing about the culturesassociated with at variance languages can help to overcome intercultural differencesin communication. In our globalised world we come across people from differentcultures wherever we go: at work, at school, when we go shopping or take part in sports. Because of differences in our cultural background, we sometimesformulate sentences in ways our listeners do not expect. An overseas student inthe UK

might find it difficult, for example, to choose the right politeness level forasking a question. Writing 'Please check' in an email to a tutor at university couldbe seen as impolite, as the tutor might expect to see a longer, less direct request,such as 'Could you please comment on my draft?'. Listeners who are mindful ofintercultural differences wound up their knowledge of other languages and cultureswill be more likely to accept formulations that are various from the expectednorms, which advantages mutual understanding and respect.

It is very common for bilinguals and multilinguals to switch between theirlanguages. Roma children in Bulgaria have been found to switch effortlesslybetween Romani, Turkish and Bulgarian, for example, although they can alsochoose to use Bulgarian only if they meet a monolingual speaker of that language(Kyuchukov, 2002). It is normal for multilinguals to switch between their languageswhenever they meet others who know the same languages. For researchers, a keyquestion is how multilinguals can juggle different languages in their minds, makingsure the right language is chosen depending on the situation and the listeners, and suppress languages that are irrelevant at the moment of speaking.It is this multi-competence, the existence of two or more languages in the mindof the speaker, which makes multilinguals special (Cook, 2008). If we comparethe French sentences produced by French-Dutch bilinguals in Brussels to speakersfrom France who speak only French, we often note there are differences inpronunciation, word choice or word order (Baetens Beardsmore, 1971). As listeners,we often try to pick up on those subtle differences in expressions which showwhere speakers are from, and whether they are native speakers or not. Forpsychologists and linguists it is interesting to find out what this means for theinformation we have stored about our languages in our minds. It probably meansthat French speakers from France or from Brussels have (slightly) different mentalgrammars, and multilinguals who know French, Dutch and English will not be thesame as Dutch-French bilinguals.

NOTES

As cognitive scientists, linguists and psychologists, we put aside the negativeassociations many people have with mixing two languages, speaking witha foreign accent or even false beliefs about the relative utility or superiorityof some languages compared to others. It is true that language produced bybilinguals and multilinguals is different from that of monolinguals, but it is importantto try and understand more deeply why this is so and what the positive effects ofknowing more than one language are. From a cognitive and linguistic perspective,despite finegrained beliefs to the contrary, there are no 'harder' or more 'useful'languages. All languages fulfil the same remit of linking meaning-to-sound/gesturecorrelations for communication and are effortlessly acquired by childrensufficiently exposed to them. By-products of knowing more than one languagecan be labelled as advantages or disadvantages, depending on the outcomeresult applied to specific tasks or situations. What research has revealed in the past decades is that knowing more than onelanguage results in real changes to the mind/brain, some of which entail advantagesfor certain tasks while others present some challenges (see Bialystok, 2009 forreview). We now irrefutably know that exposing children to multiple languagesis not confusing for the child in the least. This might seem counter-intuitive and iseven in sharp contrast to what many well-intentioned people believe and share withconcerned parents, educators and policy makers. However, the research findings onthe topic do not lend any support to this once-prevailing view. This does not meanthat multilingual children follow the exact same developmental paths as monolingualchildren. How could they? By definition, they are not monolingual. Children exposedto multiple languages will often display what appear to be delays in the acquisitionprocess. For example, a child exposed to Hindi, Bengali and English at an early agemight display smaller vocabularies in each of these languages compared to appropriately matched monolingual children. Not only do they eventually catch upand are able to communicate in three languages later, we now know that they are notreally delayed at all. When you add the sum of their three vocabularies together theyfar exceed the lexical knowl-

edge of monolinguals and when you test their linguistic and cognitive development independently they show no signs of true delays.

It should not be alarming, but rather expected, that multilingual children mix the languages they are acquiring at various levels. Research has shown that suchbehaviour is not at all random, but governed by universal principles that conform to expected paths of language learning (e.g. Muysken, 2000). Bilingual children also acquire much earlier concepts about language and its social milieu. Even young multilingual children know that these codes are different entities and are used socially in different ways and with different people.

Beyond being able to communicate with many more people and all that this entails, what are the cognitive benefits, if any, associated with early acquisition of more than one language? Studies show that early multilingualism sharpens certain cognitive functions, such as the ability to suppress irrelevant information and working memory, to name just two. These benefits are useful for later language learning and information processing more generally, as well as other everyday tasks (Bialystok, 2009). Benefits also extend beyond childhood, and recent research has shown that early multilingual acquisition correlates with later onset of symptoms for neurological degenerative disorders such as Alzheimer's and dementia. Essentially, we could think of language acquisition in general as one formof mental exercising, and just as we might expect more and earlier cardio-exercise to correlate with increased health benefits throughout our lifetime, so too do the benefits of this early mental linguistic exercise for the mind.

On all planes, there is so much more to be understood about multilingualism.

Future research endeavours to reveal the links between how knowing multiple languages shapes the way we perceive the world and how studying multilingualism will open new doors to understanding and create unique glimpses into the mind.

Although we have just scratched the surface and have not even conceived of all the relevant questions there are to be asked

NOTES

about multilingualism, what wedefinitively know is that multilingualism is a good thing, not only for our globalworld but also cognitively for individuals.

A policy for a range of English-teaching contexts

India is a country of continental diversity, especially in its linguistic landscape which, in the seventh decade of our independence, retains and continues to assimilate English into itself. Initially thought of as the language of the intelligentsia, English today is the language of opportunity. A policy for its place at school necessarily needs to temper academic wisdom and ground reality with this imperative of parental aspiration.

English is for some Indians a first language of public (academic, societal, creative ...) discourse. For many it is a second language, and for many others a foreign language. The school contexts in which English is taught mirror this contextual diversity; their adequacy is affected by the twin variables of teacher competence and environmental exposure to English. Consequently, the policy for teachingEnglish articulated in the National Curriculum Framework (NCF) avoids methodological prescriptivism. It aims, rather, at a curricular cohesion grounded in guiding principles for language teaching and acquisition, which could accommodate a variety of implementations suitable to local needs and resources, and inform and rejuvenate them.

Language and learning in and out of school

The learning of English at school is best approached as a focused harnessing of the natural human ability to learn languages, given an environment of meaningful exposure to them. The curricular challenge is to find ways of approximating the language learning opportunities of the classroom to those of naturally supportive language learning environments. Happily, this integrative thrust in the policy for English coheres with the larger vision in the NCF of integrating the life of the childwithin and outside school. For early language teaching, this thrust could translateinto initiatives

for interaction of the English class with the English speakers available in the community, whether face to face or through media (audio, video, print); a better understanding of children's language use and language learning through stories and story reading with an adult, or through oral activities and play; and an emphasis on using language to understand simple spoken and written texts, and to similarly express oneself (even if imperfectly), rather than on language learnt as an object to display to evaluators as evidence of time and effort expended on its teaching.

In other words, language learning is a process of knowledge building in the learner, not a product for knowledge transfer from the teacher. Incidentally, this understanding of what constitutes language teaching at school needs to inform the teaching of languages other than English (report in The Times of India,2013;1 Nag and Snowling, 2011).

An input-rich communicational environment

A first methodological consequence is that to teach English is to maximise the learning opportunities for it. Our experience of multilingualism shows that children (and often, adults) naturally pick up the languages they are meaningfully exposed to. Learning opportunities for English may include, but not be limited to, methods of second or foreign language instruction such as communicative activities or activity-based learning. Such methods must find their place within a broader concept of an input-rich environment; otherwise they may degenerate, where not ignored altogether, into activity for its own sake with no accompanying language (Internal Report, Teacher Education through School-based Support in India: a UKAID-GOI project, 2013) or be limited to the formulaic learning of set phrases.

Language is a 'dynamic' text (Amritavalli, 1999). What counts as exposure is the encounter with new occurrences of comparable language samples, rather than mastery learning by repeated teaching of a single prescribed textbook. In theBangalore Project (Prabhu, 1987), the 'texts' for language learning were the class-

room discourse created by the teacher and the students around each task, which resulted in the 'recurrence' of language. Second or foreign language learners spontaneously acquire 'teacher talk', the language of classroom management. Whole Language approaches (Mangubhai, 2011; Jangid and Amritavalli, 2011) validate the genre of 'predictable' stories in which events, and the language that narrates them, recur. Such approaches allow as input both spoken and written discourse. In India, reading has historically been the route into English for autonomous learners.

Reading aloud to and with pre-readers is known to promote literacy (Adams, 1990), and could counter the fear of 'unseen' passages for comprehension in tests or examinations. Teachers and learners must evolve for their own classrooms a balance between 'prescribed' texts and learner-chosen texts from class libraries with print or audio-visual materials (Big Books, multilingual books, Reading Cards, learner magazines/newspaper columns, edutainment programmes). The language environment of disadvantaged learners can be enriched by developing schools into community learning centres.

English does not stand alone

English is taught by Indians to Indians so that we may interact with one another and with the world. The acknowledgement that English is a global language in a multilingual country has the (second) methodological consequence that we need not insulate it from our other languages in the classroom (as the audio-lingual era did), any more than in our everyday lives. It has been an abiding national vision that the teaching of English creates multilinguals to enrich all our languages. We have seen emerge in this century a rich mix of English and other languages in television and film, reflecting the current educated urban experience.

Within the school system, the Kendriya Vidyalayas, or Central Schools, have emerged as successful models of bilingual (English-Hindi) school education.

However, 'English medium' schools, old or new, may continue to subscribe to an isolationist perspective on English. The result is not only a loss of one's own languages from the arena of modernity, but an injection of the burden of sheer incomprehension into the language classroom. It is common sense to use our existing knowledge, including the knowledge of other languages, to help us make sense of what is said or written in the new language. One's other languages can also help to scaffold expression in the new language.

A judicious multilingualism

We need, however, to distinguish the displacing of English by known languages in the classroom (as when prescribed English texts are explained in them) from the use of known languages to provoke and sustain an effort to engage with Englishtexts in the classroom. The classroom discourse need not be monolingual, whether in English or in an Indian language. At the early levels of schooling, there are no teachers specialised for English teaching; a single teacher may handle more than one language, as well as the rudiments of the sciences. If that teacher could useEnglish when they teach these other subjects, and other languages in the English be removed. English could occur in tandem with known language(s) for learning activities. The tasks in the Bangalore Project (Prabhu, 1987) were input in English and required responses in English, but known languages were used to make the task language comprehensible. Some of our classrooms are multilingual enough that the teacher may not share a language other than English with students; but groups of students may be permitted to create multilingual discourse among them. The legitimate use of other languages to promote the learning of English is a matter of context-sensitive understanding emerging from a tolerance of some language mixing, and the infusion of thought-content into the language class. Currently, the 'mother tongue' enters the class as a surreptitious intruder, keeping out its use in, for example, pre- and post-reading discussion activities, or in bilingual dictionaries or multilingual texts. Children's publishing in India has traditionally been parallel across languages; recently,

multilingual story books have emerged for beginning readers. Such materials, popular with thoughtful young parents, do not find a place in our classrooms.

The goals of language teaching and the question of standards

The early years of schooling aim to develop proficiency in ordinary English as a base for later academic or professional language use. Given an input-rich environment, children's language learning can, but may not always, outpace the teacher's competence in English. The diversity of learning environments, therefore, must allow for a diversity of attained standards. These could be appropriately certified by evaluation (including continuous evaluation), not of achievement within particular syllabi, but of language proficiency with respect to national benchmarks. This would balance curricular freedom with standards of attainment, and open up alternative routes for English certification (and therefore instruction) outside schooling, addressing the problem that English (along with mathematics) is a principal reason for failure at the Class X school-leaving examination. A student may, where appropriate, be certified to 'pass without English' after ten years of schooling.

The policy envisages an input-rich environment that promotes the teacher's English alongside that of students. The teacher may, as a learner, develop a feel for 'theoccurrence of learning' (Prabhu, 1987), which happens in a 'zone of proximal development' (Vygotsky, 1978) or an 'i+1' zone (Krashen, 1985). Adams (1990: 35) found that successful early reading instruction depends (irrespective of method, materials, objectives, class size or organisation) 'on the atmosphere – the momentum, support and expectations – created by the classroom teacher ... the teacher's ability to stay tuned to that delicate interval between ease and difficulty for the students and to keep the instruction within it.' This feel for the pace of instruction can develop only when teachers are allowed to assume responsibilityfor their own and their students' learning.

Evolution of the English tool

In any discussion about ASER tools, it is always important to keep the basic objective of the exercise in mind. ASER is primarily an attempt by citizens to understand the status of schooling and basic learning of the children in their district. The tools are aligned to achieving this objective. Each year, ASER tools are used by thousands of volunteers who assess hundreds of thousands of children in their homes or their communities, meaning the tool needs to be simple to understand, use and interpret.

While more sophisticated measurements may be possible with more qualified fieldinvestigators and more time, the biggest challenge in ASER is to make the tool as simple as possible without sacrificing rigour.

There was another major reason to keep the English tools for ASER 2007 simple. Across the country it was hard to predict what the English ability of the field investigators would be.5 At the district level orientation, all field investigators were also given the same test. Based on the results of this assessment, a session was conducted to train the team further to ensure that all field investigators were at least able to use all four samples of the given test.

The third reason to keep the tool simple was to ensure that different stakeholders could use the evidence to bring about change in children's learning outcomes.

Simplicity would ensure that not only academics, but also teachers in schools, officials at state, district or block level, NGOs and parents, could understand the basic level of the child and work towards the appropriate action. We also wanted the tool to be useful for teachers to quickly get a sense of the basic levels in their classes and enable them to track the children's progress.

As a starting point, we analysed state textbooks for English across the country, especially the textbook for the first year in which English is introduced in primaryschool. In keeping with

NOTES

the simplicity and ease of the overall ASER approach, theEnglish tool had to be easy to use and the tasks that children were being asked to do had to be simple. The entire set of tasks could not take more than five to ten minutes per child, and could also not be so difficult that children would be too nervous to even attempt them. As in the case of other ASER tools (other languages and arithmetic), we attempted to see if the tasks could be progressive so that the level that a child reached comfortably could be recorded.

The challenge was to be able to do all of this in a way that was not complicated.

The framework was developed with these key elements in mind.

With English, as with the other ASER tools, the same set of tasks is given to all children between the age of five and 16. Given this and the fact that we did not have any benchmarks to refer to, an additional challenge was to build enough variation into the tasks so that the test could be given to children across the five to 16 age group.

What do states in India want their children to learn in English?

In the first year in which English is introduced as a subject, the learning goals for children are centred on the basic abilities of listening, speaking, reading and writing. Implicit in these competencies is basic comprehension of what is being read. Although the format, design and layout of the textbooks vary, most textbooks follow a similar pattern as far as content is concerned.

After reviewing and analysing state textbooks, we decided that a very basic framework would suffice for the ASER English tool. Whether English is introduced early (grade 1) or late (grade or later), the learning goals expected of children do not seem to vary too much. In common with reading in regional languages,English too would be kept at a foundational level – of decoding and reading and very simple comprehension. The tasks to be included in ASER were basic letter recognition, ability to read simple everyday words and the reading of simple sentences. Of

the words that were read, we wanted children to tell us themeaning in their own language; we had a similar goal with the sentences.

International relations

The League of Nations was the first of many modern international alliances to allocate a special place to English in its proceedings: English was one of the two official languages (the other wasFrench), and all documents were printed in both. The League was created as part of the Treaty of Versailles in 1920, and at the time of its First Assembly, it had forty-two members, several from outside Europe. The importance of a lingua franca, with such an extended membership, was obvious. The League was replaced in 1945by the United Nations, where the role of the lingua franca became even more critical. The UN now consists of over fifty distinct organs, programmes, and specialized agencies, as well as many regional and functional commissions, standing committees, expert bodies, and other organizations. English is one of the official languages within all of these structures.

The language plays an official or working role in the proceedings of most other major international political gatherings, in all parts of the world. Examples include the Association of South-East Asian Nations, the Commonwealth, the Council of Europe, the European Union and the North Atlantic Treaty Organization.

English is the only official language of the Organization ofPetroleum Exporting Countries, for example, and the only working language of the European Free Trade Association. Unless a body has a highly restricted membership (such as one consisting only of Arabic-speaking states or only of Spanish-speaking states), the choice of a lingua franca has to be made, and English is the first choice of most. However, even the restricted-membership meetings recognize the value of English: although their proceedings may not be expressed in English, the reports they issue for the wider public at the end of their meeting, and the statements which their officials make to the world media, usually are.

NOTES

The extent to which English is used in this way is often not appreciated. In 1995–6, there were about 12,500 international organizations in the world.1 About a third list the languages they use in an official or working capacity. A sample of 500 of these (taken from the beginning of the alphabet) showed that 85 per cent (424) made official use of English – far more than any other language. French was the only other language to show up strongly, with 49 per cent (245) using it officially. Thirty other languages also attracted occasional official status, but only Arabic, Spanish, and German achieved over 10 per cent recognition.

Of particular significance is the number of organizations in this sample which use only English to carry on their affairs: 169 –a third. This reliance is especially noticeable in Asia and the Pacific, where about 90 per cent of international bodies carry on their proceedings entirely in English. Many scientific organizations (such as the African Association of Science Editors, the Cairo Demographic Centre and Baltic Marine Biologists) are also English-only. By contrast, only a small number of international bodies (13 per cent) make no official use of English at all: most of these are French organizations, dealing chiefly with francophone concerns.

The reliance on English is by no means restricted to science, however. Several international sporting organizations work only in English, such as the African Hockey Federation, the Asian AmateurAthletic Association and the Association of Oceania NationalOlympic Committees; and when these organizations hold international competitions, the language automatically becomes the lingua franca of the gathering. English is used as the sole official language in relation to a wide range of topics, as is illustrated bythe All-African People's Organization, Architects Regional Council Asia and the Asian Buddhist Conference for Peace.

These trends are reflected even in Europe, where we might expect other languages to be playing a more dominant role. We can see this if we examine the Yearbook organizations whose names begin with Euro-. Out of a sample of 1,000 of these, 440

specified the official or working languages they used. Almost all used English as an official language – 435, a remarkable 99 percent.

French was used by 63 per cent (278) and German by 40 per cent (176). English + French + German was the most popular European combination.

In Europe, too, organizations which work only in English are surprisingly common, especially in science. The EuropeanAcademy of Anaesthesiology and the European Academy of Facial Surgery use only English in their proceedings, as do the EuropeanAssociation of Cancer Research and the European Association of Fish Pathology. Bodies from other domains include the European Air Law Association, the European Bridge League and the European Aluminium Association. One of the few organizations which makes no official use of English at all is the European Federation of Perfumery Retailers.

Several bodies use English in more than one way. For example, the Afro-Asian Rural Reconstruction Organization has three official languages – English, Arabic and French – but for its working language it uses only English. Europage, which unites the yellow-pages publishers of the European Union, lists Dutch,English, French, German, Italian and Spanish as official languages, but adds that only English is to be used for correspondence.

The overriding impression is that, wherever in the world anorganization is based, English is the chief auxiliary language. TheAndean Commission of Jurists recognizes Spanish – and English. The German anatomical association Anatomische Gesellschaft recognizes German – and English. The Arab Air Carriers Association recognizes Arabic – and English.

A different kind of role for English is encountered at meetings where a large number of nations each has the right to participate using its own language. The European Union is the most complex example, where already by 1996 the fifteen member states were presenting a situation in which over a hundred pairs of languages required translation and interpreting services (French/

English, French/German, French/Finnish, etc.). It is impossible to find expert translators and interpreters for all language pairs, or to provide maximum coverage on all occasions, so efforts have been made to find alternative procedures (other than asking some of the countries to give up their official status). The situation has become increasingly serious as more members join the Union, and will eventually require a radical overhaul (a further 12 applications were pending in 2002).

Several solutions to this problem have been proposed, such as the use of a 'relay' system. If there is no Finnish/Greek translator available, for instance, English might be used as an intermediary language – or 'interlingua', as it is sometimes called. One person would translate a speech from Finnish into English; another would translate the result from English into Greek. Any language could be so used, but English is the one which seems to be most often employed in this way. In 1995, 42 per cent of European Union citizens claimed to be able to converse in English – well ahead of German (31 per cent) and French (29 per cent). This figure had risen to 47 per cent by 2002.2International politics operates at several levels and in many different ways, but the presence of English is usually not far away.

A political protest may surface in the form of an official question to a government minister, a peaceful lobby outside an embassy, a street riot, or a bomb. When the television cameras present the event to a world audience, it is notable how often a message in English can be seen on a banner or placard as part of the occasion. Whatever the mother tongue of the protesters, they know that their cause will gain maximum impact if it is expressed through the medium of English. A famous instance of this occurred a few years ago in India, where a march supporting Hindi and opposingEnglish was seen on world television: most of the banners were in Hindi, but one astute marcher carried a prominent sign which read 'Death to English' – thereby enabling the voice of his group to reach much further around the world than would otherwisehave been possible.

Education

It follows from what has been said in this chapter that English is the medium of a great deal of the world's knowledge, especially in such areas as science and technology. And access to knowledge is the business of education. When we investigate why so many nations have in recent years made English an official language or chosen it as their chief foreign language in schools, one of the most important reasons is always educational – in the broadest sense. Black South African writer Harry Mashabela puts it like this learning and using English will not only give us the much-needed unifying chord but will also land us into the exciting world of ideas; it will enable us to keep company with kings in the world of ideas and also make it possible for us to share the experiences of our own brothers in the world . . . And Sridath Ramphal adds an anecdote:25 shortly after I became Secretary-General of the Commonwealth in 1975,I met Prime Minister Sirimavo Bandaranaike in Colombo and we talked of ways in which the Commonwealth Secretariat could help Sri Lanka.Her response was immediate and specific: 'Send us people to train our teachers to teach English as a foreign language'. My amazement must have showed, for the Prime Minister went on to explain that the policies her husband had put in place twenty years earlier to promote Sinhalese as the official language had succeeded so well that in the process Sri Lanka – so long the pearl of the English speaking world in Asia – had in fact lost English, even as a second language save for the most educated Sri Lankans. Her concern was for development. Farmers in the field, she told me, could not read the instructions on bags of imported fertiliser – and manufacturers in the global market were not likely to print them in Sinhalese. Sri Lanka was losing its access to the world language of English. We did respond. I believe that today English is doing better asthe second language n Sri Lanka.

Not everyone has viewed the arrival of the language in such apositive light,; but the dominant viewis certainly that a person is more likely to be in touch with the latest thinking and research

in a subject by learning English thanby learning any other language. It is important to appreciate that the use of English does vary,in this respect. A 1980 study of the use of English in scientific periodicalsshowed that 85per cent of papers in biology and physicswere being written in English at that time, whereas medical paperswere some way behind (73 per cent), and papers in mathematicsand chemistry further behind still (69 per cent and 67 per cent respectively).

However, all these areas had shown a significantincrease in their use of English during the preceding fifteen years —over 30 per cent, in the case of chemistry, and over 40 per cent,in the case of medicine – and the figures twenty years further\ on would certainly be much higher. This can be seen even in alanguage-sensitive subject such as linguistics, where in 1995nearly90 percent of the 1,500 papers listed in the journal LinguisticsAbstracts were in English. In computer science, the proportion iseven higher.Since the 1960s, English has become the normal medium ofinstruction in higher education for many countries – and is increa used in several where the language has no official status.Some advanced courses in The Netherlands, for example, arewidely taught in English. If most students are going to encounterEnglish routinely in their monographs and periodicals, it is suggested—an argument which is particularly cogent in relation tothe sciences – then it makes sense to teach advanced courses inthat language, to better prepare them for that encounter. Butthese days there is also a strong lingua franca argument: the pressureto use English has grown as universities and colleges haveincreasingly welcomed foreign students, and lecturers have foundthemselves faced with mixed-language audiences.

The English language teaching (ELT) business has becomeone of the major growth industries around the world in the pasthalf-century. However, its relevance to the growth of English asa world language goes back much further. In the final quarterof the eighteenth century, we find several examples of Englishgrammars, such as Lindley Murray's, being translated into otherlanguages.27 An illustration of the scale of the development inmodern times

can be seen from the work of The British Council,which in 2002 had a network of offices in 109 countries promotingcultural, educational and technical cooperation. In 1995–6,for example, over 400,000 candidates worldwide sat English languageexaminations administered by the Council, over half ofthese being examinations in English as a foreign language. At anyone time during that year, there were 120,000 students learning English and other skills through the medium of English in Councilteaching centres. The figures have steadily grown since then.

With thousands of other schools and centres worldwide now alsodevoted to English-language teaching, the Council estimated thatthe new millennium would see over 1,000 million people learningEnglish.

In a 1995global consultation exercise initiated by English 2000,a British Council project, people professionally involved in ELTin some ninety countries were asked to react to a series of statementsconcerning the role and future of the English language.

Responses used a 5-point scale from 'strongly agree' to 'stronglydisagree'. Nearly 1,400 questionnaires were returned. One of thestatements was: 'The global market for English language teachingand learning will increase over the next 25years.' Over 93 per centagreed or strongly agreed. A particular growth area is central andeastern Europe, and the countries of the former Soviet Union,where it is thought that over 10 percent of the population –some 50 million in all – are now learning English.Certain other statements in the Council questionnaire were alsogiven an unequivocal response. They included:

_ English will retain its role as the dominant language in worldmedia and communications. 94 per cent agreed or stronglyagreed.

_ English is essential for progress as it will provide the main meansof access to high-tech communication and information over thenext twenty-five years. 95per cent agreed or strongly agreed.

_ English will remain the world's language for international communicationfor the next twenty five years. 96 per cent agreedor

strongly agreed.Exercises of this kind have no clear predictive value, but they doprovide a useful glimpse of the way specialists are thinking in theworld market-place, and when identical opinions are expressedfrom so many countries they undoubtedly help to confirm the picture of English emerging as a global language.

The future

It is clear to me that the success of the current co-operation should point to continued collaboration between the two organisations. The expertise brought to the analysis and interpretation of the findings by the British Council researchers can add significantly to the impact of ASER in the future. By working together to rethink and re-interpret the surveys undertaken during the years to now (2007,2009 and 2012) we can develop a more detailed understanding of this complex issue and begin to make important recommendations to policymakers based on empirical data. It would appear from the analysis reported in this volume that some short-term changes to the way in which questions are set in the current instrument can add significantly to the value of the work, while more considered longer-term consideration of the assessments used is likely to result in even greater gains.

The recommendations stemming from this report tend to reflect current thinking in relation to statistical data analysis. The limitations reported are related to theway in which the instruments are operationalised, rather than in the constructs that underpin the approach. In fact, the way in which the instruments have been conceived reflects the most recent cognitive model of reading ability and progression, namely that of Khalia and Weir (2009) in the way that progression is modelled (i.e. from the phoneme level to the textual and beyond). It may be valuable, for instance, to look again at the measures to incorporate the construct measured into a single scale (i.e. combining the elements of recognition with comprehension).

Another issue to emerge from the work reported in this volume is that of test comparability. While the non-parametric tests used

in the statistical analysis here represent one approach to dealing with the issue, they should not be seen as a long-term solution. More rigorous approaches to test equation could be explored in future co-operative partnerships. These suggestions are, of course, not intended to undermine the considerable work that has already been undertaken in developing the current instrument; see, for example, Ramaswami and Wadhwa's (2010) analysis of issues around sampling and Vagh's (2009) interesting work on the validation of the instruments.

The complexity of the process of gathering data from such huge numbers of respondents across such a huge country cannot be ignored. Any changes to the way in which the data are collected (be these large or small) must be considered with tremendous care, as practicality must be a key consideration in any future collection approach. Fortunately, it is clear from the success we have had in working together to create this report that we can build instruments that reflect the reality of data collection on the ground as well as the wellunderstood constructs that currently underpin the approach taken and the requirements and expectations of complex statistical modelling.

Examination Useful Questions

Long Type Questions :

1. What do you mean by an evalutionary prespective of english language? Discuss in detail.

2. What is rich communication environment ? Briefly explain.

3. What should be the questions standards of language teaching ?

4. Why do Indian states want their children should learn in english ?

Short Type Questions :

1. English may not stand for alone, Why ? Give reason.

2. What is the international relation with english language ?
   Explain.

3. Write short note of the following -

   (i)   Judicious Multilingualism

   (ii)   Evolution of the English tool

   (iii)   The future education

1.4 Current Trends in Modern English Literature in Indian context

Study material included in this unit -

- Objectives
- Introduction
- Development of Indian Novel in English
- Developments in english studies in India
- Emerging trends in english studies in India
- Culture studies
- Communication skills
- English for careers
- English for academic purposes
- Examination useful questions

Objectives

After study this chapter you will understand the following facts.

- Development of Indian Novel in English
- Developments in english studies in India
- Emerging trends in english studies in India
- Culture studies
- Communication skills
- English for careers
- English for academic purposes

Introduction

The phrase „Indo-Anglian.. was used to describe the original creative writing in English by the Indians. It is the literature written by the Indians whose mother-tongue is not English. According to K.R.S. Iyengar (1973:11) there are three types of Indian writers in English, first those who have acquired their entire education in English schools and universities. Secondly, Indians who have settled abroad but are constantly in touch with the changing surrounding and traditions of their country of adoption,and finally, Indians who have acquired English as a second language. Consequently, a large number of Indians were greatly moved by the genuine desire to present before the western readers authentic pictures of life in India through their numerous writings.

The Novel emerged as the most forceful and convincing of all thegenres of literature in recent years. It has been widely accepted as the most appropriate form for the exploration of experiences and ideas in today..s world. Indian English fiction has acquired extensive commendation, distinction and prestigious position in recent times in the whole of the world. The international literary awards like The Booker, The Pulitzer, The Sinclair won by Indian novelists exemplify that they have been appreciated even by the western critics. "It is now recognized that Indian English literature is not only part of Commonwealth literature, but also occupies a great significance in the World literature. Today it has won for itself international acclaim and distinction".

The Indian English Novel has passed through several stages before reaching present position where it gained a standing on par with its counterparts in the West. The evolution of Indian fiction in English may be broadly divided into four stages. It was in Bengal that a literary renaissance first manifested itself, but almost immediately afterwards its traces could be seen in Madras, Bombay and other more educated parts of India. The first stage includes the works of Bankim Chandra Chatterjee, Toru Dutt, RomeshChander Dutt, B.R.Rajan, T.Ramakrishna and others. Bankim ChandraChatterjee..s Rajmohan's Wife (1864) was the

first English novel written by an Indian. His works brought a certain space and stature to Indian novels in English. The period after the First World War has been considered the second period. In the first decade after the war, S.K. Ventaramani, Shankar Ram and A.S.P. Ayyer were the novelists who came to the fore. After them comes the emergence of the great „Trio..- Mulk Raj Anand, R.K.Narayan and Raja Rao. Who are considered as the finest painters of Indian sensibilities. They tried to revive the ancient tradition of the Epics and Puranas of India. The three major writers together are called the major „trio who produced epoch-making pieces of English fiction writing. The Post- Independence Era which is the third phase has a two-fold effect on Indian writing in English. The radical changes like poverty, hunger, death, disease etc., which were brought about by the Partition of the country, on the one hand made the writers dream about a finer future and on the other hand widened their vision, sharpened their self-examining faculty. Thereby provided fertile soil for many novelists to flourish and a considerable number of novels were produced. Some prominent writers of this period are-Bhabani Bhattacharya, Manohar Malgonkar, Kushwant Singh, Sudhin Ghosh, G.V. Desani, Ananthanarayanan, J. Menon Marath and others. Another important feature of this period was the growth of Indian women novelists. Their appearance added a new dimension to the Indian English Novel. The chief figures are Ruth Pawar Jhabvala, Kamala Markandaya, Nayantara Sahgal and Anita Desai. After the 1960s there was a thematic and technical shift in focus in the Indian English fiction owing to the influence of the modern British novel. There was the impact in the post-war period on the populace that gave rise to psychological disorders, loss of moral values and the disturbance to man..s peace of mind. This agonized existence of modern man is sympathetically explored by Anita Desai and Arun Joshi and this changed the face of IndianEnglish novel. It is with the novels of Arun Joshi and Anita Desai that a new era in the Indo English fiction began and also witnessed a change in thetreatment of psychological themes. Chaman Nahal is also another major novelist of repute who belongs to this period.

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After 1980 is the period of so-called „new.. fiction which includes newnovelists like Salman Rushdie, Vikram Seth, Upamanyu Chatterjee, Shashi Deshpande, Shashi Tharoor, Amitav Ghosh, Amit Choudhary, Arundhati Roy, Kiran Desai, Arvind Adiga and others. These novelists heralded a newera in the history of Indian English Fiction. They experimented with newthemes and techniques. Vikram Seth has experimented even with the form of the novel. His novel The Golden Gate (1986) is written in the form of verse. Arundhati Roy, Arvind Adiga and Kiran Desai got Man Booker Prize for their debut works. All the novelists of this period have proved that Indian English fiction is conspicuous, prolific and unique. The growth of Indian English Novel is remarkable. The number of new novelists, both men and women, has increased in an unprecedented scale. The range of themes, forms and sub-genres in Indian English Novel is very vast. As far as the genres within Novel is concerned, there are political novel, Novel of Social Realism, Novel of Magic Realism, The Partition Novel, Novel of Diaspora, Historical Novel, Regional Novel, the Children..s Fiction, the Campus Novel and others. Like many subgenres of Novel, Campus Novel is originated from the west. The number of novels dealing with academic themes is adequate that they can form a corpus However, there were some writers such as Michael Madhusudhan Dutt and Romesh Chandra Dutt, who were persuaded not to write in English, but to write in their mother-tongue Bengali. But many Indian writers had chosen English as their medium of expression and made their names in different fields of literature, for example, Jawaharlal Nehru wrote his Autobiography, Glimpses of World History and Discovery of India in English and not in Hindi.

Similarly, Toru Dutt, Sarojini Naidu and Sri Aurobindo wrote in English and not in Bengali. They used English to represent the Indian culture and spirit. In this connection, the remarks of Randolph Quirk and Raja Rao, are of worth quoting. According to Quirk, English is not the private property of the Englishmen. Similarly, Raja Rao says in the Preface of his novel Kanthapura (1938, rpt. 1971: 5) "One has to convey in a language that is not one's own, the spirit that is one..s own." It seems that the mother-

tongue did not impede their way in writing in English. Commenting on the use of English by the Indians as the medium of writing and expression, James H. Cousins (1918: 179) says, "… If they (Indians) arecompelled as an alternative to writing in their own mother-tongue, let it benot Anglo-Indian, but Indo-Anglian, Indian in spirit, Indian in thought, Indian in emotion, Indian in imagery and English only in words…." In this regard, R. K.Narayan, as pointed out by K.R.S. Iyengar (1973: 30) says: " I am able to confirm, after nearly thirty years of writing, that English has served my purpose admirably." This is how with a rich contribution to prose, poetry, novel and drama, these writers have made Indo-Anglican literature as a matter of pride to Indians and a source of admiration to the foreigners. Besides this, Lord Macaulay..s Minutes on Indian education in 1935 and Lord Bentinck..s decision to promote European literature and science among the Indians instigated the Indians to use an alien tongue for creative expression. Inspired by this policy, a few Indians from the English-educated elite class such as Raja Ram Mohan Roy, Swami Vivekananda, Sri Aurobindo, Rabindranath Tagore, Sarojini Naidu were stimulated to use English for creative expression. They realised that by using English, they could reach pan- India and even the world audience. Thereafter, the Indian writers in English accepted English as a medium of expression for political and cultural reasons. Some Indian writers such as Mulk Raj Anand, R.K.Narayan, Raja Rao, NissimEzekiel and Jayant Mahapatra have adapted English to communicate Indian sensibility. From the historical perspective, Indian English literature has passed through several phases such as Indo-Anglican, Indo-English, Indian Writing in English and recently Indian English literature. Now, it is a part of Commonwealth literatures Post-Colonial studies. This new literature in English is regarded as an important component of world literature. In spite of diverse cultures, races and religions, it has successfully recaptured and reflected the multi-cultural society. As a result, it has created a widespread interest both in India and abroad. Yet, one cannot deny the fact that the Indian literary culture has been fragmented into several regional languages as the creative writers in India have been writing in regional languages such as

Hindi, Kannada, Marathi, Punjabi, Bengali etc. Therefore, Indian literature has become pan-Indian. As amatter of fact, no one can overlook the contribution of regional literatures toIndian English literature and vice-versa. But for the makers of Indian Englishliterature, English is the language of the expression of their creative urge.

Development Of Indian Novel In English

The possible literary form for a writer to keep himself always in touchwith the common readers is the fiction. It is in this area we find that the Indian writers in English have made the most significant contribution. So, of all genres, the novel is the most popular form today.

According to H. M. Williams (1976: 109), "It is undoubtedly the most popular vehicle for the transmission of Indian ideas to the wider English speaking world." We in India, on a greater extent are indebted to the European and English novelbecause as an art form, it has been imported to India from the West. In otherwords, it is a gift of Western literature. In the nineteenth century with the publication of Bunkim Chandra Chatterjee..s Rajmohan's Wife (1864) and Lal Behari Day..s Govind Samanta(1874), Indian novel in English has grown by leaps and bounds in respect of thematic variety and linguistic maturity. Both of them have used an acquired language to comment on the Indian social context. But compared to the recent output, most early novels in English were almost imitative and faulty. It is assumed that Indian novel in English has its roots in the nineteenth century realistic tradition of English novel.

The impact of English education, national awakening and the influenceof European models are the chief factors responsible for the rise and development of Indian novel in English. But with the passage of time the Indian novel in English has become thoroughly Indian in terms of the themes, techniques and the human values. In this regard, Meenakshi Mukherjee (1985: viii) observes that: „The novel in India can be seen as the product of configurations in philosophical, aesthetic, economic and po-

litical forces in the larger life of the country... "Despite obvious, regional variations, a basic pattern seems to emerge from shared factors like the Puranic heritage, hierarchical social structure, colonial education, disjunction of agrarian life and many others that affect the form of novel as well as its content."2 In order to understand rise and development of Indian English Novel, it is necessary to take into consideration its emergence, developing stages and continuing traditions. The Indian novel in English has-been divided into threesuccessive periods such as: a) novel from1875 to 1920, b) novel from 1920 to 1947, and c) novel from 1947 onwards, by the Indian scholars likeK.R.S. yengar (1962), M.K.Naik (1982) and Meenakshi Mukherjee (1985), considering the socio-political changes in India before and after the Independence. On the other hand, the classification of the novel by P.K.Rajan (1995: 9) refers to a) Early Realism: From 1864 to 1935, b) Critical Realism: From 1935 to the 1960..s, c) Modernism: From the 1960s to the1980s, and d)The New Novel: From 1981 onwards. However, such classification has its own limitations as placing an individual writer in a specific period createsseveral problems. Besides an individual writer practices several literarymodes and values

of representation at the time of writing. Hence, the whole corpus of Indian novel in English may be divided into three broad groups: a) The traditional novel of social realism before Independence. b) The modern novel of experimentation after Independence. c) A new contemporary novel since 1981. The intellectuals in India before Independence concentrated on the national awakening and the society in a realistic manner. Bengal seems to be the source of the Indian novel in English for the prominent pioneers of the nineteenth century were upper-class Bengali writers, for instance, Bankim Chandra Chatterjee, Romesh Chandra Dutt, Toru Dutt, and Rabindranath Tagore, who dealt with the social problems within their reach. These writers were not merely the imitators of the West but they had in the words of Meenakshi Mukherjee (1971:19), "direct involvement in values and experiences which are valid in the Indian context." The pioneer novelists were trying to establish a new sense of social

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morality in place of the age-old social values. They were social reformers and with them, the novel became an exercise in social realism.

"The Indian novelists in English have their roots in two traditions theIndian and the Western. It was a challenge for them to expresses distinctly an Indian sensibility in an acquired language." Though the novels were being written in the regional languages, for instance, in Bengali, Hindi, Marathi and Malayalam, they had no English tradition. Naturally, at the formative stage, the Indian writers were greatly influenced by the European masterpieces of Leo Tolstoy, Henerie Balzac and Fyodor Dostoevsky in English translations. There was a great impact of the novels of the romantics and the early Victorians, Dickens and Thackeray. Yet they were not the blind imitators of the Western models. On the other hand, they tried to establish their own tradition of novel writing in accordance with the age-old Indian tradition of storytelling. Bankim Chandra Chatterjee..s only novel in English Rajmohan's Wife laid down the foundation for the first generation novelists to record the rich heritage and social transformation in India. Both the male and female novelists who emphasized their personal and private experiences followed him. The early novels were, therefore, sketchy, domestic and aloof from the political happenings. The early novelists depicted rural and domestic life, filled with superstitions and religious whims, with an equal emphasis on morals and social ills. In spite of that their creative efforts were very poor:"The deeper issues of national as well as human life do not enter into their novels. The women writers wrote about nubile romances and marital male adjustment and their male counterparts wrote about sociopolitical issues." There is no comparison between the British women novelists and ourIndian English women novelists. However, their world was different from the socio-ethical world of the British novelists. The early novelists in Indiaimitated the Western novel in respect of plot-construction, characterization and narrative technique. In spite of this the Indian novel in English has definitely taken many steps forward after the First World War. The First World War stimulated the nationalist spirit among the In-

dians and further the freedom movement led by Mahatma Gandhi became an all India experience. Indian Novel in English was affected by socio-political upheavals during the 1930..s onwards. The writers such as Mulk Raj Anand, R.K.Narayan and Raja Rao attempted to explore the contemporary Indian society from their specific views without distorting the reality. They were reformists and didactic, yet, the motive of propaganda remained with them. Mulk Raj Anand, R. K. Narayan and Raja Rao emerged on the literary scene in 1930. It was the real beginning of Indian novel in English. They were labelled by William Walsh (1990: 62) as "The founding fathers", "the genuine novelists", "and inaugurators of the form." They made their appearance in the thirties with the publication of Untouchable (1935), Swami and Friends (1935) and Kanthapura (1938) respectively and established the tradition of Indian English fiction. "Indian novel in English around 1930s needed the novelists who could grasp the social scene with an insight into the human consciousness and who could interpret the real Indian world, distinctive in themes, issues and treatment in their fiction"5. Mulk Raj Anand is humanist and a novelist with a purpose. He writes from his personal experience and the experiences of real people. For Mulk Raj Anand (2000: 65), the novel is "the creative weapon for attaining humanness – it is the weapon of humanism." He writes basically about the lower class life.

Widely read novelist Anand is influenced by Charles Dickens, H. G. Wells and Tolstoy in both form and characterization. He followed the ancient Indian tradition of story-telling, but his approach to themes and events, is of a social realist. Therefore, his novels are the novels of protest and social realism. Anand is influenced by the two ideologies – the Western Marxism and the Eastern Gandhism.

He deals with the themes related to human predicament such as protestagainst social and industrial evils, the status of women in India, exploitation caused by caste system, class system and imperialism. G. S. Balarama Gupta (1977: 115) aptly says, "The moot point to be noted about Anand is that he has firmly believed in the role of a writer as essentially a crusader in the

cause of humanity: no hotchpotch of Vendanta..s, no hazy mysticism, but inalienable faith in man". Anand..s early novels, Coolie (1936), Two Leaves and a Bud (1937),Village (1939), Across the Black Waters (1940) The Sword and the Sickle (1942) andThe Big Heart (1942) justify this point, as Anand has brought in them the lower class down-trodden people such as the scavengers, the coolies, the leatherworkers, and the untouchables who form the bulk of Indian society. His novel Untouchable is a classic experimentation in respect of theme and technique. It represents a day from morning till evening in the life of a sweeper boy named Bakha who is in the words of E. M. Forster (1981: 9) "a real individual, lovable thwarted, sometimes grand, sometimes weak, and thoroughly Indian." R. K. Narayan, on the other hand, is the novelist of middleclass sensibility. He is a natural story-teller in his novels from Swami and Friends (1935) to The Painter of Signs (1976). His novels The Bachelor of Arts (1937), The Dark Room (1938), The English Teacher (1945) and Mr.Sampath (1949) brilliantly and realistically describe the South-Indian life. William Walsh (1983: 250), says that R. K. Narayan..s writing is "a distinctive blend of Western technique and Eastern material." The world of R. K. Narayan..s novels is Malgudi, an imaginary South-Indian town. In the words of Alan Warner (1961: 190) Narayan "writes admirably plain English." His is a very simple and straightforward style of narration. Raja Rao is another prominent Indian novelist writing in English. But he is not as prolific writer as Mulk Raj Anand and R.K.Narayan. His concern with philosophical and mythological aspects distinguishes him from Mulk Raj Anand and R. K. Narayan. His first novel Kanthapura, a masterpiece, describes the village life and peasant sensibility. It shows the influence of Gandhian ideology on an ordinary Indian. R. K. Srivastava (1987: 15) remarks: "Raja Rao..s Kanthapura is a garrulous account of primitivistic, religious, political and social activities of rural people. The novel is not a two-dimensional picture of villagers but a colourful audio-visual presentation ....characterizing the entire country Kanthapura is India in miniature."On language crisis, Raja Rao, in his „forward.. to Kanthapura (1938,rpt. 1971:5-6), says: "We cannot write like English. We should not. We can write only as Indians.

We have grown to look at the large world as part of us." Headds that English is "the language of our intellectual make up…. but not ofour emotional make up." About the rich contribution of Mulk Raj Anand, R. K. Narayan and RajaRao, the makers of Indian novel in English C.D. Narasimhaiah (1973: 63) observes that the „human centrality.. of Mulk Raj Anand, „the comic as a mode of study in maturity.. in R. K. Narayan, and the „metaphysical aspect.. of Raja Rao have really enriched the realmof Indian novel in English. Besides, these three stalwarts, K.S.Venkataramani, A.S.P.Ayyar, Ahmed Ali, Dhan Gopal Mukherji, K. A. Abbas and Humayun Kabir have also written novels on rural, political and social life of India. Thus the major contribution to the Indian novel in English in the pre-Independence era is of men and not of women. Novel became an established art form in the works of the „Three Musketeers.. (M. K. Naik, 1977: 375) – Mulk Raj Anand, R. K.Narayan and Raja Rao- who were still actively engaged in creative writing at the turn of the century. The novel form further evolved and matured in the hands of scholars like Bhabhani Bhattacharya, Manohar Malgonkar, Khushwant Singh, Chaman Nahal, Arun Joshi, Kamala Markandaya, Nayantara Sahgal, Anita Desai, Shashi Deshpande etc. in the post-Independence period.

The post-Independence Indian novel in English has been termed as themodern novel. It is not radically different from the novel in the pre- Independence India. It is no longer imitative. Instead, it has the modern tendencies of experimentation in form, content and technique.

Modernism, though came late to India, it has played an important role in shaping the second generation novelists such as Bhabhani Bhattacharya, B. Rajan, Malgonkar, Khushwant Singh, Chaman Nahal, Arun Joshi, Kamala Markandaya, Ruth PawarJhabvala, Nayantara Sahgal, Anita Desai, Shashi Deshpande and a few others who have made a tremendous contribution to novel in the 1950s, 1960s and1970s. The Indian novelists before Independence were mainly interested in social, political and historical concerns. But later in 1950s a new kind of novel dealing with the contemporary issues appeared on the Indian

literary scene. The psychological novel depicting the human personality and inner realities of life replaced the realistic novel. Makarand Paranjape says (1991: 25), "The novel interprets or creates reality." But the novel cannot be realistic or ompletely devoid of social reality; therefore, there should be balance between the personal and the social. The novels written in the post-Independence period successfully render the Indian reality.

A number of novelists like Arun Joshi and Anita Desai have exploredthe psychological and sociological conflicts in the social and the individual..s life. There is a kind of shift from socio-political concerns to the inner life of human being. The modern Indian writers write about the socio-cultural predicament of the modern man. Many modern novels dealt with mans alienation from his self, his class, his society and humanity at large. In other words, the centre of their novels shifted from the society to an individual. C. Paul Verghese..s comment in this regard is worth quoting (1971: 25). Most ofthe novelists in their eager-ness to find new themes „renounced the largerworld in favour of the inner man.. and continued „a search for the Essence of human living... It is this trend that continued in the seventies and it also shaped the novels of the eighties. Unlike 1930..s and 50s, the year 1980s marks the significant stage in the growth and development of Indian novel in English. It is during the 80s that some very promising Indian English novelists and their nov-els earned great honours and distinctions in the academic world.

The Indian novel in English "has now attained luxuriant growth and branched off in more directions than one," says R. S. Pathak in his „Preface.. to Recent Indian Fiction (1994: 9). It followed a definite pattern of development making tremendous progress in he eighties and nineties in the hands of old masters aswell as the new talented novelists like Salman Rushdie and others. Their achievement lies in finding out the new fictional themes and techniques. In a sense they are contemporary novelists as they deal with the history of the post-Independence India, the pre-dicament ofthe modern man and the contemporary reality in modern India. They made the novel a medium of global expres-sion. Thus the novel, with the publication of Salman Rushdie..s

Booker prizewinner Midnights Children (1981) received an international acclaim and became a major force in the world literature. It has created the Indian tradition of fiction to which belong "Rushdie..s Children" (The New York Times, 16 December, 1991), viz. Amitav Ghosh, Vikram Seth, Allan Sealy, Upamanyu Chatterjee, Shashi Tharoor, Farrukh Dhondy, Rohinton Mistry and Firdaus Kanga. Each one of them produced prize-winning novel. In their hands, the Indian novel in English made tremendous progress. Besides these makers of „new novel.. some other novelists were concerned with the life and the experiences of the minorities in India, for example, Pratap Sharma, Ranga Rao, Boman Desai, Mukunda Rao, Gopal Gandhi and so many others enriched the realm of Indian novel in Englishbeyond the expectations. According to K.R.S.Iyengar (1985: 322) novel is "aliving and evolving literary genre, andis trying, in the hands of its practitioners, a fusion of form, substance and expression that is recognizably Indian yet also bearing the marks of universality.

Developments In English Studies In India

The publication of Gauri Viswanathan's Masks of Conquests: Literary Study and British Rule inIndia (1990), which deals with the ideology and practice of English studies in British India, setthe tone for deliberations on the social and cultural functions of English studies in India. This trend gained momentum in two seminars organized in Delhi and Hyderabad under the aegis ofthe UGC and the British Council in 1988 and 1991 respectively. This was followed by some seminal books like The Lie of the Land: English Literary Studies in India (1992) by RajeswariSunder Rajan, Provocations: The Teaching of English Literature in India (1993) by SudhakarMarathe et al., Rethinking English: Essays in Literature, Language, History (1994) by SvatiJoshi and Subject to Change: Teaching Literature in the Nineties (1998) by Susie Tharu. These much-discussed volumes, which are serious critiques of English studies in India, with the exception of some papers in The Lie of the Land, mainly deal with postgraduate (PG) teaching experiences in elite academic institutions in Indian metropolis like Delhi, Mumbai and Hyderabad. The teaching-

learning scenario at the undergraduate (UG) level in rural India is not a major issue in these books. The focus of these books, however, remains on literary studies alone.

A novice in the field may get the impression that literary studies are synonymous with English studies. Besides, almost all the contributors to these volumes are university teachers of English. Therefore, these books cannot be considered definitive documents of English studies in India (also see Perry 2005 for outsiders' views on these books). Since the last decade of the twentieth century witnessed a serious attempt on the part of Indian academics to question the relevance of teaching British literature in postcolonial India this paper examines the syllabi reforms in the first decade of the twenty-first century.

Emerging Trends In English Studies In India

Recently 'English studies in India' has begun to move away from the study of canonical texts.

The changing global scenario has compelled some Indian universities to take an initiative and introduce innovative and need-based papers relevant to the Indian context, like separate themebased papers; interdisciplinary papers in culture studies and papers in literature and other arts; papers catering to vocational demands like papers in communication skills in English, English for careers and English for academic purposes.

Culture Studies

In the 1990s, Trivedi (1993) found that students of MA English in DU were interested in reading popular literature. However, a decade later, there were no takers for a paper in popular fictionUoP. Even now some universities are refurbishing their syllabi to incorporate papers in popular culture (for example, Bangalore University. 'In the course of things', The Hindu, 7 June 2011).

In the universities surveyed here, CUB is the only university which is offering a separate core as well as elective paper in 'Culture Studies' whereas GoU, PoU, SUR, TU, UoC-K and

UoL offerelective papers in it. CUR offers two core papers titled 'Culture and Society' and an innovative paper 'Adaptations and Relocations'. PoU suggests elective papers in 'Science Fiction', 'Children's Literature' and 'Popular Fiction'. UoC-K offers elective papers in 'Orientalism', 'Culture and Literature' and 'Multiculturalism'.

Communication Skills

Seshadri (1997) expects the departments of English to review their existing courses and modify or restructure them in order to keep pace with the fast changing needs of society. He further feels the need to equip young men and women with the kind of communication skills that they require to operate in a highly competitive world. Since there are comparatively better job opportunities for a PG degree in English than there are for other subjects in Humanities (for example, Indian languages, political science and philosophy), Indian students opt for the MA (English) course.

English For Careers

Krishnaswamy and Sriraman (1994) advise university departments to take into account jobmarket conditions. They warn that English departments in universities must change their content and style of teaching to suit market conditions; otherwise, they will be marginalized. Some university departments like those in UnoM and in deemed universities like CUB, for instance, are taking this warning seriously and have started offering courses which will of interest to students nterest and also those which meet market demands. To cater to the changing needs of its students, UnoM offers a range of elective extra-disciplinary papers like 'Copy Editing', 'Technical Writing', 'New Areas of Knowledge Management', 'Travel, Tourism and Culture' and 'English for Careers'. Other universities have also introduced papers like 'Writing for Media' (CUR and UoC-K), 'Script Writing' (CUB and CUR) and 'Mass Communication' (CUB, MTWU and PoU). Such papers are yet to find a place in the BA (Special English) course.

English For Academic Purposes

Taking into account the academic needs of students, some universities have also introduced core and elective papers related to research writing in their MA (English) courses: 'Research and Writing Methods' (CUB), 'Writing for Academic and Professional Purposes' (OUH) and 'Doing Research' (UoP). Papers related to textual and bibliographical skills, study skills and reference skills have been introduced only by GjU, RDV and PoU. PoU has made available a whole range of electives like 'Advanced Academic Writing', 'Modern Rhetoric' and 'Research Methodology and English for Science and Technology'.

Such innovative and application-oriented papers are occupying spaces originally meant for literary studies. These emerging trends of introducing application-oriented papers in BA (Special English) and MA (English) courses will determine the future of English studies in India perhaps leading to its complete vocationalization.

Examination Useful Questions

Long Type Questions :

1. Why is it necessary to development of Novel in english in India ? Narrate detail.

2. Do you believe trends of english studies in Indian people?

OR

Emerging of english studies trends growing up in India.

3. How to develop the communication skills in english in India ?

Short Type Questions :

1. Explain in english for carreers.

2. How english for academic purposes only ? explain.

3. What do you understand by culture studies ?

1.5 Teaching as Second Language in Indian Context

Study material included in this unit -

- Objectives
- Introduction
- Medium of instruction
- English as second language in India
- Common factors affecting teaching/learning english as a second language
- Learning a language
- Role of a Teacher
- Teaching english as a second language
- Language proficiency tests
- Examination useful questions

Objectives

After study this chapter you will understand the following facts.

- Medium of instruction
- English as second language in India
- Common factors affecting teaching/learning english as a second language
- Learning a language
- Language proficiency test

Introduction

English as stated by Timothy J. Scrase "is not only important in getting a better job, it is everywhere in social interaction. If you can't speak it then you are a nobody". This view makes it clear that English occupies a place of prestige in our country. People belonging not only to a different language groups but also to the same speech community make use of English in their inter-personal communication. In big metropolis of India, it is really difficult to come across any educated person who can speak any Indian language well without avoiding the use of English words. Its importance is not just in how many people speak it but in what it is used for. It is the major language of trade and commerce, news and information in this world of globalization. It is the language of higher education and research, maritime communication, international air traffic control and it is used even for internal air traffic control in countries where it is not a native language. Thus it has attained the status of a global language in the ever changing economic context.

It is quite interesting to note that India, a multilingual nation, is the third largest Englishspeaking country after the US and UK. In India, it is increasingly being perceived as a 'mustknow' language. It has now become a ladder for upward social mobility and 'a window to the world'. Such is the demand for learning this language that a variety of English coaching centres and private-tuition shops,English-medium schools which are mushrooming in a large numbers and are easy to spot almost everywhere in our country, even after independence, clearly indicate the respectable position this language enjoys in the minds of the democratic Indians.

Commenting on the increasing popularity which English language enjoys now-a-days Timothy J. Scrase remarks:

"English is an international language. You feel humiliated if you can't speak English. People think you are dumb."

The view expressed above makes it clear that English language enjoys a respectable position in the Indian context.

In India English is seen not only to be the key to economicprosperity, but for the social value as well. Parents, especially, those belonging to the upper and middle classes, expect their children to get the best type of education and they think that it is possible only through English medium.

On the other hand, people from the lower classes emulate the model-setting behavior of the upper and middle classes. This increasing demand for English has resulted in the mushrooming growth of English-medium schools all over India. Still, there was a bitter controversy among Indian educationists with regard to the place of English in system of education and there has been due to this a constant change of decisions as to what position English should hold in the present setup. With this backdrop a brief historical preview of the status of English language in India is given below.

Every educational system has certain objectives which aim at bringing about desirable changes in pupil. In order to bring about those changes, the institutions arrange learning experience. The success of learning can be judged only in terms of the changes brought about by this experience. This is a learning experience and evaluation.

Thanks to the globalization in all the fields, it necessitates the learning of a language which is international. Undoubtedly, English has become a world language rather than the language of only the English speaking countries such as the UK and the USA because the number of the people who use English as a means of communication exceeds much more than the number of the people who speak it as their mother tongue. In the case of English in India, more than two centuries, India has been directly and indirectly had influence of the language, English on all the fields, such as Education, Medical Science, etc.

Text materials relating to the subjects of Science, Engineering and Technology as also Medicine are available only in English. Moreover, all over India, there is no single language to unite the whole country. Since, in India, several languages are spoken and also one set of people are reluctant to learn one common Indian language, we have to borrow a new non-Indian language.

Considering the above facts, learning English, the universal language, as a Second Language, becomes inseparable branch as also unavoidable in Indian education system. Today's world considers English as a global language because there has never been a language so widely spread or spoken by so many people as English. It makes news daily in ma y countries and is adopted by many countries. It has a special role to play in the countries where it has been accepted as the official language and is being used as a medium of communication. The statistics collected by David Crystal (1997: 61) shows that nearly 670 million people use English with fluency and competency. This figure is steadily growing ever since 1990. English now holds a dominant position in every sphere of human activity. It is a very significant input in all the developments in the world. It has reached the present day status primarily because of two main factors the expansion of British Empire in the 19th century and the emergence of the United States as the leading economic power of the 20th century.

English In India:

Pre-Independence Period:

Due to the British invasion, English language was widely exposed to our country. It is strongly believed that it made its entry when the British first came to India after the incorporation of the East India Company in 1600, and gained roots because of the educational policies of Lord Macaulay. Timothy J. Scrase explains the growth of English in India in the following words:

"Since the days of the British Raj, English remained the language of domination, status and privilege in India. The hegemonic colonial project in India was to create and maintain a class of administrative officers, clerks and compliant civil servants to carry out the task of ruling the vast and expansive subcontinent".

The view expressed above makes it clear that English was the language of the rulers in India, and as a colonial subjects we had no other choice but to learn English. In this way the language started gaining roots in India. British administrators cared little for the cultural wants of the Indian millions. "It was inevitable that culture should be in jeopardy and civilization at its lowest

ebb: no wonder 18th century India was culturally little better than a waste land". Britishers did not want the spread of European type of Education in India. They felt, as has been mentioned in the parliamentary papers (1852-53), that western education would enable Indians to challenge the alien rule as was the case with America. And when they turned to promote the education of Indians,it was a political necessity that made them do so. They adopted orientalism or encouragement of classical learning for their educational policy6 which was opposed by the missionaries like Charles Grant (1746-1823) whose plan was to teach English to the people of India. Meanwhile a controversy arose between 'anglicists' and'orientalists'. It withheld the smooth progress of English in India.

The 'orientalists' advocated the revival of Sanskrit and Persian learning. But the noted Hindu leaders like Raja Ram Mohan Roy and Christian missionaries like William Carey advocated Western education through the medium of English. This missionary effort, as H.R. James opined, was powerfully supported by those progressive Hindus who symbolized "a new found desire on the part of the natives of India for a share in the knowledge and training which they discerned to be a large part of the secret of the superior efficiency of the nations from the west, and the source of what was strong and admirable in English character". Then the people belonging to the middle class advocated and aspired their education in English, which was the language of rulers.

They saw that the capacity to speak and write English enables them for lucrative posts under government, which provided a decent income and an important status in the society. Raja Ram Mohan Roy took the issue with all seriousness. He was against oriental policy of education. When a proposal by General Committee of public instruction for funding a Sanskrit college in Calcutta was put forward, he wrote to Lord Amherst on 11th December, 1913 "the Sanskrit system of education would be the best calculated to keep this country in darkness if such had been the policy of the British legislator. But as the improvement of the native population is the object of the government, it will consequently promote a more liberal and enlightened system of instruction, embracing

mathematics, natural philosophy, chemistry and anatomy with other useful sciences which may be accomplished by employing a few gentlemen of talents and learning educated in Europe, and providing a college furnished with necessary books, instruments and other apparatus".

From the view expressed above it becomes clear that RajaRam Mohan Roy preferred English to Indian languages for academic, scientific and other international reasons. A still greater attack was made on the work of the committee by the directors themselves. They not only felt the superiority of English education, they even expressed the view that "the teaching of mere Hindu or Mohammedan literature meant the teaching of a great deal of what was frivolous, not a little of what was purely mischievous and a small reminder indeed in which utility was in any way concerned".

The statement cited above makes it clear that most of theIndians aspired their education through English mediu and, therefore, they opposed to vernaculars or Indian languages. The sharp differences brought the work of the committee to a standstill and Lord Macaulay was appointed as the president of the committee in 1834. His main contention was that the study of English could be beneficial to those Indians who were pursuing higher studies than Arabic and Sanskrit. He pointed out that there was already an effective demand for English. He argued that: "since indigenous languages were inadequate and chaotic, and indigenous arts and literature were petty futile things. Only 'Western' education with English as the sole medium would deliver the good." He further hopefully thought that:

"If our plans of education are followed up, there would not be a single idolater among the respectable classes of Bengal."

From the views expressed above it is evident that Macaulay's motives in spreading English in India were just to create a group of Indians who would be the interpreters between their rulers and the ruled. He, by spreading English in India, aimed at just creating a class of persons, Indian in blood and color but English in taste, in opinions, morals and intellect. Macaulay's recommendations got the approval of LordBentick and it was published on the 7th March, 1835; and an official resolution

endorsing Macaulay's policy of modern education through English medium was passed. But the teaching of English in systematic way starts from the promulgation of Wood's Dispatch of 1854, which has been called the 'Magna Carta' of Indian education.

In Wood's Dispatch it was declared:

"The English language is to be the medium of instruction in the higher branches, and the vernacular in the lower. English is to be taug t where there is demand for it, but it is not to be substituted for the vernacular languages of thecountry. The system of grant-in-aid is to be basedon the principle of perfect religious neutrality."

From the report cited above it becomes clear that the beginning of the process of providing English language to the bilinguals in India was firmly established with the approval of LordWilliam Bentick to Macaulay's educational policy of modern education in India.

English then gradually spread wider in India and gained roots in the educational system. In 1857 three universities at the then Bombay, Calcutta and Madras were established. By the end of the 19th century two more universities, one at Punjab and the other at Allahabad were setup. The foundation of these universities marked a new epoch in the history of Indian education. This resulted into the spread of schools and colleges, which ultimately resulted in the increase of more number of Indians who achieved mastery in this Language When the British government decided to withdraw state aid to higher English education, people from all states reacted. Lord Curzon the then Viceroy of India read these indications and could not overtake them. The proposal was immediately quashed by his orders. He wanted to remove the chaotic condition of educational institutions. At the Shimla Conference he discussed about what a university should be, which is worth quoting:

"It would be a place for the dissemination of knowledge and the encouragement of learning and it further be a human smithy where character was forged in the furnace of experience, and beaten out on the anvil of truth".

NOTES

The above statement reveals the roles of the educational institutions. Accordingly, an educational institution should be a place for imparting knowledge to learners, and also a place for character building. The English educated Indians, now, were demanding their mother-tongue as the medium of instruction. Their emphasis was on the use of mother-tongue as the medium of instruction and on education closely related to Indian culture. On their demand, the government appointed the Calcutta University Commission in 1917under the chairmanship of Dr. M.E. Sadler, the then vice-chancellor of the University of Leeds. The commission recognized the importance of the mother-tongue. They argued: "mother-tongue may be used only in high schools; in the higher classes they urged the retention of English".

This system of education was opposed by some great Indian leaders like Gokhale and others. Mahatma Gandhi was against English education. He said:

"The existing system of education is defective, apart from its association with an utterly unjust government in three most important matters: i) It is based upon foreign culture to the almost 126

entire exclusion of indigenous culture; ii) It ignores the culture of heart and the hand and confines itself simply to the head, and iii) real education is impossible through a foreign medium".

Referring to the baneful effects of English education Gandhi further adds:

"…English today is studied because of its commercial and so called political values. Our boys and girls think that without English they cannot get government services. Girls are taught English as a passport to marriage…I know husbands who are sorry that their wives cannot talk to them and their friends in English. I know families in which English is being made the mothertongue. All these are for me signs of our slavery and degradation."

These statements cited above make it clear that Gandhiji was against English education. He gave a call to castigate everything that was English-language, manners, clothes all. Therefore, English

education suffered a serious setback. But Gandhiji also appreciated the importance of a foreign language especially English. He says:

"I don't want my house to be walled in all sides and my windows to be stuffed. I want the cultures of all the lands to be blown about my house as freely as possible. I would have our young men and women with literary tastes to learn as much of English and other world languages as they like and expect them to give the benefits of their learning to India and to the world".

Thus the above quote shows that though Gandhiji was totally against English education in India, but he appreciated all the foreign languages, especially English. By 1921, the mother-tongue came to be the medium of instruction in the middle schools and its use was extended to the high schools by 1937. It resulted into the deterioration in the teaching standard.

The Post-Independence Period:

English, the language mostly of the colonizers during theBritish Raj became accepted to the higher strata, educationally, economically and socially progressive class of the Indian societyduring the post-independence period. English is the language of industrialization and modernization, and now it is the language of globalization. Observing the rapid change in the place of English in India Scrase remarked:

"English is recognized as an important global or international language, essential for professional employment and significantly, a key component of the cultural capital of middle class Indians".

The foreign language status of English in India thus appears to have remained for a shorter period initially, and it gradually seems to have acquired the status of a second language.

There are many acronyms in use amongst English teaching professionals and the list seems to be growing daily. 'ESL' is usually taught to immigrants to the country of the target language or to natives of a country such as India where English is an officially recognized second language.

Prof. V.V. Yardi gives clear distinction between a 'foreign' and a 'second' language status as:

"English as a foreign language refers to a situation where it is taught for certain specific purposes viz… reading scientific works, translation, communication at certain levels and for certain purpose only. English as a 'second' language refers to a situation where English is used widely for purposes of administration, education and as a common link-language".

From the view expressed above it seems evident that initiallyEnglish in India might have been used by a limited group and that too for very specific purposes. Its use gradually increased with the establishment of universities, schools and colleges and because of the government policies after independence indicating a shift in its status. Prof. Yardi further asserts: "in India until recently, English was a 'second' language. It is now in the process of acquiring the status of a compulsory 'third' language"

Language Policy In School Education:

The Three- Language Formula:

Language planning for school education in India can be seen more as a question of status planning rather than acquisition planning. The language debate in education in the formative years ofIndia's independence not only brought in awareness among the stakeholders of education, it also enabled the policy makers to fully attempt to realize the constitutional vision of equality of opportunity, linguistic rights of every linguistic and ethnic community and moving towards the goal of achieving universal access to education.

The Three-Language formula which emerged as a political consensus on languages in school education was a strategy to accommodate at least three languages within the ten years of schooling.

The Central Advisory Board on Education (CABE), the oldest statutory body on education in India, initiated the discussion on languages in school education in 1940's and this continued to be a major concern in their discussions until 1960. CABE identified five major issues which required attention:

• The number of languages to be taught at various levels of school education.

• The introduction of second and third languages.

• The place and role of English.

• The place and role of Hindi.

• The teaching of Sanskrit and minor language(s) in school.30

The CABE devised the three-language formula in its 23rdmeeting held in 1956 with a view to removing inequalities among the languages of India. It recommended that three languages should be taught in the Hindi as well as non-Hindi speaking areas of the country at the middle and High school stages and suggested the following two possible formulae:

1(a) (i) mother-tongue or (ii) regional language or (iii) a composite course of mother-tongue and a regional language or (iv) a composite course of mother-tongue and a classical language or (v) a composite course of regional language or a classical language.

(b) Hindi or English

(c) A modern Indian language or a modern European languageprovided it has not already been taken under (a) and (b) above.

2. (a) as above

(b) English or a modern European language

(c) Hindi (for non-Hindi speaking areas) or another modern

Indian language (for Hindi speaking areas). The three-language formula was simplified and approved by the Conference of Chief Ministers held in 1961 as follows:

• The regional language or the mother-tongue when the latter is different from the regional language.

• Hindi or any other Indian language in Hindi speaking areas, and

• English or any other modern European language.32 ABE also deliberated in detail on the study of English as a compulsory subject as recommended by the Education Ministers Conference held in 1957:

• English should be taught as a compulsory language both at the secondary and the university stages, students acquire adequate knowledge of English so as to be able to receive education through this language at the university level.

• English should not be introduced earlier than class V. The precise point at which English should be started at the middle stage was left to each individual state to decide.

A comprehensive view of the study of languages at school was undertaken and concrete recommendations were made by the Education Commission between 1964 and 1966. The commission having taken account of the diversity of the Indian context recommended a modified or graduated three-language formula:

i.   The mother-tongue or the regional language.

ii. The official language of the Union or the associate official language of the Union so long as it exists; and

iii. A modern Indian or foreign language not covered under (i) and (ii) and other than that used as the medium of instruction.

The commission's observation on the status and role of English is of importance from the point of view of language planning and the way the language was perceived by policy planners. The commission said:

"English will continue to enjoy a high status so long as it remains the principal medium of education at the university stage, and the language of administration at the central government and in many of the states. Even after the regional languages become media of higher education in the universities, a working knowledge of English will be a valuable asset for all students and a reasonable proficiency in the language will be necessary for those who proceed to the university".

Thus, this brief historical scan of the evolution of the language policy in India tells us how the apprehension about the dominance of English (as a colonial language which signifies the master's language) has been naturally alleviated by the role which the language has attained. This, inspite of the efforts to contain its spread. Today every child and parent wants the English language.

Medium Of Instruction:

The three-language formula envisaged that language teachingneeds to be multilingual not only in terms of the number of languages offered to children but also in terms of evolving strategiesthat would use the multilingual classroom as a resource. Homelanguage or mothertongue of children should be the medium of instruction in primary schools and that this would lead to harmonious personal development and contribute to a pedagogically sound high quality education. This vision was proposed by the Education Commission in 1964-66 and was reflected again in the National Curricular Frameworks from 1975, the National Education Policy (GOI 1986), and the Programme of Action (GOI 1992). Following Table No. summarizes the proportion of primary and upper-primary schools which taught using the mother-tongue in 2002 in comparison with the situation ten years earlier, in 1993.

English As A Second Language In India

English in India is a question of linguistic centralism while the other Indian languages lead to linguistic regionalism.. A foreign language existing so firmly and distinctly has posed a problem to the country. From Macaulay to Manmohan Singh, we have seen many reports and commissions; but these have been only exhortations and attempts to improve the position of regional languages. Yet, the language problem became more Complicated without any practical solution. It developed into a very serious problem as no solution has been offered. The growing modernization and internationalism in the world prevented us from doing away with the English language. Besides, Indian languages are often associated with tradition and are understood to be anti-modern. Therefore, a complete switchover to the Indian languages would lead to educational chaos and total isolation from the developments on the international arena. We could not risk this because of the cultural, social, political and economic reasons. Hence, this situation needed an urgent solution.

The only resolution that could be thought of was a need for coexistence of English with Indian languages. As a result, we had to define the role of English in India and its relationship with Indian languages. This gave rise to language planning. Consequently,

the major Indian languages became the Regional Languages.' Hindi was given the status of Official Language and English was accepted as the other Official Language. It was considered that English would promote integration as it cannot be identified with any region. Further, the role of English was strengthened and consolidated as English was recognized and perceived as:

- The language of knowledge (Science and Technology)

- The language of liberal, modern thinking

- A window on the world

- The language of library, reason

Thus, the three language formula came into existence. This policy was proposed in 1956 by the Central Advisory Board on Education and was adopted at the Chief Minister's conference in 1961. The policy aimed at making English an integral part of the school education in India. This naturally restricted the learning and use of Hindi and the students started learning English as a second language. Accordingly, the classical languages, particularly Sanskrit, suffered a decline and English became the second language in education both in Hindi and non-Hindi speaking areas.

The Education Commission 1964-66 has identified English as a 'library language' and felt that it would continue essentially in higher education. Therefore, the Commission recommended that English should begin from class V.

When we look at the language study situation in the school curriculum, the students study three languages:

- The first language, L1 is introduced in the school from grade I to X. This would be usually the mother tongue of the students and, in general, the medium of expression and social communication.

- The second language, L2 is introduced either at grade V or VI. L2 would be either the state official language or national language.

- The third language, L3 is generally introduced simultaneously or immediately after the introduction of second language. The main objective of the study of L3 is mainly to prepare the students for all India mobility.

From the point of view of language policy, English is defined as L3 the third language, and it cannot be L2. But, English is introduced and studied as the second language. Here is the Report of the Working Group on the Study of Languages (NCERT, 1986) which suggests the beginning of the study of the three languages in the school curriculum in the Context of three language formula.

- Primary stage—only Mother Tongue/Regional Languages, both as a subject and medium, from class I to V.

- Post-Primary/Secondary — English and Modern Indian Language. Three languages to be taught - State Language, one Modern Indian Language (including Hindi) and English.

- Secondary stage — the same pattern as in post primary.

- Senior Secondary — State Language and optionally, English for Specific Purposes. From the above description, we can observe the relative 'constancy' of English and also how the concept of 'second language' becomes diffused. Again, the same report speaks on the importance of English, since-knowledge is growing at a breath-taking pace. English should primarily be taught, so that, at the end of a four/five year course:

i.   It can be used as a 'library language' to enable the learner to keep abreast of the latest assertions to different fields of knowledge.

ii. It can enable the learner to pursue higher/professional education The basic competencies in the first four years should be in that of reading, writing, listening and speaking (and) these should be developed with reference to a specific corpus of language material and communication needs.

Further, the National Curriculum for Elementary and Secondary Education (NCERT, 1989) recommends a free alteration of English either as a second language or as a third language. These provisions made English the second language. The functions of English are only ancillary; because, nowhere in the country English is used to maintain personal relations or carryon social and cultural activities or business.

To quote Kapoor , "Now the failure in teaching English as a second language stems not from the theory, training and mechanics of language teaching, but from the intrinsic conceptual inappropriateness in accepting English as a second language, L2, pedagogically and linguistically. Analyzing the issue further, he says that English certainly is not useful in our day to day life. This, in fact, is the main problem of teaching English in India. Being a foreign language it cannot function as a second language; but it has been uniformly imposed as L2 all over the country. What is more, when one looks at the functions, goals and instructional objectives, it is evident that English is to be taught as L2. To agree with Kapoor, all the Indian students study English as one of the Indian languages; and therefore, are not able to achieve any competence. All the remedial courses, U.G.C sponsored institutes, use of technology, audio cassettes, the language laboratory, radio, TV, reviews of syllabi, testing, error analysis have not helped in improving students' standards in any way. The standard of English has always fallen short of even the minimum level, except in certain cases.

A review of the problem will reinforce the following facts:

• Teaching practices are to be improved

• Objectives and needs of teaching are to be matched

• Clarity about basic concepts is to be brought

• Principles and methods of teaching are to be coordinated

Hence, there is an urgent need to re-examine the problem and do the needful.

Common Factors Affecting Teaching/Learning English As

A Second Language

There are so many factors that affect the teaching-learning process in India. Thestudents in India can be categorized into two; the one is having the regional language as medium of study from the primary level and the other is having English as the medium of study. Hence, the problem of teaching English as a second language , to the Indian students starts from the preschooling.

Further environment and family background play vital role in success of learning process. For example, countries like India, where majority of the people are farmers, have the poor background in education. Moreover, the income of majority of the families is not adequate. Hence, the parents are not interested in giving good education background to their children. In contrast, they are willing to engage the children in some jobs in order to earn money. This is the very basic reason and the affecting factor in teaching.

Secondly, the infrastructure, viz. school buildings – class rooms, labs, etc. is not adequate as required. The first category of the students are almost compelled to attend their classes under the trees even after several five year plans. Majority of the students are coming from village and also their parents are farmers and uneducated. If the nature fails, the survival of the farmers will be questionable. Hence, the students are mentally discouraged due to the family conditions. In the second category, the students are having enough background in basic education since their parents are educated and they do not depend on the nature much. Many of the students from second category are joining in English medium schools and hence, they do not find much difficulty in pursuing their higher education. Moreover majority of the families of second category are dwelling in towns and cities and hence, they have easy access of quality education.

But, the first category of students are scoring good marks the examinations conducted. It proves that they are having good writing skill in English. The only thing is that they have to be given Ntraining in oral English communication also. Hence, a common programme for English Language Teaching must be framed in the pre-schooling itself.

Learning A Language

Each language is structured differently, and the different structures offer usersdifferent suggestions to meaning. so when we learn our first language, our brain / mind 'tunes into' the way the particular ll works, and we learn to pay attention to particular cues to meaning that are most helpful. When we meet a new language, our brain / mind automatically tries to apply the first

language experience by looking for familiar cues.Part of learning a foreign language is developing new understandings about the particular cues to meaning that the new language offers, and that differ from those of our first language. The transferability of knowledge, skills and strategies across languages depends closely on how the two written languages work.

Role Of A Teacher

As said by Sir Philip Sydney, teaching is the end of all learning. A teacher's primaryrole is not only to enable the students to understand what he is intending to say or teach. It is also the duty of the teacher to understand what the student wants and says. In teaching-learning process, two things play the vital roles; one is the delivering capacity of the teacher and the other one is the receiving capacity of the students. Without the two aspects, the teaching-learning process will not be a successful one. Teaching-learning process is just like making sound by clapping.

Without two hands we cannot clap. Like that without a right teacher and the students, the teachinglearning process is meaningless. Teaching should be a worthy of learning a concept deeply and broadly. Teaching should facilitate the students to face the world which is full of political, social, international as well as personal controversies, without fear. It should give selfconfidence to the students. By the effective teaching, the students should be enabled to go for right choices, judgments and also decisions individually In the process of teaching-learning, the teacher should try to understand the students first. Then only, he can enable the students to understand him or his teaching. Theory with practice on some of the teaching topics, may enable the students to understand the concept easily. Success of a teacher in his/her attempt in enabling thestudents to understand what is the concept taught by the teacher, depends on themethods he/she applies.

The teacher may be a good, but the students' physical problem may lead him to ignorethe teaching. Or sometimes, the background of family of the students may drive him to be dull.

Hence, the teacher should take into account everything At the school level, theteaching-learning process is checked up the teacher by repeated class tests and examinations. Based on the result

(marks scored by the students), different methods are adopted to improve teaching in case of negative result. At the college levels also the same traditional (Macaulay) method of examinations is used. The only difference is the volume of syllabus prescribed for the colleges students will be more than that of the school level. As Carl Rogers said, the teacher should first forget that she/he is a teacher. Instead, she/he must possess the skills of a facilitator of learninggenuineness, prizing and empathy.

Teaching English As A Second Language

The Council of Chief State School Officers (CCSSO), U.S., defines English language proficiency in this way:

A fully English proficient student is able to use English to ask questions, to understand teachers, and reading materials, to test ideas, and to challenge what is being asked in the classroom. Four language skills contribute to proficiency as follows:

1. *Reading* - the ability to comprehend and interpret text at the age and gradeappropriate level.

2. *Listening* - the ability to understand the language of the teacher and instruction, comprehend and extract information, and follow the instructional discourse through which teachers provide information.

3. *Writing* - the ability to produce written text with content and format fulfilling classroom assignments at the age and grade-appropriate level. 4. *Speaking* - the ability to use oral language appropriately and effectively in learning activities (such as peer tutoring, collaborative learning activities, and question/answer sessions) within the classroom and in social interactions within the school.Hence, the teacher should keep in mind while teaching English as a second languageto the students.

Language Proficiency Tests

Oller and Damico (1991) indicate that language proficiency tests can be associated with three schools of thought. The first of these trends, the discrete point approach, was based on the assumption that language proficiency: ...consisted of separable

components of phonology, morphology, lexicon, syntax, and so on, each of which could be further divided into distinct inventories of elements (e.g., sounds, classes of sounds or phonemes, syllables, morphemes, words, idioms, phrase structures, etc). They describe language tests based on the discrete point approach in the following way:

Following the discrete point model, a test could not be valid if it mixed several skills or domains of structure (Lado, 1961). By this model, presumably the ideal assessment would involve the evaluation of each of the domains of structure and each of the skills of interest. Then, all the results could be combined to form a total picture of language proficiency. A discrete point language proficiency test typically uses testing formats such as phoneme discrimination tasks where the test taker is required to determine whether or not two words presented aurally are the same or different (e.g., /ten/ versus /den/). A similar example might be a test designed to measure vocabulary which requires the test taker to select the appropriate option from a set of fixed choices.

Examination Useful Questions

Long Type Questions :

1. What should be the instruction of institutions in India ?

2. What kinds of factors affects teaching or learning english as a second language ? Narrat in detail.

3. Is english lanugage or teaching as second language in India ? Is it necessary ? Explain.

Short Type Questions :

1. What do you mean by Learning Language ?

2. What is the role of a Teacher in english teaching ? Explain.

3. What do you understand by Language Proficiency Test? Is it necessary for the scholars ?

Block - II

Instructional Planning

Unit 1 :   Aims and objectives of Teaching English at different
           stages of schooling

Unit 2 :   Instructional Planning: Need and Importance

Unit 3 :   Block and lesson plan: Need and Importance

Unit 4 :   Procedure of Block and Lesson Planning

Unit 5 :   Planning and adapting Blocks and lessons for children
           with disabilities

NOTES

2.1 | Aims and objectives of Teaching English at different stages of schooling

Study material included in this unit -

- Objectives
- Introduction
- Aims Of Teaching English In India
- Specifications Under Listening
- Specifications Under Speaking
- Specifications Under Reading
- Specifications Under Writing
- The National Curriculum Framework Level
- Objectives Of Teacher Education Programme At Secondary Level As:
- Objectives Of Teacher Education At The Higher Secondary Stage As Recommended By Ncte (Academic Stream):
- Objectives Of Teacher Education At The Senior Secondary Stage (Vocational Stream)
- Examination useful questions

Objectives

After study this chapter you will understand the following facts.

- Aims Of Teaching English In India
- Specifications Under Listening
- Specifications Under Speaking
- Specifications Under Reading
- Specifications Under Writing
- The National Curriculum Framework Level
- Objectives Of Teacher Education Programme At Secondary Level As:
- Objectives Of Teacher Education At The Higher Secondary Stage As Recommended By Ncte (Academic Stream):
- Objectives Of Teacher Education At The Senior Secondary Stage (Vocational Stream)

Introduction

English, although a foreign language is now as much an Indian language as any other. English has been taughtin our schools and colleges for many decades. It occupies the position of associate official language. It is usedwidely as a link language in offices and among the educated people. It is not only a compulsory subject atschool, college and university but is also the medium of instruction to the large extent. It is the language ofscience and technology. It occupies the position of a second language in the school curriculum and for highereducation. English language has been assigned the role of library language. Without exception every secondaryschool child has to learn English as a subject, usually for six years but in some cases for three years only.

This contemporary position of English in India shows English language teaching occurring at all levels ofEducation, mainly as a second language. This brings us to our present topic of interest - a history of Englishlanguage teaching in India.

English language teaching as a discipline has come into its own during the past several decades both in Indiaand abroad and along with it English language teaching historiography also has gained prominence. It is nowpossible to cite a large body of literature devoted to this area of study. But in India, even though Englishlanguage teaching has been going on for many decades there is no document, which contains a comprehensivehistory of English language teaching in India. Now English language teaching has gained the status of a newdiscipline and also has gained relative importance on our educational programmes. It is felt that acomprehensive history of English language teaching in India is needed.

"I would have English as an associate, additional language, which can be used not because of facilities, butbecause I do not wish the people of non-Hindi areas to feel that certain doors of advance are closed to them. So I would have it as an alternative language as long as people of India require it"- Pt. Jawaharlal Nehru,(from

the Convocation Address, delivered at University of Pune on 27th Jan. 1955).

English has become the language of Governments, Education, advancement, jobs and a symbol of selfimprovement. The new ideas about language, the dimensions of usage and the new development in educationaltechnology have given rise to branches in the use of English. Though the use of English as a medium ofcommunication in India dates back to the colonial days, the native non-English speaker especially from the ruralinland, frets and fusses when exposed to a situation where he has to communicate inevitably in English.

Similarly, teaching English to the Indian students is the biggest challenge. Though enough awareness isprevailing among the students, parents and society and even among politicians, the majority of our studentsstruggle a lot to acquire the language. On the other hand, teachers too equally toil and moil to find a suitablemethodology to facilitate the students in acquiring the English language.

We have, in general, urban, semi-urban and rural students. And even among these, we have learners, who haveall among studied through English medium and learners who have studied through the regional medium withEnglish as one of the subjects. In addition, we have the learners from varied socio-economic, linguistic andcomplex cultural backgrounds. This situation stands to testify that we have an awesome number of learners, anamazing variety among them and varying kinds of competence of English language among the learners. Tonarrow down the above classification, we can see three kinds of students in any classroom. They are, Students who are really good in handling the English language; students who are not capable of learning the language,most often from the first generation category, but carry in their innate hearts the insatiable desire to speak inEnglish; and finally, students who refuse to learn the language. As a language teacher something must be doneto attract and satisfy all these students and enable them to acquire the language.

Conventionally, teachers of English teach the foreign language either by explaining the meaning or bytranslating the text in English into the regional language, i.e. in L1. This sort of teaching helps the learner inlearning the text and simplifies the job of the teacher in explaining the text. But in reality, the learners areincapable of weaning themselves away from the mother tongue, because the teacher has also made him moredependent on mother tongue. As such, the students have not acquired any skill of the language and notconfident in English. The situation will be worse in the areas of productive skills, i.e. in speaking and writing. We all know that when a student enters college, coming from a regional medium school, coping with theEnglish medium instruction is his greatest difficulty. As such college teachers are compelled to teach throughregional language. If the teachers refuse to use translation, then they cannot reach the students through theirteaching and students resort to the use of bazaar guides, which have the translated and transliterated version ofthe essays. Of course students feel comfortable through the language, which they have acquired naturally, as apart of the process of growing up. As such in a multi-lingual country, it is a difficult problem to reconcile theuse of regional languages with a common language. This situation generally prevails in most of the educational institutions and we cannot squarely blame thestudents and teachers. Many Commissions for educations reform in India have presented their contemplatedreports and we are yet to achieve the much-expected reform. The main reason for such a situation could be theabsence of any concrete and applicable language formula and even the existing ones could not be implementedin to for want of enough cooperation and support from Political institutions, Central and State Governments andof course from Universities too.

As a result, teachers are made to teach English language without any clear-cut and achievable aims. To add fuelto fire, teachers of English are given the conventional course books, prescribed by the authorities of literarytexts. However realization is growing to the dire need to modify English language teaching to suit amultilingual and multicultural country. Moreover, the objectives

of teaching English language should benarrowed down to the application of the language by the students in their day-to-day conversation and to make the student aware of discourse organization and to develop proficiency in manipulating and producingdiscourses wellformed in terms of grammar, meaning, intention and contextual appropriateness. But then, conservatively or conventionally most of the teachers are happy at explaining the meaning of a text inEnglish language, as if it is a subject. Due to the system of education, due to the non-availability of thestandardized text books, due to the dearth of regular training to teachers of English and also due to the lack ofpreparedness among teachers, opportunity to offer a skill based teaching programme is mostly absent. Allen and Corder rightly remark, "If language is knowledge, then learning it will share some of the characteristics of learning, say, Chemistry; if it is skilful behaviour, it will be something acquire through practice; if it is an object, we may get to know itthrough descriptions or thorough descriptions or thorough use, while if it is a social event, we shall wish toparticipate in the social interactions in which it is manifest"('Error Analysis and Inter-language', Oxford University Press, p.2, 1973).

As such teachers of English language must realize that their role is to help the students to acquire the skills oflanguage and once they achieve it, they can manage any subject and any situation. In fact, as Allen and Corder further say,

"Language teachers are not so much teachers of language, that is, a new and unfamiliar set of manifestations ofwhat their students already process".('Error Analysis and Inter-language', Oxford University Press, p.68, 1973). This clearly explains that teachers have to tap the hidden resources of the students by infusing or booting up theconfidence level of the students. Teachers have to create the situation in such a way to enable the students toenjoy the skill oriented language drills and at the same time learn the peculiarities and the techniques oflanguage. For this the teacher have to acquaint themselves with the salient features of the language so that theycan develop an insight into how the language works.

Without this, it will be very difficult to see the rays of success in any of their efforts in imparting language items.

What is meant here is that the teacher has to attempt to train the students in accomplishing the skills of language and there is no need to acquire knowledge about the language. If the teacher explains the meaning of a text, the teacher is teaching the language as a subject. On the other hand, if a teacher trains the students in the skills of the language and give enough practice then the teacher teaches the language as a language. Of course, teachers are hard pressed for time to cover the syllabus and cannot spare much time to handle the language items. And students will also make complains that the teacher has not taught the lessons. In such conservative situations, the teacher can spare at least ten minutes in each class to train the students in language items. The students can learn and acquire the language under the able guidance of the teacher. The remaining time can be utilized for teaching the students in the conventional or expected manner. It is vital, therefore that every teacher should aim at directing every classroom to equip the students with the basic language skills they really need.

Among the four skills of a language- listening, speaking, reading and writing, the conventional teacher concentrates much on writing and reading. Very rarely a few minutes are spared to speaking and listening. The excuse usually made by the teachers is lack of time. But in the words of John Haycraft, "To be able to use the language to convey thoughts, intentions, wishes, information, etc. a person needs a mastery of various skills of language."

A course in English Literature should concentrate on improving the language proficiency and literary competence of learners. But the present system trains learners only in mastering the literary content of the syllabus. No efforts have been taken to improve their Listening, Speaking, Reading and Writing (LSRW) skills, Study skills and Dictionary skills and to strengthen their critical sensibilities. So there is a need to train students with an alternative syllabus, which will help learners develop their communication skills and sharpen their literary sensibilities as well.

In the rating of LSRW skills and Study skills, both the students and teachers have acknowledged the fact thatthe former lacked minimum language abilities and skills required to follow lectures in English and study theprescribed texts. But then while estimating the LSRW skills and study skills, the group mean of the variablesindicates that students have rated their skills in 4-points scale higher than the evaluation of their teachers. Herethe rating of the teachers can be taken into consideration, as it is a natural tendency to rate oneself high in self-rating.

English plays a an important role in producing and promoting changes and accepting new trends in the modernIndian society. English generates modernity, imparts new knowledge and skills and gives a formal system ofliving which is found in the developed countries of the world. Majority of the standard journals and magazinesare published in English. It is true that if we have knowledge of reading, writing, understanding, speaking English, we would have better knowledge of science and technology, social sciences, industry and health. Language experts agreed that English learning is a very important aspect of life. English has enjoyed and stillenjoys a very important place in the curriculum of Anglo-Vernacular schools in our country. It has been used asan official language, the language of administration of courts, legislature, etc. It is a language which has a richliterature and also covers the vast spectrum of science and technology as well as industries and commerce.

English also plays an important role in the national life of the country. It still continues to influence the life andprofession of the majority of educated Indians in every walk of life. The teaching of English has traveled a longway during fifty years in free India but the controversies and contradictions remain the same as before. The fateof English language teachers and learners does not seem to be very bright, if the activities of the variousacademic bodies at the boards and the universities level are considered seriously. The academic positions areover-shadowed by non-academic ones and the teaching of English remains an activity,

questionable in its relevance. We have had a variety of English language teaching programmes in our country at the secondary andtertiary levels : programmes organized by the District Centres, ELT Institutes, Regional Institutes of English,Regional Colleges of Education, Central Institute of English and Foreign Languages, etc. In addition, theseinstitutions have been organizing a variety of workshops, seminars, conferences and short courses. We have hada number of review type evaluations of ELT programmes. ELT programmes in our country may be viewed as anetwork of process - creating English based, high English and low English, English centered switching andmixing. These programmes are designed to help learners learn how to mean in a multi-lingual setting. Inmaking ELT programmes effective we may use the following suggestions - language choice and languageordering in a multi-lingual setting, the role of English as a source language, the status of English as an associatenational official language, the function of English as an international link language, etc.

In the educational scenario of India today, the abilities of teaching and learning English language seem to besadly lacking. This lacunae can be attributed to a number of factors, the major one being the lack of motivationon the part of students due to various reasons such as - lack of awareness regarding the importance and scope ofthe English language, faculty teaching techniques, lack of interest of knowledge of books which may not havepractical application, stereotype kind of syllabi which may not cater the needs of the students. The stalwartsfrom the field of education need to realize that what is needed is a revolution in the present syllabi which createsbookworms and not efficient communicators. The objective of teaching as well as learning English in Indianeeds to be defined in clear terms.

Aims of Teaching English in India

As the English language is getting consolidated as a global language, it is indispensablefor all the countries to teach and learn English. Otherwise, it is difficult to keep pace with thedevelopment in

the world. In particular, it is very essential for a multilingual and developingcountry like India to learn this global language. Hence, to make the learning of English effectiveand successful a teacher should consider the following aims and objectives.

They are to enable our students:

- listen and understand English when someone speaks it at a normal conversational speed

- use English for communication

- read English and understand the content

- write English for communication

- enjoy Simple poems

- develop interest in library reading and listening

There are a number of sub-skills under these broad skills of listening, speaking, reading and writing, which have to be carefully cultivated in the process of teaching.

Specifications under listening

- distinguish the characteristics of English sounds

- understand the tone of the speaker who may express feelings of politeness, fear, anger etc.

Specifications under Speaking

- produce the correct sounds and clusters of sounds

- use the correct stress patterns, pauses and intonation

- use the appropriate words and sentence patterns

Specifications under Reading

- read the passage silently and fast

- understand the central idea of the passage

- locate key words, key phrases and key sentences present in the passage

- guess the meaning of new words in context

- give a suitable title to the passage

Specifications under Writing

- write grammatically correct sentences

- use appropriate words, phrases and sentence patterns

- follow a logical sequence

- organize writing in paragraphs

- avoid unnecessary repetition

- write with correct spelling and use marks of punctuation its unique features.

Objectives of teaching English.

We know it very well that teaching of any subject is a social and cultural activity. It is not so easy to teach any subject as it appears while teaching, a teacher has to keep in mind the aims and objectives of his subject. In other words we can say that teaching of any subject becomes much effective when the teacher is fully conscious of the aims and objectives of teaching of that subject. A good teacher thinks that his teaching should be effective. All of us know it very well that the basic principle of teaching is "know what you do and only do what you know ".

Teaching requires certain directions. After all, success of teaching depends on the aims and objectives of teaching. In teaching of English P.Gurrey writes "It is highly desirable to know exactly what one is hoping to achieve. If this can be clearly seen, then the best way of getting to work us ually becomes evident. We ought, therefore, to consider carefully what we are trying to do when we are teaching English.

Indian people consider English as a second language. It is not the medium of instruction for a majority of the students. It is an instrument, a means for acquiring knowledge. The aim of teaching English in India is to help students to acquire practical command of English. In other words, It means that students should be able to understand speak English, read and write English.

The National Curriculum framework level

(NCF 2005) guided that the goals for second language curriculum are twofold.

(a) Attainment of a basic proficiency such as is required in natural language learning.

(b) The development of language in to an instrument for abstract thought.

The teacher should keep in mind the aims of teaching English. The teacher should always emphasize on the aims of teaching of English. It will help to teach effectively. These objectives are to be set in line with the objectives mentioned in the syllabus guidelines of National curriculum framework (NCF 2005) Objectives are delineated at two levels.

(i) At elementary level and

(ii) At secondary level.

Objectives of teaching English at Elementary level. Skill based subject , Hence at the Elementary level the objective of teaching English should be to develop all the four fundamental skills among them ie-LSRW

- Listening

- Speaking

- Reading and

- Writing

This can be done by familiarizing the child with the spoken language by exposing them to the language in meaningful, interesting and real life situations through the mother tongue, signs, visuals, pictures, sketches, gestures, letters, words, single word questions and answers. Slowly the exposure to the language should move-to enable them to read and write, besides listening and speaking.

Hence the objectives of teaching English at Elementary level are to enable the students.

- To listen English with proper understanding

- To speak English correctly ie

Producing sounds with proper stress and intonation.

- To transform the silent written / printed language in to living speech.

- To enrich vocabulary through telling, re- telling, reading aloud.

- To read with ease

- To follow the instructions given in the target language.

- To recite the small poems.

- To classify the words, nouns, action words (verb) , describing words adjectives, linkers (conjunctions) etc.

- To write words simple meaningful sentences correctly.

Objectives of teaching English at secondary level.

Linguistics never differentiates between lower level and higher level objectives. It thinks all its four objectives viz- Listening, Speaking, Reading and Writing (LSRW) are to be realized at both the levels. To these linguistic objectives, literature adds two more viz- Creativity and Appreciation. These two objectives are purely higher level.

Linguistic and literary objectives are inter- linked with each other. They are not independent and inseparable from literature. It is

true that literary objectives cannot be realised at the primary level. But we see that their seeds are sown in language teaching from elementary level that is from the very beginning.

Thus along with the attainment of basic proficiencies the development of abstract thoughts, creativity and appreciation must be the objectives of teaching English at secondary level. An attempt is to be made to encourage the pupils in the two final years in a school to thus begin appreciation of literary forms of the English writings and the cultural enjoyment of the English language. The material thus presented should be suitably adapted to the needs of their course in a simple and suitable linguistic point of view.

At the close of school career an average pupil should be able to:

(i)   Understand and follow talks in English on general topics within the prescribed vocabulary and sentence structures.

(ii)   Talk freely within the range of language items and express suitably.

(iii)   Read books and similar other material written in simplified English as per the structures and vocabulary, and to follow easy books with detailed notes. This material should within their group.

(iv)   Write correctly in English on familiar topics fit to be expressed within the range of the prescribed vocabulary and sentence structures.

(v)   Write creatively and independently on general topics. (vi) Create wider reading interest.

(vii)   Speak in a given situation (production skill) (fluency & accuracy in speaking & writing)

(viii) Develop study skill / reference skill.

(ix)   Achieve greater proficiency.

These aims may also be described as reception and expression techniques. Reception means understanding spoken and written matter in a language like English, while expression stands for speaking and writing a language – English.

Objectives of Teacher Education Programme at Secondary Level As :

- To maintain the continuity of elementary education and toprepare students for the study of diversified courses and appropriate selection of subjects at the senior secondary stage,

- To empower the prospective teachers to adopt disciplinary approach in teaching, and to develop among students interest in such studies.

- To enable them to understand the implications of liberalization, privatization, globalization (LPG) free market, W.T.O. and

  Outsourcing etc. on education and adopt precautionary measures against their unsound effects.

- To train them in the use of ICT, its advantages, disadvantages and safeguards,

- To curtail the educational and cultural gap between the rich and the poor the schools meant for them by adopting suitable educational approaches.

- To develop among the prospective teachers love for Indian culture, and its contribution to the world and to inculcate a sense of national pride and identity.

- To enable them to develop the teaching competencies and performance skills for the subjects they have to teach, using appropriate aids including ICT, organize supplementary educational activities and elicit community cooperation,

- To empower student teachers not only to understand the nature of subjects but also the unity and integrity of knowledge,

- To prepare them for the development of personality, inculcation of values, fostering the spirit of citizenship and patriotic feeling.

- To create among them the awareness of environmental protection and need to maintain an ecological balance. • To enable students to acquire, construct, process and utilize knowledge as per the requirement of circumstances,

- To help them to grasp the main thrust of the curriculum and develop appropriate transactional and evaluation strategies for the same.

- To enable them to integrate yogic, health, physical, aesthetic and inclusive education with other educational activities.

- To enable the prospective teachers to orient and sensitize the students with care and caution about Life Skill education. HIV / AIDS preventive education, reproductive health, etc.

- To develop among them the capacity for undertaking action research for improving the quality of education, for the solution of its problems and to evolve the culture specific and communityoriented pedagogy.

- To help them evolve happy and healthy school and community relationship and promote interest in life long learning,

- To acquaint them with Indian nation's distinctive character of 'unity of diversity' and adopt curriculum development practices to strengthen them. Similarly, a few more objectives may be formulated in consonance with the emerging trends in the context of local to global scenario.

Objectives of Teacher Education at the Higher Secondary Stage as Recommended by NCTE (Academic Stream)

- To develop among teachers an acceptable desired perspective about academic stream and understanding of its nature, purpose and philosophy,

- To make them aware of the philosophy, purpose and teaching learning strategies of the subjects they have to teach,

- To empower them to make indepth pedagogical analysis of the subjects they have to teach and understand their relevance to tertiary education.

- To empower prospective teachers to comprehend the characteristics of students for making suitable educational provisions for them.

- To enable them to guide learners and prepare them for self – study, independent learning, to develop reference skills, undertake group learning, critical thinking, conceptualization, self – evaluation of their own performance and derive knowledge / information from ICT, mass media and MCLS,

- To develop among them the competencies to communicate abstract and complex ideas and concepts in simple terms,

- To make them understand the objectives, transactional strategies, evaluation techniques and curriculum designing in different areas of study at this stage,

- To empower the prospective student teachers to understand the regional specifies and educational demands and establish correlation with the main stream of national life and to suggest suitable solutions there off.

- To develop among them the skills for promoting patriotic feeling national consciousness, social cohesion, communal harmony and universal brotherhood.

- To enable the perspective teachers to evolve need based andculture specific pedagogy,

- To make them aware of national problems, environmental crisis and Indian cultural ethos and

- To enable them to orient and sensitize the students about HIV / AIDS, preventive education and to bring attitudinal

change inunderstanding numeriuos problems relating to healthy life, life skill development, stigma and discrimination etc.

Objectives of Teacher Education at the Senior Secondary Stage (Vocational Stream)

The programme of teacher education for the vocational subjects has to achieve the following targets in the domain of competencies of student teachers.

- To impart enriched vocational education which is essential for success in competitive and open market economy,

- To transform the nature of traditional vocations and modernize them to achieve success,

- To enable them to impart the skills of marketing, market survey, salesmanship and advertisement,

- To empower them to develop higher and finer vocational skills and competencies among the prospective teachers and the ability to foster them among their students,

- To enable them to design courses and competencies needed for self – employment,

- To take precautions against becoming narrow specialists and educationally inferior workmen and

- To enable the prospective teachers to inculcate dignity and morality of work and produce work culture among their students.

Examination Useful Questions

Long Type Questions :

1. What do you understand by Teacher Education Programme in secondary school ? Explain in detail.

2. What is your opinion regarding Teacher Education in the Senior Secondary stage ? Is it necessary ? Why ?

3. Write all specifications of Teaching english in India.

Short Type Questions :

1. What do you understand by Listening ? Write briefly.

2. What do you mean by speaking skills in english ? Give detail.

3. How to developed reading and writing skills ? Explain.

2.2 | Instructional Planning: Need And Importance

Study material included in this unit -

- Objectives
- Introduction
- Instructional Planning
- Instructional Resources
- Advantages And Disadvantages Of Instruction
  Planning
- Importance Of Instructional Planning
- Examination useful questions

Objectives

After study this chapter you will understand the following facts.

- Instructional Planning
- Instructional Resources
- Advantages And Disadvantages Of Instruction Planning
- Importance Of Instructional Planning:

Introduction

The purpose of schools is to educate students, but what does it mean to educate? Under what circumstances can a teacher claim credit for helping to educate a student? To **educate** means to help students change and to help them learn and do new things. When teachers have helped students to read, identify parts of speech in a sentence, use the scientific method, or write a cohesive paragraph, they have educated these students. Many experts describe education as a process intended to help students change in important and desirable ways. This view leads to a fundamental question all teachers have to ask themselves: what do I want my students to know or be able to do following instruction that they did not know or do at the start of instruction? Education is the process of fostering these important and desired student changes.

It is important to point out, however, that this view of education is not the only possible one. Thoughtful critics often suggest that education conceived solely as a process of preplanned student behaviour change can lead to a preoccupation with narrow expectations or learning outcomes and afford the student virtually no role in the creation of his or her own educational program. Critics recognize the importance of a teacher's ability to artistically build upon a student's prior experience and to seek multiple, not necessarily predefined, outcomes from instruction. But despite the merits of alternative views, education for most teachers is conceived, practised, and assessed with the primary function of helping to change learners in desired ways.

A **curriculum** describes the skills, performances, knowledge, and attitudes students are expected to learn in school. The curriculum contains expectations or learning outcomes, which are statements of desired student learning, and descriptions of the methods and materials that will be used to help students attain this. The methods and processes actually used to change students' behaviour are called **instruction**. Lectures, discussions, worksheets, cooperative

projects, and homework are but a few of the instructional techniques used to help students learn.

Students undergo many changes during their school years, and many sources beside the school contribute to these changes: maturation, peer groups, family, reading, and TV, among others. The term **achievement** is used to describe school-based learning, while terms like **ability** and **aptitude** are used to describe broader learning that stems from non-school sources. Since the focus of schooling is to help students develop particularbehaviours, understandings, and processes, almost all of the formal teststhat students take in school are intended to assess their achievement. The Friday spelling test, the unit test on chemical equations, the math test on the Pythagorean theorem, the delivery of an oral speech, the autobiography, and midterm and final examinations all should focus on assessing student achievement—that is, what they have learned of the things that were taught in school.

The central concept in this chapter is that planning and assessment should be driven by a clear knowledge of expectations or learning outcomes about what students will learn and master. Some have called this a backward approach to planning, inasmuch as it starts by defining the intended results (Wiggins & McTighe, 1998). Indeed it is; and in this case "backwardness" is a virtue.

Instructional Planning

The true rewards of teaching are identified in terms of the impact that the teachers' instruction and mentoring has upon students. Pride in teaching does not come from collecting lunch money, planning field trips, meeting the morning bus, and the thousand other semiadministrative tasks teachers perform. It comes from teachers' knowledge that they have taught students to do, think, or perform some things they otherwise would have been unable to do, think, or perform. Teachers plan in order to modify the curriculum to fit the unique characteristics of their students and resources. To plan, teachers reflect on and integrate information about their students, the subject matter to be taught, the curriculum

NOTES

they are following, their own teaching experience, the resources available for instruction, the classroom environment, and other factors. Their reflection and integration of these factors leads to an instructional lesson plan. The plan helps teachers allocate instructional time, select appropriate activities, link individual lessons to the overall unit or curriculum, sequence activities to be presented to students, set the pace of instruction, select the homework to be assigned, and identify techniques to assess student learning.

Planning helps teachers in five basic ways:

1. By helping them feel comfortable about instruction and giving them a sense of understanding and ownership over the teaching they plan.

2. By establishing a sense of purpose and subject matter focus.

3. By affording the chance to review and become familiar with the subject matter before actually beginning to teach it.

4. By ensuring that there are ways in place to get instruction started, activities to pursue, and a framework to follow during the actual delivery of instruction.

5. By linking daily lessons to broader integrative goals, units, or curriculum topics.

Classrooms are complex environments that are informal rather than formal, ad hoc rather than linear, ambiguous rather than certain, processoriented rather than product-oriented, and people dominated rather than concept-dominated. The realities and strains of the classroom call for order and direction, especially when teachers are carrying out formal instruction.

In such a world, some form of planning and organization is needed.

Planning instruction is a context-dependent activity that includes consideration of students, teacher, and instructional materials. A

lesson that fails to take into account the needs and prior knowledge of the students or that poorly matches lesson aims to lesson instruction is doomed to failure.

Similarly, a lesson that does not take into account the context in which it will be taught can also lead to difficulty. Teachers have a great deal of control over many classroom features associated with instructional planning. For example, most teachers have control over the physical arrangement of the classroom, the rules and routines students must follow, the interactions with students, the kind of instruction planned and the nature of its delivery, and the methods used to assess and grade students. However, there are important features that teachers do not control. For example, most teachers have little control over the number and characteristics of the students in their classes, the size of their classroom, the quality of their instructional resources, and the Ministry/Department curriculum guidelines. In planning, teachers must arrange the factors they do control to compensate for the factors they do not.

Instructional Resources

The instructional resources available to a teacher influence not only the nature of instruction but also how effectively the expectations or learning outcomes can be met. The term resources is used here in its broadest sense to include available supplies, equipment, space, educational assistants or volunteers, textbooks, and time. Each of these resources influences the nature of instruction and therefore the student achievements that can be pursued.

A Grade 2 teacher may wish to have his or her students construct felt pictures of book covers, but is unable to because the school cannot afford to provide the felt. A biology teacher may wish his or her class to learn about the internal organs of a frog by having each student perform a frog dissection. However, if the school has no biology laboratory and no dissecting equipment, the teacher must forgo this expectation or learning outcome.

NOTES

In these and other ways, material resources matter. Educational assistants or volunteers who read to students, work with small groups, or serve as tutors during a unit on the computer can free the classroom teacher to plan and pursue enrichment activities that might not have been possible otherwise. Resources of all kinds are important to consider when planning instruction.

Another resource that greatly influences what is planned, taught, and learned in classrooms is the textbook. More than any other single resource, the textbook determines instructional plans in many classrooms. A large part of students' learning time and a large part of the teacher's instructional time are focused on textbook use.

The teacher's edition of most textbooks contains many resources to help teachers plan, deliver, and assess instruction. However, teachers should not abdicate their planning, teaching, and assessment decision-making responsibilities, which require a teacher to carefully assess the adequacy of the textbook objectives and other materials in terms of student needs and resources.

Two recent critics of textbooks assert that many textbooks are too long and at the same time superficial and poorly organized for constructing effective classroom objectives (Daniels & Zemelman, 2004). They note that another potential limitation is to base instructional objectives solely on a textbook; this tends to steer students toward accepting one authority and one point of view.

Teachers should screen textbook objectives using three criteria: (1) Are the objectives and text materials clearly stated? (2) Are the objectives and text materials suitable for students in this particular classroom? (3) Do the objectives and text materials exhaust the expectations or learning outcomes and activities to which these students should be exposed? The following are considerations for each of these three criteria.

The first criterion examines the way objectives and instructional plans are stated. Do objectives and instructional plans contain

a clear description of the process and content knowledge the students will learn and the instructional activities that enhance learning? Most, though not all, textbook objectives do provide a clear description of the desired process and content knowledge. In the event that the textbook author's objectives are vague and ambiguous, the teacher must define these terms, recognizing that his or her definition may differ from the author's and thus may not be reflected in the instructional suggestions and materials that accompany the textbook.

The second criterion examines appropriateness for particular students. When teachers develop their own plans, they take into account the status, needs, and readiness of the students. Textbook authors, however, can only state a single set of objectives and plans. Often these objectives and plans are more suitable for some students than for others.

Consequently, teachers must ask, "Do my students have the prerequisites needed to master the textbook objectives? Can they be taught these objectives in a reasonable amount of time? Will the lesson activities interest them? Do the lesson activities pertain to all the important expectations or learning outcomes in the unit?" The final criterion examines completeness. Do the textbook objectives exhaust the important expectations or learning outcomes students should learn? Lesson plans in textbooks tend to emphasize structured didactic methods in which the teacher either tells the students things or elicits brief replies to teacher questions. Lessons using such objectives are easier to devise and present than divergent, complex ones. Relatively few textbook objectives call for synthesis or analysis of ideas, themes, or topics.

Although teachers commonly omit topics from a textbook when teaching, they rarely introduce new topics that are not in the textbook. If teachers wish to include or emphasize higher-level objectives in their instruction, they may be forced to break this pattern and introduce additional objectives that round out student learning.

Advantages and disadvantages of instruction planning

If the textbook material appears useful after all three of these criteria have been applied, then a teacher may use the textbook to help focus instruction and assess student learning. Table summarizes the advantages and disadvantages of textbook objectives and instructional plans.

A final important, though often overlooked, resource that greatly influences teacher planning is time. Because there is never enough time to teach students all the important skills and concepts in a subject area, teachers must carefully match their instructional time to the curriculum expectations or learning outcomes. Each teacher's decisions about what content to stress or omit is based in part on the instructional time available. When a teacher skips a concept, unit, or chapter in a textbook, the teacher is saying, "All other things being equal, I prefer to spend my limited instructional time focusing on other topics and skills that are more important."

While teachers make decisions about the allocation of instructional time daily, it is often in the last few weeks of the school year that these decisions become most apparent. The end of the school year always seems to arrive before all the planned topics can be taught. At this point, explicit decisions about how to allocate scarce time are made: "We must cover subtraction of fractions before the end of the year, but we can omit rate, time, and distance word problems." "If I don't finish parts of speech this year, next year's teacher will be upset. I'll take the time from the poetry unit to work on parts of speech." Time is a limited resource that has important consequencesfor planning instruction.

Importance of instructional planning

The instructional planning process in this action guide gives the team a framework that is sequential and succinct. It includes attention to the Common Core State Standards. This step-bystep approach is introduced below.

Step 1: Organize Instructional Units for the Year

Step 2: Align Units with Identified Standards

Step 3: Develop Two-Week Plan

The above steps are best accomplished by a team of teachers. And it is more fun.

Step 4: Create Daily Instruction Plans

Step 5: Personalize Learning Activities

Steps 4-5 can be completed by the individual teacher on an aligned Daily Instruction Plan. That's right, all of the instructional modes are there—whole-class instruction, student-directed groups, teacher-directed groups, independent work, computer-based, and homework. Each target learning statement and all instruction is neatly organized and identified efficiently on one page.

The end goal is to have a differentiated and well-organized course of instruction created by the experts—the teachers!

In developing a standards-aligned Daily Instruction Plan, your quiver will be full of teaching and learning arrows, so to speak. Some will work better than others, so you will change or modify the ones that flub. Also, you may not actually use all the activities you have planned. But you will have plenty of choices so that you can meet the needs of each student.

Step 6: Manage Work time

Step 7: Record and Report Student Progress

Step 8: Use Student Learning Plans (optional)

Steps 6-8 are instrumental to the individual classroom environment. Each classroom is unique (K-12; different subjects), just as the classroom leader (teacher) is unique. While there are timerespected management procedures, each teacher needs to weigh possible strategies based on their teaching preferences, the age of their students, and the physical benefits and challenges that exist from

NOTES

classroom to classroom and from school to school. However, this guide suggests management strategies available for adaptation to many situations.

Maintaining organized and purposeful records is a task that makes this work manageable. Good recordkeeping is key to juggling instructional modes and leveled learning activities, and most importantly, ensuring that individual students are working at appropriate, challenging curricular assignments. Communicating the work of the student to their home is key to a strong and purposeful partnership with families, ensuring the best possible equation for school (and life) success. Using Student Learning Plans is a step beyond. Whether you choose to make this step (Step 8) may be optional, but definitely worth your consideration.

Step 1: Organize Instructional Units for One Year (or one semester for semester courses)

A unit of instruction is a sequence of lessons tied together. The essential questions give foundation to these linked lessons through big ideas that offer meaning and conceptual understanding. Instituting these questions throughout the unit of instruction links facts and skills to critical thinking and deeper thought. Lively discussions and new understanding of these questions connects to prior knowledge and personal experiences that opens the door of the classroom to other situations and subjects.

In some districts, a curriculum map or scope-and-sequence has already defined unit topics and clustered standards within them. If a current grade-level curriculum guide (or map) is available and answers the following questions, move ahead to Step 2. If, however, something is missing from the current document, complete that piece before taking the next step.

Clarifying questions:

1. What is the length of time of a unit of instruction for your subject and grade level?

2. What "theme" will you give each unit? Think of a catchy phrase or title that will be meaningful to your students.

3. What are the essential question(s) for the units? Essential questions should be written so that students are able to understand terminology in the question. The questions identified for a unit of instruction should be logically sequenced. The collaborative exercise among teacher team members to create essential questions will enrich the content of the unit.

Step 2: Align Units with Grade-Specific (or Course-Specific) Standards

Now that you have organized instructional units for a full year (or semester course), determine all grade-specific standards that will be incorporated in the first unit at this time. (This may include Common Core State Standards, individual state standards/ benchmarks as may be determined by the team to fully complement the unit. Also, consider other interdisciplinary opportunities to maximize learning potential, standards application, and a more efficient use of time.)

If you are currently using a map or scope-and-sequence that is fully aligned with gradespecific standards, you may choose to move ahead to Step 3. However, if you haven't accessed the Common Core State Standards before now, this is an excellent opportunity to become familiar and integrate or include with your work.

A word about Common Core State Standards

The Common Core State Standards have been built from the best and highest state standards in the country. English-language arts and math are the first subjects defined by these standards since these subjects represent skills which other subjects' area skill sets are built on. They were developed in consultation with specialists, teachers, and parents across the country. They include rigorous content and application of knowledge through high-order skills. They were designed to ensure that students, regardless

NOTES

of where they live, will be prepared with the knowledge and skills they need to succeed in college and the modern work force. If you need assistance in translating terminology fundamental to interpreting the CCSS, please see our Additional Resource section. For more information and the list of standards, go to:

http://www.corestandards.org .

Clarifying questions:

1. Which grade-specific standards* will be highlighted in this unit?

2. How can you maximize teaching and learning potential by integrating subject areas and content standards to create interdisciplinary units?

*In the Common Core State Standards each "grade-specific standard" corresponds to the samenumbered College and Career Readiness (CCR) anchor standard that is identical across all grades and content areas. Put another way, each CCR anchor standard has an accompanying grade-specific standard translating the broader CCR statement into grade-appropriate end-of-year expectations.

Step 3: Develop Two-Week Plan

Whether you teach to your specific state standards and benchmarks, or are transitioning to the Common Core State Standards, a framework for cohesive and rigorous content is the foundation for sound instruction. If you currently have a curriculum map, do you use it? Who developed it? How often do you review it? That may be a good place to start. If you do not have one or it is not current, with careful planning you can develop one. Remember that you will certainly incorporate a standard in more than one instructional block, and you may also cycle back through standards and target learning statements you have previously addressed. But first, let's get a plan.

Instructions for the Two-Week Plan Worksheet

1. Translating the standard into the target learning statement is a critical exercise to establish clear performance by students. Determine if the standard is too broad for one target learning statement, and if it should be divided and represented by more than one target learning statement. Include the appropriate verb (observable behavior) as indicated in the standard as well as specific criteria for demonstrating success to that standard. It may also be helpful defining the statements by referring to Bloom's Taxonomy of thinking skills, (Remembering, Understanding, Applying, Analyzing, Evaluating, Creating). Both "Applying" and "Analyzing" are a good rule of thumb for the target level. See http://www.odu.edu/educ/roverbau/ Bloom/bloomstaxonomy.htm for additional information in the updated Bloom's Taxonomy.

2. Assessments are executed in a variety of ways. Much is determined by the subject and grade level and how the results will be used. The pre-test, as suggested in this process, is diagnostic and gives the teacher information for personalizing instruction. The post-test is considered summative for the unit, provides a score or grade while possibly signaling a re-teach to some students, or a return to the standard later to benefit all students. Within the classroom, formative assessment provides many opportunities to inform both teacher and student through the various modes of instruction. There will be more about those modes as we move to later steps. Good teaching and learning is served with a variety of classroom assessments. And, they are performed through an assortment of applications. You will use the same or very similar items for a post-test at the end of the last class session in this unit, just before the pre-test for the next unit.

   Prepare or identify the actual pre-test/post-test on the Two-Week Plan form below. On that form, be sure to identify the measurable outcome for each target determined by the Teacher

NOTES

Team that indicates the conditions and level of accuracy as evidence of mastery, (examples: 4/5; 80%). Determining this as a team ensures that all students in all grade level or same subject area classrooms are being measured by the same criterion.

3. For each target learning statement, write a prerequisite statement for students who are not quite ready for the target (grade level). Write these statements consistent with the "Remembering" or "Understanding" level of Bloom's Taxonomy or refer to the standard of the previous grade.

   The goal is not to create a static group of prerequisite learners. Remember, we are always working to have all students reach the target level, at least. Ongoing monitoring of each student's work through a variety of instructional modes is meant to move students forward as soon as they are ready.

4. For each target statement, write an enhanced learning statement for students showing evidence of prior learning. You may consider the standard identified for a grade level above, or the "Evaluating" or "Creating" level of Bloom's Taxonomy to help identify the appropriate work for this statement.

Clarifying questions:

1. Are leveled learning statements stated in "student-friendly" language? Will you rename the prerequisite and enhanced statements for classroom acceptability? Begin to consider how those levels might be best represented based on age of students, subject matter, symbolic visibility for simplicity.

2. What is the best pre-test for assessing student's prior knowledge for each target learning statement? Is an informal, observable assessment (i.e., KWL) best? Or does that standard (statement) need something more contextual, paper-pencil assessment? How is the post-test designed to ensure testing congruency?

So far, so good. After completing the Worksheet, you will have a system with standards-aligned, leveled learning statements for the unit of instruction and assessments defined to measure evidence of achievement. Now that's thorough! The pre-test results will help you personalize instruction. The post-test confirms what students have mastered at the unit's end.

Step 3: Two-Week Plan Worksheet.

Using the district-provided, or self-defined curriculum map, a teacher team is set to define that map through each unit's set of learning statements. Each **target level statement** should be stated in student and parent friendly terminology that includes an action that is observable and can be measured for mastery. Identifying the pre/post-test items aligned to that objective ensures well-defined instruction. Lastly, the team identifies learning statements at the **prerequisite** and **enhanced** levels.

Step 4: Daily Instruction Plans—Preview and sample plan

Whew! A big job has been accomplished. Aligning subject- and grade-level curriculum to standards and identifying an appropriate assessment for each named target learning statement. You have created the opportunity to meet that "target" with a prerequisite learning statement, as needed, to move students forward who need challenge and aligned expectation with an enhanced learning statement. Preparation is well-laid for the classroom. As a team, you are on your way in the creation of solid and challenging instruction for each of your students.

Take a look at the Daily Instruction Plan sample, (next page). What might you already have that can be plugged into this lesson plan and aligns to target learning statements cited in the team's Two-Week Plan? Often, teachers have already used successful instructional strategies and activities that align to grade-level learning statements. Working together is beneficial in so many ways. The richness of your individual experiences and expertise benefits all team members.

How much time do you have as a team to step to the next phase of instructional planning? What is the next step? The one after that? And after that? Again, how much time do you have…now? If team time is very limited perhaps going it alone, veering away from the teamwork for awhile, is best.

The Daily Instruction Plan allows the individual teacher to use the successful strategies and activities aligned to a target statement, and plug them in "on the go". At Step 4, we suggest you begin with the development of whole- class, teacher-directed instruction, a time-honored strategy, done well. The framework for proven strategies is suggested within the context— Behavior Check, Review, Think, Know, Show.

You may want to reserve team time to continue aligning objectives to standards and assessments for the year. When that is completed, begin to consolidate your independent plans into collaborative plans for your grade level or subject area. Efficient use of time. The results can be the same—rich, well-planned instruction.

An alternative route

Of course there are other ways to accomplish the tasks that promise full and leveled instruction in any single classroom. Don't want to go it alone? But still don't have the kind of team time to go step-by- step? Determine an alternative route. Perhaps those tech-savvy teammates take charge of identifying the best computer-based instruction for the leveled learning statements— and plug them into the framework. And maybe there is one or more on the team that already does highly successful student-directed (cooperative) group learning in the classroom.

Independent work and homework might be areas that other team members take on, and wholeclass instruction is determined by individual teachers. Before the scheduled date that the unit begins, the team pulls all of the assigned elements together and proceeds to documenting the collaborative results. There. A lot accomplished in efficient use of individual and team time. The

choices are endless. Whatever the direction your team determines, first examine the rest of this action guide to see what work lies ahead.

Step 4: Daily Instruction Plans—Whole-Class and Small-Group, Teacher-Directed instruction

The teacher directly teaches a lesson, sometimes with the whole class and sometimes with small groups of students assembled because they are at a common level of learning or need additional instruction on a particular topic. Often, and according to subject and students, information provided to the whole class may be short to engage prior knowledge, motivate, and activate students thinking around the main points of the lesson.

After conducting the pre-test, you will be ready to introduce the new material. The Whole-Class Instruction Plan outlines the lesson you will provide. First, think of each class period for this subject as divided into two segments: Whole-Class Instruction and Work Time. In Whole-Class Instruction, you deliver the lesson for the day. Then, in Work Time, the students carry out the assignments you will give them for independent work, student-directed group work, and computer-based learning. Teacher-directed small group instruction also occurs during Work Time. Work Time extends beyond the class period with homework assignments.

In early grades, Whole-Class Instruction may be only 10 or 15 minutes, with the majority of the class period given to Work Time. Follow-up or re-teaching to a small group of students may be required. Work Time offers the opportunity for the teacher to instruct small groups for more focused or leveled instruction while other students are engaged with student-directed small groups, independent work, or computer-based learning. In upper grades and high school, Whole-Class Instruction will usually be longer. We will discuss Work Time in greater detail later.

On the Whole-Class Instruction segment of the lesson plan below (shaded area), jot notes to yourself to guide you in providing

the lesson. You may reference advance organizers, questions to ask, topics to introduce, models and materials to show, times to "think out loud." While there is not a Teacher-directed small group planning area included on the Daily Instruction Plan, the same or some of the strategies as suggested for Whole Class could be used during that direct instruction. Often the teacher will lead the small group less formally, and possibly on-the-fly. It is included as a general statement of use on the Daily Instruction Plan.

Quick Directions for Completing the Whole-Class Instruction Plan

Central Purpose of Lesson: Consider your target learning statement.

Behavior Check: To set the psychological climate in the classroom; cue students to focus in; reinforce attentive behaviors. Be sure homework has been collected. A behavior check may be repeated later in the class time to reinforce engaged learning.

Review: To connect prior learning with new learning, briefly review the previous lesson as a bridge to the new lesson.

Think: To introduce a new lesson; continue activating prior knowledge; stimulate student cognition relative to the topic through cues, advance organizers, question sprinkling, stimulate interest in the topic.

Know: To directly teach the new skills or concepts through lecture, demonstration, modeling.

Show: To find out what students have learned and to rehearse their learning through verbal drills, recitations, discussion, quiz games. Divide the time for each part of the whole-class lesson roughly as follows:

Behavior Check: A minute or two

Review: About 20% of the time. Review connects this lesson to the previous one and to students' prior knowledge.

Think and Know: About 60% of the time. This is the presentation of the new material, concepts.

Show: About 20% of the time. This is the summary segment and time to check if it is sinking in. Now you are itching to teach these lessons! Whole-Class Instruction is magical time for a teacher and students, all learning together. Remember to do some "thinking out loud" to build students' meta-cognitive skill.

Note: Remember, we are only focusing on the Whole Class Instruction lesson at this time (shaded area). We will get to the other modes of instruction for completion of the Daily Instruction Plan in subsequent steps.

Step 4: Daily Instruction Plans —Student-Directed Group

In a Student-Directed Group, the teacher provides the group of students with instructions, and the group does the work. It is a good idea to establish group norms with your students for all of your Student-Directed Groups. These norms might be:

1. Name a group leader for this session.

2. Group leader reads the instructions to the group. [For non-reading age groups, the teacher does this.]

3. Think about the end goal or product you are to complete.

4. Be sure everyone participates.

5. Always be respectful of each other.

6. When the group's goal is met, go to your independent work if time permits.

The teacher's instructions include the topic and goal, to get started. The topic is related to the target learning statement. The goal is what the group is to achieve, together. It is a good idea for the goal to be a work product, such as a drawing or paragraph summary of the group's conclusions. However, there should be individual accountability determined for completion of the goal.

NOTES

Optimum work and habits are reinforced by the teacher that monitors the progress while offering guidance, corrections and coaching.

What are some things to consider when grouping students for cooperative learning?

1. The research suggests a group size of 2 to 5 students, depending upon the complexity of the task presented and the age of your students. It is wise to work with small groups when students are first practicing the collaborative process.

2. The nature of the task itself will often determine group size, but in general, the larger the group, the more skillful group members must be in positive interaction, fulfilling individual role assignments, and keeping on task toward goal achievement.

3. The shorter the time available for a task, the smaller the group should be.

4. Generally, the research recommends heterogeneous groupings of high-medium-low ability students, though there may be exceptions for certain kinds of tasks.

5. Teacher-designed groups create optimum conditions for long or complex tasks. Random groupings by means of such methods as "counting-off" may provide a good mix of students for short-term or easier projects.

Step 5: Daily Instruction Plan—a word about Personalized Learning Activities

The modes of instruction during Work Time are: Independent, Teacher-Directed Group, Student-Directed Group, and Computer-Based learning. The planning for Teacher-Directed and Student-Directed have already been addressed. Now picture this in your mind. You may have a small group of students in a Teacher-Directed Group, where you are working with them to reinforce

the Whole-Class lesson or hone in on a particular leveled learning statement. Teacher-Directed Groups are homogeneous, meaning that you select a group of students at a similar interest or level based on assessment of their work. While you are conducting your Teacher- Directed Group, another group or two of students may be clustered in a Student-Directed Group. This group is heterogeneous, and cooperative learning techniques are ideal here. At the same time the groups are engaged in their work, some students may be at the computers and others at their desks doing Independent work. Everyone is engaged.

We want each student to have the opportunity to be exposed to materials and learning experiences through grade-level curriculum and instruction strengthened by teacher groundwork. We also want each student to be able to soar ahead if ready. So we personalize instruction during Work Time. Work Time also builds the student's responsibility for learning.

Remember the leveled learning statements: Target, Enhanced, Prerequisite? Now if you plan Work Time activities for each level and for the different instruction modes, you will be ready to identify specific instruction for each student. In the classroom culture, these learning statement terms (Target, Enhanced, Prerequiste) should be changed so as not to let students see themselves in categories. Using symbols, pictures, or some other sign eliminates possible labeling or sensitivities students may experience. And the symbols can be changed from time to time. The terms are used in the guide only for the purpose of bringing clarity to the levels when planning. The pre-test gives you information for deciding which activities are most appropriate for individual students. And the opportunities are available for moving students to a higher level when they show evidence of mastery in one of the aligned activities. The Work Time activities follow the lessons you have outlined in the Whole-Class Instruction Plan, but may circle back to cover previous material later, and as needed to help students to be challenged, and successful. Got that pictured in your mind? An active classroom culture is buzzing. Seems like

NOTES

a lot of activity for one classroom, doesn't it? Not to worry. We'll focus on management of this active teaching and learning time at the next step. But let's get back to some more quality planning. Activities or assignments are personalized for homework, too, of course. More about that later.

Step 6: Manage Work Time

Do you like your students to assume responsibility for their learning? Do you believe that they benefit from the practice of self-management? Do you think a classroom that has strong procedural management promises greater opportunity for learning?

During Work Time students are engaged in different activities simultaneously. There is lots of movement in the room. Certainly, a teacher's "withitness" is important all of the time, but crucial in Work Time. Connecting positively with each student and helping them to self-manage is vital during Work Time. The physical environment of the classroom is also important. Wellmarked areas of the room and organized learning materials help students navigate their learning environment.

We will assume that you can determine your Teacher-Directed Group activities each day as you decide to cluster a group of students for a particular purpose to reinforce the lesson or address a specific need for moving the group of students forward in their assigned work. Student-Directed Groups work effectively with clear directions, and assigned roles. In Independent Work and Computer-Based Learning students are working on leveled activities in different modes throughout the classroom. In between teaching moments the teacher moves through the classroom, monitoring and responding to questions. Maintaining the working order in this culture requires some clear and very distinct management skills. Guidelines that are established and practiced by teachers and students collectively, ensures greater positive outcomes and classroom management cohesion. Following are several strategies that you might want to consider to help manage a successful Work Time in your classroom.

Teacher calls are signals by the student to show that assistance is needed. The traditional classroom signal of raising a hand is appropriate during whole class instruction, but not during Work Time when the teacher is likely to be teaching a small group of students, or working with an individual. "Flags" that indicate the student needs teacher assistance are located where students are on task in learning activities (i.e. student desk, computer station, student-directed groups).

Wait-time activities are curriculum-related activities that students can do while waiting for teacher assistance. Combined with the teacher call, they eliminate "down-time" that can lead to discipline problems, may provide additional practice of skills for learning, and promotes a habit of student self-responsibility.

Student folders are an effective organizational tool similar to a class notebook where necessary learning materials are kept, and accessed. Wait time activities may be included in the student folder. The student folder can represent another conduit of communication between school and home.

Posted rules and procedures serve to remind students of the expectations for accessing learning materials and activities, and applying appropriate behavior in the Work Time segment of class. When proper procedures are practiced and learned, student classroom behavior becomes **routine**, and guarantees the well-managed classroom where important work takes place. The instructions for accomplishing an activity might be posted for students' self-direction, as well.

Leveled Learning Plan Take a look at the example on the following page. Look familiar? Looks a lot like the Daily Instruction Plan framework, right? Previously, "three assignment sheets at a center or a work station" was suggested. Well, here's the tool that students can refer to, based on the "level" you have assigned them. Yes, they can be posted at the computer station or learning centers. Three levels...three sheets of paper...easy access. And only the work or activities are written down. That is what students

NOTES

need to know. For the youngest students, or non-readers, symbols and pictures can be used, and matched to the appropriate learning materials for them to access. On the backside, or as a second page, the targeted learning statements, standards, and essential questions for the plan can be listed. This is a great tool for helping students become more responsible for their learning and self-management. Giving you more time to teach.

Step 7: Record and Report Student Progress

You sure have a ton of instruction planned for this subject. Now, how do you know what your students are learning? How can you adjust their assignments to account for their mastery?

Your data sources for tracking student mastery of standard/ benchmark-aligned objectives are:

1. The pre-test

2. Your observation in Teacher-Directed Groups

3. Their work in Student-Directed Groups

4. Each student's successful completion of Independent Work and Computer-Based Learning

5. Each student's successful completion of Homework

6. Tests that you administer that are aligned with the target learning statements

7. The post-test

You may use a variety of methods to check student work. For Independent Work and Homework, you may give the student a rubric for self-scoring. You may have students exchange work with peers to check with a rubric. You may collect the work and grade it. You may simply have the student show you the completed work and check that it has been successfully completed or in simple observations recorded by the teacher. You may use these approaches also for Computer-Based Learning, or your computer

programs may have a built-in system to track student progress. It is a good idea not to rely only on the computer program to confirm mastery.

In keeping track of mastery, you are concerned about the **Target** learning statements. If a student has successfully completed activities aligned with **Enhanced** learning statements, so much the better. If a student has only completed activities for **Prerequisite** learning statements, that isn't mastery of the Target learning statements. That is why you try to get every student up to Target activities by the end of the two-week block. For students who don't make it, you must consider appropriate interventions—tutoring, more time for this subject, re-teaching using different strategies, etc.

In addition to whatever system you use to determine student grades, keep a simple **Class Progress Chart** to mark when you are sure a student has mastered a leveled learning statement, based on your examination of their work. All expert craftsmen need the right tools to give excellence to their work. Use of this recordkeeping tool in a busy classroom with the great variety of learning opportunities going on simultaneously keeps ongoing information of student mastery at your fingertips. Keep the Class Progress Chart with you as you conduct a Teacher-Directed Group or navigate the room during Work Time. You use it also when you check homework and score tests that you have administered. You can also indicate the student's apparent mastery from the pre- and post-test, but remember that these might be quick methods for determining a student's mastery and not reliable alone to ensure that the objectives have been mastered.

In order to report to parents on their child's progress in mastering objectives, you simply take that students information from your Class Progress Chart and record it on a **Student Learning Report**. Nice.

Now reach back and pat yourself on the back. Applaud for your team members. Get ready to teach!

Step 8: Use Student Learning Plans (optional)

Interested in going a step further? How about individual student learning plans? Yes indeed, putting the plan into the hands of each student gives increased opportunity for selfmanagement and self-directed learning. Just as the teacher's lesson plan serves as the map for executing powerful teaching, an individual student learning plan becomes the student's map for learning. How does it look? What are the benefits? Let's take a peek...

Sure, you can give each student a copy of the above Leveled Learning Plan to guide their work, but not very efficient. What happens if a student shows mastery of one target learning statement in the Two-Week Plan, but assesses at the below target on the next? How many papers can a student carry? Not just inefficient, but confusing.

Take a look at the following plan. Still looks pretty familiar, right? Only notice that all three levels of activities are identified. How will a student know what to do? Of course, the teacher must direct the student based on the level of achievement however, the student is capable of marking or highlighting the plan as directed by the teacher while ignoring the other leveled activities. It conveniently allows a teacher to redirect the student as learning is monitored through the different modes and activities simply by re-marking the plan...and off she goes.

Yes, you will need to decide if this seems an important means to helping your students assume responsibility for their work, and, if you believe that having each student possess their own plan makes sense in accomplishing the tasks for personalized instruction. Maintaining a student learning plan gives each student the work for inside the classroom, as well as outside (homework), and generally alleviates the need for a separate assignment book.

That's one piece of paper for each week's work. By traveling from school to home, and home to school, the Student Learning Plan provides just one more way that the communication is open and clear. And, including the target learning statements for

the entire unit on the back of the student learning plan serves all well in understanding what is being taught, and the expectations required to achieve the grade level standards.

Please note: There are different ways to indicate the levels of work in the classroom and on the Student Learning Plan. The sample below shows the use of symbols as one way. Using the Student Learning Plan with students in different grade levels and subject areas can take on a variety of appearances. In the example below:

= Enhanced

= Target

= Prerequisite

And remember, it is the activities or assignments that are listed next to the symbols…that is what the students need to know to do their work. The connection to the target learning statement (grade level expectation) is listed along with the standards and unit and classroom information on the backside of the plan (following) for student and parent awareness. It also provides a connection from school to home with teacher and parent signature. All eyes are on student work well in advance of a report card.

Activities:

1. Ask a teacher to show and discuss with you a lesson plan that he or she has used. Report on the teacher's expectations or learning outcomes and how the plan took various resources and conditions into account, as wel as how closely the plan was actually followed when the lesson was taught

2. In a small group, choose an imaginary student with a certain exceptionality in a certain grade. To each student in the group assign the role of teacher, parent, a school administrator, and possibly a learning resource teacher within the school. Describe the types of accommodations that a person in each role would emphasis in an IEP for that student.

Examination Useful Questions

Long Type Questions :

1. What do you know instructional planning ? Discuss in detail.

2. What are the instructional resources ? Explain each resource in briefly.

3. Discuss the advantages and disadvantages instructional planning. Do you think instructional planning is necessary ?

Short Type Questions :

1. Write about importance of instructional planning.

2. Write a short note of the following -

   (i)   Instructional planning

   (ii)   Instructional resources

   (iii) Daily instructional planning

2.3 | Block And Lesson Plan: Need And Importance

Study material included in this unit -

- Objectives
- Introduction
- The Importance of Lesson Planning
- Need Of Lesson Planning
- Reasons To Make A Lesson Plan
- Approaches To Planning
- The Learning Focus
- Examination useful questions

Objectives

After study this chapter you will understand the following facts.

- The Importance of Lesson Planning
- Need Of Lesson Planning
- Reasons To Make A Lesson Plan
- Approaches To Planning
- The Learning Focus

Introduction

Lesson planning ought not to be the special responsibility of trainee teachers but, rather, a hallmark of the professionalism of all teachers. Lesson planning is at the veryessence of reflexivity concerning the fundamental questions of what the teacherintends that the pupils should learn and how this is to be achieved. Experiencedteachers sometimes claim that they do not plan lessons; what they probably mean isthat they do not write their plans down but rather draw on their mental computerized bank of lesson units, a store of wisdom held in the memory on account of familiarityand regular usage.

There are pragmatic considerations too. School learning time is precious and all tooshort, the time allocated for modem foreign language learning not always generous.It is important, therefore, to make the most productive use of that time with reference,in particular, to questions of the identification of appropriate linguistic objectives andlinguistic sequencing. This will involve issues of short, médium and long-termplanning as the teacher locates the present learning needs within a greater frameworkof linguistic progression.

A lesson plan is designed for a specific set of learners during a single class period. The classperiod may vary inlength from one to four hours and provides learners with instruction on skills needed to accomplish an objectivefrom the unit plan. The lesson plan breaks the unit plan down into detail and is the direction for the class period. Adult learners appreciate instruction that is well planned and want to know the objective for the class period.

Learners want to know what they will be able to do when the class ends and how it applies to their lives beyond theclassroom. Writing a lesson plan requires thinking about the skills to be taught, the objectives, timing, and procedures for theclass. This section provides an explanation of how to write a lesson and a sample health lesson that aligns with thesample health unit. Writing and implementing a lesson plan takes practice and experience.

It is important to be a reflective instructor as you hone your teaching skills. In the Blank Forms section, you will find the unit plan form, lesson plan form, and a page for notes where you can jot down observations, comments, and reflections on your teaching experience.

The Importance of lesson Planning

Lesson planning is at the heart of being an effective teacher. It is a creative process that allows us to synthesize our understanding of second language acquisition and language teaching pedagogy with our knowledge of our learners, the curriculum, and the teaching context. It is a time when we envision the learning we want to occur and analyze how all the pieces of the learning experience should fit together to make that vision a classroom reality. There are a number of benefits to writing a lesson plan. First, lesson planning produces more unified lessons (Jensen, 2001). It gives teachers the opportunity to think deliberately about their choice of lesson objectives, the types of activities that will meet these objectives, the sequence of those activities, the materials needed, how long each activity might take, and how students should be grouped. Teachers can reflect on the links between one activity and the next, the relationship between the current lesson and any past or future lessons, and the correlation between learning activities and assessment practices. Because the teacher has considered these connections and can now make the connections explicit to learners, the lesson will be more meaningful to them The lesson planning process allows teachers to evaluate their own knowledge with regards to the content to be taught (Reed & Michaud,2010). If a teacher has to teach, for example, a complex grammatical structure and is not sure of the rules, the teacher would become aware of this during lesson planning and can take steps to acquire the necessary information. Similarly, if a teacher is not sure how to pronounce a new vocabulary word, this can be remedied during the lesson planning process. The opportunity that lesson planning presents to evaluate one's own knowledge is particularly advantageous for teachers of English for specific purposes, because these teachers

have to be not onlylanguage experts, but also familiar with different disciplines like business,engineering, or law—fields that use language in specialized ways.A teacher with a plan, then, is a more confident teacher (Jensen,2001). The teacher is clear on what needs to be done, how, and when.The lesson will tend to flow more smoothly because all the informationhas been gathered and the details have been decided uponbeforehand. The teacher will not waste class time flipping through thetextbook, thinking of what to do next, or running to make photocopies.The teacher's confidence will inspire more respect from the learners,thereby reducing discipline problems and helping the learners to feelmore relaxed and open to learning.Some teachers feel that lesson planning takes too much time. Yetlesson plans can be used again, in whole or in part, in other lessonsmonths or years in the future (Jensen, 2001). Many teachers keep filesof previous lessons they have taught, which they then draw on to facilitateplanning for their current classes. In other words, lesson planningnow can save time later.Lesson plans can be useful for other people as well (Jensen, 2001).

Substitute teachers face the challenge of teaching another teacher'sclass and appreciate receiving a detailed lesson plan to follow. Knowingthat the substitute is following the plan also gives the regular classroomteacher confidence that the class time is being used productivelyin his or her absence. In addition, lesson plans can also document foradministrators the instruction that is occurring. If a supervisor wantsto know what was done in class two weeks ago, the teacher

only has torefer to that day's lesson plan. Finally, lesson plans can serve as evidenceof a teacher's professional performance. Teachers are sometimesasked to include lesson plans, along with other materials, as part of aportfolio to support their annual performance evaluation.

Teachersapplying for new jobs might be asked to submit lesson plans as part oftheir job application so that employers can get

a sense of their organizationalskills and teaching style. This book will lead you through the lesson planning process andhighlight the role of the plan before, during, and after your lesson.

The next chapter presents some approaches to lesson planning whilethe third chapter outlines the practical considerations involved in theprocess. Reflective Break segments pose questions to help you applythe information in this book to your own teaching practice.

Need of lesson planning

Based on the items above, a teacher who is thinking about providing academic, social and linguistic support can use the questions below to address these issues: **What are the academic demands of this lesson?**

What components of this lesson need to be adapted while still maintaining high expectations?

How will I know whether each student is able to meet the lesson objective?

o   What do I want the students to learn and be able to demonstrate upon completion of this lesson?

o   What are the tasks/skills/background knowledge needed for the completion of this lesson?

o   What are the student's strengths and weaknesses? What are the student's preferred learning styles and ways of communicating?

o   What tasks/skills/background knowledge will be challenging for the student?

o   How can the student make use of his/her strengths

o   What scaffolding and explicit instruction is needed (e.g., Think Sheets to help organize ideas; Editing and Revising guides; visual organizers to help children understand where they are in the process of completing the task)?

o When and how can I make supports optional (e.g., when are they no longer needed) so control of activities is transferred to the learner?

What are the social demands of this lesson (e.g., cooperation, listening, sharing, following directions)? How can I help each learner meet these demands?

o Do I have major routines in place that help learners know what is expected?

o Have I provided modeling, thinking aloud, and rubrics that help learners understand the particular task to be done and how it is to be done?

o Have I provided language (helper words) and modeled when/ how to use them (e.g., who, what, when; sentence starters)?

o Have I provided visual cues (e.g., lists of expected behaviors) as reminders toall students and to reduce demands on those with memory processing problems?

What are the linguistic demands of this lesson? How can I help each learner meet these demands?

o Does my lesson employ multiple strategies, lots of student input, and a range of learning options (e.g., listening, speaking, reading and writing)?

o Do all students have multiple opportblockies to speak, make mistakes, and rely on the success of communication to develop their linguistic capacities?

o Am I careful to avoid the use of slang, idioms and phrasal verbs (e.g., get over, get by, get through, get around) that are confusing to those whose first language is not English?

o Do I use ample non-verbal cues (e.g., gestures, pictures, concrete objects) to assist in comprehension? o Am I aware of each student's cultural preferences and traditions for

communicating (e.g., eye contact; language routines; what to be called; humor)?

o Are objects in my classroom labeled in multiple languages to acknowledge the first language of each learner?

o Since all language acquisition is literacy development, do students whose first language is not English have opportunities to use their first language?

Reasons To Make A Lesson Plan

1. Helps you stay organized and focused while teaching.

2. Helps to ensure your lesson contributes to the big idea(s) you are working toward.

3. Helps to ensure you have considered, prepared and gathered all of the materials that you will need for the lesson.

4. Reminds you that you must consider the needs of all students and differentiate your lesson to meet those needs.

5. Provides a record of what you and the students have been working on and helps you to see where to go next.

6. Can be used by your Cooperating Teacher or a substitute teacher if you need to be away.

7. Provides a starting point when planning next year's teaching.

8. Provides your Faculty Advisor with an understanding of what you are doing and where you have made changes in the lesson in response to students. It's a good starting point for conversations about your classroom practice.

9. Can be used as a great tool for sharing ideas, getting feedback and gaining valuable insights from your Cooperating Teacher.

10. Provides examples of your creativity, knowledge and skill that can be included in your teaching portfolio.

Approaches to Planning

The process of block planning can be approached in several ways.

Forward, central, and backward design are approaches to curriculum development that are also applicable to block planning. Universal Design for Learning intends to address individual differences in learners and to remove barriers to their learning.

Forward, Central, and Backward Design

Forward, central, and backward design refer to the starting point of the planning process and how the process develops. With a forward design process, the teacher begins by identifying the linguistic or cultural content to be taught. He or she then decides upon the methods and activities to be used to teach this content and ends with the assessment of learning. For instance, the teacher might see that the syllabus calls for teaching language related to the topic of travel. The teacher decides to use pictures to present travel-related vocabulary and have students practice travel-related dialogues from their textbook. The assessment, which is an end-of-semester exam, requires students to match vocabularywords and definitions and to fill in the blanks in a travelthemed paragraph.

A forward design option may be preferred in circumstances where a mandated curriculum is in place, where teachers have little choice over what and how to teach, where teachers rely mainly on textbooks and commercial materials rather than teacher-designed resources, where class size is large and where tests and assessments are designed centrally rather than by individual teachers. (Richards, 2013, p. 29)

The learning focus

Whilst learning activities mirror to an extent the cholee of teaching approach, there is again a wide range of cholees to be made concerning the most productive and appropriate range of activities.

The language teacher would probably relate the activities to the skill áreas and decide, for example, whether an equal balance of skills was appropriate or whether an oral only approach would be the best, or perhapsintensive listening, quiet reading and writing or, indeed, any combination of these.

Furthermore, skill-based activities could be organised slightly differently, for example, on a carousel basis with different groups engaged in different skill activities, rotating when instmcted to do so by the teacher. The sequencing of activities is important to ensure that the learners have had sufficient teacher input to enable them to practice themselves.

The predilection for pair and group work is all very well but it requires a considerable amount of organisation. The composition of groups will need to be preplanned so as to ensure the minimum of dismption, and a socio-metric mix which enables learners, either of differing abilities or in homogeneous groups, to work together. The task of the group needs very careful definition so that group members understand what they have to do. It is useful to appoint a group leader who can be relied upon to have a co-ordinating role; it is in this case essential that the group leader fully understands the task in hand, perhaps be given special instructions and cue cards.

It is depressing to witness so-called group work degenerate into general gossip in the mother tongue because of a lack of stmcture and direction. All too frequently, question-formats have been insufficiently rehearsed, the teacher concentrating all too readily on responses at the expense of the necessary stimulus questions. Subsequentlythe group work which presumably is designed to engage pupils in interactive language activity is disabled by an inability to function in a key dimensión. Skills, teacher input, group work, all of these need a carefully apportioned amount of time, the teacher pre-planning the activities yet showing flexibility as learning progress is evaluated during the block, amendments and adjustments being made as necessary, decisions taken about

deferment or speeding up if an activity is proceeding faster than anticipated. Such informed decisions can only be made on the basis of an overall plan so that parts of the block procedural jigsaw can be moved around.

Examination Useful Questions

Long Type Questions :

1. What is the Lesson planning ? Why is it important ? Explain in detail.

2. Differencial between import and need of lesson planning ? Discuss in detail.

3. How to approaches to planning of lessons ? Explain.

Short Type Questions :

1. What is learning focus ? How is it influence on scholars?

2. What are the reasons to make lesson plan ?

2.4 Procedure of Block And Lesson Planning

Study material included in this unit -

- Objectives
- Introduction
- Determining The Objective.
- Major Components of A Lesson Plan
- Creating Block Plans
- Develop Your Blockvision
- Block Planning
- Essential Elements of A Lesson Plan Template
- Building A Lesson Plan Template That Works For You
- Beginning And Ending The Lesson
- Preparing The Final Outline.
- Preparing A Keyword Outline
- Examination useful questions

Objectives

After study this chapter you will understand the following facts.

- Determining The Objective.
- Major Components of A Lesson Plan
- Creating Block Plans
- Develop Your Blockvision
- Block Planning
- Essential Elements of A Lesson Plan Template
- Building a Lesson Plan Template That Works For You
- Beginning and Ending the Lesson
- Preparing the Final Outline.
- Preparing A Keyword Outline

Introduction

A blockplan continues the mapping process that you began with your long-term plan. Just as your longterm plan sets out the goals and pacing for the whole year, your blockplan sets out your goals and pacing for the discrete slices of the year to which you have assigned your learning goals. In fact, one might think of a blockplan as almost the same thing as a long-term plan, but applied to a month or six weeks rather than the whole year. If the long-term plan is analogous to an entire hiking trail, the blockplan might be analogous to a particular leg of the journey. Check out the "Sample BlockPlan and Assessment" in the **Instructional Planning & Delivery Toolkit** (pp. 36-48); this Toolkit can be found online at the Resource Exchange on TFANet.

While it is imperative that you think through and create your long-term plan before or at the beginning of the school year, many teachers complete their blockplans as the previous blockcomes to completion. Thus, you might have six to ten major "step-back" sessions during the year to reflect on the last four-to-sixweek blockand plan out the next one. This would allow you to make adjustments for skills and concepts from the previous blockthat need to be reinforced, as evidenced by the end-of-unit assessment. Other teachers find it helpful to flesh out their six to ten blockplans before the year begins, and then make adjustments and modifications as the year progresses.

A lesson plan is a plan for learning. As is true in most activities, the quality of planning affects the quality of results. Successful executives and professional people know that the price of excellence is careful preparation. A lawyer spends hours planning a case before appearing in court. A minister does not ad-lib a sermon but plans days or weeks in advance. In anticipation of the big game, the coach spends hours planning the plays and watching the team execute them.

Should we attempt such a complicated process as learning with less attention than is given to other important activities? The

answer is obvious: of course not. The effective instructor devotes much time and energy in carefully planning and preparing each lesson, whether the lesson encompasses one or several periods of instruction.

To ensure the greatest probability of learning, we must carefully select and arrange activities that will produce the desired learning outcomes in our students. Only through careful planning can we be certain that we include all necessary information and have our lesson plan properly organized to achieve the lesson objective. The complete cycle of lesson planning includes eight steps:

(1) Determine the objective

(2) Research the topic as defined by the objective

(3) Select the appropriate instructional method

(4) Identify a usable lesson planning format

(5) Decide how to organize the lesson

(6) Choose appropriate support material

(7) Prepare the beginning and ending of the lesson

(8) Prepare a final outline.

Determining The Objective

Often we will begin our lesson planning with an objective or objectives clearly in mind. At other times the objective may be shaped by the research and additional planning we do. In other words, although the first step of the lesson planning process is to determine the objective, our objective may not fully evolve until after we have completed other steps of the process. Objectives need to be student-centered. We should not state them in terms of what we want to teach, but rather they should be stated in terms of what we want our students to learn. For instance, the objective of a lesson on developing a lesson plan might be for each student to know the eight steps of effective lesson planning

as listed in this chapter. Of course the lesson might be taught at higher than the knowledge level. We might want each student to comprehend the eight steps appropriate to effective lesson planning or even to be able to apply the eight steps of lesson planning. But whatever the level, the student-centered objective should guide our subsequent planning. Without a clear objective, we won't know if we ever get there. Think about that statement. **Researching The Topic.** After we have written or been provided with an instructional objective, we are ready to decide on the main points of the lesson and gather materials about the lesson topic. Normally we do not collect a mass of research materials and then develop an objective to match the findings. Not only is this latter approach inefficient, but it is also likely to be ineffective. It may well ignore the specific needs of the students and the Air Force. The objective should determine the research that needs to be done. On the other hand, research may justify a decision to modify an objective or rearrange main points for greater accuracy or clarity.

Usefulness and appropriateness are two important criteria for selecting relevant material. To be appropriate, information should relate to the lesson objective and have a high possibility for student retention. To be useful, it should aid both the instructor and the students in the teachinglearning process. If the instructor selects material solely on the basis of its interest value, a lesson may be filled with interesting information of little learning value to the student. On the other hand, dry, uninteresting facts even though they are very important-may also defeat the instructor's purpose. Students are more likely to grasp and retain facts and concepts that are enriched with interesting support material and arranged in a way that enhances learning.

With the objective clearly in mind, we are now ready to gather actual material or do research on the subject. The sources for this material are our own experiences, the experience of others which we gain through conversation and interviews, and written or observed material.

Instructors concerned with teaching a good lesson will often draw from all of these sources.

Self. The first step in researching a lesson topic is to see what we ourselves know about the subject. Our personal knowledge may suggest a tentative organization, but more important, it will point up gaps in our knowledge where we need further research.

Others. The second step in the research process is to draw on the experience of others. People who are interested in the topic may provide ideas during the course of conversation. The most fruitful source is the expert who may help us clarify our thinking, provide facts and testimony, and suggest sources for further research.

While personal experience, conversation, and interviews provide valuable content for lessons, we must usually do further research elsewhere. If we have properly narrowed our subject and kept the purpose in mind, our research task will be easier.

Library. Modern libraries provide us with an abundance of sources: books, newspapers, popular magazines, scholarly journals, abstracts, subject files, and microfilms. Quantity is no problem; quality is more difficult. We must always concern ourselves with the accuracy and relevance of the material we select. Using an article from 1950 to discuss atomic physics today might well lead to inaccurate, irrelevant conclusions.

The next step in the research process is to evaluate the material gathered. We will probably find that we have enough material for several lessons. We must now combine some ideas, eliminate others, and perhaps expand on what we found in the research materials. We will also want to give special attention to the types of support material we have selected (definitions, examples, comparisons, statistics, and testimony). Later in this chapter we will discuss types of support material in detail.

Sometimes we have an organizational pattern in mind before we start. If not, as we gather our material, we will probably see that the ideas are beginning to form into some type of pattern.

Later in this chapter. we will discuss ways of organizing the lesson.

During the research phase, the instructor is likely to find material that students should read to prepare for a given class session. If we keep this possibility in mind when we begin our research, we can prepare a suggested student reading list and save time in selecting student references.

When deciding on supplementary reading for the students, we should choose interesting and informative materials that reinforce or support the lesson objectives.

Selecting Instructional Methods. After deciding exactly what to teach, the instructor determines how best to teach it and what instructional method to use. When related to instruction, "method" refers to a combination of techniques or skills used by the instructor to engage students in meaningful learning experiences. A method is a broad approach to instruction-for example, the lecture method or the guided discussion method. A technique, on the other hand is a specific concrete skill or procedure used in implementing a method-for example, the technique of using the chalkboard or of using an analogy as support material.

Philosophy Underlying Selection. We should choose a teaching method suited to the student's needs as a learner. In making the selection, we consider the ways that people learn: by doing, by discussing, by listening, by observing, by participating. We should select the instructional method that will most effectively guide students toward desired learning outcomes. Our role is to select the method and the techniques that will result in a meaningful learning experience.

The Selection Process. No one method is suitable for all teaching situations, because no single method is **sufficiently** flexible to meet the needs of students in every learning situation In general, as we have seen, the nature of a learning outcome suggests the type of activity that will be most helpful to the students in achieving that outcome. If, for example, we want students to gain skill in

performing a certain task, one of the activities should be practice in performing the task. If the desired outcome is knowledge, students should observe, listen, or read so they can relate what they are learning to their own experience. If students must learn to apply a principle, the instructor should ask them to solve problems or perform tasks requiring an application of that principle.

The instructional approach we choose for one learning outcome may be different from the approaches that we select for other outcomes in the same lesson. Our primary concern is to plan and select the most appropriate approach for students to achieve each outcome.

Lesson Planning Format. Good lesson planning is essential for any systematic approach to instruction. Although many instructors become discouraged by the time required for good lesson planning, a well written and properly used lesson plan can be a very worthwhile teaching aid.

Experienced instructors use written lesson plans for a variety of purposes. They can be checkpoints to ensure well-planned learning experiences. They can serve as teaching guides during lessons and as references for other instructors who may teach for us in emergencies. They also serve as convenient records of an instructor's planning techniques and methods of teaching.

One of the most practical functions of lesson plans is that they serve as step-by-step guides for instructors in developing teaching and learning activities. Authorities differ about the content and form of lesson plans, and many commands and schools have developed their own formats to satisfy particular needs. On the whole, however, most authorities generally agree on the essential characteristics of a good lesson plan.

Organizing The Lesson. After we have researched the topic, selected the appropriate instructional method, and identified the lesson planning format to use, we must decide how to organize the lesson. Every lesson needs an introduction, body, and conclusion. In most instances the body of the lesson should be prepared

before the introduction or conclusion. After we prepare the body or main part of the lesson, we will be in a better position to begin or conclude the lesson. The first consideration in planning the body is how to organize the main points, but organization of sub-points is also important. Arrangement of the main points and sub-points of a lesson will help both the instructor and the students-the instructor in teaching it and the students in learning. Most lessons, regardless of their length, divide nicely into from two to five main points.

The typical ways of organizing main or sub-points of a lesson are by the patterns of time, space, cause-effect, problem-solution, pro-con, or topic. Furthermore, certain strategies can be used with each pattern from known to unknown, for instance, or from simple to complex. How does an instructor decide which patterns and strategies to use? The lesson material will often organize itself more easily with one pattern and strategy than with another. Let us consider how various patterns and strategies can be used to organize the main points of a lesson.

Major Components of a Lesson Plan Information/Materials to be Included:

Part 1: Cover Sheet

Course/phase/lesson Identification Instructor's name Method used Objective (with behavioral indicators of achievement)

Main teaching points or task steps

References consulted

Instructional aids used

Handouts needed

Part II: Lesson Development

Content outline

Notes on delivery techniques

Cues for use of visual aids

Notetaking space for student inputs '

Comments on effectiveness of plan made after lesson is presented

Part III: Evaluation

Test items

Record of student performance on test items

Statistical analysis

Record of test item revisions

Part IV: Related Materials

Handouts Homework as assignments

Reading assignments

Supporting documents

Actual instructional aids

Class text

Time. Our vocabularies are filled with words which refer to time: now, tomorrow, yesterday, today, sooner, later, earlier, last week, a month from now, four years ago, next time. We work, play, sleep, and eat at certain times. Major events in our lives are organized by time: births, engagements, marriages, deaths. Time or the chronological pattern of lesson organization is a natural way of arranging events in the sequence of order in which they happened, or in giving directions in the order to be followed in carrying them out. This kind of organization is sometimes called sequential organization. Certain processes, procedures, or historical movements and developments can often be explained best with a time sequence pattern.

The medical technician presenting a lesson on mouth-to-mouth resuscitation would probably use the time order for the main points:

(1) preliminary steps-proper body position, mouth open, tongue and jaw forward

(2) the mouth-to-mouth process

(3) caring for the patient once breathing resumes.

Time order is also a logical approach to lessons dealing with such subjects as "How to Pack a Parachute," "Development of the F-15 Fighter," or How to Prepare a Speech."

Furthermore, any lesson on a subject with several phases lends itself well to the time pattern. For example, given an objective for students to know the three planned phases of the Common Market (where phase one was to precede phase two, and phase two precede phase three), a lesson might have these main points:

(1) Phase one-a customs union where nations agreed to reduce duties,

(2) Phase two-an economic union allowing laborers and goods to move freely across national borders,

(3) Phase three-a political union with national representatives as members of a common parliament and using a common currency.

Of course, rather than looking forward in time from a given moment, the strategy might be to look backward from a point in time. In other words, the strategy might be to move from recent to earlier time rather than 'from early to late. Regardless of which strategy is used, the flow of the lesson and the transitions should make the chronological relationships between main points clear to the students.

Space. A spatial or geographical pattern is effective in describing relationships. When using this pattern, the lesson material is developed according to some directional strategy such as east to west or north to south. For instance, if an instructor were describing the domino theory of guerrilla infiltration, a good strategy would make the main points of the lesson correspond to the geographical locations of various nations.

With lessons about certain objects, the strategy might be to arrange the main points from top to bottom or bottom to top. A fire extinguisher might be described from top to bottom, an organizational chart from the highest ranks to the lowest in the organization, a library according to the services found on the first floor, then the second, and finally those on the third.

Sometimes, the strategy is to organize the lesson from the center to the outside. For example, the control panel in an airplane might be discussed by describing first those instruments in the center most often used, then by moving out toward the surrounding instruments which are used least often.

In all lessons arranged spatially, we need to introduce each aspect or main point according to some strategy. Just as with a lesson organized by time, the subject matter and the transitions should include elaboration and clarification of how the main points relate to one another. A simple listing of the various objects or places without elaboration as to how they are related may confuse the students and make the points harder to remember.

Cause/Effect. A cause/effect pattern of organization is used in a lesson where one set of conditions is given as a cause for another set. In such lessons we may use one of two basic strategies to arrange our main points. With a cause/effect strategy, we begin with a given set of conditions and show that these will produce or have already produced certain results or effects.

With an effect-cause strategy, we take a certain ,set of conditions as the effects and allege that they resulted from certain causes.

The cause-effect strategy might be used in a lesson concerning the increasing number of women in the Air Force. The lesson might first discuss the fact that women are now assuming more responsible leadership roles in the Air Force. One effect of women assuming such roles might be that women are joining the Air Force with increasing frequency.

The effect-cause strategy might be used in a lesson on child abuse. The first point might explain the effects of child abuse

upon the children themselves, the parents, and even on society. The second point might suggest that the causes are that parents themselves were abused as children or that they lack proper education on parenting.

Whichever strategy is used, two cautions must be observed:

(1) Beware of false causes. Just because one event or circumstance precedes another does not mean that the former causes the latter. Many persons assume that "First A happened, and then B took place, so A must have caused B."

(2) Beware of single causes. Few things result from a single cause. There may be several causes and they may not act independently. Their effect may be greater or less than the sum of their parts. Lack of safety features on automobiles does not by itself cause most highway accidents, but this cause plus careless driving and unsafe highways may, in combination, account for many highway accidents.

Problem-Solution. This pattern, sometimes called the disease-remedy pattern or the needsatisfaction pattern, presents students with a problem and then proposes a way to solve it. With this pattern we must show that a problem exists and then offer a corrective action that is (1) practical, (2) desirable, (3) capable of being put into action, and (4) able to relieve the problem. It must also be one that does not introduce new and worse evils of its own. For example, the issue of controlling nuclear weapons has long been debated. Those against control argue that erosion of national sovereignty from arms control is more dangerous than no control.

There are different strategies we might employ when using the problem-solution method. If the students are aware of the problem and the possible solutions, we might discuss the problem briefly, mention the possible solutions, and then spend more time in showing why one solution is better than others. For instance, our objective is for students to comprehend that solar energy is

the best solution to the energy crisis. Our main points might be:

(1) the world is caught in the grip of an energy crisis,

(2) several solutions are possible, and

(3) solar energy is the best long-term solution.

If the students are not aware of the problem or need, we may describe in detail the exact nature of the problem. Sometimes when students become aware of the problem, the solution becomes evident, and little time is needed to develop the solution in the lesson. At other times we need to spend time developing both the problem and the solution.

Still another strategy is to alternate or stagger portions of the problem with portions of the solution. For example, the cost of a project may be seen as one problem, workability another, time to do the project as a third. Taking each in turn and providing solutions to cost, work ability, and time as we present these aspects of the problem may be more satisfying to students than if we had discussed all of the problem and then its total solution.

Whatever strategy is used, with the problem solution pattern students must become aware that a problem exists before a solution will be agreed upon.

Pro-Con. The pro-con pattern, sometimes called the for-against pattern or advantagesdisadvantages pattern, is similar to a problem-solution pattern in that the lesson is usually planned so as to lead to a conclusion. A major difference, however, is that fairly even attention is usually directed toward both sides of an issue with a pro-con pattern.

There are various strategies to consider when using the pro-con pattern. One consideration is whether to present pro or con first. Another is whether to present both sides and let students draw their own conclusions or to present the material in such a way that students are led to accept the "school solution." For instance, with a lesson on the effects of jogging we have to

decide whether to present the advantages or disadvantages first. Then we must decide whether to let students decide for themselves whether the advantages outweigh the disadvantages. Pro-con plus one is the label given to the organization used when we draw a final conclusion based on the two sides.

When deciding the specific strategy to use with the pro-con pattern and determining how much time to spend on each, the following guidelines may be helpful:

(1) giving both sides fairly even emphasis is most effective when the weight of evidence is clearly on the favored side;

(2) presenting both sides is more effective when students may be initially opposed to the school solution;

(3) presenting only the favored side is most effective when students already favor the school solution or conclusion;

(4) presenting the favored side last is generally more favorable to its acceptance, especially if the side not favored is not shown in too strong a light.

Creating Block Plans

To create a blockplan that meets the above purposes and provides you with daily instructional guidance, many effective teachers use the following series of eight interdependent steps:

I. Develop your blockvision

II. Create your summative blockassessment

III. Translate your learning goals into lesson objectives

IV. Sequence your content and scaffold your lesson objectives

V. Schedule your objectives on the school calendar

VI. Create your beginning-of-blockdiagnostic tool

VII. Create a tracking system for your objectives

VIII. Continually adjust your plan

Note that these steps represent the same backwards-planning framework that we used at the assessment and long-term plan levels. They have been tried, tested, and used by many effective teachers and, thus, constitute a set of guidelines for reaching the purposes of blockplanning. This process should not be thought of, however, as a "checklist" or as a series of discrete, linear steps to blockplanning. As you will see throughout this chapter, many of the actions are interrelated and will need to be reused or revisited at multiple stages in the planning process. Avoid rigid adherence to each step. Such an approach may lead you to lose sight of your underlying purpose – clearly understanding your destination and developing a plan to reach this goal. Always reflect on the rationale for completing each stage in the process and think of the ways in which one action connects to and influences the other steps in the process. We will consider each step in turn, although you may recognize some steps (namely the creation of a beginning-of-blockdiagnostic and an end-of-blockassessment) from Chapter Two.

Develop Your BlockVision

You have probably heard teachers talk about teaching "units." This generic term refers to what results when you transform various "buckets" of learning goals (created in your long-term plan) into a coherent set of lessons. For example, a high school English as a Second Language teacher might allocate sixweeks to a "poetry unit," in which a whole range of learning goals – from vocabulary to research skills – would be covered in the context of studying poetry. A middle school teacher might study a particular grouping of learning goals and realize that designing a museum in the classroom might be a great way to engage students in all of those learning goals. An elementary school teacher might notice that her class is just fascinated by firefighters and police, and she might decide to teach each of the learning goals she has grouped for the next six weeks through a blockon careers in the community.

NOTES

Before you determine what type of block to present, however, it is necessary to develop a strong **block vision**- a clear understanding of your ultimate goal for student learning. At this stage in your planning process you need to answer the question, "What would it look like for my students to master the block learning goals?" Without this clear vision of where you are going, you will be unable to effectively organize your instruction.

Up to this point you have developed a course-level understanding of your learning goals in creating your big goal and long-term plan. To develop your block vision, continue this process of unpacking your learning goals using the resources described in Chapter One, including veteran teachers, exemplary student work, and grade-level assessments. Determine what exactly your students should know or be able to do by the end of the block if they have achieved the learning goals. This will allow you to clearly envision the unit's purpose and destination and prepare you to determine what evidence students must produce in order to demonstrate mastery.

You may already have a clear understanding of what student mastery will look like for your block from your prior work in digesting your learning goals and standards. If so, you may not need to 'unpack' your learning goals any further to produce a sufficiently clear block vision.

Before you proceed, however, make sure that you can concretely describe in detail the most important things for your students to learn, and what it will look like for students to demonstrate that they have achieved the block goals.

After developing your vision of the block goal, you can begin to decide what type of block you will use to present the learning goals to students. As the beginning of this section illustrates, there is a range of ways to think about creating "units" of learning. Units are often categorized as goals-based, thematic, or project-based.

A **"goals-based"** unit, in a way, is a misnomer because all units

are rooted in goals. When we refer to goals-based units, we refer to a group of standards focused in the same content or skill area. For example, a middle school math teacher might plan a measurement unit t teach students the skills of measuring temperature, speed, volume, mass, and the dimensions of an object. An elementary teacher might create a blockon writing letters, focusing on the skills necessary to write friendly, informative, or persuasive letters. A secondary chemistry teacher might design a unit on the periodic table, teaching students the underlying concepts that govern the arrangement of the periodic table. With "goals-based" units, the teacher creates a blockdirectly from the content of the learning goals at issue. Consider the reflections of Margaret Cate, DC '98:

I remember thinking that all my units had to be fancy – with bells and whistles and multiple connections to the content my students were studying in other classes. But myinquisitive 7th graders were often fascinated in the science learning goals themselves, and I could develop a block– say, on human body systems – from those alone. Sure, I could still "spice it up" with a doctor from DC General as a guest speaker, MRI's, X-Rays, and songs about the digestive system, but the focus each day was on objectives related to identifying, analyzing, and comparing the structure and function of human body systems.

Block Planning

Some people create their goals-based units by raising a central question that the learning goals imply – things like "what makes a story a real page-turner?" on narrative writing, or "who is a friend?" about foreign policy. Students then tie all of the content they learn during that blockto this enduring idea. With a lot of careful thought, you may even be able to develop questions or generalizations that recur throughout the year ("the parts of a system are interdependent" in science, for example), which can serve as touchstones for the various concepts, principles, and facts that your students learn. For a more detailed description about developing the "essential questions" of your curriculum,

NOTES

we highly recommend checking out Understanding By Design, accessible online to members at www.ascd.org (we also highly recommend becoming a member of the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development (ASCD), otherwise your Program Director most likely will have a membership and can access this article for you).

Thematic units (probably most familiar to you from elementary school) also seek to reach goals, but integrate standards from multiple subject areas to do so, focusing on a common theme or topic. For example, elementary teachers might develop a thematic blockabout dinosaurs to teach science, math, and writing skills. A teacher could have students measure model dinosaurs using centimeters and inches.

They could address sentence structure learning goals by having students write sentences about dinosaurs, or science learning goals by having students identify which dinosaurs were carnivores, herbivores, or omnivores. Thematic units are particularly popular during events such as the Olympics and national elections.

Thematic units are also useful at the secondary level, and sometimes teachers of different content areas or disciplines choose to collaborate. For example, a high school history teacher might focus on thedevelopment and history of the city in which students live, while the biology teacher could lead students inan environmental study of a nearby river. Secondary teachers might also simply choose a particular field of student interest to use as a lens for studying different learning goals within their discipline, like examining the variety of physics principles through roller coaster rides or reaching various literature goals on character, plot, and setting while reading a series of books on tolerance. Notice how Miwa Powell, DC '96, centered a thematic blockon living things in her kindergarten classroom:

To meet our language arts objectives, we focused on stories from several different genres, from Jack and the Beanstalk to Marti and the Mango to Eric Carle's The Tiny Seed. We based

a variety of language arts activities on these stories, including identifying compound words, ordering events in a story, and using descriptive language.

Many of our math objectives for this block focused on measurement, estimation, and graphing. We created a variety of lessons around sorting, graphing, and estimating quantities of seeds. Our students helped each other measure themselves and created beautiful flowers that were exactly their height, which we used to decorate our classrooms. We also measured the stems and leaves of a variety of plants that we used for our science experiments. We built critical thinking skills through these experiments, which ranged from predicting the growth of lima bean seeds in different environments to observing a carnation draw colored water through its stem.

Project-based units focus on producing an end product, such as a book, a play, a trip, or a presentation that serves as a rallying point for the students and motivates them to learn. Students must learn skills in order to complete the project, and therefore they see the utility of skills as they apply their knowledge.

An elementary ESL teacher might design a project-based block in which each student writes a page for a class book that they will have in the school library. A middle school English teacher might have students write and present a play of their own after reading various works by famous playwrights. A secondary Spanish teacher might plan a trip to a restaurant where students would be required to order and speak in Spanish for the whole meal. Perhaps in your block on poetry, you are all working toward a "Poetry Slam" where students read and perform their work for an audience. Perhaps in your block on the Constitutional Convention, you are working toward your own "Classroom Constitutional Convention" during which students will present their persuasive papers on various civic issues. Consider the reflections of Mina Kim, New Jersey '98: I could tell that the concept of plotting points on a grid was lost on my Newark first graders, so I asked graduate students from Rutgers' School of Planning and Public Policy to

NOTES

demonstrate how this skill could be translated into making maps. The graduate students brought various types of maps including an aerial photo of my students' community, and my first graders enjoyed the activity so much that we launched a fullscale mapping project. Each child decorated a milk carton to look like their home, made cereal boxes into schools and stores, and formed construction paper into cars. They glued them to a floor-sized map they had painted complete with, yup, grid lines and coordinates. We used the grid to pinpoint the locations of everyone's home, the school, parks and churches. Not only did they learn a great deal about maps, but they also exhibited tremendous pride in their community.

Deciding the type of block you will use to deliver your learning goals is the most central – and often wonderfully creative – step of block planning. Sometimes, you will be able to choose a block whose theme or end-project will excite and motivate you and your students (as in the examples of the dinosaur unit or the trip to a restaurant above). Other times, the learning goals will lend themselves to a particular type of unit. In this situation, you must determine how to best use and emphasize the particular content area to motivate students and bring them to mastery of the learning goals.

Consider the following groups of learning goals pulled from these teachers' long-term plans and the type of block they decided to use to deliver those learning goals. Of course, these teachers could have picked any type of block to present their learning goals. The block on writing friendly letters could have been part of a thematic block about a particular region of the country that incorporated science, math, and geography learning goals. The thematic physics Block could have been a project-based block in which the students built a small course of ramps and inclines over which a ball could travel if energy is conserved appropriately. As noted in Chapter One, you should take advantage of the work that organizations have already done in grouping learning goals into compelling units. For specific ideas, browse the web

sites listed in the **Instructional Planning & Delivery Toolkit**(pp. 1-2: "Internet Links to Regional and National Standards"), which can be found online at the Resource Exchange on TFANet. Your choice among these various unit structures is an opportunity to think critically about how to best engage your students. Select the approach that will most effectively invest them in their own learning.

Essential Elements of a Lesson Plan Template

A complete lesson plan template should include space for the following things:

"Big idea" and/or "Essential Question"

What is the big idea, broad concept, or essential question you are working towards in this lesson.

Grade Level & Subject

What are the grade level(s) and subject(s) for this lesson?

Lesson Objective or Focus

What are you hoping to achieve during this specific lesson?

General & Specific Learning Objectives

What are the general and specific learning objectives from the Manitoba Education curriculum document(s) that relate to this lesson?

Materials & Resources

What materials & resources do you need to prepare and have on hand *before* the lesson (e.g. photocopies, manipulatives, tools etc.)? What technology are you planning to use and have you tested it *before* the lesson?

Estimated Timeline

How much time do you think you will need for each part of the lesson?

NOTES

Step-by-step Procedure

What will you do and how? What will the students be doing? With whom? Where? When and how will you distribute or collect materials? How will you help students make transitions? You may want to divide this section into parts such as:

- Introductory activities (e.g. engagement, motivational hooks, connection to prior knowledge, connection to lived experience, activating etc.)

- Developmental activities (e.g. mini-lesson, exploration, group discussions, problem solving activities, acquiring, etc.)

- Consolidating activities (e.g. applying, evaluation phase, lesson closure, homework etc.)

- Extension activities (in case you or the students finish early)

Special Considerations

How will you differentiate the lesson for particular students? Are there other factors you need to consider (e.g. safety, logistics etc.)?

Assessment Considerations

What do you want the students to learn? How will you know if they did? What formative assessment strategies (e.g. carefully planned questioning to encourage in-depth/critical thinking; specific aspects of student behaviour you want to pay attention to or observe during the lesson; techniques such as exit cards, student journal entries, or not-for-grades quizzes, finger counts to indicate level of understanding etc.) will you use during the lesson?

Reflections

What were you hoping to achieve? What went well in the lesson? What changes did you make during the lesson and what prompted you to do so? What would you change next time you teach this lesson?

Building a Lesson Plan Template that Works for You

You will want to have a lesson plan template that you can use throughout your teacher education program and as you begin your teaching career. Your template should be organized in a way that makes sense to you. It should also be easy to reproduce and fill in. To start building your template, consider how you want to arrange the essential elements listed above. You may decide to place each element on a single page or you may start with a twopage layout. Of course, if you build the template using word processing software the spaces for each element will expand as you type in the details. Here are some lesson planning templates that have been created by professors in the faculty.

Method of Presentation. The strategy statement should move the reader through the lesson simultaneously from the general to the specific elements as well as sequentially, from attention step through the closure. No part of the lesson plan and no decision about teaching techniques (use of demonstrations, use of questions, where to insert mini-lectures) should be overlooked or assumed in the statement. Spelling out each element about which we sometimes make subconscious decisions in lesson formulation often reveals conventions that we sometimes misuse or overuse in the practice of education-again, a benefit to the writer and any other teacher of the lesson.

We suggest that you start by looking at your lesson objective and organizational pattern to decide on an overall strategic ordering of the main points. State this ordering up front; e.g., general to specific, specific to general, most to least important, known to unknown, simple to complex. This decision will give you a general focus to lead you toward the objective efficiently.

Follow this with a sequential statement of each main point and its associated sub-points to include method of presentation and rationales for the method and order of presentation. Each of these steps is important to help the lesson planner fit the elements together and consider all the factors necessary for justifying

each decision. In effect, this method can be simplified by meticulously asking and answering the three questions that are indispensable for comprehensive lesson development: "WHAT, HOW, and WHY."

Interrelating the Questions. Whenever there is a .significant lesson element, it constitutes an answer to the "What?" question that must be answered in the strategy. A significant lesson element is every main point or sub-point that the instructor includes in the lesson and each must be denoted in the strategy statement. Often, segments of the lesson, e.g., the introduction, attention step, interim summary, or conclusion, represent significant elements that should or must also be mentioned in the strategy. Significant lesson elements tell the teacher (and sometimes, the student) what will be covered or where there is an important or required tactical decision. But this is just the beginning of the process because, if we were to stop with these determinations of what we intend to do and where we intend to do it, we would be left with simply a laundry list of elements to be touched on during the lesson. Of more significance to the lesson planner are the answers to the "How?" and "Why?" questions. Asking and answering "How?" to each of these "whats" force us to determine and delineate the method, manner, or sequence of presenting the significant elements that will be included. It is important to make these determinations because we have a palette full of teaching techniques, patterns, and methodologies from which to choose. And it is often helpful to specify these decisions to encourage precision in our lesson formulation. For example, very often we state that we will "discuss" a particular topic when we have absolutely no intention of discussing it at all (as evidenced by our failure to plan discussion questions in that part of the plan).

Answering the "How?" question will help us to focus our intentions and prevent us from making the mistake of saying we will discuss something without providing discussion questions within the lesson plan. Alternatively, we might want to demonstrate, or even have a student demonstrate, something within the lesson or we might want to show a movie or slides to illustrate a lesson element most effectively. But if we state, in the strategy, that we will

"explain" a given concept in this part of the lesson, this disconnect with what we actually plan in the lesson will be more evident. But one cannot determine the final answer to "How?" without giving full consideration to why the decision is made. Therefore, the answer to "Why?" must be fully integrated into the strategy statement. This answer provides the intellectual glue that binds the parts of the strategy statement into a cohesive whole. It justifies each decision the planner makes and fits the elements of this puzzle together. It helps to prevent our adding the dazzle and flash that add no educational value to the lesson. Everything must have a sound reason for its inclusion or it should be left out of the lesson. The "Why" should ask why the main points and sub-points are in the order we choose as well as force us to provide a reason for our choice of techniques, patterns, methods, and the inclusion of every other "what" in the lesson.

This explanation of the role of **"WHAT, HOW, and WHY"** in writing a comprehensive strategy should stimulate at least a preliminary understanding of how the strategy statement can help us plan much better lessons. A full appreciation can only be aroused, however, by our use of this technique and by comparing lesson plans based on this process to those written without comprehensive strategies. But beyond the immediate benefits to lesson planning, there are other benefits that are just as valid and sometimes more helpful. For example, lesson plans are continuously modified or updated-often by other than the original lesson developer. What a benefit it is to be able to make minor adjustments with a clear understanding of the reasoning that dictated the original form of the lesson!

Significance of the Questions. Why is it so important to be this specific in writing the strategy? The answer is self-evident since all techniques and methods (or combinations of these) are potentially appropriate in a lesson until the lesson planner decides which is most effective. If the writer does not make this decision or doesn't realize what is best to do in a given scenario, the lesson will never be as effective as it could be. In almost any human endeavor the effectiveness of interpersonal communication

is inversely proportional to how much one allows to be left unstated or "understood."

In order to emphasize the importance of including the answers to each of these questions in the strategy statement, an appropriate comparison can be made between the strategy statement and a cooking recipe. In each case, the intended result is a palatable concoction of ingredients. But none of us can combine a list of ingredients (what) of a dish (what) to produce the desired result unless we knew the correct measurements of each (how) as well as the method (how) and the time (how) of cooking. Even the order of combining the ingredients (how) at each stage of the cooking process is often important to get the desired result. Needless to say, adding salt too early in a meat recipe could reduce the succulence of the ' dish. But without a working understanding of what each of the ingredients does in a recipe (why) we would be unable to easily and successfully modify the recipe for the microwave in lieu of the oven or to substitute elements such as mayonnaise for oil and eggs in a cake recipe.

Therefore, it is imperative to ask and answer these three questions in a well-developed strategy statement. And it is equally important to interweave the answers throughout the strategy. This careful choice and justification of all lesson plan elements will result in better preparation. The following are examples of strategies that demonstrate the principles outlined above. Two things should be noticed about these examples. First, the "WHAT, HOW and WHY" statements are interwoven throughout the statements. This intertwining of elements helps to ensure that everything in the plan has a justifiable purpose. Second, some of these statements serve double duty, e.g., some "what" statements are also "how" or "why" statements. This is perfectly legitimate and any type statement can serve more than one purpose. This phenomenon may even help to strengthen the cohesion of the overall strategy.

Example 1:

WHAT? HOW? WHY? **LESSON TYPE:** Informal Lecture.

I PART IB

ORGANIZATIONAL PATTERN: Topical.

STRATEGY:

This lesson will begin with a definition of personal effectiveness to ensure that students start from a common reference point. Once the definition is covered I will discuss the three elements of the time management model: setting priorities, daily planning, and delegation, along with their relationship to personal effectiveness. Beginning with priority systems, I will establish the principle that "Using a Priority System Improves Personal Effectiveness" through lecture, questions, and answers.

Since establishing priorities is the first step one takes in a time management system, it is logical that I begin here. Once priorities are established, planning can begin. With the relationship between priorities and personal effectiveness established, I will next examine how planning daily activities improves personal effectiveness.

Finally, I will discuss how "Delegation Improves Personal Effectiveness." Delegation is the last step in my time management model and therefore, will be reviewed last during today's presentation. I will summarize the three main points in a comprehension-level summary combining my teaching points with the student inputs from the classroom questions to aid in reaching the generalization that "Time Management Techniques Improve Personal Effectiveness."

Beginning And Ending The Lesson

So far we have selected the verbal and visual material that best supports our lesson and made necessary changes in the original tentative outline. We are now ready to cast our lesson into a final content outline. Usually before we outline, however, we will want to consider how to begin and end the lesson. If the lesson is not the first in a block of instruction, we may have little to do in the way of beginning or introducing the lesson. If other lessons in the same block of instruction are to follow this lesson, we may not need an extensive conclusion. But especially if the lesson is to stand alone, we need to give some attention toward preparing an introduction and conclusion.

Introduction. The introduction to a lesson should serve several purposes:

to establish a common ground between the instructor and students,

to capture and hold attention,

to outline the lesson and relate it to the overall course,

to point out benefits to the student, and

to lead the student into the lesson content.

While humor may be appropriate, the introduction should be free of irrelevant stories, jokes, or incidents that distract from the lesson objective. It should not contain long or apologetic remarks that are likely to dampen student interest in the lesson. Educators often speak of three necessary elements in the introduction of a lesson: gain attention, motivate, and provide an overview of lesson material.

Attention. To gain attention, the instructor may relate some incident that focuses on the subject and provides a background for the lesson. Another approach may be to make an unexpected or surprising statement or ask a question that relates the lesson to group needs. A rhetorical question (Have you ever ... ? or Can you imagine ... ?) may be effective. At other times, nothing more than a clear indication that the lesson has begun is sufficient. In all instances, the primary concern is to focus student attention on the subject.

Motivation. The instructor should use the introduction to discuss specific reasons why the students need to learn whatever they are about to learn. In this motivational discussion, the instructor should make a personal appeal to students and reinforce their desire to learn. The appeal may relate the learning to career advancement or to some other need. But in every instance, the instructor should cite a specific application for student learning experiences. In many cases, the need for this lesson as a foundation for future lessons is strong motivation. This motivational appeal should continue throughout the lesson. If a brief mention of

needs is made only in the introduction, the instructor is square-filling, not motivating.

Overview. For most instructional methods, the introduction should provide an overview of what is to be covered during the class period. An overview with a clear, concise presentation of the objective and key objective and key ideas serves as a road map for learning. Effective visual aids can be helpful at this point. A clear overview can contribute greatly to a lesson by removing doubts in the minds of the learners about where the lesson is going and how they are going to get there. Students can be told what will be covered or left out and why. They can be informed about how the ideas have been organized. Research shows that students understand better and retain more when they know what to expect. The purpose of the overview is to prepare students to listen to the body of the lesson.

Conclusion. The conclusion of a lesson may stick with the students longer than anything else said. For this reason, we should give much care to its preparation. But the conclusion is also important in its own right. The conclusion of most lessons should accomplish three things:

summarize, remotivate, and provide closure.

Final Summary. Short or interim knowledge-level summaries may be appropriate at various places in a knowledge-level lesson, for example, after each main point has been made. But final knowledge-level summaries come after all main points of the lesson have been made. An effective knowledge-level summary retraces the important elements of the lesson. As the term suggests, a final knowledge-level summary reviews the main points in a concise manner. By reviewing the main points, it can aid students' retention of information and give them a chance to fill in missing information in their notes.

In lessons designed to reach a conclusion (principle), a comprehension-level summary is desired as the final summary. Short or interim comprehension-level summaries may come at the conclusion of main points. But the final comprehension-level

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summary comes after all main points of the lesson have been made and serves as the first part of the lesson conclusion. The purpose of a comprehension-level summary is to provide logical and consistent reasons which support or lead to the desired conclusion (lesson objective).

The comprehension-level final summary may require several minutes. While containing a brief restatement of significant information, it requires an expansion of key items to establish relationships which lead to a generalization. The generalization is the instructional objective.

New support material can be introduced when needed to establish the generalization.

Remotivation. The purpose of the remotivation is to instill in students a desire to retain and use what they have learned. Effective instructors provide motivation throughout the lesson. But the remotivation step is the instructor's last chance to let students know why the information presented in the lesson is so important to the student as an individual. Perhaps it is important because it provides the groundwork for future lessons or because it will help do their jobs more effectively. But whatever the reasons given, they should be ones that appeal directly to the students and show the importance to them of what was learned.

Closure. For many instructors the closure presents the most difficult challenge in planning a lesson. Students need to be released from active participation. In lectures they need to be released from listening. In interactive methods they need to know that it is time for their verbal participation to cease. Sometimes instructors, at a loss as how to close, say, "Well that's about all I have to say," or "I guess I don't have anything else." This type of closure is not very satisfying. There are much more effective ways of closing. Sometimes vocal inflection can signal that the lesson is ending. Quotations, stories, or humorous incidents can also provide effective closure. Sometimes when the lesson is to followed by others in the same block of instruction, we might say something such as, "Next time, then, we will continue with our discussion

of... Between now and then if you have any questions" come to my office and I'll see if I can answer them for you.

Preparing The Final Outline.

After we have researched the topic, selected an instructional method, identified the lesson planning format we will use, organized the lesson, chosen our support materials, and decided how to begin and end the lesson, we are ready to prepare our final content outline. We may, in fact, **prepare two versions** of the outline.

One version will be very complete-almost in manuscript form-so we can return to it several weeks or months later when we have to teach the lesson again or when someone else must teach the lesson. Another version will be much briefer perhaps only one page long, or written on cards so we can carry it with us to the classroom and teach from it. This brief outline may be thought of as a keyword outline with key words and phrases to remind us of main points, sub-points, support material we plan to use, questions we might ask, and the things we want to mention in the introduction and conclusion of the lesson.

Since this keyword outline is a basic minimum for most of us to take into the classroom with us, the following discussion focuses on its construction. The longer version of the outline will follow the same principles, but much more information will be included in the outline.

Preparing a Keyword Outline

Division. The outline should be divided into three main parts: introduction, body, and conclusion. As discussed previously, the introduction will generally have three subparts: attention, motivation, and overview. The body will have the main points of the lesson as major subdivisions. The conclusion will have three subdivisions: final summary, remotivation, and closure.

Symbol system. To show the relative importance of lesson materials in the body of the lesson, we use a number or letter symbol before each entry. A roman numeral may be used to

designate main points, capital letters for sub points, arabic numerals for sub-sub-points, lower case letters for sub-sub-sub-points, and so forth. Some rules of outlining to remember are:

(1) Only one symbol should be used per point or idea,

(2) Subordinate points should be indented, and

(3) The principle of sub points or subordination means that a point follows logically or supports the point above it.

Examination Useful Questions

Long Type Questions :

1. What do you understand by determining ? Explain its objectives in detail.

2. What do you mean by lesson ? Discuss major components of lesson plan.

3. What is lesson plan template ? Explain its essential elements.

4. Why is lesson plan building ? Template that helpful for the scholars. Explain it in detail.

Short Type Questions :

1. How to develop blockvision ? Write in briefly.

2. How to prepare the outline in the final ? Explain.

3. Why is it necessary to prepare keyword outline ? Discuss.

4. What do you understand by beginning and ending the lesson.

| 2.5 | **Planning And Adapting Blocks and Lessons For Children With Disabilities** |

Study material included in this unit -

- Objectives
- Introduction
- Learners With Special Educational Needs (Sen)
- Shifting Models Of Disability: Historical Progression
- The Charity Model
- The Bio-Centric Model
- The Functional Model
- The Human Rights Model
- Understanding Terms, Terminology And Phrases
- Structure Of The Lesson
- Examination useful questions

Objectives

After study this chapter you will understand the following facts.

- Learners With Special Educational Needs (Sen)
- Shifting Models Of Disability: Historical Progression
- The Charity Model
- The Bio-Centric Model
- The Functional Model
- The Human Rights Model
- Understanding Terms, Terminology And Phrases
- Structure Of The Lesson

Introduction

Education is a powerful instrument of social change, and often initiates upward movement in the social structure. Thereby, helping to bridge the gap between the different sections of society. The educational scene in the country has undergone major change over the years, resulting in better provision of education and better educational practices. In 1944, the CentralAdvisory Board of Education (CABE) published a comprehensive report called the Sergeant Report on the post-war educational development of the country.

As per the report, provisions for the education of the handicapped2, were to form an essential part of the national system of education, which was to be administered by the Education Department. According to this report, handicapped children were to be sent to special schools only when the nature and extent of their defects made this necessary. The Kothari Commission (1964–66), the first education commission of independent India, observed: "the education of the handicapped children should be an inseparable part of the education system." The comission recommended experimentation with integrated programmes in order to bring as many children as possible into these programmes (Alur, 2002).

The government's agenda to universalize elementary education, and its commitment to theDirective Principles of the Constitution, are guided by the recognition that a new universal system of education should be based on equity, the redressal of past imbalances, and the provision of access to quality education, especially for marginalised groups. Recent educational developments and the Seventy Third and Seventy Fourth Constitutional Amendments outline the possibility of entrusting basic education to the local elected bodies in towns and villages. This would allow for community participation in education at the elementary level and would introduce radical change, leading to the empowerment of learners with Special Educational Needs (SEN).

Until the 1970s, the policy encouraged segregation.

Most educators believed that children with physical, sensory, or intellectual disabilities were so different that they could not participate in the activities of a common school (Advani, 2002). Christian missionaries, in the 1880s, started schools for the disabled as charitable undertakings (Mehta, 1982). The first school for the blind was established in 1887. An institute for the deaf and mute, was set up in 1888. Services for the physically disabled were also initiated in the middle of the twentieth century. Individuals with mental retardation were the last to receive attention. The first school for the mentally challenged being established in 1934 (Mishra, 2000). Special education programmes in earlier times were, therefore, heavily dependent on voluntary initiative. The government's (Department of Education) initiatives after independence were manifested in the establishment of a few workshop units meant primarily for blind adults (Luthra, 1974). These units later included people who were deaf, physically impaired, and mentally retarded (Rohindekar and Usha, 1988) While some provisions existed in the States, it was considered the best course to assist and encourage voluntary organisations already working in the field (see the First Five Year Plan, 1951–1956 on http: www.planning commission.hic.in/plans/planrel/five Yr/7th/vol2/7v2ch10.html).

The welfare approach continued in government programmes. Support was provided to voluntary organisations for the establishment of model schools for the blind, the deaf, and the mentally retarded. The government set up the National Library for the Blind, the Central Braille Press, and employment exchanges for the disabled. It also made provisions for scholarships, for prevention and early identification of disabling conditions, for the development of functional skills, and for aids and appliances for the disabled.

Learners with Special Educational Needs (SEN)

In India a learner with SEN is defined variously in different documents. For example, a child with SEN in a District Primary Education Programme (DPEP) document is defined as a child with disability, namely, visual, hearing, locomotor, and intellectual (DPEP, 2001). However, the country report in the NCERTUNESCO

regional workshop report titled Assessment of needs for Inclusive Education: Report of the First Regional Workshop for SAARC Countries (2000) states that SEN goes beyond physical disability. It also refers to, ...the large proportion of children—in the schoolage—belonging to the groups of child labour are, street children, victims of natural catastrophes and social conflicts, and those in extreme social and economic deprivation. These children constitute the bulk of dropouts from the school system (pg.58).

The SSA Framework for Implementation covers children with Special Needs (SN) under the section on Special Focus Groups. While separating children with disabilities from other groups like girls, Scheduled Castes (SC), Scheduled Tribes (ST), and urban deprived children, it makes provisions for these children under the section on SEN. The Department of Education of Groups with SN in the NCERT itself, initiates programmes for meeting the learning needs of the disabled and the socially disadvantaged and marginalised, such as the SCs, STs, and minorities.

According to the International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED-97) (UNESCO, 1997), the term Special Needs Education (SNE) means educational intervention and support designed to address SEN. The term "SNE" has come into use as a replacement for the term "Special Education". The earlier term was mainly understood to refer to the education of children with disabilities that takes place in special schools or institutions distinct from, and outside of, the institutions of the regular school and university system. In many countries today a large proportion of disabled children are in fact educated in institutions under the regular system.

Moreover, th concept of children with SEN extends beyond thos who may be included in handicapped categories to cover those who are failing in school, for a wide variety of reasons that are known to be likely impediments to a child's optimal progress. Whether or not this more broadly defined group of children is in need of additional support, depends on the extent to which schools need to adapt their curriculum, teaching, and

organisation and/or to provide additional human or material resources so as to stimulate efficient and effective learning for these pupils.

However, only in a few instances and documents, across the various States of the country, has SEN been accepted in its broad perspective. On the whole, the focus has remained on learners with specific disabilities.

This view is supported by the fact that the draft Inclusive Education Scheme (MHRD, 2003), available on the website of the Ministry of Human Resources Development (MHRD), www.education.nic.in/ htmlweb/iedc_sch_draft.htm (accessed on February 15, 2001), which addresses the needs of learners with disabilities, focuses on the following categories of disability: visual disabilities (blind and low vision), speech and hearing disabilities, locomotor disabilities, and neuromusculoskeltal and neuro-developmental disorders, including cerebral palsy, autism, mental retardation, multiple disability, and learning disabilities. Keeping this reality in mind the main focus of this position paper is on learners with such disabilities.

Shifting Models of Disability : Historical Progression

The shifting approaches to disability have translated into very diverse policies and practices. The various models of disability impose differing responsibilities on the States, in terms of action to be taken, and they suggest significant changes in the way disability is understood. Law, policy, programmes, and rights instruments reflect two primary approaches or discourses: disability as an individual pathology and as a social pathology.

Within these two overriding paradigms, the four major identifiable formulations of disability are: the charity model, the bio-centric model, the functional model, and the human rights model.

The Charity Model

The charity approach gave birth to a model of custodial care, causing extreme isolation and the marginalization of people with disabilities. Unfortunately, in some contemporary practices the

reflection of this model can still be traced. For instance, the findings of an investigative project undertaken by the National Human Rights Commission of India between 1997–99 confirmed that a large number of mental health institutions today are still being managed and administered on the custodial model of care—characterised by prison-like structures with high walls, watchtowers, fenced wards, and locked cells. These institutions functioned like detention centres, where persons with mental illness were kept chained, resulting in tragedies like the one at "Erwadi" in Tamil Nadu, in which more than 27 inmates of such a centrelost their lives.

The Bio-centric Model

The contemporary bio-centric model of disability regards disability as a medical or genetic condition. The implication remains that disabled persons and their families should strive for "normalisation", through medical cures and miracles. Although, biology is no longer the only lens through which disability is viewed in law and policy, it continues to play a prominent role in determining programme eligibility, entitlement to benefits, and it also influences access to rights and full social participation (Mohit, 2003).

A critical analysis of the development of the charity and bio-centric models suggests that they have grown out of the "vested interests" of professionals and the elite to keep the disabled "not educable" or declare them mentally retarded (MR) children and keep them out of the mainstream school system, thus using the special schools as a "safety valve" for mainstream schools (Tomlinson, 1982). Inclusive education offers an opportunity to restructure the entire school system, with particular reference to the curriculum, pedagogy, assessment, and above all the meaning of education (Jha, 2002).

The Functional Model

In the functional model, entitlement to rights is differentiated according to judgments of individual incapacity and the extent to which a person is perceived as being independent to exercise

his/her rights. For example, a child's right to education is dependent on whether or not the child can access the school and participate in the classroom, rather than the obligation being on the school system becoming accessible to children with disabilities.

The Human Rights Model

The human rights model positions disability as an important dimension of human culture, and it affirms that all human beings are born with certain inalienable rights. The relevant concepts in this model are:

Diversity

The Greek philosopher, Aristotle, once said that "things that are alike should be treated alike, whereas things that are unalike should be treated unalike in proportion to their unalikeness."

The principle of respect for difference and acceptance of disability as part of human diversity and humanity is important, as disability is a universal feature of the human condition.

Breaking Down Barriers

Policies that are ideologically based on the human rights model start by identifying barriers that restrict disabled persons' participation in society. This has shifted the focus in the way environments are arranged. In education, for example, where individuals were formerly labelled as not educable, the human rights model examines the accessibility of schools in terms of both physical access (i.e., ramps, etc.) and pedagogical strategies.

Equality and Non-Discrimination

In international human rights law, equality is founded upon two complementary principles: nondiscrimination and reasonable differentiation. The doctrine of differentiation is of particular importance to persons with disabilities, some of who may require specialised services or support in order to be placed on a basis of equality with others.

Differences of treatment between individuals are not discriminatory if they are based on "reasonable and objective justification". Moreover, equality not only implies preventing discrimination (for example, the protection of individuals against unfavourable treatment by introducing anti-discrimination laws), but goes far beyond, in remedying discrimination. In concrete terms, it means embracing the notion of positive rights, affirmative action, and reasonable accommodation.

Reasonable Accommodation

It is important to recognise that reasonable accommodation is a means by which conditions for equal participation can be achieved, nd it requires the burden of accommodation to be in proportion to the capacity of the entity. In the draft Comprehensive and Integral and International Convention on Protection and Promotion of the Rights and Dignity of Persons with Disabilities, "reasonable accommodation" has been defined as the "introduction of necessary and appropriate measures to enable a person with a disability fully to enjoy fundamental rights and freedoms and to have access without prejudice to all structures, processes, public services, goods, information, and other systems."

Accessibility

The United Nations Economic and Special Commission for Asia and the Pacific (UNESCAP) has defined "accessibility" as "the measure or condition of things and services that can readily be reached or used (at the physical, visual, auditory and/or cognitivelevels) by people including those withdisabilities"(Rioux and Mohit, 2005).

Equal Participation and Inclusion

By focussing on the inherent dignity of the human being, the human rights model places the individual at centre stage, in all decisions affecting him/her. Thus, the human rights model, respects the autonomy and freedom of choice of the disabled, and also ensures that they, themselves, prioritise the criteria for support programmes. It requires that people with disabilities, and other

individuals and institutions fundamental to society, are enabled to gain the capacity for the free interaction and participation vital to an inclusive society.

Private and Public Freedoms

The human rights approach to disability on the onehand requires that the States play an active role inenhancing the level of access to public freedoms, andon the other requires that the enjoyment of rights bypersons with disabilities is not hampered by third-partyactors in the private sphere. Educational institutionsand industry, both in the public and private sectors,should ensure equitable treatment to persons withdisabilities.

Why Inclusion?

Inclusive education means education of all students, where all students are equal participants in the learning process. Provision of inclusive education involving students with disabilities is based on the belief that those with disabilities **should not have to depend** on specialised services alone, to benefit from educational resources, activities and practices that are otherwise available to all. Inclusivity is maintained when all members of a group are able to participate in its activities, which means, provisions made are considerate of **all members** and not just those from specific groups or, with special abilities, disabilities, and/or needs. As members of a group or a community, all have **equal rights to participate**; the practices and services must thus be inclusive of all. This right is also upheld by the Indian Constitution, which assures all Indians the right of Equality of Status and Opportunity. Thus, while it is the responsibility of the society and community to involve and treat all its members as equals, the

Indian Constitution also guarantees provision of equal access to opportunities. The Right to Education (RTE) Act (2009), which makes elementaryeducation a **fundamental right of every child**, is of great significance to the government as well as private schools. Our schools and classrooms need to reflect this social, constitutional and legal right of every child to be included in the

educational processes and practices – our classrooms, now more so than before, need to be ready to include students from different backgrounds, with differing needs and abilities. The classroom offers a dynamic, productive space where ideas, values, information, knowledge are shared and conveyed. Organisation of the class and interactions amongst its fundamental components i.e., the students, teacher and curriculum-transactions, create potential for the group to move from a state of not knowing to one of knowing. With the recognition of education's impact on development, education and its aspects are now under sharp

focus. There are several indicators1 pointing out that our schools need significant improvements to develop the quality and effective reach of education to children attending the nation's extensive schooling system2.

In recent years, these increasing concerns have brought significant attention from educators, policy-makers, researchers and economists, to schools and classrooms in India.

Constitutional provisions and legal mandates such as the RTE, Persons With Disability (PWD) Act3 are policy measures to make improvements in India's education system, accessed by over 125,059,229 students (DISE 2013) including 25.96 lakh CWSN enrolled in schools, 0.52 lakh enrolled in EGS/AIE centers and another 1.38 lakh provided support through home-based education (Progress of InclusiveEducation in SSA in 2009-10, MHRD). Educational initiatives introduced to classrooms such as Continuous and Comprehensive Evaluation, inclusive education and evaluative interventions such as NCERT learning indicators are also amongst the initiatives taken to improve teaching-learning in our classrooms. In light of the introduction of these educational innovations, the attention drawn and the urgency to make classrooms better call for revisiting and revising practices, including (1) planning, (2) methods of instruction and (3) assessments, that the classrooms have been following so far.

Developing new insights into accustomed practices may seem demanding on time and energy, at times even seeming difficult to

put into practice. It would help to look upon these as opportunities to advance teaching, perhaps better the teaching-learning experiences in the classrooms. Thepurpose of this handbook is to help make the transition to the expected changeseasier for teachers. It presents suggestions, tips, ideas and strategies towards helping the teacher make classrooms and instructions inclusive. These are gathered from **research**, from **experiences**, and information collected after a series of workshops organised by the Department of Education ofGroups with Special Needs (DEGSN), with regular and special education teachers. As mentioned earlier, by inclusive is meant including all children in the classrooms4. Thus, while the handbook will address including classroom students from the perspective of a CWSN, it is developed to make classrooms inclusive for all students in the classroom.

In the following sections, first an overview of terms and definitions associated with special and inclusive education is presented. This is followed by an explanation of the organisation and contents of the handbook.

Understanding Terms, Terminology and Phrases

Several terms and phrases related to disabilities and special needs create some amount of confusion, perhaps misunderstanding. This section clarifies some terms that you are likely to come across in your work of creating inclusive classrooms.

Impairment and Disability

Two terms related to special and inclusive education that are most commonly used, often interchangeably, are impairment and disability. While impairment refers to a lesser degree of complexity in the way our bodies work, disability refers to inability or not being able to perform a task. Most of us have felt inability at some time or other in our lives: during illness, following a physical injury or, when in an unfamiliar environment.

For example, during illness, you may feel disabled from doing your regular work with usual rigour, energy and ability; during a physical injury like a fracture, or a severe sprain, disability

would involve not being able to use your limbs effectively, such as to walk, run or write. Given that often these and related terms are used interchangeably, the following presentation offers explanations of pairs of terms we often hear involving persons with disabilities.

Disability: (Nishkta) Disability is more than a problem or difficulty with how our body works - a child with an impairment may experience disability when functioning in an environment that impacts the child's successful performance at a task.

Thus, impairment alone may not cause inability to perform in a manner equal to others, but the systems within which one has to live, learn, work and operate can cause a child with impairment to be unable toperform successfully (for example, a child with hearing impairment maybeable to successfully function within own immediate contexts of familyand neighbourhood, and not experience any 'disability' in going throughroutine, day-to-day interactions, but may experience inability to performwith the same success as her regular classmates in a classroom settinginvolving expected expressions of learning). Overcoming or successfullybeing able to navigate, participate, function and contribute in a school,classroom or any organised system thus, needs suitable interventions fora person with impairment/s. The interventions need to be effective inreducing or eliminating challenges and barriers.

Assessment

(Aankalan) This involves gathering information to understand the student teacher performance and/or classroom functioning and is thus aninteractive process. Assessments are formative and diagnostic in naturethat is, they provide information about students' areas of strength andhelp recognise the teaching-learning aspects that require attention orimprovement.

Integration

(Ekikaran) Referring to the education of students with disabilities, integrationmeans providing education to students with special

needs in regularclassroom. In integrating a child with disabilities in the regular classroom,focus is on having the child adapt/adjust to the regular classroom or fail. The child may be even taught in separate classrooms.

Evaluation

(Mulyankan) This involves making a value judgment on a performancesince they are graded or scored. They are summative in nature .and areconsidered as actual measure of level of quality at the time of evaluation.

Inclusion

(Samavesh) Inclusive education refers to education of all students, where allthe students are equal participants in the learning process.

Adaptation

(Anukulan) Adaptation refers to adjusting assessments, material,curriculum, or classroom environment to accommodate a student's needsso he / she can participate in, and achieve the teaching-learning goals.

Some examples include:

- use of audio tapes, electronic texts where available, having peer/classmate to assist with class activities, or simply re-organisingseating of a child who may be unable to be attentive, easily distracted,or distracting others in the classroom;

- alternatives to written assignments to demonstrate knowledge andunderstanding (e.g. through oral presentations, drawing or otherartistic presentations);

- extended time to complete assignments or tests;

- computer software which provides text to speech/speech to textcapabilities, when available;

- provide for multiple experiences with materials to allow for differentlearning styles or needs, also to help reinforce learning

(for example,learning how plants grow in multiple ways – through class textbooks,through hands-on experience by growing one in the class, preparing observation record of its growth, and through group or whole classdiscussion about the on-going learning).

Modifications

(Sudhaar) Modifications involve making changes to learning goals, teachingprocesses, assignments and/or assessments to accommodate a student'slearning needs. E.g., (sample lessons on pg. 29-43). For example:

- changing the assignment to accommodate a student's learning needs:allowing use of lettercards to spell words as a modification to sayingthe spelling aloud, allow the student with intellectual impairmentto utilise concrete and/or more hands-on experiences, changing theconceptual difficulty level for some students.

Curriculum

While we begin to comprehend and incorporate some of the understandingsneeded to include a student with impairments in the classroom, it isimportant to realise the significance of the curriculum to classroom practices.

Creating an inclusive culture in classroom will involve attending to thecurriculum, which includes the components of a course of study. Theseconsist of the syllabus, textbooks and needed teaching learning materials,teaching strategies/processes and assessment and evaluation processes. Indiscussing the efforts in curricular development and reform, the National Curriculum Framework (NCF) 2005 underscores the significance of makingcurriculum "an inclusive and meaningful experience for children" stating"this requires a fundamental change in how we think of learners and theprocess of learning" (p. 13).

Attending to curriculum to define the classroom culture and the approach to the teaching-learning processes is thus a significant aspect of fosteringinclusivity in the work with students. The above

section offers understanding of frequently used terms inworking with students with special needs and in inclusive classrooms.

The following section explains how the handbook and its contents are organised, with explanations of the approach adopted in presenting thetips, strategies and suggestions for an inclusive classroom.

Structure of the lesson

As expressed earlier, every child has a right to education. Our classroomsneed to be ready to include children with diverse learning needs to ensurecompliance with the most recent legal mandates. Many of our classroomshave been working with students with disabilities in regular settings;however, these have often been with significant interventions from nongovernmental organisations. The implementation of RTE requires thatevery classroom be ready to include a CWSN in its teaching learningprocesses, assessment and evaluation procedures and extracurricularactivities. This handbook has been prepared with these expectations inmind. Following is an explanation of how its contents are organised.

The handbook is organised in two main sections. The first section offerssuggestions, tips and strategies for inclusive classrooms which havestudents with specific needs related to sensory disabilities, physicaldisabilities and cognitive/intellectual disabilities. The next section presentsan understanding about CCE and offers a few suggestions on how it couldbe utilised for an inclusive classroom.

The following paragraphs present a brief overview of categories of specialneeds as addressed in various sections of this handbook.

Sensory Disabilities

Sensory disabilities arise when a child is unable to successfully performdue to impairment to the senses. Sense organs include organs of taste, smell, sensations of heat, cold, touch, pain, pressure, sight, hearing. Varioussense organs receive information from the environment and, along withthe brain, are a part of our Central Nervous System, a highly organized and complex system of our bodies (Gray 1918, p. 721). Among the senses,impairments

to the senses of sight and hearing, i.e. visual impairment andhearing impairment have considerable implications for teaching-learningin the classroom; we rely significantly on both these senses – of hearingand sight – for our learning.

The handbook offers suggestions and guidelines related to vision andhearing impairments. Information includes (1) understanding the generalnature of impairments, (2) appropriate approaches, considerations and(3) some suggestions for creating an inclusive classroom for typicallylearning children and children with visual or hearing impairments5.

Physical Disabilities

Physical disabilities arise when a child is unable to participate due toimpairment of the physical organs affecting mobility, movement, and/or dexterity. The Draft Rights of Persons with Disabilities Bill, 2012, inclarifying the benchmark disabilities locates cerebral palsy as a conditionrelated to physical disability (p. 4). This section presents some tips,suggestions and ideas for inclusive classrooms with considerations tostudent with orthopedic or physical disability6.

Cognitive, Intellectual Disabilities

The way a child learns is impacted and, also influenced, by how differentsense organs, parts of our bodies and the brain, are co-ordinating or howthey are affected. Since specific disabilities, such as Autism Spectrum,intellectual impairments and learning difficulties are primarily associatedwith the working of the brain and/or how brain processes the informationreceived, these are addressed under cognitive and intellectual disabilities.

The conditions that affect learning due to the brain's functioning have beenunder research as well as educational studies for a long time. In the section- The Nature of Cognitive, Intellectual Disabilities – we present strategies that can help in enhancing teaching practices to make classroom approachesinclusive of different learning needs that arise due to developmentaldelays, brain's functioning and/or capacities.

Given the increasing use and, at times misuse, of many of these terms, a littleclarification and some overview of cognitive and intellectual disabilitieswould be helpful for our work in the inclusive classrooms. The followingparagraphs present a brief understanding about these conditions anddisabilities. To facilitate the understanding of the information presentedin the handbook and to help advance your own learning, we also explainhow the handbook uses the terms cognitive and intellectual disabilities.

Our Brain and its Mysteries

A deeper understanding and knowledge about how our brain worksis still evolving. Time and again we read about studies revealing newinformation on how our brain receives and organises information. As ourunderstanding of the human brain advances, various disability conditionsthat are due to the brain's functioning are also receiving the attention ofscholars, researchers and teachers. Among the conditions that are due to the manner in which brain works and that have direct implications forteaching-learning, specific learning disabilities (SLD) and Autism havereceived significant attention in recent times. Of these, we hear the term SLDbeing used in our schools very often. It is important that we have a clearerunderstanding of what these mean because that has direct implications forour work with the students in the classrooms. We must understand thata child's evaluation and assessment need to meet certain expected criteriato be identified as experiencing these conditions and to receive related andrequired educational interventions and services. Difficulties and disorders such as SLD, Autism, (and also retardations inlearning) require detailed examinations, tests and diagnosis, which maynot be available or accessible to the children and families that attend ourschools for their learning and education8. It is therefore important to be**careful before labeling a child** with a disability. Mislabeling or identifyingincorrectly would result in a **child's needs** not being understood. In manyof our settings not being able to understand how the child makes sense of the world and learns, often results in the student being discriminatedagainst. These misunderstandings can prevent the students in our schoolsfrom getting the educational

interventions that would otherwise help themto begin learning in the classrooms.

Disabilities that teachers often talk about today such as SLD, Autismare therefore all the more challenging to understand in our context, first,because they require adequate research based and field tested evaluationsby trained professionals, second and more important, these evaluationprocedures need to be relevant to, and address diverse contexts, and third,because a more definitive understanding about these conditions and howthe brain functions continues to evolve even in contexts where research andunderstanding about these conditions are comparatively more advanced.

The following paragraphs present basic information about specificcognitive and intellectual impairments.

Autism:

Alternative terms: Autism Spectrum Disorders (ASD). ASD is a developmental disorder. It refers to a range of serious developmental, neurological problems. Autistic disorder, autism or classical ASD, is the most severe form of ASD. It appears in early ages, usually before a child reaches 3 years of age and affects the regular development of social and communications skills.

The Draft Rights of Persons with Disabilities Bill, 2012, defines "Autism Spectrum Disorder" as a "neuro-psychological condition typicallyappearing in the first three years of life that significantly affects a person'sability to communicate, understand relationships and relate to others, andis frequently associated with unusual or stereotypical rituals or behaviours" (p. 84).

Needs vary from child to child but all disorders in Autism spectrumseverely affect a child's ability to communicate and interact with others. They exhibit social impairments, communication difficulties, and repetitive,stereotyped patterns of behaviour. Studies and investigations to betterunderstand this developmental problem continue. To date there is noknown cure but certain interventions

can help a child adapt and thereforemake a difference in their living and learning experiences.

Specific Learning Disability:

It is a general term used to describe specific kinds of learning problems. Alearning disability affects ability to learn and use certain skills. The skills typically affected are reading, writing, listening, speaking, reasoning,directing attention, doing mathematical calculations and coordinatingmovements. Dyslexia or difficulties experienced in reading, Dyscalculia or difficulties with mathematics, and Dysgraphia or difficulties with writing are also used when addressing disabilities that affect specific aspects of learning. It is especially important to know that a child with a learning disability is **not lazy** or **dull** but that she or he is not able to learn because of the way her/his brain is recording and analysing information. It is therefore important to first rule out any environmental issues that may be impacting the student's learning such as too many distractions, poor visibility, other health issues, fatigue, nutrition deficiencies etc.

As with autism, determining a child as having SLD also needs detailed and specific assessments and evaluation to understand the nature and severity of the disability. A child with SLD will experience the world in a different way compared to another child with SLD, and will thus have different types of learning problems and needs. One child with SLD may therefore experience difficulties in writing, and another child may experience difficulty only in mathematics.

Intellectual Disabilities:

The term refers to lowered capacity or ability of the brain, thus far commonly referred to as mental retardation. There has been a shift away from using the term retardation. In a poll conducted in 2003, term "retard" was voted to be the most offensive word (Rose, 2004). In keeping with the shift towards using a more positive terminology, this document also uses the term intellectual disabilities in discussing classroom impediments to learning experienced due to lowered capacity and/or ability of the brain'sfunctioning.

Intellectual disabilities that affect learning and overall development are experienced when mental functioning of the brain is affected such that the child shows limitations in daily living skills such as communicating, taking care of self and social skills. These limitations will cause a child to learn and develop more slowly than a typically developing child and catch up at a slower rate on many skills that their regular same-age peers have attained, for example, dressing self, speaking, walking etc. They do catch up or learn, but it takes them longer than the regular, typically growing and developing child (hence the previously widely used term retardation meaning slowness. Due to negative connotations attached to this term it is not used as widely as before).

Tests and Assessments:

To measure and identify the degree of intellectual functioning, typically two measures are used: tests to measure a child's intelligence quotient or IQ test and Adaptive measures.

Intelligence Tests:

As addressed earlier, it is important that tests used to measure your students' IQ are "standardised" on Indian contexts, that is, they are developed for and attend to, the Indian developmental, sociocultural contexts.

Adaptive Scale:

The adaptive scale measures adaptive skills to understand the degree or level of ability to adapt to one's environment, using day-today skills such communicating, social interactions, and self-care.

As relevant to the purpose of this document, related information is organised under the section Cognitive/intellectual Impairments. Given the limited accessibility or availability of tests and assessments, many of the students experiencing learning difficulties that are either due to cognitive or intellectual impairments may not get identified and diagnosed appropriately. Further, many children have different learning styles, or face demanding conditions outside

of school such as poverty, illiteracy of parents, lack of adequate or appropriate care, taking care of younger siblings, household chores, labor or even abuse. These also impact their ability to stay attentive, focused, and/or learn. Given the complexities surrounding the issue, this section offers some strategies to design your classroom, instructions and activities that are inclusive to different learning styles and needs. Your classroom will reflect the spirit of inclusivity when your students witness your efforts to be inclusive of all and begin internalising it themselves. This is demonstrated in your approach to the students, your child-friendly, disabilitiesfriendly and inclusive language, teaching practices and classroom organisation. When all the students feel included, it will reflect in their own approach to each other, making your work at creating inclusivity easier. Hopefully, this handbook will help you towards creating such a classroom, where all in the classroom feel that they are equal participants to what you, the teacher, have to teach them.

Examination Useful Questions

Long Type Questions :

1. What is the importance of learners special education needs ? Discuss in detail.

2. What do you understand the term historical progression?

OR

What is shifting models of disability end historical progression ?

3. Discuss about the understanding terms and termonology in detail.

Short Type Questions :

1. What do you mean by charity model ? Explain.

2. What do you know about the bio-centric model ?

3. What is functional model ? Explain.

4. Write short note of the following -

    (i)   The Human Rights Model

    (ii)   Structure of the lesson

Block - III

Approaches and Methods of Teaching English

3.1   Difference between an Approach and a Method

Study material included in this unit -

- Objectives
- Introduction
- Methods And Approaches Of Teaching English
- Difference Between Method And Approach
- Structural Approach
- Functional Approach
- Origin of The Problem
- Objectives of The Study
- Need of The Study
- Method of The Study
- Comparison of The Functional And Structural Approach
- Approachestolearningandorientations To Studying
- Examination useful questions

Objectives

After study this chapter you will understand the following facts.

- Methods And Approaches Of Teaching English
- Difference Between Method And Approach
- Structural Approach
- Functional Approach
- Origin of The Problem
- Objectives of The Study
- Need of The Study
- Method of The Study
- Comparison of The Functional And Structural Approach
- Approachestolearningandorientations To Studying

Introduction

The pedagogical tendencies which have characterized second and foreign language teaching have been profuse and varied. As Stern (1983: 453) phrases it, "The conceptualization of language teaching has a long, fascinating, but rather tortuous history", which Brown (1994:52) portrays as the "changing winds and shifting sands of language teaching". This history has been formulated mainly in terms of diverse teaching methods, each of which has attempted to find more effective and efficient ways of teaching languages and each of which has been based on different views of what languages are and of how they are best taught. And the aim of this chapter is precisely to review such a methodological history of language teaching; framing recent approaches to language teaching against the backdrop of a general historical overview which evolves from the Grammar-Translation Method to the post-communicative period.

Behind any teaching enterprise there always exist some theoretical assumptions. We may refer to them as guiding lines or principles. Sometimes not even teachers can state them as such explicit foundations. But these principles do work and influence their everyday teaching activity. As Stern (1983: 24-5) puts it, "A language teacher can express his theoretical conviction through classroom activities as much as (or indeed, better than) through the opinions he voices in discussions at professional meetings".

The idea of how to teach a foreign language affects not just teaching development, but also its results. There are many circumstances and factors which determine or modify the teaching process, but a good theoretical body is fundamental in order to moderate every factor and to achieve the general goal. We should analyse our own beliefs on how to teach the FL and adapt them, if it is the case, to more rigorous and contrasted assumptions. History shows different trends or models which evince how a variety of choices and options have been followed (Howatt, 1984). Throughout time, FL teaching has changed and it is interesting to discover our own contradictions or quests about the issue in parallel to historical development so that a solid conclusion is

drawn. Some may think that all traditional methods are similar and, thus, obsolete.

Or, what is worse, some may think that new technologies are a genuine panacea to solve methodological problems of any type. An open and receptive attitude to analyse our own teaching conceptions upon the best methodology to follow is the key to construct solid foundations.

The aim of this chapter is to help Secondary teachers to study the different trends and to draw valid conclusions about an effective FL teaching methodology. It is not enough to know the FL, but to combine that knowledge with a conscious reflection on how to carry out a successful teaching experience. All this will lead us to establish a new theoretical set of foundations. As many factors come into play, certain criteria to develop them must be present. Below are the criteria which Stern considers are "particularly relevant to theory development in language teaching", (1983: 27-31):

These are the main ideas:

1. All teachers follow theoretical principles though they are not explicitly stated

2. Beliefs and convictions on the most effective teaching method must be reviewed and tested

3. As many factors influence the FL teaching process, a global theory is required

4. Throughout history, controversial trends on methods have been used. All may have a positive contribution.

5. A good theory is most of all practical

6. Research and reflection improve the consistency of a good teaching method

Approach:

Within the teaching method framework, the approach is constituted by those theoretical principles on which the curricular design is

based (Richards and Rodgers, 1986). Thus, an approach is usually understood as the body of linguistic, psychological and pedagogical theories which inspire the teaching practice. Stern (1983: 43-50) refers to foundations/theoretical assumptions and to a level -interlevel- between theory and practice where the educational linguistics theory and research take place.

Methods And Approaches Of Teaching English

The word "methodology" is itself often misinterpreted or ill-understood. It is usually given lip-service as an explanation for the way a given teacher goes about his/her teaching, a sort of umbrella-term to describe the job of teaching another language. Most often, methodology is understood to mean methods in a general sense, and in some cases it is even equated to specific teaching techniques. It does (or should) in fact mean and involve much more than that.

Difference Between Method And Approach

The term method and approach are very often used and understood as synonyms. But both these terms have different connotations. Within one approach there can be more than one method; but each method must be based on the selected approach. Approach is wider term than the term 'method' it deals with assumptions. It is a concept, a point of view. Anthony E. M writes, "**It states a point of view or philosophy or an assumption which one believes but can not necessarily prove.**" This means that approach is the study of self-evident truths. Application of approach in practice is method. It is an over all plan based on some approach. It is procedural. To quote Anthony E. M again, "**Method is an over all plan for the orderly presentation of language material, no part of which contradicts and all of which is based upon the selected approach.**" Various methods like Classical Method or Grammar Translation Method, Direct Method, Bilingual Method, Dr. West's New Method, Project Method and Audio Lingual Method etc. are the methods of teaching English

Structural Approach

The fundamental assumption of Structuralism is that language is a structured system of components with set relationships that may be differentiated by the analyst. The linguist's endeavor is to study the structures of the language by isolating the units of the languages and by establishing the correct relationship among them. The functional and the operational factors of the language are not taken care of by the structuralists.

The following assumptions of the structural approach are fundamental:

1. Language as reality is structured and structure may be predicted and expressed as a set of relationships.

2. The functional views of language as a process and analytic investigations carried out on language from such a perspective can not lad the study of language any far.

3. The grammarian who sets out to study the structure of a language is expected to observe and describe the structural elements and organizational features of the languages.

4. Since language is essentially speech, priority and attention are given to speech in teaching a foreign language

5. Language is essentially a set system of structures the mastery of which forms the core of language learning process

6. A fully graded presentation of the structures both in the text book and in the class room is a basic requirement in structural approach

7. It requires maximum use of the foreign language

Functional Approach

In present day teaching of English in India there are quite a number of paradoxes found. The following categories of teachers are a common sight in the country:

1) Teachers of English who have a fair command over the written language but have no speech proficiency whatsoever

2) Teachers who possess competent formal knowledge of the grammar of English language while they themselves are unable to produce fluent and correct sentences in speech

3) Teachers who are trained in the latest methods and techniques of the teaching English but possess no command whatsoever in spoken or written form of the languageFunctional Approach r the communicative competence involves not only knowing the grammatical rules of language but also knowing when, where and with whom to use the language in a contextually appropriate way. This requires more then mere knowledge of the structures, grammar and vocabulary; it requires skills in how to use English in meaningful situations.

Origin Of The Problem

There is always a reason for the origin for any problem as there is reaction for every action. English is a language for national and international business, commerce, diplomacy, modern era, government, industry, political science; technology etc. English has a pride of place in India. India without English would be less well-off economically, less well integrated nationally and less important internationally.

But teaching English is somewhat difficult and complicated process. Teaching English in our classroom is governed by formally prescribed syllabus and textbook to provide input help. The students learn English as a living language that is used for a variety of purposes in real life. For teaching English to the young learners, one really needs competent Teachers who are well versed in the principles of pedagogy, psychology and linguistic skills. There should be special emphasis on the English language skills rather than a study of literature.

Today in Gujarat many students are unable to carry out many activities satisfactorily such as expressing ones 'reacting ,seeking and giving information ,conversing over the telephone ,problem

solving, discussing ideas , narrating and reporting the event, seeking and giving information ,acting out social roles ,sharing leisure activities. A large number of them cannot use language in real life situation. In most of school language teaching is not appropriate for these functions. This is because of traditional method used in classroom, where more emphasis is given to the various structures of the language and drilling those structures by repetitive examples, this may make the whole teaching learning process monotonous and boring. How ever it depends mainly on teachers.

Objectives Of The Study

Objectives give the perfect direction to the research and researcher. By keeping in the mind the objectives of the study, the whole process of research is analyzed. To do any work it is first necessary to decide its objectives. Objectives have its own importance in any research work.

The present study ahs the following objectives

1. To compare the Functional approach and Structural Approach to teach the students of the 9th standard.

2. To study the effect of the Structural Approach on the post-test marks of the boys and girls.

3. To study the effect of the Functional Approach on the post-test marks of the boys and girls.

4. To find the effective approach between the Functional and Structural by comparing achievements of the students of the Experimental and the Controlled group.

Need Of The Study

The need of this research is a systematic attempt to obtain answer to following meaningful aspects.

1. The need of study is to compare the Functional and Structural Approaches and to find out which is more suitable for students.

2. The need of study is to compare the scores of students,

taught by Functional and Structural Approaches.

3. The need of study is to find the more effective approach to help the learner to use English in meaningful situation.

4. The need of study is to know the right approach to teach the students in order to develop in them Listening, Speaking, Reading and Writing skills.

5. The need of study is to find the means to make the teaching learning process lively in the class.

6. The need of the study is to observing the effect of Functional and Structural Approaches on the post test scores of the students of standard IX.

7. The need of the study is to find the right method or approach to make the student confident and accurate user of English.

Method Of The Study

Investigator should follow such research method that would give precise result and is suitable to the subject of the research work. "Research methods are of utmost importance in a research process because they describe the various steps of plan of attack to be adopted in solving a research problem, such as the manner in which the problems are formulated, definition of terms, the choice of subjects of investigation, the validation of data gathering tools, the collection, analysis and interpretation of data and the processes of inferences and generalization. Selection of research method is the most basic things for performing any research. The researcher selected experimental method for testing the hypotheses.

Experimental designs are especially useful in addressing evaluation questions about the effectiveness and impact of programs. Emphasizing the use of comparative data as context for interpreting findings, experimental designs increase our confidence that observed outcomes are the result of a given program or innovation instead of a function of extraneous variables or events. For example, experimental designs help us to answer such questions as the following:

Would adopting a new approach improve student performance? Is new approach having a positive impact on student achievement and faculty satisfaction? As one can see from the example question above, designs specify from whom information is to be collected and when it is to be collected. Among the different types of experimental design, there are two general categories:

1. True experimental design: This category of design includes more than one purposively created group, common measured outcome(s), and random assignment. Note that individual background variables such as sex and ethnicity do not satisfy this requirement since they cannot be purposively manipulated in this way.

2. Quasi-experimental design: This category of design is most frequently used when it is not feasible for the researcher to use random assignment.

Comparison Of The Functional And Structural Approach

To compare the Functional and Structural Approach of Teaching English to Standard 9th to know the mean scores and to study the Correlation between the Experimental and the Controlled Group; the data collected by the investigator through post test was considered for testing the Hypothesis using 't' test which is represented in the following table.

TABLE Mean, Standard Deviation, Standard Error of Mean of the Scores of the Post Test of the students of the Experimental and the Controlled Group along with t-value

Group t-value	No. of Students	Mean	S.D	SE of Mean	r	t-value
Experimental G	60	17.7	3.344			
Controlled 0.0939	60 0.6959	14.73	2.347	4.2627	-	

From the table and Graph No. 1.5 it is evident that tcal is 0.6959 which is less than ttab = 1.96 at 0.05 level of significance which indicates that the t- value is not significant, hence the Hypothesis that there will be no significant difference in the mean of the post test scores of the Students of the Experimental Group and Controlled group is not rejected. Hence it can be said that the both the approaches however different and aiming at different objectives, both of the approaches do not show significant difference as far as the post test or the achievement is concerned Boys and Girls taught by Functional Approach show same kind of performance in the post-test conducted after the experiment.

Approachestolearningandorientations To Studying

A. Definitions and Assessment

Marton and Säljö [64] define three different approaches to learning—a surface approach, a deep approach, and a strategic approach. Students who adopt a surface approach to learning memorize facts but do not try to fit them into a larger context, and they follow routine solution procedures without trying to understand their origins and limitations. These students commonly exhibit an extrinsic motivation to learn (I've got to learn this to pass the course, to graduate, to get a good job) and an unquestioning acceptance of everything in the textbook and in lectures. To them, studying means scouring their texts for worked-out examples that look like the homework problems so they can simply copy the solutions. They either ignore the text outside of the examples or they scan through it with a highlighter, looking for factual information that the instructor might consider important, which they will attempt to memorize before the exam.

Students who take a deep approach do not simply rely on memorization of course material but focus instead on understanding it.

They have an intrinsic motivation to learn, with intellectual curiosity rather than the possibility of external reward driving their efforts. They cast a critical eye on each statement or formula or analytical

procedure they encounter in class or in the text and do whatever they think might help them understand it, such as restating text passages in their own words and trying to relate the new material to things they have previously learned or to everyday experience. Once the information makes sense, they try to fit it into a coherent body of knowledge. Students who adopt a strategic approach do whatever it takes to get the top grade. They are well organized and efficient in their\ studying. They carefully assess the level of effort they need to exert to achieve their ambition, and if they can do it by staying superficial they will do so, but if the instructor's assignments and tests demand a deep approach they will respond to the demand. A student may adopt different approaches to learning in different courses and even for different topics within a single course. An orientation to studying is a tendency to adopt one of the approaches in a broad range of situations and learning environments [5, 8]. Students who habitually adopt a surface approach have a reproducingorientation; those who usually adopt a deep approach have a meaning orientation; and those inclined to take a strategic approach havean achieving orientation. The Lancaster Approaches to StudyingQuestionnaire (LASQ) [65] is a sixty-four-item questionnaire that involves twelve subscales relevant to the three orientations and four additional subscales. Shorter forms of the LASQ that provide less detailed information are referenced by Woods et al. [66], and an alternative\ to the LASQ is the Study Process Questionnaire developedby Biggs [67].

Woods et al. [66] report on a study in which one of the short forms of the LASQ was administered to 1,387 engineering students. The strongest inclination of the students was toward a strategic approach, followed in order by a surface approach and a deep approach. Bertrand and Knapper [68] report LASQ results for students in other disciplines. Chemistry and psychology students went from a preference for strategic learning in their second year to a preference for deep learning in their fourth year, with both groups displaying consistently low inclinations toward a surface approach. Bertrand and Knapper [68] also report on three groups of students in two multidisciplinary curricula—students

in the second and fourth years of a project-based environmental resource studies program and students in a problem-based program on the impact of new materials. All three groups showed relatively strong inclinations toward a deep approach. There was little difference in the profiles of the second- and fourth-year students, suggesting that the results might reflect the orientations of the students selecting into the programs more than the influence of the programs.

There are similarities between orientations to studying and learning styles. Both represent tendencies that are situationally dependent, as opposed to fixed traits like gender or handedness that always characterize an individual. Just as a student who is a strong intuitor may function like a sensor in certain situations and vice versa, a student with a pronounced meaning orientation may under some circumstances adopt a surface approach to learning, and a strongly reproducing student may sometimes be motivated to dig deep. Similarly, just as students may be reasonably balanced in a learning style preference, frequently functioning in ways characteristic of, say, both sensors and intuitors, some students may be almost equally likely to adopt deep and surface approaches indifferent courses and possibly within a given course. We will shortly say more about instructional conditions that influence the choice.

B. Effects of a Deep Approach on Learning Outcomes

Researchers have assessed student approaches to learning and correlated the results with various learning outcomes [3, 5, 69]. In studies cited by Ramsden [5], students who took a deep approach to reading created comprehensive and integrated summaries of material they had read, interpreting the information rather than simply repeating it, while those who took a surface approach were more likely to recite fragments of the reading content almost randomly. The deep approach also led to longer retention of information— presumably because the information was learned in context rather than by rote memorization—and to consistently higher grades on examinations and in courses.

For example, Prosser and Millar [70] examined first-year physics students' understanding of force concepts before and after their introductory mechanics course. Eight out of nine students who took a deep approach and only two of twenty-three who used a surface approach showed significant progress in understanding force concepts, moving away from Aristotle and toward Newton. Meyer et al. [71] found that engineering students who adopted a deep approach in a course were very likely to pass the course (in fact, none of their subjects in this category failed), while students who adopted a surface approach were very likely to fail. The students who adopted a deep approach also generally expressed greater satisfaction with their instruction.

C. Motivating a Deep Approach to Learning

The approach a student might adopt in a particular situation depends on a complex array of factors. Some are intrinsic to the student (e.g., possession of prerequisite knowledge and skills and motivation to learn the subject), while others are determined more by the instructional environment (e.g., the content and clarity of the instructor's expectations and the nature and quality of the instruction and assessment). Biggs [3] proposes that achieving desired learning outcomes requires constructive alignment of the elements just listed. Alignment means that the factors under the instructor's control are all consistentwith the goal: the desired outcomes are clearly communicatedto the students as expectations, instructional methods known to favor the outcomes are employed and methods that work against them are avoided, and learning assessments (homework, projects, tests, etc.) are explicitly directed toward the outcomes. Constructive means that the instructional design adheres to the principle of constructivism, which holds that knowledge is constructed by the learner, as opposed to being simply transmitted by a teacher and absorbed. The teacher's job is to create conditions that lead students to construct accurate representations of the concepts being studied, first abandoning prior misconceptions if any exist. Certain features of classroom instruction have been found to be constructively aligned with the adoption of a deep approach to learning, while other features have the opposite effect [3, 5, 69]:

1. Interest in and background knowledge of the subject encourage a deep approach; lack of interest and inadequate background discourage it.

2. Clearly stated expectations and clear feedback on progress encourage a deep approach; poor or absent feedback discourages \ it.

3. Assessment methods that emphasize conceptual understanding encourage a deep approach; methods that emphasize recall or the application of routine procedural knowledge discourage it.

4. Teaching methods that foster active and long-term engagement with learning tasks encourage a deep approach.

5. Opportunities to exercise responsible choice in the content and method of study encourage a deep approach.

6. Stimulating and caring teaching encourages a deep approach; apathetic or inconsiderate teaching discourages it. A corollary is that students who perceive that teaching is good are more likely to adopt a deep approach than students with the opposite perception.

7. An excessive amount of material in the curriculum and an unreasonable workload discourage a deep approach.

8. Previous experiences with educational settings that encouraged deep approaches further encourage deep approaches . A similar statement can be made regarding surface approaches.

Well-established instructional strategies can be used to achieve these conditions. Inductive teaching methods such as problem-based and project-based learning [72–77] can motivate students by helping to make the subject matter relevant to their prior experience and interests (addressing item #1 above) and they also emphasize conceptual understanding and deemphasize rote memorization (item #3). An excellent way to make expectations clear (item #2) is to articulate them in the form of instructional objectives [78–80]—statements of observable actions students should be able to do (define, explain, calculate, derive, model,

design) once they have completed a section of a course. Several student-centered teaching approaches accomplish the goal of actively involving students in learning tasks (item #4), notably active learning (engaging students in class activities other than listening to lectures) and cooperative learning (getting students to work in small teams on projects or homework under conditions that hold all team members accountable for the learning objectives associated with the assignment) [81–84]. Trigwell et al. [85, 86] found a positive correlation between an instructor's use of such instructional methods and students' adoption of a deep approach to learning.

Other references provide numerous examples of teaching in a stimulating caring manner (item #6), providing clear feedback by, among other ways, designing appropriate tests (item #2), and providing choice in learning tasks (item #5) [4, 87–91]. Several of the references cited in this paragraph and the preceding one also summarize research connecting the instructional methods mentioned with a variety of positive learning outcomes [72, 82, 84].

D. Questions for Further Study

Of the three diversity domains discussed in this paper, approaches to learning may be the one with the most solid research base [3, 5, 69, 92]. However, little has been done thus far to apply and extend the research to engineering. Following are some of the questions that might profitably be studied:

1. What percentages of students in traditional engineering curricula are characterized by reproducing, meaning, and achieving orientations to studying?

2. Do approaches to learning and orientations to studying depend on students' ethnic and cultural backgrounds? What are the nature and extent of the dependences?

3. Does the adoption of a deep approach to learning in an engineering course lead to improved learning as it has been shown to do in other disciplines? If so, for which learning outcomes can improvements be demonstrated?

4. Do the instructional conditions and methods (e.g., active learning, cooperative learning, and problem-based learning) that purportedly motivate the adoption of a deep approach do so in engineering? How and to what extent can students with a reproducing orientation be motivated to adopt a deep approach?

5. Would one need to reduce the content or extend the length of the engineering curriculum to reduce the heavy time demands on students that have been shown to discourage the adoption of a deep approach?

6. How do students with meaning, reproducing, and achieving orientations to learning compare in high-level thinking skills, such as critical thinking and creative thinking?

7. Might discussing approaches to learning with students promote their adoption of a deep approach?

Examination Useful Questions

Long Type Questions :

1. What do you understand by method and approaches of teaching english language ? Explain in detail.

2. What is the difference between method and approach ? Explain briefly.

3. What is approach ? Compare between functional and structural approach.

Short Type Questions :

1. What is origin of the problem of english teaching ?

2. Shortly narrate the objectives of the study english.

3. Write short note of the following -

    (i)   Need of study english

    (ii)   Method of study english better way.

3.2 Task based approach, co-operative learning, language across curriculum, communicative language teaching, Bilingual, Eclectic and Constructive approach

Study material included in this unit -

- Objectives
- Introduction
- Communicative Language Teaching
- Task-Based Learning
- Content And Language Integrated
- Learning
- Language Across Curriculum Aims Of Lac
- Lac Focuses On
- Planning For Lac
- How It Works
- What It Looks Like
- Working Together
- Bilingualium
- How Common Is Bilingualism?
- Simultaneous And Successive Bilingualism
- The Constructive Nature Of Learning
- Examination useful questions

Objectives

After study this chapter you will understand the following facts.

- Communicative Language Teaching
- Task-Based Learning
- Content And Language Integrated
- Learning
- Language Across Curriculum Aims Of Lac

- Lac Focuses On
- Planning For Lac
- How It Works
- What It Looks Like
- Working Together
- Bilingualium
- How Common Is Bilingualism?
- Simultaneous And Successive Bilingualism
- The Constructive Nature Of Learning

Introduction

Various attempts to define the process of teaching and learning resulted in a number of definitions. However, there is one common point that most methodologists agree upon – the process of teaching a foreign language is a complex one. It usually involves three major steps: the teaching acts of presenting and explaining new material, providing practice and testing. The success of the process of teaching and learning largely depends on the participants – teachers and students – who have their own needs, roles, and responsibilities. It is teachers' responsibility to identify and address the needs of their students.

The most extensive analysis of the human needs was presented by Abraham Maslow in his paper "A Theory of Human Motivation" published in 1943. Maslow's Hierarchy of Human Needs is often depicted as a pyramid consisting of five levels. The first lower level is associated with physiological needs such as breathing, food, water, sleep or excretion and is termed basic needs. The top levels are termed higher needs and comprise safety and security, love and belonging, and esteem. The needs of safety involve security of body, employment, resources, family, health or property. After safety needs are fulfilled, there comes the third layer of human needs which involves friendship, family, sexual intimacy/love/marriage. Humans are social beings and they need social acceptance either of a large social group (professional organizations, sports teams, clubs or associations) or a small group (family members, friends, partners, colleagues). The lack

of love and social acceptance may cause loneliness, social anxiety, and depression. The fourth level – esteem needs – consists of two sublevels. The lower sublevel relates to fame, respect, and glory. The higher sublevel involves confidence, competence, and achievement. People with low esteem need respect from others and seek fame or glory, which are dependent on others. However, confidence, competence and achievement are independent from other people's involvement and can be attained by one person. The top level of needs – self-actualization – is the most important for the personality development since it is the most important drive of behaviour. According to Maslow, selfactualization involves acceptance of facts, lack of prejudice, problem solving, creativity, and morality. Therefore, self-actualization is reaching one's fullest potential.

In the process of teaching and learning it is important to realise that students' higher needs come in focus only when the lower needs are mostly satisfied. The degree of satisfaction of the needs determine the level of students' motivation to study a foreign language.

Motivation, as a key factor in the process of learning and teaching, is defined as some kind of internal drive which pushes someone to do things in order to achieve something (Harmer, 2001, 51). Ur (1997,276) presents the following kinds of motivation: extrinsic, intrinsic, integrative, instrumental, global, situational and task motivation. Extrinsic motivation to learn a foreign language is caused by a number of outside factors such as the desire to pass an examination or the possibility of future travel. Intrinsicmotivation comes from within the individual who is driven by the enjoyment of the learning process.

Integrative motivation involves the desire to identify with and integrate into the culture of the language one is studying. Instrumental motivation is the wish to learn the language for purposes of study or career promotion. Global motivation is defined as the overall orientation of the learner towards the learning of the foreign language. Situational motivation is the motivation caused

by the context of learning such as classroom or school environment. Task motivation concerns the way the learner approaches the specific task given by the teacher. The major sources of motivation to learn a foreign language, as pointed out by Harmer (2001, 52), are the society we live in, attitude of parents, older siblings, peers, the teacher and the method used. Harmer (op. cit., 52) emphasizes the importance of the teacher, who is a major factor in the continuance of students' motivation, and the method used in the teaching process. According to Ur (1997, 275), the successful learner is the one who is willing to tackle tasks and challenges, has confidence in his/her success, has a need to achieve, to overcome difficulties and succeed in what he/she is doing, is ambitious and finds important to succeed in learning in order to maintain and promote his/her own positive image, is aware of the goals of learning, invests high level of effort in learning, and is not discouraged by setbacks or lack of progress.

Therefore, teachers who want to motivate their students have to be aware of certain ways of arousing interest in tasks. In order to motivate their students, teachers have to set clear goals. Learners have to know the objectives of the task – both language learning and content. Topics and tasks should be selected carefully to be as interesting as possible. It is important to use visuals, game-like activities, elements of entertainment (jokes, stories, songs, presentations, movies, video clips), role play simulations, personalization of tasks, open-ended cues (a cue which invites many possible responses is much more stimulating than one with only one right answer) (Ur, 1997, 281).

Appropriately selected tasks and methods can generate students' motivation. The appeal of methods is extended if methods are selected according to students' learning styles. Learning style refers to any individual's preferred ways of learning. It depends on the student's personality, including psychological or cognitive character, sociocultural background and educational experience. According to learning styles, all learners can be divided into visual, auditory, and kinaesthetic learners.

Visual learners learn better when they can read or see the information. They usually have a strong sense of colour, they follow written directions well and use visualization to remember things, they love to read, remember quickly and easily what is read, and read well from picture clues. However, they process auditory input slowly and are distracted by noise or people talking in the background. They become inpatient when extensive listening is required. According to Honey & Mumford (1992), visual learners comprise 65 % of all learners.

Auditory learners learn better when the information primarily comes through their ears. Auditory learners (30% of all learners) tend to remember and repeat ideas that are verbally presented. They learn well through lectures and like to talk to others. They enjoy plays, dialogues, dramas and they like to make speeches and presentations. However, they usually cannot keep quiet for a longer time. Kinaesthetic learners (5% of all learners) learn best through total physical involvement with the learning environment. Kinaesthetic learners involve the sense of touch in learning and like to do artwork.

They like to trace words and pictures and are successful with tasks requiring manipulation. Kinaesthetic learners learn better when able to move during lessons, they like to work at a standing position and they like listening to music while studying but they are poor listeners.

Students' learning styles depend on their prevailing type of intelligence. Gardner (1999) distinguishes eight types of intelligence: linguistic intelligence, logical and mathematical intelligence, spatial intelligence, musical intelligence, bodily-kinaesthetic intelligence, interpersonal intelligence, intrapersonal intelligence, and naturalist intelligence. Those who have prevailing linguistic intelligence like to read and write, have a good memory for names, places, dates, poetry and have a well developed vocabulary.

Those having logical and mathematical intelligence see patterns easily, like abstract ideas, like strategy games and logical puzzles. They devise experiments to test out things they do not understand.

They think in categories and see relationships between ideas. Those having spatial intelligence think in images and pictures, they easily remember where things have been put. They like drawing, designing, and building. They read maps and diagrams easily, do jigsaw puzzles easily and reproduce images accurately. Those with musical intelligence remember melodies, have a good sense of rhythm and usually play an instrument.

They are sensitive to sounds in the environment and need music on when studying. Those with prevailing bodily-kinaesthetic intelligence remember through bodily sensations, have excellent coordination, and communicate well through gestures. They learn best through physical activity, simulation and role play but find it difficult to sit still for long. Those with interpersonal intelligence understand people well and learn best by interacting and co-operating with others. They enjoy playing social games and are good at leading and organizing. Those having intrapersonal intelligence like to work alone and have a sense of independence, they are intuitive, strongwilled, self-confident and reflective. They are aware of their personal strengths and weaknesses. Those with naturalist intelligence recognize flora and fauna, make distinctions and notice patterns in the natural world and use this ability productively e.g. farming or pet-keeping. In order to achieve goals of the teaching process and to satisfy students' needs, teachers have to possess competences necessary for a good language teacher. According to Kelly et al. (2004), there are four main kinds of competences that each language teacher should display: general competences, existential competences, ability to learn and strategic competence. General competences involve existential (psychologically and socially conditioned) competence and sociocultural/intercultural competence.

Existential competence comprises personality traits, attitudes and temperaments, motivation, values, beliefs and cognitive style. Sociocultural/intercultural competence involves interpersonal relations, system of values, body language, conventional behaviour, forms of politeness, cultural differences and artifacts.

Communicative language competences involve linguistic competence (knowledge, skills and abilities of acquiring pronunciation, vocabulary and grammar (phonetics, lexis, grammar)), socio-linguistic competence (ability to use and interpret language forms with situational appropriateness (formal vs. non-formal in terms of communicative context: who is communicating with whom, about what, where, on what topic and for what purpose)) in the four communicative skills (listening, speaking, reading and writing) according to the four domains of language use (personal, public, academic and occupational) and pragmatic competence (ability to receive and produce coherent and fluent discourse with reference to differences in register, genre and type of text, focus on appropriate functional use of linguistic resources while communicating (implying language functions and speech acts as required by certain scenarios of international exchanges)). Ability to learn consists of ability to self-evaluate one's professional development and integrate the newly-acquired knowledge and skills into the formerly built context of learning, ability to critically reflect on the achievements and outcome of activity, and ability to initiate and adequately interpret the situation of learning. Strategic competence involves ability and skill of planning, execution, evaluation and repair of communication, application of compensation strategies.

In the process of teaching the teacher displays the above mentioned competences and performs certain roles. Harmer (2001, 57) distinguishes eight roles of the teacher, i.e. controller, organiser, assessor, prompter, participant, resource, tutor and observer. The teacher can perform any role depending on the teaching situation, students' needs, learning style, and type of intelligence. An appropriate approach in teaching English can be used with respect to the above discussed factors. In what follows, analysis of the three modern approaches in English language teaching Communicative Language Teaching, Task-Based Learning and Content and Language Integrated Learning is presented and their advantages and disadvantages are pointed out with regard to students' needs, motivation, and learning style as well as teachers' competences.

Communicative Language Teaching

The Communicative approach or the Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) emphasises the importance of language functions rather than focuses on grammar and vocabulary. The main principle of CLT is to train students to use language forms appropriately in a variety of contexts for a variety of purposes (Harmer, 2001, 84). The top ten principles of CLT are communicative interaction, meaningful practice, active involvement, positive reinforcement, choice of suitable materials, changes of pace and activity, making the teaching process enjoyable, teaching English in English, realisation that mistakes are natural and that even beginners can understand when taught in the target language.

Activities in CLT involve students in real and realistic communication, where the accuracy of the language is less important than successful of the communicative purpose. Therefore, such activities as role-play and simulation are very popular in CLT. All activities in CLT have to be constructed in such a way that students should have a desire to communicate something. According to Harmer (2001, 85), in CLT students should have a purpose for communication (e.g. to write a letter of complaint, to make reservation of a table at the restaurant, etc.), they should be focused on the content of what they are saying and writing rather than on a particular language form. They should use a variety of language rather than just one language structure.

In short, all such activities should attempt to replicate real communication. The key principles of effective CLT that teachers have to take into consideration are as follows: be aware of students' needs, develop learner independence, be a facilitator rather than a controller, motivate your students by verbal encouragement (praising, good mark, awards, body language), use variety of activities, and encourage students' active involvement. Active involvement can be achieved by a variety of means such as varied modes of interaction, changes of activity, changes of pace, changes of intensity, changes of mood/atmosphere, changes of beginnings and endings, balanced use of settlers and stirrers,

balancing the familiar and the unfamiliar, presence and absence of correction, varying the modes of correction, offering positive reinforcement in varied ways, and employing principled use of elicitation and nomination.

One way of ensuring students' active involvement in the classroom is the use of appropriately chosen teaching materials. While choosing materials teachers have to be certain that the materials are appropriate to age group and language level, are appropriate with regard to students' cultural and religious background, complying with lesson's objectives, time scale and intensity.

The Communicative Language Teaching, having an aim to improve students' ability to communicate, has been criticised for having eroded the explicit teaching of grammar with a consequent loss among students in accuracy in the pursuit of fluency (Harmer, 2001, 86).

Despite the criticism, the Communicative approach has left a deep mark on teaching and learning of a foreign language and has been extensively used in classrooms all over the world.

Task-Based Learning

The idea of the Task-Based Learning (TBL) was popularised by N Prabhu who, working in schools of South India, claimed that students were just as likely to learn language if they were thinking about a nonlinguistic problem than if they were concentrating on particular language forms. Instead of a language structure, students are presented with a task they have to perform or a problem they have to solve. According to the key principles of TBL, learning is fostered through performing a series of activities as steps towards successful task realization. The focus is on language use for authentic, real-world needs. TBL relies heavily on learners' knowledge of the world, on learners' using skills of deduction and independent language analysis to exploit the situation fully.

Motivation for communication becomes the primary driving force. The emphasis is on communicative fluency rather than the accuracy. The target language is used in a naturally occurring context. The

materials are selected and adopted from authentic sources. Analysis of the key principles of the Task-Based Learning demonstrates the apparent similarity between the Task-Based Learning and the Communicative Language Teaching. A basic distinction between TBL and CLT is that CLT is a philosophy or orientation whereas TBL represents a body of principles and procedures for making communicative language teaching work in the classroom. The four fundamental principles underlying the Task-Based Teaching (TBT) are: meaning is primary, grammar and form are not ignored, the task is a complete unit and there is a systematic relationship between pedagogical tasks and target/real-world tasks. There are different interpretations and definitions of a task in the Task-Based Teaching.

According to Ellis (2003, 16), a task is a work plan that requires learners to process language pragmatically in order to achieve an outcome that can be evaluated in terms of whether the correct or appropriate propositional content has been conveyed. To this end, it requires them to give primary attention to meaning and to make use of their own linguistic resources. Nunan (2004, 4) defines a task as "a piece of classroom work that involves learners in comprehending, manipulating, producing or interacting in the target language while their attention is focused on mobilizing their grammatical knowledge in order to express meaning <...>. The task should also have sense of completeness, being able to stand alone <...> with a beginning, a middle and an end".

In a foreign language classroom both pedagogical and linguistic tasks are used. Pedagogical tasks have a principal focus on meaning while linguistic exercises focus on manipulation of form. Tasks have a non-linguistic outcome while exercises have a linguistic outcome. Willis (1996) suggests three basic stages in the framework of the Task-Based Learning: the Pretask, the Task cycle, and Language focus. In the Pre-task the teacher explores the topic with the class and highlights useful words and phrases, helping students to understand the task instructions. During the Task cycle, the students perform the task in pairs or small groups

while the teacher monitors from the distance. The students plan how they are going to report to the class on what they do. In the language focus stage the students examine and practice specific language features which the task has provoked.

The major criticism of TBL concerns its applicability to lower learning levels. However, there are many tasks that are suitable for beginners or young learners. Another point of criticism is about restricted patterns of language that are usually used in the Task- Based Learning. Language patterns that are used in discussion, debate, or social interaction of other kind fail to be included in the task-based interaction. Nevertheless, tasks are widely used in language teaching, either as the basis of language course or as one of its components.

Content And Language Integrated

Learning

The term Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) was defined in 1994, and launched in 1996 by UNICOM, the University of Jyväskylä and the European Platform for Dutch Education, to describe educational methods where "subjects are taught through a foreign language with dual-focused aims, namely the learning of content, and the simultaneous learning of a foreign language" (www.cec.jyu.fi/tilauskoulutus/henk keh/clil.html). CLIL can be interpreted as an "umbrella" term describing both learning content subject such as physics or geography through the medium of a foreign language and learning a foreign language by studying a content-based subject (www.teachingenglish.org.uk/think/ methodology/ clil.html). In CLIL content subjects are taught and learnt in a language, which is not the mother tongue of the learners. Knowledge of the language becomes the means of learning content, language is integrated into the content-based subject teaching, and this increases motivation to study natural contextualized language. Therefore, CLIL provides a practical approach to both content and language learning that improves intercultural understanding (www.inged.org.tr/news-online/issue-

2.pdf).

The important advantage of CLIL is its potential for achieving bilingualism and improving intercultural understanding. Firstly, CLIL helps to broaden intercultural knowledge and understanding and develops intercultural communication skills. Secondly, CLIL improves target language competence and raises awareness of both mother tongue and target language. Thirdly, CLIL provides opportunities to study content and learn subject-specific terminology and hence prepare students for future studies and/or working life. Finally, CLIL offers new learning strategies while adding diversity and flexibility to existing methods and forms of classroom practice (www.inged.org.tr/news-online/issue-2.pdf).

The implementation of CLIL is based on four main principles. These are cognition, community, communication, and culture. The four guiding principles means that the learner works with an interface in which cognition (the thinking skills and problemsolving approaches specific to that particular topic), community (the development of the self-awareness of the learner with respect to the content, him/herself as a learner, and the purpose of learning in the wider environment be it at school, university or the surrounding society), communication (interaction with others and the language domains specific to the topic), and culture (how the learner engages with the language and content and the discourse features required to both learn and communicate), are all interlinked. (www.pi.ac.ae/metsmac/proceedings/2006/Marsh- D-METSMaC-2006.pdf). In a CLIL lesson all four language skills are usually combined: listening (it is an input activity, vital for language learning), reading (it is the major source of input, using meaningful material), speaking (it focuses on fluency, accuracy is seen as subordinate), writing (it is a series of lexical activities through which grammar is recycled) (www.teachingenglish. org.uk/think/methodology/clil lesson.html). Vilkancien (2007, 422) points out five major tasks for successful CLIL implementation: course design, methodology, tasks and activities, competence development, and teaching and learning environment.

According to Integruotas dalyko ir kalbos mokymas (2006, 20), successful implementation of CLIL very much depends on the attitude of educational authorities towards this innovative and creative approach and their ability to develop strategies for implementing the approach at schools and to express more support for local initiatives.

Language Across Curriculum Aims Of Lac

- To support language development in each learner, in all domains of language use, in each learning activity in school;

- To enhance knowledge acquisition through awareness of language use;

- To create a link through the learning processes;

- To enhance awareness of the relatedness of aspects;

- To develop critical reading, writing and learning; and

- To give learners feedback about their progress.

Lac Focuses On:

- the conventional four skills of language, viz. Reading, Writing, Listening and Speaking; and

- all non-verbal means of representation and expression that we use when communicating.

The focus is on the areas because they enhance

- knowledge acquisition

- interrogation of knowledge

- expression and presentation of knowledge – in writing or spoken form, and

- critical thinking, reading and writing Example of practical application

The following Learning skills are shared by all subjects in the curriculum.

- Locating information

NOTES

- Gathering facts

- Organising information

- Acquiring information - using strategies through reading

- Acquiring information- setting purpose for listening

- Communicating orally -speaking with accuracy and pose, and in writing with clarity and exactness, using the writing process

- Interpreting pictures- cartoon analysis. For example, the zebra cartoon after a Soweto derby (soccer game)

- Evaluating and applying - applying problem-solving and information critical thinking skills

- Writing for specific audiences and purposes Learners need to be taught these skills and consciously, be made aware that they apply in all subjects. Guidance should be given on how one goes about identifying use of the above. See the following:

- Locating information - **find the coordinates** of Vhembe **in the map** provided; find the word, **in the first paragraph**, which means...; which **vitamins** do you find **in the green vegetables**?

- Gathering facts – **list the occurrences** that led to the June 16 Soweto uprising, mention the steps you need to take to repair a broken valve

- Organising information – draw a table in which you present the advantages and disadvantages of **over**-draft

- Acquiring information - using strategies through reading: skim the text below and give an idea of what the text suggests

- Acquiring information- setting purpose for listening: listen to the recording and follow the sound of the drum during the transitions. Present your observations

- Communicating orally -speaking with accuracy and pose, and in writing with clarity and exactness, using the writing

process. Based on your recent lesson cholesterol, prepare a written presentation, from which an oral presentation will bemade, on the diet one must follow to avoid cholesterol build-up.

- Interpreting pictures – see the attached cartoon and present your interpretation of the text to the class.

- Evaluating and applying - applying problem-solving and information critical thinking skills. Do you think the journalist's article on the game played correct? Give a reason for your answer.

Planning For Lac

- Establish learners' prior-knowledge of new content/theme and their language ability.

- Identify new terminology and concepts.

- Structure and plan meaningful tasks and create experiences within the classroom environment for learners to acquire effective listening, speaking, reading and writing skills

- Create opportunities for learners to learn how to 'think critically about what they hear...' and to ' Use oral language to gather, process and present information' and communicating in a wide variety of social contexts to a wide variety of audiences.

- Establish strategies to manage all forms of communication to ensure all learners have fair and equitable opportunities to develop their interpersonal speaking and listening skills, e.g. large and small group discussions.

- Model approaches, processes, strategies and activities of the different language skills to enable learners to develop.

- Establish effective resources needed.

- Establish different assessment strategies, methods and tools to cater for language needs of learners.

- Establish routines for observing and recording the progress of individual learners

Cooperative learning

Cooperative learning has been a popular topic in educational circles for more than a decade. Researchers and practitioners have found that students working in small cooperative groups can develop the type of intellectual exchange that fosters creative thinking and productive problemsolving. This issue of Classroom Compass will look at some aspects of cooperative learning and ways it can be implemented in your classroom

How It Works

The large oak tree outside the high school campus shades a stone picnic table. It is a favorite spot for students to gather and talk about dating, sports, TV, and, sometimes, homework and upcoming exams. Informal study groups meet there to discuss particularly troublesome aspects of algebra or chemistry. You can tell intellectual work is occurring: the concentration is evident, the seriousness is real. These groups exchange questions and explanations that are rich and intense. Informally, such small group interaction is common. Students have always gathered together to practice and study. But there is a growing acknowledgment that combined with whole group instruction and individual work, cooperative learning should be a regular part of the week's classroom instruction. Student interaction makes cooperative learning powerful. To accomplish their group's task, students must exchange ideas, make plans, and propose solutions. Thinking through an idea and presenting it in a way that can be understood by others is intellectual work and will promote intellectual growth. The exchange of alternative ideas and viewpoints enhances that growth and stimulates broader thinking. It is the teacher's job to encourage such exchanges and structure the students' work so their communication is on-task and productive. In addition to intellectual growth, cooperative learning enhances students' social and personal development. Group members can learn to work together in classrooms that reflect the complexity and diversity of the world. Students' lives are full of interactions with friends, family members and strangers and their futures will find them in jobs that require

cooperation. The skills that are essential for productive group work in the classroom are relevant for today and the future.

What It Looks Like

There are many ways to talk about cooperative learning. While some teachers use informal one-on-one study groups to bolster skills, other more formal structures include designated student roles and specific steps for completing long-term assignments. There is no one "right way" to develop cooperative learning, and teachers must choose models and methods that match their particular teaching styles, students, and lesson content. The ways the teacher sets up the learning groups and designs the assignments will determine in part what the students experience.

Studies of students in cooperative learning groups indicate that two elements enhance studentachievement. One is group goals. Group members should be interdependent, working to accomplish a common product. Relying on the skills of one group member or allowing one or two to dominate the activity does not result in greater understanding for all. Closely linked to group goals is the second element of individual accountability. Assignments should be structured so each member accomplishes a specific task. Try to provide opportunities for every group member to make a unique contribution. Student groups that work together without differentiated tasks (for example, to prepare a single worksheet) have not shown significant achievement benefits. Provide the groups a space where they can work together. Students should be able to sit in a circle or across the table from each other and work without disruption. The teacher can act as a consultant, turning problems back to the group for resolution and providing feedback on how well they are working together.

Working Together

Productive groups in the classroom rarely happen spontaneously; simply placing students together and giving them an assignment is not enough. While students may choose friends for private study groups, it is a different matter to accommodate group

members in a classroom and complete a project. Students new to cooperative learning may find it difficult to focus on the assignment. Many students have been taught in an independent, competitive atmosphere. Those experiences can not be immediately transformed to produce a cooperative group member, eager to share and work with colleagues. Introducing students to interpersonal skills is the first step to getting the groups to work together. Making eye contact, encouragingfellow group members, using quiet voices, disagreeing without hostility—these habits will become part of the cooperative group's repertoire, but the students will need practice. Frequent monitoring and reinforcement is essential to assure that learning is actually occurring in the groups. Establish some rules for group behavior that promote equal exchanges. For example:

• Contribute your ideas—they may be the key to the question

• Listen to others' ideas

• Give everyone a chance to speak

• Ask all teammates for help before asking the teacher

• Use consensus to settle disputes

A mix of different abilities, ethnic backgrounds, learning styles, and personal interests works best for productive student teams. One of the benefits of cooperative teams is the mixing of students who have not interacted before. Rather than allowing students to choose their own partners, assign students to teams. What is Bilingualism? It is not easy to formulate a generally accepted definition of bilingualism. Bilingualism means different things to different people. Bloomfield (1933:56) defined bilingualism as 'native-like control of two languages'. However, this definition excludes many people who speak more than one language but do not have 'nativelike' control of one or both of their languages. A large number of people who use two languages regularly may not have 'native-like' control of one of their languages. It is

clear that Bloomfields definition of bilingualism needs to be modified if it is to reflect accurately the reality of people's ability to use languages.

Bilingualium

The existence of large numbers of people who speak more than one language but who do not exhibit native-like control in both languages, raises the question of how proficient a person must beto be classed as bilingual. Haugen (1953:7) suggests that oil bilingualism begins 'at the point where a speaker of one language0Mcan produce complete, meaningful utterances in the other language'. Diebold (1961) has even suggested that bilingualismhas commenced when a

person begins to understand utterancesin a second language, but is unable to produce utterances. Bilingualism may be defined as having some ability to use two(or even more) languages. There can, therefore, be degrees of bilingualityat one extreme there are those people who have native-like control over two languages and at the other extremeare those people who have just begun to acquire a second language.

Degrees of bilingualism can be assessed in the individual's command of the four skills of listening comprehension, speaking, reading comprehension and writing in each language. Some children in immigrant communities, for example, have all four skills only in the official language of their country of residence while in their parents' language they have only the oral skills of listening comprehension and speaking. In addition, people who are bilingual in all four skills can have different levels of skill in each language. For example, a Vietnamese speaking child educated in English may have a better command of written English than of written Vietnamese, even if the child's spoken Vietnamese is better than his/her spoken English. Groajean (1982) points out that we need to consider a holistic view of bilingualism. The linguistic abilities of bilinguals have often been compared to those of monolingual

speakers of the languages concerned. The bilingual, however, should not be considered as the sum total of two complete or in complet monolinguals. The presence of two languages and their interaction in the bilingual produces a different but complete language system which responds to the individual's needs to communicate using one or other language or, in some settings, a mixture of both languages.

How Common Is Bilingualism?

Bilingualism is present in most countries throughout the world, in all classes of society and in all age groups. However, the importance of bilingualism in the world is not widely recognized, particularly in countries which view themselves as monolingual. Lewis (1978) stated that 'bilingualism has been and is nearer to the normal situation than most people are willing to believe'.

In some border areas between two language groups, economic and social factors lead many people to use more than one language on a regular basis. Thus, in Europe people who live near in a country like Belgium may live in a Flemish speaking area and work in a French speaking area. For people such as these, there is a practical need to speak both the language of the region in which hey live and the region in which they work. The pattern of bilingualism is different in different societies. For example countries with indigenous linguistic minorities maybe bilingual, but bilingualism is normal only in the minority community. Thus native speakers of Welsh in Wales normally speak both Welsh and English and native speakers of Ainu in Japan usually speak Japanese as well as Ainu. However, few native speakers of English speak Welsh and few native speakers of Japanese speak Ainu. In some countries, bilingualism is more widespread through out the population. In Paraguay, for example most people speak both Spanish and Guarani. In countries where many different languages are in contact, most people speak one or two of their neighbours' languages and often a lingua franca as well. Thus, in

Papua New Guinea many people living in rural areas speak two or more languages often including a pidgin, such as Tok Pisin or HiriMotu, which is used for communicating with people over a wider area.

Immigration can lead to the establishment of bilingual communities in the host country. Immigrants coming from countries speaking a language different from that of the country in which they settle need to acquire the language of their host country and so they become bilingual speaking both their own language and the language of the host country. These people may in turn transmit both languages to their children and ensure the survival of the bilingual community. This is a typical pattern of bilingualism in Australia. According to the 1986 census, 13.6% of Australians over the age of five speak a language other than English at home (Clyne 1988). Types of bilingualism

The study of bilingualism has tended to develop dichotomies. Among the more commonly used dichotomies are the distinctions between compound and co-ordinate bilingualism (Weinreich 1953),simultaneous and successive bilingualism (McLaughlin 1984),additive and subtractive bilingualism (Lambert 1975), elite and folk bilingualism (Skutnabb-Kangas 1981). These distinction shave had an important function in drawing attention to various aspects of bilingualism but at the same time they represent different approaches to the question of bilingualism.

Co-ordinate and compound bilingualism Ervin and Osgood (1954) distinguished between compound and co-ordinate bilingualism according to differences in cognitive functioning. Compound bilingualism involves two sets of linguisticsigns which become associated with a single set of meanings. Co-ordinate bilingualism involves a set of translation equivalents in the two languages which correspond to two different sets of representations (See Figure 1.1). The distinction between these two types of bilingualism involves a difference in cognitive organization of linguistic material in the brain it does not in itself indicate a difference in competence.

Co-ordinate bilingualismtends to be developed through an experience of different contexts in which the two languages are rarely interchanged, where as compound bilingualism tends to be developed through contexts in which the two languages are rarely interchanged, where as compound bilingualism tends to be developed through contexts such as formal language learn ingin schoolor continual switching from one language to another.

Simultaneous And Successive Bilingualism

McLaughlin (1984) maintains that when a child learns two languages simultaneously it is in appropriate to talk about the child's first and second languages. Both languages are in effect first languages, although one may dominate in certain situations or with certain people. For McLauglin, simultaneous bilingualism could occur at any age less than a cut-off age of three years. Therefore, a 2 year old Portuguese speaking child who moves to Australia and begins to acquire English would be considered to be acquiring both languages simultaneously. McLauglin felt that below the age of three, the child's first language was not yet established but that after the age of three the child has had a considerable head start in acquiring gone language and is establishing first language patterns. It can no longer be considered that the child is acquiring both languages simultaneously. When a language is acquired after the first language is established, McLaughlin talks of successive acquisition. In this case, the first and second languages can be clearly differentiated and the added language is learned as a second language. Thus, a Tagalog speaking child who moves to Australia from the Philippines at the age of four and a half will already have acquired a large amount of Tagalog as a first language, when this child is exposed to English s/he will begin learning it as a second language.

Simultaneous acquisition of two languages is not necessarily superior to successive acquisition and both patterns of acquisition can lead to bilingual competence. A child's bilingual ability does not

so much depend on how early a language is introduced as on other factors such as the relative prestige of the languages, cultural factors and opportunities for use. For example, a child who acquires two languages simultaneously may lose one of those languages when contact with that language is lost whereas a child who has acquired two language successively but has continued contact with both languages may become a balanced bilingual.

Additive and subtractive bilingualism

Lambert (1975, 1977) drew attention to the close association between bilingualism and the social psychological mechanisms involved in language behaviour. In particular, the relative social status of each of the bilingual person's languages and the person's perception of the difference in status has an important function in the development of bilingualism. Lambert distinguishes two types of bilingualism additive bilingualism and subtractive bilingualism. Additive bilingualism develops when both languages and the culture associated with them bring complementary positive elements to the child's overall development. Subtractive bilingualism, however, develops when the two languages are competing rather than complementary. Such competition occurs when the minority language is being replaced by the more dominant and prestigious language of the majority group. Lambert (1977:19) states that the level of bilingualism achieved will 'reflect some stage in the subtraction of the ethnic language and the associated culture, and their replacement with an other'. Subtractive bilingualism results, for example, when a child is educated in the more prestigious language without appropriate support for his/her home language in the education programme. Elite and folk bilingualism Skutnabb-Kangas (1981) uses a distinction between elitebilinguals, who acquired their second language through formal education with some opportunity to use the language naturally and folk bilinguals who acquired their second language through practical contact with speakers of that language.

Elite bilinguals typically become bilingual through a free choice

to learn a language. Elite bilingualism has always been highly valued and considered a form of cultural enrichment and a mark of learning and intelligence. The risk associated with failing to learn the second language is small and is equal to the consequences of failing in any other area of curriculum. Students who do not excel in language studies are usually able to discontinue the area of study and concentrate their attention on other subject are as.

Folk bilingualism, however, has frequently been stigmatized and has often been associated with educational controversies related to the integration of minority children into the w majority society. It is not, however, the type of bilingualism or the way a language is acquired that are the cause of problems in education for folk bilingual children but rather a combination of social and other factors.

Folk bilinguals are typically members of linguistic minority groups and are subject to strong external pressure to learn the dominant language. As such, they are forced by circumstances to become bilingual in their own language and in the dominant language. Their home language is often unvalued in the wider community and usually has limited or no official status. Failure to acquire the dominant language adequately can have drastic repercussions for these children. A child whose second language skills are limited is usually excluded from further educational opportunities and will be unable to compete in the labour market with children who are fluent in the dominant language. Such a child will face restrictions on his/her access to the life of the larger community.

Folk bilinguals may also suffer difficulties due to the education system's lack of support for speakers of non-dominant languages. These children frequently enter classes taught in a language they do not speak, and often find themselves in the same class as native speakers of the dominant language. Moreover, for many speakers of minority languages, general educational prospects for successful learning and for their acquisition of the dominant language are dependent to some extent on the continued development of their first language and of the conceptual basis they have already gained. Li the education system does not assist children in this development, the result can be severe educational difficulties for these children.

A eclective approach

Basal reading programs have their roots in the early 1900s, when there was a growing concern for developing "teacher-proor' materials for instruction and an interest in reconceptualizing education according to an industrial model, with schooling the assembly line, administrators the suppliers of curriculum and the monitorsl managers of the process, teachers the technicians applying the curriculum to students, and educated individuals the intended end product (e.g., K. S. Goodman, Shannon, Freeman, & Murphy, 1988, especially Chapter 1).

Basal reading programs were-and typically are-designed to reflect Edward Thorndike's "Laws of Learning," derived from behavioral psychology and his own laboratory experiments with animals (K. S. Goodman et al., 1988, pp. 11-13):

1. The law of readiness: Learning is ordered; efficient learning follows one best sequence. This law results in readiness materials and the tight sequencing of skills in basal programs.

2. The law of exercise: Practice strengthens the bond between a stimulcrs and a response. This law results in drills and exercises through direct instruction, workbooks, and skill sheets.

3. The law of effect: Rewards infi~lenceth e stimulus-response connection. This supports the idea of first learning words and skills and then "rewarding" the learner with the reading of more complete, more meaningful texts.

4. The law of identical elements: The learning of apartic~ilarst imulus-response connection should be tested separately and under the same conditions in which it was learned. This law results in the focus on isolated skills in testing, and in the close match between items in the exercises and items in the tests.

Together, Thorndike's "laws" suggest the need for careful control: control of the reading curriculum and its sequencing; control of the language within the reading selections; control of what's tested and how it's tested; and, most of all, control of what

NOTES

teachers and students do in the classroom. Implicitly, these behavioral laws also define reading as skills work, and learning to read as completing set after set of skills activities (K. S. Goodman et al., 1988; see p. 383). In the late 1960s and early 1970s, the development of basal reading series became a multimillion-dollar business. Today's basal reading series typically include pupil texts with a variety of reading selections for grades K-6 or K-8, accompanied by teacher's manuals, pupil workbooks, tests, and often a considerable array of supplemental materials.

But with all of their glitzy appeal, their claims to be a total reading approach, and their insistence that they have responded to criticisms like those in The Report Card on Basal Readers (K. S. Goodman et al., 1988), most basal reading programs are still basically the same (Durkin, 1990, all references). Often, they still include mere excerpts from and adaptations of literary works, rather than unmodified originals in their entirety. They still implicitly define reading as the mastery of skills, and they still exercise tight control over how those skills will be taught, practiced, and tested. Unfortunately, there is no solid research basis for their sequencing of skills-an interesting point of agreement among those who critique basals from widely differing viewpoints (e.g., K. S. Goodman et al., 1988; Durkin, 1990, Groff, 1989).

Basal reading programs are currently "eclectic," meaning they include various approaches to mastering the alleged skill or skills of reading. They include phonics explicit teaching of letter/sound relationships, patterns, and rules; they may include emphasis on regularly patterned words, as in the linguistic approach; and they typically include elements of the sight word approach, in several or all of these ways

1. By emphasizing correct word identification, as if word-perfect reading were a prerequisite for comprehension.

2. By limiting the vocabulary in the primers and early readers, with an emphasis on so-called basic sight words (especially pronouns and those words described as function words in Chapter 2: words like a, an, the; can, will, may; in, on, at; and, but; and so forth).

3. By explicitly teaching such basic sight words in isolation.

4. By repeating new vocabulary words several times when they're first introduced.

5. By encouraging teachers to preteach new vocabulary before children read a selection.

The Constructive Nature Of Learning

A key principle in this discussion of language acquisition is that the child is necessarily in charge of his or her own learning: the child constructs increasingly sophisticated rules of language, unconsciously, abstracting rules from the language used in the child's language environment.

In discussing how people develop facility in a second (or subsequent) language, Stephen Krashen (1981, 1982,1985b, 1985c) has contrasted language learning with language acquisition. "Learning" a language is what many of us did in school. We memorized vocabulary, studied grammar, translated passages, perhaps rehearsed conversational phrases (all depending upon the instructional approach); in short, we studied the language, hut we may never have achieved much facility in listening to or speaking the language, or in reading or writing it for any authentic purposes outside of class. Such language learning involves "knowing about" a language, but it doesn't necessarily lead to knowing the language in the same sense as if it were truly acquired. I prefer to think of this as learning about or studying a language, while reserving learning hy itself to mean something akin to acquiring language. Thus, learning (i.e., truly acquiring) an additional language may or may not occur in schools.

In contrast to learning about a language, then, language acquisition is a subconscious process that leads to functional command of the rules of language, but not necessarily to conscious knowledge about that language or its rules. What children do in the home is acquire their native language. A key ingredient is comprehensible input provided by adults and others, from which the child can abstract the patterns and rules of the language (Krashen, 1981, 1982, 1985b, 1985~)While learning about the world through language, the child simultaneously learns language and learns

about language (Halliday, 1975,1984). However, the language must be rich enough to provide raw data for the abstraction of patterns and the construction of rules; an adult's imitation of baby talk will not do, nor will primerese. On the other hand, the language input must be sufficiently comprehensible for the language learner to connect meaning with form.

We have spent so much attention on the acquisition of language because it is an Example are of how humans construct knowledge (e.g., F. Smith, 1975, 1990). This constructive view of knowledge and learning underlies current efforts to reform content-area instruction in virtually every major discipline, including math, science, English and the language arts, and social studies. (See, for instance, my fuller treatment of this trend in Weaver, 1990a.) Before turning to the development of literacy, we will consider two models of learning and literacy development that have significantly influenced whole language educators.

Examination Useful Questions

Long Type Questions :

1. What is the best way to communicative language teaching ? Explain in detail.

2. What do you mean by content and language integrated method ? Narrate in detail.

3. What do you understand by simultanous and successive bilingualism ? Explain.

Short Type Questions :

1. Differentiate between task based teaching and learning.

2. What is lac focus ? Write in short.

3. What is constructive nature of learning ?

4. Write short note on - working together.

3.3 | Method Teaching Of Prose, Poetry, Drama, Grammar And Vocabulary

Study material included in this unit -

- Objectives
- Introduction
- The Grammar – Translation Method:
- The Direct Method
- The S – O – S Approach / Method
- Vocabulary
- Teaching of Prose
- Teaching of Poetry
- Examination useful questions

Objectives

After study this chapter you will understand the following facts.

- The Grammar – Translation Method:
- The Direct Method
- The S – O – S Approach / Method
- Vocabulary
- Teaching of Prose
- Teaching of Poetry

The Grammar – Translation Method:

If we look into the history of language teaching, We find that no one method seems to have prevailed for long. Different language teachers believe in different ways of teaching. It may therefore be said that there are as many methods of language teaching, as there are language teachers.

Around the year 1840, an attempt was made to replace these individual methods by a single method as the Grammar – Translation Method. This was the brainchild of German Scholars like Johann Seidenstucker, Karl Plotaz, H.S. Ollendorf and Johann Meidinger, whose principal aim was to make language learning easier.

Critical Evaluation:

Grammar – Translation Method dominated foreign language teaching for over a century 1840 to 1940 – and is still present in one form or the other in many parts of the world.

With increased opportunities for communication that demanded oral proficiency

1. Students found the method frustrating as they had to memorize words and rules.

2. The use of L1 in the Class room prevented the learner from developing confidenc to communicate in English.

3. The learners found it very difficult to free themselves from the liberal use of the mother – tongue.

4. As the language of literature is quite different from the language of everyday communication, the learner was unable to use English in day-today communication.

5. This was further aggravated by the fact that the method focused on written, rather than oral language.

6. The excessive obsession with accuracy and completeness inhibited learner's communication.

In spite of the strong criticism against this method, it has some strong following among teachers and learners across the globe.

Translation is a cross-lingual technique which is used in language learning.

Grammar teaching is given importance. Learners understand the grammatical system of the second language.

Translation exercises put the learner into an active problem – solving situation.

In our schools and teaching situations teachers still resort to translation technique as an easy way of explaining things.

KEY FEATURES:

" It is a way of studying a language that approaches the language first through detailed analysis of its grammar rules, followed by application of this knowledge to the task of translating sentences and texts into and out of the target language. " Reading and writing are the major focus. Little attention is paid to speaking and writing. " Vocabulary selection is based solely on\ the reading texts used, and words are taught through bilingual word lists, dictionary study and memorization. " The grammar rules are presented and illustrated. A list of vocabulary items is presented with their translation equivalents. Translation exercises are prescribed. " The sentence is the basic unit of teaching and language practice. " Grammar is taught inductively. " The student's native language is the medium of instruction the GTM was questionedand rejected as aneffective method ofteaching a foreignlanguage.In order to fully understand how Grammar – Translation Method works in theclass, let us try to understand it by following the steps that the teacher has totake.

Step 1

- The teacher chooses a reading passage from the English text book.

? He asks each student to read a few lines from it and translate them into his mother – tongue (L1)

• He helps him with new vocabulary items.

Step 2

• When they have finished reading and translating the passage, the teacher asks them in L1 if they have any questions.

• He answer the questions in L1.

• This actively goes on till the teacher feels that all the questions have been answered.

Step 3

• The teacher asks the students to write answers to the questions given at the end of the passage.

Step 4

• After one – half hour, the teacher speaking in L1, asks the students to check their answers.

• One by one the students read their questions and answers.

• If the answer is correct, the teacher approves. If incorrect, he gives the correct answer.

Step 5

• As the next activity, the teacher asks the students to look at the words listed and translate them into their L1.

• If the students do not know their L1 equivalents, the teacher gives them.

• The teacher adopts the same method with synonyms, antonyms etc.

Step 6

• The teacher works through the grammar exercises.

- The students are given the rule for each exercise and at the same time asked to translate the sentences into their L1.

- The students do all the exercises fill in the blanks, etc.

Step 7

- The teacher asks the students to translate the whole passage into their mother- tongue and memorize vocabulary items.

- They are asked to write sentences for each vocabulary item.

Step 8

- Students are asked to write a composition based on the passage.

The Direct Method

Scope

- This method implies a radical change from literary language to the day – to – day spoken language as the object of language teaching and learning.

Its salient features are:

- The use of every day vocabulary and structures.

- Grammar is taught inductively.

- Oral skills are developed through question – answer sessions, interaction exercises and intensive classroom drills.

- Second language learning is in the natural way as humans learn their mother – tongue.

- Concrete meanings are taught through demonstration, pictures, objects etc. and abstract meanings through association of ideas.

- Both oral and listening skills are taught.

- Good pronunciation is aimed at and translation is avoided.

- Writing is kept away from the learner until after the printed word has been introduced.

Normal Class Room Procedure:

- The teacher presents usually a short text.

- Difficult words and phrases are explained in the target language.

- Their understanding of the text is tested.

- Students do the exercises on grammar and learn the rules on their own.

- Exercises like dictation, free composition, pronunciation are given drills.

Critical Evaluation

- This method was introduced in France and Germany. In the US it is widely known as the Berlitz method. It was quite successful in private language schools. But it was difficult to implement in pubic secondary schools.

- It demanded high proficiency in spoken language and a native – like fluency in non – native teachers.

- Its procedures and techniques were difficult. Teachers had to struggle hard to explain in target – language.

- Learning second language in the same way in which first language was acquired is not practically feasible as there was less time and opportunity available in schools.

- No selection and grading of vocabulary and structures were carried out which bewildered the pupils.

Practical application :

A typical Direct Method lesson would be completed in the following stages.

Stage 1

- The teacher places a big map of Harappa in front of the class and asks the students to open their books at the page where the lesson is tilted. ' Harappa Civilization'

- Each student reads a sentence from the passage and the teacher points to the part of the map the sentence describes.

Stage 2

- The teacher asks students if there have been any difficult words or expressions.

Stage 3

- The teacher asks questions to check whether they have understood the passage.

- Students are also encouraged to ask questions to check whether they have understood the passage.

Stage 4

- Students do the exercises on grammar, filling in the blanks etc.

- They read the sentences aloud and supply the missing words.

Stage 5

- The teacher gives them a dictation exercise.

Stage 6

- The class practises pronunciation of words.

The S – O – S Approach / Method

(The structural – oral – situational approach)

Scope

An eclectic approach evolved through the combination of certain aspects of the Direct Method, the Oral approach and Audio

lingualism came to be known SOS (Structural – Oral – Situational Approach) in India. The basic assumptions of this approach are as follows.

1. Learning a language is not only learning its words but also the syntax.

2. Vocabulary is presented through graded vocabulary lists.

3. Skills are presented in the following order: listening, speaking, reading and writing (LSRW)

4. Sentence patterns exists and can form the basis of a language course.

In 1950, the SOS approach was officially accepted by the Madras Presidency (consisting of the states of Andhra, Kerala, Karnataka and Tamil Nadu). A massive teacher training programme known as the MELT (Madras English Language Teaching) campaign was organized to train all teachers in this new methodology.

Later the CIEFL, Hyderabad and the RIEs at Bangalore and Chandigarh also propagated this approach. For four decades, till the 1990s, the SOS has been practiced in schools in South India. Recently there have been attempts to shift to the communicative paradigm, and there has been some resistance to this move.

Classroom Procedures:

A typical lesson in S-O-S approach is completed in three phases:

a. **Presentation** : introduction of new vocabulary / grammatical items in contexts.

b. **Practice** : Oral but controlled practice of the items.

c. **Production** : a free practice in the language items learnt in phase (b).

Critical Evaluation:

1. It helps to develop a learner's competence in the use of structures in the target language.

2. Its emphasis on the use of language in contexts and situations that are in immediate environment made it more viable.

3. Concrete linguistic items are taught through demonstration and abstract ideas through association.

4. Class room teaching and learning are made enjoyable.

Yet the S- O- S Approach has the following drawbacks also.

- The situations are not real – life – situations. They are structural drills in which objects, pictures and realia are used.

- The approach evokes reactions from teachers who had to carry a lot of things to the class room.

- They find it difficult to make abstract ideas understood by the learner.

- The approach is found to be suitable only at the elementary level not at the higher classes.

- For teaching prose, poetry and composition, the approach has been found inadequate and ineffective.

- Language can never be an accumulation of habits, as argued by the mentalists like Noam Chomsky.

Practical Application:

The teacher has started teaching 'adjectives.' He has already used ' large' with a singular noun.

Now he is using 'small' plus 'so' and 'such' with a plural or singular noun.

Teacher : Look at these books.

They're small and thin, aren't they?

They're so small that I can put three of them in my pocket.

These are such small books that I can put three of them in my pocket.

Who is the best runner in this class?

Students : Paul is

Teacher : Yes.

Paul is such a good runner that no one can catch him.

The teacher writes on the board:

Paul runs so fast that no one can catch him. Paul is such a good runner that no one can catch him.

Exploration

In Tamil Nadu, we have been learning English from class I onwards. Even after 12 years of a language study that amounts to roughly 2200 days of learning, do you think we have acquired the basic skills of communication in English?

Vocabulary

A. The difference between receptive / passive and productive / active vocabulary

For a receptive / active vocabulary item, one is able to:

i. recognise and recall the meaning of a word when one meets it

ii. make various associations with other related words

For a productive / passive vocabulary item, one is able to:

i. recognise and recall the meaning of a word when one meets it

ii. make various associations with other related words

iii. pronounce it

iv. spell it

v. use it in correct grammatical structure along with words it usually collocates with

B. Ways to help students move from receptive use to productive use of vocabulary

1. Repetition

The transition of an item from a student's receptive vocabulary to his / her productive one is very often a gradual process. Such transition usually takes place when a student reads or hears an item repeatedly over a period of time. For this reason, it is essential to recycle the vocabulary items taught from time to time.

2. Teach the vocabulary items in depth

To teach a vocabulary item in depth, it is essential to incorporate the following in the teaching:

i. Meaning(s)

ii. Pronunciation

iii. Related forms

e.g. triangle [noun], triangular [adjective] (Maths)

iv. Related concepts

e.g. law and order (EPA)

C. Strategies for teaching vocabulary

Strategies marked with an asterisk '*' help students learn words in depth.

Strategies marked with two asterisks '**' help students develop higher order thinking skills.

1. Pronunciation and spelling

Separate a word into chunks to enable students to see the relationship between spelling and sound e.g. solution – so/lu/tion (Maths, I.S.)

2. Visuals (diagrams, pictures, maps, drawings, photos and realia)

These are best for concrete objects e.g. a microscope (I.S.)

3. Gesture, facial expression and mime

e.g. These are best for action verbs e.g. press

4. Scales - these are useful to show degrees and gradings

e.g. always, often, sometimes, rarely, never

5. *Related concepts

e.g. law and order (EPA), bread and butter (Home economics)

6. *Related forms

e.g. govern, government (EPA), develop, development (History)

7. *Words with multiple meanings

e.g. solution (Maths, I.S.)

8. *Word formation

**Semantic map

10. **Semantic features analysis

11. **Guided discovery

12. **Listing

13. **Guessing meaning of word from the context

14. Glossaries

15. Creating a vocabulary log

Word-formation

A. The benefits of teaching ways of word-formation to students

1. To help students make informed guess about the meaning of unknown words

2. To enable students to express themselves with a wider range of vocabulary

B. Ways of word-formation

1. Affixation

This means adding prefixes and suffixes to a word to change its meaning or function.

i. prefixes – added to the beginning of a word

Examples of common prefixes:

Prefix	Possible meanings	Examples
un-	not, opposite of	unimportant, uncertain, unreal, uncomfortable
non-	not	nonsense, nonstick, nonstop, non-conductor
im-	not	impossible, impolite, immeasurable, immature
il-	not	illegal, illegible
ir-	not	irresponsible, irresistible, irregular, irrelevant
dis-	not, opposite	disagree, disobey, disorder, dislike disadvantage
mis-	not, wrong	misunderstand, misfortune, misrule, miscount
re-	again	rebuild, replay, refill
over-	too much	overload, overcrowded
tele-	long distance	telescope, telephone, television
en	make, made of	endanger, enrich

ii. suffixes – added to the end of a word

Examples of common suffixes:

Suffix	Examples
-dom	kingdom, freedom
-ion	election, collection, action
-ment	government, movement
-ness	happiness, kindness
-ist	socialist, economist
-able	washable, suitable, valuable
-less	helpless, careless
-ive	constructive, additive
-en	lengthen, frighten
-ly	quickly, interestingly
-ism	feudalism, metabolism
-er	caller, buyer
-or	actor, director
-(i)fy	classify, beautifuy
-ful	useful, helpful, careful
-y	snowy, windy, rainy

2. Compounding

This means combining two or more separate words which can stand independently to form a word.

i. adjective compounds

   e.g. labour-intensive, capital-intensive (EPA), large-scale (Geography)

ii. verb compounds

   e.g. sightsee (EPA)

iii. noun compounds

> e.g. table-tennis (P.E.), raw materials, labour disputes (EPA), world map, landmark (Geography), tongue roller, backbone (I.S.)

3. Conversion (Zero conversion)

This means using a word in different parts of speech without changing its form.

e.g. Hong Kong exports a lot of electronic toys. (verb)

Hong Kong is famous for its export of electronic toys. (noun)

TEACHING OF PROSE

SCOPE :

Prose is meant for learning a language. This unit consists of eight sections. The first section deals with intensive reading. The second section outlines the aims of teaching prose. The third section sums up the steps involved in teaching prose. The fourth section demonstrates the teaching of a prose lesson. The fifth section introduces ALM (Active Learning Methodology). The sixth section throws light on extensive reading. The seventh section talks about the steps in teaching supplementary reader and the last section gives a vivid picture of teaching of continuous writing.

DEVELOPMENT OF THE CONTENT:

PROSE – INTENSIVE READING:

According to Coleridge, **"Prose is words in their best order."** Teaching prose means teaching reading with comprehension. Having taught the students how to read a language, the next logical step is to teach them read in with comprehension. The ain aims of teaching prose are:

(i) literary, and

(ii) content.

To achieve these aims the teaching of prose should be intensive as also extensive.

Intensive reading:

Intensive reading or reading for accuracy involves approaching a text under the close guidance of a teacher, or through a task that forces the student to pay attention to the text. It involves a profound and detailed understanding of the text not only in terms of 'what' it says but also 'how' it says it. An intensive reading lesson is primarily concerned with developing reading strategies – judgement, reasoning, interpretation, appreciation, etc. in the learners.

Generally, a short text, which can be finished in a lesson or two, is considered suitable for scanning for information, paying attention to the writer's intentions, arguments, ideas, style, etc. Students while reading a text do not simply look for any specific piece of information. They read it thoroughly so that they can pass their exam which, they know, will contain questions involving their understanding of the text as a whole. In all respects, intensive reading is more an exercise in accuracy. The textbooks prescribed for General English courses at the secondary level are all meant to be read intensively. Students are supposed to read them in detail so that they can answer the questions given at the end of each text, questions on comprehension, grammar, vocabulary, writing, etc.

The intensive reader should be based on the structural syllabus containing interesting and well graded reading material accompanied by colourful pictures to create an interest in the lessons. All reading lessons should be preceded by plenty of oral discussions in which difficult words, phrases and ideas should be clearly explained by the teacher. Lessons based on the intensive reader should have provision for both reading aloud and silent reading, to give the greatest benefit to a learner of English.

AIMS OF TEACHING PROSE:

Teaching of prose is the intensive study of language, structures and vocabulary. Its main objective is to develop the language ability of the students.

This ability makes the child understand and use English language without any problem. Thus a detailed study concentrates both on language study and comprehension of ideas or linguistic skills. The general aims are as follows.

General Aims of Teaching Prose:

To enable the students

i)   To understand the passage and grasp its meaning.

ii)   To read with correct pronunciation, stress, intonation, pause and articulation of voice.

iii)   To enable students to understand the passage by silent reading.

iv)   To enrich their active and passive vocabulary.

v)   To express the ideas of the passage orally and in writing.

vi)   To enjoy reading and writing.

vii)   To develop their imagination.

viii)   To prepare the students for world citizenship.

Specific Aims

These vary according to the subject – matter depending upon whether it is a story, biography, play or an essay.

For these the specific aims are as follows:

Story

i) To enable the students to learn a few facts through the story.

ii) To teach some morals through the story.

iii) To mould students' character.

iv) To acquaint students with the style of story writing.

Essay

i) To enable the students to grasp a few facts through the essay.

ii) To make students curious about subject of the essay.

iii) To acquaint students with the style of essay – writing.

iv) To enable students to arrange ideas in a systematic way.

Biography

i) To get students acquainted with the lives and deeds of great men.

ii) To reveal to the students the path of character building.

iii) To make them aspire for better things in life.

iv) To inculcate in them desirable sentiments.

Play

i) To provide the students with opportunities for self–expression.

ii) To make them speak English in the conversational style.

iii) To make them play different roles.

iv) To build their character.

THE STEPS INVOLVED IN TEACHING PROSE:

A prose lesson contains structures, vocabulary and ideas for comprehension. The students must have a mastery over the sounds, structure and vocabulary before reading the passage / lesson. The main objective of teaching prose is to help the students use the structures and vocabulary he can read with comprehension and write a few sentences about the lesson using the appropriate structures and content words. Therefore a prose lesson is not for memorizing questions and answers but for learning a language.

The steps for teaching of prose may be summed up as follows.

1. Introducing the prose lesson

The Introduction has two purposes:

i) to bring the past knowledge to consciousness.

ii) to win students' attention to the new subject.

English is a foreign language and Indian students find it difficult. So, teachers should try to motivate students to study the lesson. All the efforts made by the teacher to attract students to learn the lesson is known as 'preparation of the lesson'. It includes the material aids, previous knowledge of the students and introduction.

The teacher can introduce the lesson through appropriate questions or through, showing pictures, models etc. However, he should not start the topic directly. The introductory questions arouse curiosity among the students for the new lesson.

Hence the teacher should first ask some questions to test the previous knowledge of the students and then link that to the subject to be taught.

2. Teaching structures:

When presenting a new structural item, we should primarily achieve two things:

a) To enable the students to identify the new structures.

b) To make absolutely clear its meaning and use.

To achieve

(a) above, the teacher must supply clear models of the structure.

Some believe that plenty of examples should be given bringing the pattern out clearly. In this connection substitution table is of great help as it highlights the elements of the pattern and their order and nature.

One of the ways of achieving

(b) is to present the structure in readily understandable situations.

This helps the students not only to understand the meaning of the new item but also its use in different contexts. Later they are provided with opportunities to use the structures themselves.

3. Dividing the text into smaller units

Reading passages sometimes happen to be very long making it tiresome to work through them from beginning to end. In such a case the text will have to be split up into shorter, more manageable units or sections. This will facilitate the teacher to present the lesson before the students interestingly and efficiently.

4. Teaching Vocabulary:

The teacher selects the new words from the subtopic and exposes their meaning one after the other. To give clear ideas to students he may use an object, a model or a picture. Sometimes through situation he may explain the meaning.

The purposes of exposition are:

(i) To clear the meaning of difficult words, phrases and Idioms.

(ii) To make the comprehension of the passage easy.

(iii) To pave way for intensive reading.

5. Model Reading by the Teacher:

In this step, the teacher should read out his selected passage loudly before the students. At the time of reading he/she should be very careful about the pronunciation, words, phrases and intonation. Since the students learn to read through imitation the teacher should take the utmost pains to improve his/her own reading aloud. This model reading helps the students for aural comprehension. Before doing model reading, the teacher should give instructions to students regarding postures, opening of the book and attention. While reading he should not completely absorb himself in the book.

6. Silent Reading by the students:

Here the teacher gives time for the students to read the passage silently. Such type of reading is helpful for rapid reading, learning of new words and a quick grasp of meaning. Silent reading should continue for a limited time, say for five or ten minutes for a single passage.

7. Testing comprehension:

In this step the teacher asks some questions from the present passage to the students to test to what extent the students have comprehended the meaning of the passage. These questions should be based on the very passage taught by the teacher and they should be direct, short and objective based.

The same procedure (steps 4,5,6,7) can be followed for rest of the lesson.

8. Testing application:

The main aim of application test is to evaluate to what extent the objectives of a lesson have been achieved. The questions may be of oral or written type. After the teaching of structure or vocabulary teaching, the teacher normally asks the students to do the exercises at the end of the lesson.

9. Loud reading by the students

Now is the time when the teacher can ask the students to read out the passage loudly one by one. This loud reading is very much helpful to the students for clear pronunciation. It also improves the tone, rhythm and fluency. But a student should not read a long passage. Each student should read a few lines from the passage. In this regard the following points can be given special consideration.

The errors of pronunciation must be corrected at the end of the reading.

Students should be asked to keep the books 30 cm away from the eyes.

They should hold the book in the left hand while the right hand should be kept free.

The teacher will therefore need to exercise great care whenever the students are asked to read aloud. As the students have already learnt all the new words, structures and as they have also understood the text, the chances for success in reading aloud are greater than they are at the beginning.

10. Giving Assignment:

After the classroom tasks are completed the teacher can give some assignments which could be of the following types:

i) To remember the meaning and spelling of new words.

ii) To use the words in sentences.

iii) To write the gist of the passage.

iv) To answer questions on the passage.

v) To do the exercises based on the structures taught.

TEACHING OF POETRY

Poetry begins in delight and ends in wisdom - Robert Frost

SCOPE

Literature is an art. The highest form of literary expression is poetry. It is a work of perfect art and beauty. It is an art because it appeals to the emotion and has an aesthetic effect on human mind. Almost all the ancient literature is in poetical form in any language.

Generally prose is for information and poetry is for appreciation. Poetry gives, very briefly, details and facts in a beautiful form. Poetry is highly rhythmic in character. Every prose lesson need not be a piece of literature, but every poem is surely and invariably a piece of literature. So every teacher should develop a taste for literature. She has to present the poem in such a way that it appeals to the emotions of children. While learning a poem

the child enters a different world other than this physical world. The child should feel that it is experiencing a new joy in a new atmosphere.

For poetry to remain poetry, there must be a direct contact between the poet and the child without any intermediary or an interpreter. The problem is how to bring this about? This will be discussed in this unit.

This unit aims at helping you to understand the objectives of teaching a rhyme in lower classes and poems in higher classes. It also outlines the process of teaching a rhyme and a poem. Also you are provided with suitable and simple examples for teaching a rhyme and a poem for your practice training. Do the tasks yourself and enjoy teaching a poem. And only if you try to enjoy the poetry you teach, you will be able to convey the feelings of pleasure and appreciation to your pupils.

Development of the Unit

TEACHING RHYMES

The first and the strong link between the children and the English language (any language for that matter) can be only through nursery rhymes. The term nursery is apt because just as in a Nursery growing the saplings, the rhymes take care of the language to be developed later. We all know how children enjoy saying a rhyme in lower classes with movement, gestures and most important their expressions. Every child becomes one with the rhyme when taught properly with the teacher's enthusiasm.

The importance of saying (reciting) or singing rhymes:

Rhymes –

- strengthen and develop the memory power.

- develop active power of imitation and imagination.

- train the ears to the delicate varieties of sounds and rhythm.

- widen the knowledge of vocabulary.

- develop a sense of achievement and confidence in the young learners

- lay a strong foundation for speech work.

- are an excellent aid to correct speech.

Suggestions for teaching Nursery Rhymes:

1. Any rhyme is essentially music – Hence it is meant to be said aloud to enjoy the music.

2. Explanation of words, phrases or grammatical forms should not be given.

3. In every rhyme, the unfamiliar, tricky words should be singled out and their correct pronunciation should be drilled.

4. Pupils' attention should be concentrated on the words and phrases with their correct beats.

5. Beats are to be given only with the use of two fingers on the left or right palm.

Clapping or tapping the desk by the pupils should be avoided.

6. Children to be taught to feel the charm of music and rhythm.

7. Rhymes should be taught at first, moderately slowly until the pupils are able to recite them correctly, clearly and confidently.

8. Once the children are confident in saying all the lines in the rhyme you can give practice:

   a) You say the first line; the children say the second line.

   This alternative line practice can be continued changing roles also. (First line - children; second line - teacher)

   This line by line practice is helpful to correct the mispronounced words.

b) Practice in groups- one group one line.

c) Practice in pairs:

d) Whole class says the rhyme.

All these practices will help even the slow learner to gain confidence in saying the rhymes.

Don'ts

1. Do not ask individuals to say the rhyme in the beginning, in order to correct their pronunciation.

   The child may feel diffident.

2. Do not try to teach any morals through the rhymes.

3. Do not sing the rhyme to begin with.

   Singing can be postponed till all the children are able to say the rhyme correctly. This is because while singing, the children's attention is drawntowards the tune and not on the pronunciation.

4. While saying / singing rhymes can be done at the beginning or at the end of every day class

   (as some teachers use it as motivation), care should be taken not to spend more than 3 minutes on rhymes each day.

5. The most important point every teacher should remember - do not read out the rhyme from the books – memorise and say the rhyme facing the children with proper pronunciation, gestures and voice modulation for the children to imitate and follow.

'A Little Seed'

> A little seed for me to sow
> A little earth to make it grow.
> A little hole,
> A little pat,

A little wish,

And that is that.

A little sun,

A little shower,

A little while,

And then – a flower.

If you read out this from the book, the rhyme loses its life.

This should be acted out by you. Only then it appeals to the emotion of the children – Show gestures - a little pat, a little wish,

How beautifully the child feels about the new plant it visualises.

The emotion should be brought out with the nicest expression.

If possible take the children out of the class. Or you can make a seed bed on the table, use picture of sunshine and shower or draw it on the blackboard.

Think of a simple device to bring shower in the classroom.

This beautiful rhyme would never be forgotten if you teach it in such a way that every child acts it out.

Introducing poems

As already mentioned in the introductory part of this unit poetry is meant for enjoyment and pleasure as it appeals to our senses.

Many teachers have this problem in their classroom – while their pupils have thoroughly enjoyed nursery rhymes and other rhythmic activities, they often lose their interest in poetry as they are promoted through the school – and also as poetry presented to them takes on a more elaborate form. It would be well, therefore, if the teachers had in mind these standpoints.

First of all she should remember that rhythm is a universal phenomenon wherever movement occurs. The regular rhythm of poetry appeals to the child as something which satisfies an urge to move and speak rhythmically.

Secondly, poetry draws the child more and more towards, beauty, especially beauty of language and thought and helps him develop his imagination.

This should not be regarded as the 'aim' of teaching poetry in the way that we think of the aims of teaching other activities in the curriculum.

In fact to use the phrase 'Teaching poetry' is to emphasize a wrong point of view. We do not 'teach poetry' and could not if we tried. We introduce it as an activity because it gives pleasure as in doing any other activity in the classroom.

There is an incidental value in the inclusion of poetry in the curriculum in that activities connected with the learning and appreciation of poetry should have a beneficial effect upon the pupil's speech and in the higher classes upon his written English. This is an incidental advantage.

We should frequently remind ourselves of these points and never allow the poetry class to develop into a mere soulless repetition of the poem until it is known by the class as a whole.

Our chief focus should be to help our students appreciate and enjoy poem and in the process they themselves would like to commit it to memory.

How could this be achieved in the class?

The teacher should read, listen to and enjoy good poems himself / herself.

It is difficult to arouse enthusiasm in others if you have no enthusiasm yourselves.

The emotion aroused by poetry can be transferred from the teacher to the pupil.

Indeed if this does not take place in the first instance, there is little hope for the pupil's acquiring a feeling for poetry The appreciation of poetry or any form of literature is a matter of enthusiasm.

If this is found in the teacher, it will be transferred almost automatically to the students. If you try to enjoy the poems you teach to your students, you will be able to convey the feelings of pleasure and appreciation that you feel by yourselves.

Examination Useful Questions

Long Type Questions :

1. Differentiate between direct translation method and the S-O-S method.

2. What is importance of teaching of Prose and Poetry ? Explain in detail.

Short Type Questions :

1. What is vocabulary ? Discuss it importance.

2. Write short note of the following -

   (i)   Teaching of Prose

   (ii)   Teaching of Poetry

3.4 Development Of Four Basic Language Skills: Listening, Speaking, Reading, And Writing

Study material included in this unit -

- Objectives
- Introduction
- Reading Technique
- Entering the reading process
- Read the beginning and end of each chapter
- Select reading technique according to the purpose of reading
- Writing technique
- Ways teachers can help students understand subject related explanation in English
- Ways teachers can help student in speaking
- Examination useful questions

Objectives

After study this chapter you will understand the following facts.

- Reading Technique
- Entering the reading process
- Read the beginning and end of each chapter
- Select reading technique according to the purpose of reading
- Writing technique
- Ways teachers can help students understand subject related explanation in English
- Ways teachers can help student in speaking

The Grammar – Translation Method:

Worldwide students are facing many of the same challenges. They must plan and structure their study. They are expected to study efficiently and take useful notes. And they are expected to make the most of teaching, group work and supervision.

International students who are placed in a foreign culture are challenged even more. Besides all the formal issues with which they are expected to be able to cope, they are forced to adjust rapidly to teaching methods, expectations and criteria which might differ from the ones at home.

We wish to present our best advice on how to efficiently manage your studies at the University of Copenhagen, and at the same time, we try to pass on our experiences with issues and situations which may seem foreign to international students.

Especially the fact that there are only few lectures and individual syllabuses places a huge responsibility on students at the University of Copenhagen in terms of self-learning.

Furthermore, many international students experience uncertainty concerning referencing, ownership and plagiarism because it is difficult to figure out formal rules, or they obtain unusually bad grades for their papers because the evaluation criteria are not always explicit. We are of course unable to deal with and solve all problems related to study skills in this guide. In the bibliography at the back, suggestions for further reading material are found.

Before you read on in this guide, please do the following exercise which will offer you an insight into your present study conditions. The aim of the exercise is to show you where/ how to intervene, if you want to improve your learning conditions. Repeat the exercise after a couple of months. Then you will be able to see whether you have succeeded in improving your study conditions.

Reading Technique

There is a lot of reading to be done on all university programmes. Furthermore, several Danish study programmes are characterised

by a limited amount of lectures and a comprehensive independent study programme. This means that the University's students study more or less independently. Since rote learning is not very applicable to most programmes either, it is not enough just to read a large quantity of material thoroughly or a sufficient number of times. The important thing is that the students themselves are capable of actively processing the material, whether independently or in groups.

Nevertheless, students tend to focus on the amount of material which have been read or more accurately, on the amount of unread material which accumulates on the desk and is the cause of a guilty conscience.

The large amount of unread material may of course be caused by the fact that a student is lazy, unmotivated or preoccupied with other matters. Or that the syllabuses are too ambitious and impossible to get through. And naturally, studying is made all the more difficult when the material is not written in the student's native language.

Many students think that they are slow readers. However, experience has shown that it is rarely "the number of lines read per minute" which causes problems.

First and foremost, the problem is that students read in the wrong way. For example, many students tend to commence their studies by reading page 1 of the first book in the syllabus without establishing what and why they are reading. Instinctively, they read the books linearly from beginning to end. The disadvantage of this reading method is that the continuity of what is read is lost.

This chapter outlines a useful study strategy - a strategy which you may apply regardless of the type of book that you are reading. It is important that you are aware of how you go about a study book fromthe first time that you hold it in your hands till you if necessary read the book thoroughly.

NOTES

Before you read the book

It is possible to read a text several times without understanding any of the content or its purpose. If you do not think about and reflect on the material you are reading, you will not learn anything. Consequently, you should start by posing two questions: what type of text is this?

What is the aim of the text?

Question 1: what type of text is this?

In order to be prepared for the new text, it is a good idea to draw parallels to other texts you have read. Take the time to make an assessment of the structure of the syllabus texts. How are they usually structured? Which elements are typically included in the texts? It is important that you become aware of the different types of material (genres) you are reading, and are aware that the structure and content of the different genres differ to a great extent. This is best illustrated by two very different types of material you will inevitably come across in the course of your programme:

Textbooks: Some of the books you will come across at the University look a lot like ordinary school books, the purpose of which is to convey knowledge and teach. Textbooks very rarely discuss anything, and it is therefore important that you remain critical of the content. The chapters in textbooks are typically not written to be read in a prescribed order, but rather subject by subject as is the case in encyclopaedias. Consequently, you may read the individual chapters in random order and still appreciate the overall meaning.

Research reports: Research reports have an altogether different purpose than textbooks. In these, analyses, discussions and the evaluation of the research results count. The object is not to convey knowledge or explain scientific terms. Therefore reports aresometimes difficult to read.

Nevertheless, these texts are made up of relatively obligatory elements, you may use as guidance (some are mentioned on the next page). Moreover, the structure of research reports is usually less flexible than the equivalent in textbooks. Chapters often follow a continuing argumentation, which makes it difficult to read the chapters in random order.

As seen above, the different types of text you come across in the course of your study differ to a large degree, which makes it necessary for you to read them in different ways.

Question 2: What is the aim of the text?

It is of course difficult to establish one book's actual relevance to you and your studies in advance. You have to crawl before you learn to walk, and it is not unusual that the underlying relevance of a book becomes apparent a long time after you have finished reading it. But remember that, academically speaking, you never start from scratch. You always possess relevant knowledge and references which you may use to assess new texts. You have already obtained relevant knowledge through previous studies and school attendance, television, newspapers, etc.

You should insist on placing yourself in the centre of things. The books are made for your benefit – not the other way around. In other words, do not allow yourself to be controlled or impressed by the books and their authors. You must dare to prioritise and decide which subjects are important to you, e.g. a subject you are having trouble understanding.

Naturally, an exam or a specific written assignment makes it easy to establish the relevance of individual texts. If the text forms part of the syllabus, it is usually relevant to you no matter what you might think of it otherwise. However, it is rare that all texts form part of a research paper or exam in the exact same way or at the exact same level, and consequently, you have to carefully consider which type of problem you are about to solve. Does the text offer key information about the subject? Or is only secondary information offered?

NOTES

Entering the reading process

It is always a good idea to begin the reading by familiarising yourself with the text. If you read slavishly from page 1 and onward, you risk losing the broader perspective. Furthermore, it is not uncommon to lose concentration if a text is read linearly from a to z, because then the text and not you yourself is in charge of your studies.

Every time you receive a new syllabus book of 200-300 pages, it is a good idea to earmark as much as one hour to familiarise yourself with it. This is the best way to really get an overview of the content of the book and its core subjects before you decide how to read it.

Four efficient ways of familiarising yourself with a new text are:

Read those parts which offer the most comprehensive view of the text

Most texts have a number of "keys" which may be used to identify the structure of the text as well as its core points. Well-written texts contain most of the keys below which make it possible to quickly get an idea of the text. Other texts are less informative in terms of aiding the reader in getting a quick overview.

- Title

- Entrys in the margin

- List of content

- Words in bold

- Headings

- Textboxes

- Subordinate headings

- Figures, graphs, models

- Preface

• Abstracts in the text

• Text on the back of the book

• Index

• Illustrations

• Index of names

Read the beginning and end of each chapter

Many textbooks use space to guide the reader around the book. Often, every new chapter starts by offering the reader an overview of the central points of the chapter as well as the chapter's connection to the other chapters. Likewise, there are textbooks which sum up the central points at the end of each chapter.

Read the introduction and the conclusion

As for research reports, the introduction and the conclusion offer a comprehensive overview of the text. The introduction will reveal the focus area of the text and its positioning in relation to other academic texts. The conclusion offers a short summary of the key questions of the text and tries to answer these on the basis of the analyses which have been carried out.

Write, draw or discuss your way to a preliminary overview

Generally, it is advisable to never just read a text - remember also to work with the texts read. This also applies to the initial reading phase during which you combine the overview reading with other activities which allows you to see the broader perspective. Below are four proposals for the above:

• Draw a mind-map (c.f. chapter 5) of your initial impression of connections and points in the book.

• Write a short piece on your first impression of the book.

• Ask your fellow students what they think are the central points of the book.

- Ask your lecturer what the overall themes of the book are, and which chapters are connected.

Select reading technique according to the purpose of reading

Even when you have applied above techniques to create an initial overview of the text and have decided that you wish to read the text, there are different ways of reading it. You would never read a crime novel in the way that you read a syllabus book. You read the crime novel for the sake of entertainment and suspence and you do not need to remember the details. However, syllabus books are read because they contain important information which form part of your long-term study process. Consequently, the purpose of reading is an altogether different one in this case. Your choice of reading technique depends on the purpose of reading.

The following textbox describes the various reading techniques and their individual purpose. In the course of your programme, you are bound to use all five techniques of reading.

Divide the reading into phases

As mentioned above, it is generally a bad idea to just read. Remember to somehow process text you have read. If, for example, you are about to read an important book which does not immediately make sense or offer a general idea about the subject, you may prepare a schedule of how you are going to read it by putting the different reading techniques into use. In between, you may leave time to work on the meaning of the text, e.g. by means of mind maps or group work.

Writing Technique

For many students, it is a good exercise to write things down in their own words while working with the academic material or participating in the teaching. Many lecturers expect that students take notes. Some lecturers hand out pieces of paper which contain the main points of the teaching allowing students to,

subsequently, add their own notes on these. Other lecturers write on the blackboard, expecting that what is written on the blackboard is written down by the students in one way or another.

There are several kinds of notes with varying purposes.

Some notes are primarily used to save/remember important information, e.g. the notes you take down during class. Another type of notes are the notes you write when you read, which often act as a combination of thinking tools and guides to the important points of the texts. A third type of notes act as a kind of brainstorming technique which may be used to come up with new arguments, structures for or aspects of a research paper.

In the following, different kinds of notes will be discussed.

Class notes

Most students take notes frequently during class, however, many students are not satisfied with their notes. Generally, they experience that they lack time and a general idea of which parts should be noted down and which parts should not. Furthermore, many students find it difficult to concentrate on that which is being taught while trying to take down usefull notes.

Experience has shown that quite the reverse is true after a bit of training. After a while, you will discover that your note-taking results in you having more time on your hands and a broader idea of the subject, making it possible for you to focus your attention on the teaching. First, the notes relieve your memory, whichallows you to focus on understanding rather than remembering.

Second, note-taking maintains your concentration and makes sure that your thoughts aren't led astray.

In other words, it requires concentration to take down notes during class. You must master the art of note-taking while never losing the thread of the teaching. However, concentration increases your learning ability.

NOTES

Reading notes

When you read on your own, it is a good idea to take down notes as well as comments in the margin of the book while reading. First, the notes help you structure and, therefore, understand the information in the text. Second, notes act as a sort of guide, which makes it easier to find core points at a later date.

However, notes have an adverse tendency of becoming an unintegrated and very comprehensive reproduction of what is written in the book. Consequently, the notes more or less become a summary rather than what they are supposed to be: a guide to what you have read. In other words, be careful when it comes to writing your notes in your own wording. This is best done by putting of the note-taking until you have finished reading the section and have put the book aside.

In order to avoid writing too many notes, you should begin by considering what you are looking for before you start taking down notes. If you wish to learn something about applied economic methods of calculation, then put on your "mathematical reading glasses" and avoid taking down notes on the more socially descriptive and/or historical information. In general, avoid taking down notes of the entire book, but stick to the sections which are relevant to you here and now!

Margin notes and highlighted text are also types of reading notes – the difference being that margin notes are recorded directly into the texts, books, photocopies and the like. The intended use is for you to separate the important parts of the text from the details by means of notes in the margins and by underlining or highlighting. Use different colours and size of highlighters to highlight different types of information and different degrees of importance.

Examples:

- Wavy line under words or concepts you do not understand or find are vague.

- Question mark against large sections which are vague/difficult to understand.

- Bold line under keywords and important concepts.

- Vertical line or exclamation mark in the margin against important sections.

- Double vertical line against sections which are central to the whole text.

However, you should be aware that you will only be able to single out core points of the material that you are reading when you understand it. Consequently, wait until after you have read the chapter in its entirety before you highlight.

A disadvantage of highlighting is that it is not your own wording, and you might fool yourself into believing that you have understood the text, just because you have highlighted it. If it is large portions of the text you highlight/underline or record as being important, it is a good idea to write your own keywords or points against each section. First, this means that you get to process the text instead of just assuming the wording of the author. Second, it becomes easier to recognise and, therefore, locate certain sections. Thus, you create a general perspective of the text and facilitate the task of re-reading/revising the text.

Listening

A. Ways teachers can help students understand subject-related explanation in English:

1. Modify the input

   Teachers can make their spoken English easier for students to understand by:

   i. adjusting the speed to match the level of students

   ii. using shorter sentences with simpler structures

   iii. pronouncing the words clearly

iv. repeating

v. stressing key words

vi. talking about concrete, rather than abstract ideas

2. Improve the delivery

There is no single format for explanations of all topics in all subjects.

Below is a suggested procedure to delivery explanation:

i. Teachers recognise what the students know and show them that there is something to be explained.

ii. Activate students' existing knowledge of the topic e.g. by brainstorming.

iii. Before the main explanation, teachers may need to explain the essential elements in it.

Therefore, an explanation may consist of a number of 'sub-explanations' and teachers may need to build explanations on and around one another.

iv. Deliver the main explanation in a dynamic way.

v. Whenever possible, show / encourage / stimulate students to generalize from an explanation or, alternatively, apply a general explanation to specific examples.

3. Provide support

i. advance organisers

• these tell students what to expect as they go through a lesson or a topic

• teachers may write the headings on the blackboard or provide students with a handout outlining the topic and the major activities of a lesson

• a written advance organiser can be referred to again for signposting and summarising purposes

ii.   signposting

- clear transitions between topics or activities enable students to :

  - understand that they should change the focus to something different in the lesson

  - prepare themselves to concentrate on new concepts

- examples of signposting language:

  - So that's how ..., now let's move on to ...

  - So if everyone has finished the exercise, let's ...

  - That's why ... Now let's see ...

  - So now you know ... now let's look at the next point.

  - Now we're going to think about ...

iii. summaries

- provide students with a brief lesson or topic summary at the end of a topic or a lesson or the beginning of the next, reminding them of the main points which they may have forgotten

- a summary can be interactive e.g. a question and answer session or an informal quiz

- the teacher may go over the advance organiser again as a way of summarising what has been covered

iv.   vocabulary support

- before explaining the content area, familiarise the students with a list of new vocabulary

- as explanation proceeds, ask students to write down the new vocabulary they encounter in their vocabulary books

viii. anecdotes / stories related to the topic

- these help explore the subject widely and engage students' interest

NOTES

- the teacher can make use of jokes, personal experience, students' own experience, TV programmes and movies etc. Adapted from English Department, The Hong Kong Institute of Education (2000). Principles and Practice of Immersion Teaching & Evans M., Hoare P., Kong S., O'Halloran S. & Walker E. (2001).

Effective Strategies

for English Medium Classrooms: A Handbook for Teachers

Speaking

A. Ways teachers can help students in speaking

1. boost students' confidence in using English in class by

   i. giving encouragement e.g. the whole class applaud after a student has answered a question in English

   ii. instilling correct attitude in students regarding the use of English in class

   - not to laugh at students with poor English

   - not to think that students with good English are showy or arrogant

2. provide students with chances to express themselves e.g. conducting activities for pair work / discussion

3. familiarise students with the pronunciation of new subject vocabulary and expressions

4. prompt students by giving signals / cues

   e.g. help students organise their sentences in a logical way by providing them with connectives such as 'because', 'so that' and 'therefore'

5. expand what students say

6. rephrase what students say in a more appropriate or accurate way

7. provide whole-class feedback to make general comments on common errors and / or to praise common strengths

8. provide speaking frames for students

Steps:

i. familiarise students with the pronunciation of new subject vocabulary and expression

ii. write the guidelines for students to use when speaking on the blackboard

iii. ask students to insert the vocabulary or expressions they have practised saying

Example

1. The teacher familiarises students with the pronunciation of the following: 'rural land use' and 'urban land use'.

2. The teacher provides the following written guide to students:

The two main types of land use are _____ and _____. (Geography)

3. The teacher asks students to complete the sentence orally.

B. Activities for pair work / discussion

It is important to provide a real reason to discuss with a partner or with a group. Pair work/discussion is suitable for most learning situations. The following examples are taken from Evans M., Hoare P., Kong S., O'Halloran S. & Walker E. (2001). Effective Strategies for English Medium Classrooms: A Handbook for Teachers:

1. when students are checking / comparing / quickly revising written or graphic responses in class activities

2. when students are offering suggestions/ evaluations / appreciation to each other for work done

3. when students are rehearsing a response to a whole class question e.g. briefly checking pronunciation / grammar with each other before offering the response to the class

4. when students are planning questions on aspects of the lesson not well understood (the question then becomes 'our' question, not just one individual's problem)

5. when students are rehearsing a small demonstration e.g. a maths solution to be worked through on the board, a short explanation in social sciences

6. when students are planning a response to a higher order question, i.e. co-constructing an idea requiring several sentences or an opinion

7. when students are problem-solving e.g. working out how to carry out instructions for making something

8. when students are carrying out or describing sequenced activities e.g. explaining how they arrived at a maths solution

9. when students are reporting the results of some work in which their partner was not Involved

Examination Useful Questions

Long Type Questions :

1. How to entering the reading process ? Explain in detial.

2. What do you mean by reading technique according to the reading purposes? Explain.

3. Discuss in detail about ways of teachers help the student subject related explanation.

Short Type Questions :

1. What is reading technique ? Briefly discuss.

2. Why is it necessary to help students in speaking skills ?

3. Write about writing technique in brief.

3.5 Accommodation In Approaches And Techniques In Teaching Children With Disabilities

Study material included in this unit -

- Objectives
- Introduction
- What Does A Quality Curriculum For A Student With Disabilities In A General Education Classroom Look Like?
- How Should The Content Of The Curriculum Be Determined
- How Can Individualized Curricular Content Be Addressed Appropriately In The Classroom When Students Without Disabilities Are Pursuing Different Curricular Content?
- How Can Appropriate Learning Opportunities To Include Students With Disabilities In Classroom Activities Be Identified Or Adapted?
- How Can Instruction Be Individualized Within The Context Of General Class Activities?
- Examination useful questions

Objectives

After study this chapter you will understand the following facts.

- What Does A Quality Curriculum For A Student With Disabilities In A General Education Classroom Look Like?
- How Should The Content Of The Curriculum Be Determined
- How Can Individualized Curricular Content Be Addressed Appropriately In The Classroom When Students Without Disabilities Are Pursuing Different Curricular Content?
- How Can Appropriate Learning Opportunities To Include Students With Disabilities In Classroom Activities Be Identified Or Adapted?
- How Can Instruction Be Individualized Within The Context Of General Class Activities?

Introduction

For as long as she can remember, Ms. Brown has been told that she and other general education teachers were not appropriately trained or qualified to teach students with a wide range of disabilities. She was told, "That's why we have special education classes and schools where students with special educational needs can get the specialized instruction they need." This made sense to Ms. Brown; besides, she had her hands full with her students who did not have disability labels. Though she occasionally taught a child with mild learning disabilities in her classroom, for the most part, students with more significant disabilities were never placed in her class. If a student seemed to be having difficulty keeping up with the academic expectations Ms. Brown had established for the class, she felt she was doing the right thing by referring the student for special education. This approach was supported by her colleagues and school system as well.

Recently, people started talking about educating students with more significant disabilities in the general education classroom; they referred to it as "inclusive education." Ms. Brown felt that she had never excluded children before because of their disabilities, but rather, was trying to help them by sending them to a place that would better meet their needs. Now she was about to have a student with more significant disabilities in her class. She wondered how this would work and what she could do to make sure it worked for her whole class. We are in the midst of a major shift in educational service provision for students with disabilities in which they are increasingly valued and included in the same educational experiences that are available to students without disability labels. To extend the information presented in chapter 1 of this volume, we list seven characteristics of inclusive education (Giangreco, Baumgart, & Doyle, 1995), including:

1. All students are welcomed in general education classes in their local schools. The general education classroom in the school the students would attend if they did not have a

disability is the first placement consideration, given individually appropriate supports and services.

2. Students are educated in classes where the number of those with and without disabilities is proportional to the local population (e.g., 10% to 12% have identified disabilities).

3. Students are educated with peers in the same age groupings available to those without disability labels.

4. Students with varying characteristics and abilities participate in shared educational experiences while pursuing individually appropriate learning outcomes with necessary supports and accommodations.

5. Shared educational experiences take place in settings predominantly frequented by people without disabilities (e.g., general education classrooms, community work sites).

6. Educational experiences are designed to enhance individually determined valued life outcomes for students and therefore seek an individualized balance between the academic or functional and social or personal aspects of schooling.

7. Inclusive education exists when each of the previously listed characteristics occurs on an ongoing, daily basis.

We will know that inclusive education has fully arrived when designations such as "inclusion school," "inclusion classroom," or "inclusion student" are no longer needed as part of our educational vocabulary because everyone is included (Giangreco, Cloninger, & Iverson, 1998). As we usher in a new era of education in which children with disabilities are not summarily sent to special education schools and classes because of their disability labels, the roles of all professional staff who work in schools with students who have disabilities are evolving. Nowhere is this more evident or more important than when considering the role of the general education teacher.

Several myths surrounding the needs of students with disabilities have been used to perpetuate the status quo. Over time, what Ms. Brown came to realize was that she had unwittingly bought into some of the historical myths of special education. Some of these myths are:

1. General education teachers are not capable of teaching students with disabilities.

2. Only special education teachers know the specialized approaches that are effective for teaching students with disabilities.

3. Specialized instructional approaches are beyond the capability of general education teachers within the context of a regular class.

4. Special education is synonymous with a place, such as a resource room, special education class, or special education school.

5. Curriculum content and grade level placement are synonymous; in other words, all children placed in a fifth grade class must do "fifth grade level" work.

Nationally, numerous demonstrations have exposed these myths as false (Giangreco, Dennis, Cloninger, Edelman & Schattman, 1993; Hunt & Goetz, 1997; National Center on Educational Restructuring and Inclusion, 1995; Salisbury, Palombaro & Hollowood, 1993; Stainback & Stainback, 1996; Villa & Thousand, 1995; York-Barr, Schultz, Doyle, Kronberg, & Crossett, 1996). Increasingly, these myths and their corresponding practices are being replaced by new standards. While these newer standards of practice are not necessarily common across the country, they are present to some extent in every state and they represent a fundamental shift in how increasing numbers of educators, parents, consumers, administrators, and community members are thinking about the education of students with disabilities. Some of the principles underlying these new standards include:

1. Qualified general education teachers with inclusive attitudes and appropriate supports can successfully teach students with disabilities, including those with severe disabilities.

2. The principles of teaching and learning are the same whether a student has a disability label or not, although these principles may need to be applied differently, adapted, or used more systematically for some students.

3. Just as many instructional approaches used by special educators are effective when used with students without disabilities, many instructional approaches that are effective within general education can also be effective for students who have special educational needs.

4. When general education teachers expand their skills to address the diversity presented by their students with disabilities, they often learn skills that improve their teaching for all students.

5. Special education, namely, specially and individually designed instruction, is a service, not a place. It is portable and therefore need not be bound by location.

6. Grade level placement and curriculum content need not be synonymous.

   Rather, grade level placement and curriculum content can be independent of each other. For example, in a fifth grade class, while most students might be pursuing what people think of as "fifth grade" curriculum (knowing that varies from place to place), some students will be pursuing individually appropriate curriculum content that is below or above that level through the use of multi-level instruction or curriculum overlapping (both are discussed later in this chapter).

7. We need to change the way we think about educating students with disabilities so that, regardless of what positive intentions we might have, our actions (e.g., to include or not) are not considered a "favor" to students with disabilities or their

NOTES

families. Appendix A to Part 300 of the Code of Federal Regulations (34, CFR 300) (March 12, 1999) states:".. .

IDEA presumes that the first placement option considered for each disabled student by the student's placement team, which must include the parents, is the school the child would attend if not disabled, with appropriate supplementary aids and services to facilitate such placement (p. 12471).

With the advent of inclusive education, a common scenario has been repeated nationally whereby special educators and parents ask administrators and general education teachers for access to the general education classroom for students with more and more severe disabilities. The promise is made that the general education teacher will not be inconvenienced or asked to do more. Initially, many general education teachers accept such invitations to participate in "inclusive education" based on the premise that they will function primarily as a "host" rather than as the teacher for the student with disabilities. In this "foot in the door" approach, general educators often are promised that special educators and others (e.g., paraprofessionals and related services providers) will attend to the educational needs of the student with disabilities.

Additionally, many teachers are given the message that they have the option to accept or reject the student with disabilities in their class. Both premises, "hosting" and "the option to accept or reject," have conceptual, ethical, and legal flaws (Giangreco, 1996a; Giangreco, Dennis, Cloninger, Edelman & Schattman, 1993; Laski, 1991). In fact, the attitudes, decisions, and actions of general education teachers are critical factors in determining the success of a student with a disability in a general education class (Giangreco et al, 1993; Giangreco, Edelman & Nelson, 1998). The general education teacher may be the single most important school staff member in determining the success of a student with disabilities in the general education classroom.

Some people have suggested that in situations where paraprofessionals are assigned to a student with disabilities, the paraprofessionals are the key pieces in the personnel puzzle. While this may be true in some situations, recent research suggests that when the paraprofessional assumes the role of "teacher," a variety of problems can result that have an adverse, though unintended, impact on students with disabilities (Doyle, 1995; Giangreco, Edelman, MacFarland & Luiselli, 1997). For example, students with the most complex learning challenges inadvisedly may receive the majority of their instruction from the team member who typically has the least amount of training.

If you, as a general educator, are unaccustomed to having students with disabilities in your classroom, you are not alone in your anxieties, apprehensions, and even fears about inclusive education. These concerns are real and should be taken seriously by colleagues and families. The purpose of this chapter is to help you acquire the attitudes and skills that will assist you in successfully teaching your students with disabilities, rather than excluding them from the classroom or segregating them within it. Recently, we heard a teacher say, "I am concerned that inclusion takes time away from the regular education students because the teacher's emotional energies and attention are redirected toward the challenging student." Although we know that this sentiment may be shared by some general education teachers, it reflects one of the most basic problems facing students with disabilities and their families, namely, that they are considered to be in a different category than "regular" students. Embedded in that sentiment is the inference that the needs of "regular" students come first.

Almost every classroom has students without disability labels who sometimes need extra "emotional energy and attention" from their teachers for any host of reasons (e.g., impact of divorce, child abuse, challenging temperament, issues of normal adolescent development). The same holds for students considered "gifted." Someone could say, "Aren't those gifted students an emotional drain on the teachers because they require specialized planning

to be sufficiently challenged and therefore they take teacher time and attention away from the majority of the class who are all at a similar level?" As teachers, we have to be prepared to offer differential amounts and types of emotional energy, attention, support, and individualization to our students, regardless of labels and needs. Good teachers build on the individual strengths of each student and recognize that all students have something valuable to contribute to the classroom community.

As you know, teaching takes enormous amounts of emotional energy under any circumstances. As many teachers who have taken on the challenge of inclusion have come to realize, the energy they put forth is often rewarded in their own personal and professional development as well as in the development of their students. We do not mean to present a picture of inclusive education as seen through rose-colored glasses. Can inclusive education be challenging? Sometimes it can, as can general education.

Should teachers who work with increasingly challenging students, regardless of their labels, receive appropriate supports? Absolutely; such supports are essential to successful inclusion. We can start the process of giving each of our students an equal opportunity by considering all of them as our students who are welcome in our classrooms. As inclusive efforts begin, you can be on the lookout for common problems, such as having students who are physically placed in the general education classroom, but not really included as part of the classroom program or activities (e.g., students frequently separated with an instructional assistant). Another problem to watch out for is including students with disabilities in classroom curriculum, instruction, and activities, but without the necessary adaptations that will make participation meaningful.

One major goal of inclusive education is to provide shared meaningful learning experiences for students with and without disabilities within the context of classroom activities that address the individualized learning needs of each student. This is an important task that

may take a bit of work to understand and implement, but is possible given support from a collaborative team (see chapter 4). This collaborative team comprises core members who spend time with the student daily, such as the teacher, parent, special educator, and paraprofessional, as well as the student, when appropriate. Extended members may include related services personnel who interact with the student less frequently and sometimes on an intermittent basis. Teams may also access other support personnel resources when it is situationally necessary. These individuals tend to have highly specific, short-term interactions with the team (e.g., a consultant who helps design or select a piece of specialized equipment).

The one characteristic that brings all of these individuals together isarguably the most foundational characteristic of a collaborative team, namely, having common goals (Giangreco, 1996b). This is not to be confused with the common and unteamlike practice of group members agreeing to each have their own goals for a student which reflect the orientation of their particular disciplines (e.g., physical therapy, occupational therapy, speech/language pathology).

See chapter 4 for more information on collaborative teamwork. A competent, caring general education teacher who is effective with students without disabilities already possesses most of the critical skills necessary to successfully educate students with all kinds of learning challenges, including various disabilities (Giangreco, 1997). However, when teaching students with disabilities, you and the members of your collaborative team may need to apply the principles of teaching and learning in different ways. The remainder of this chapter addresses five of the most common questions posed by general education teachers who are interested in successfully including and teaching students with disabilities in their classrooms. These five questions, each related to curriculum and instruction, are:

1. What does a quality curriculum for a student with disabilities in a general education classroom look like?

2. How should the content of the curriculum be determined?

3. How can individualized curricular content be addressed appropriately in the classroom when students without disabilities are pursuing different curricular content?

4. How can appropriate learning opportunities to include students with disabilities in classroom activities be identified or adapted?

5. How can instruction be individualized within the context of general class activities?

What Does a Quality Curriculum for a Student With Disabilities in a General Education Classroom Look Like?

When considering educational curriculum content for students with disabilities, it is important to recognize that the population of students labeled "disabled" is enormously diverse.

For example, when a student has a physical disability alone, with no concurrent cognitive disabilities, it is generally accepted that he or she should pursue the full general education curriculum established for students without disabilities. Similarly, students with mild learning disabilities also are generally expected to pursue much, if not all, of the general education curriculum. So, for many students with disabilities, the question is not what these students should learn, but rather how they will access the curriculum and what accommodations will be needed.

Decisions about curricular selection become more complex and the curricular content tends to be more individualized when students have more severe disabilities or have combinations of physical, cognitive, sensory, or behavioral disabilities.

A quality curriculum for a student with disabilities includes learning outcomes that are at an individually appropriate level and are pursued within typical class activities (e.g., small cooperative groups, unit-based projects). Selecting appropriate learning outcomes has long been, and continues to be, considered a marker of educational quality for all students.

Individually determined curricula for students with disabilities should include a small set of family-selected priorities to establish a focus for instruction, as well as a breadth of curricula that allows the student opportunities to explore many options that coincide with state or local standards.

As team members review general education curricula, they are often surprised to learn that many of the learning outcomes in them are applicable to students with disabilities, including those with severe disabilities.

Although this core of curricular content should be reasonably attainable based on the student's current level of functioning and characteristics, a quality curriculum also should provide ample opportunities for students to surprise us with their capabilities. Therefore, we should never presume to know the upper limits on a student's abilities, especially if the student has never been exposed to something or received competent instruction. We should expose students with disabilities to, and instruct them in, a full range of general education curricular activities to complement more traditional life skills. Too often we artificially limit curricular opportuni ties for students with disabilities based on our own preconceived notions. Because of this, few students with severe disabilities have had access to general education classrooms or curriculum until recently. As a student progresses through school, the emphasis placed on various curricular options can be adjusted based on actual experiences and evaluative data rather than on speculation based on disability labels or stereotypes.

How Should the Content of the Curriculum Be Determined?

Historically, determining curricular content has been the sole province of school professionals. This, too, has changed significantly. Increasingly, parents are involved in selecting priority curricular content for their children using any number of available approaches, such as MAPs (Making Action Plans), PATH (Planning Alternative Tomorrows with Hope; Pearpoint, Forest, & O'Brien, 1996),

COACH (Choosing Outcomes and Accommodations for Children; Giangreco, Cloninger, & Iverson, 1998), and Personal Futures Planning (Mount, 1994). Such active solicitation of parent input can have a positive impact on relationships between families and professionals. Parental selection of priorities does not infer that professionals are nonessential, but rather that their curricular role has evolved from telling parents what is best for their child to assisting families in determining and articulating their own priorities based on their individual and cultural perspectives.

Important aspects of curriculum design today are choice and selfadvocacy by students with disabilities (Nietupski, Hamre-Nietupski, Curtin, & Shirkanth, 1997). Such choice-making to select curricular content may coincide with the cultural norms of the family and/or the norms of the community. For example, young children may be given choices within the context of activities, while older students may select some or all of their own learning priorities.

Professionals still retain an important role in developing the breadth of curricular content that is available to students in the school. To augment the general education curriculum content, ecological analysis (Brown, Nietupski, & Hamre-Nietupski, 1976) has been used to select individualized curricular content. Using ecological analysis, curriculum is developed based on the real-life skills needed to function in current and future environments. While this approach remains eminently viable, a variation has been developed that shifts the context to current and desired future valued life outcomes (e . g., meaningful personal relationships, health and safety, meaningful activities in various places, choice, and control) as determined by the student with disabilities and or his or her family (Giangreco, Cloninger, & Iverson, 1998). This approach is grounded in the life outcomes parents have said they value in helping their child pursue a "good life." By focusing on individually determined valued life outcomes, educational teams create a common denominator necessary to function as a team and provide meaning to their activities.

How Can Individualized Curricular Content Be Addressed Appropriately in the Classroom When Students Without Disabilities Are Pursuing Different Curricular Content?

One of the most common and anxiety-producing questions asked by general education teachers is, "How do you expect me to incorporate an individualized curriculum for a student with- disabilities while teaching the rest of my class?" Unfortunately, all too often, the solution to this challenge is for a paraprofessional to operate a parallel educational program in the back of the classroom. For an example of this, see case 10 in this volume, titled, "Help, With Strings Attached." Such an approach is not an example of inclusive education and minimizes the potential benefits of participation in a general education class. Delegating primary instructional responsibilities to a paraprofessional also may relegate students with disabilities to receiving inadequate, unsupervised instruction. Two alternatives include multilevel curriculum and instruction and curricul m overlapping (Giangreco & Putnam, 1991).

Multilevel curriculum and instruction occurs when a student with disabilities and nondisabled peers participate together in a shared activity (e.g., science lab experiment) and students have individually appropriate learning outcomes at multiple levels, but all within the same curriculum area (e.g., science). While one student may be learning at a basic knowledge or comprehension level, another student simultaneously may be working on an application or synthesis level. For example, imagine second grade students playing a small-group social studies board game devised by their teacher to teach them about their neighborhood, town, and state. The teacher has prepared a set of 10 game cards for each student that target individual learning outcomes. For one student, the game cards require applying knowledge about the roles of community helpers (police, fire fighters, store clerks, postal workers) by moving game pieces to respond to scenarios on cards (e.g., "Move your player to the place where you might go if you

wanted to send a card to your grandmother for her birthday"). Another student is learning to answer questions about where he or she lives (e.g., his or her street address, phone number, recognizing his or her neighbors). A third student is using map skills such as north, south, east, and west to respond to questions (e.g., "If you started at the book store, went two blocks north and one block east, where would you be?"). In this example, all the students have social studies learning outcomes that have been individually selected to match their level of functioning and needs.

Multilevel curriculum can include variations across subject content, level of learning outcomes pursued, or both. For example, in one seventh grade social studies class focusing on American history from the revolution through the Civil War, the topic would be the same for Joseph, a student with disabilities, as for his classmates, but the level of learning outcomes would be adapted. His studies would focus on American history but be adapted to an appropriate level (e.g., historical people, places, and events). In Joseph's algebra class, the subject content for Joseph would be different from that of his classmates, focusing on basic computation (e.g., adding, subtracting), and the level and quantity of the learning outcomes would be adapted as well. In both classes Joseph would be working on individualized learning outcomes within the same curriculum area as his classmates. Curriculum overlapping occurs when a student with disabilities and nondisabled peers participate together in a shared activity (e.g., science lab experiment) and students have individually appropriate learning outcomes, but from different curriculum areas. Nondisabled students could have science objectives, while the student with disabilities might have communication or social skill objectives for the science lab activity.

Imagine, for example, a high school biology class in which lab teams of three students each are assembling a model of a human heart. Two of the students have goals related to the identification, anatomy, and physiology of the human heart. The third student,

who has severe disabilities, participates in helping to assemble the model heart but is w orking on communication and social skills (e.g., taking turns, following instructions, describing events, maintaining socially acceptable behavior). Curriculum overlapping can also address other general education curriculum areas. You might recall Joseph, the seventh grade student with disabilities, who was participating in social studies and math via multilevel curriculum. His team agreed that his participation in French class would be through curriculum overlapping. He would be exposed to French words, language, and culture, but there would be no expectation of competencies. The team viewed his participation in French class as providing him with opportunities to pursue learning outcomes that had been identified as important in his English class, such as listening, speaking, reading, writing, and spelling. For example, his spelling words from English class could be duplicated in French and he could practice reading and writing both sets, using them in sentences, and reading them orally. Curriculum overlapping occurs when learning outcomes from two or more curriculum areas overlap within the same activity. Opportunities for both curriculum overlapping and multilevel curriculum and instruction are abundant in classrooms where students participate in active learning.

How Can Appropriate Learning Opportunities to Include Students With Disabilities in Classroom Activities Be Identified or Adapted?

All too often, school personnel expend significant effort developing an IEP that is not necessarily reflected in the daily schedule of activities for a student. Students may even be welcomed and included in general education activities, but not be pursuing the individualized learning outcomes that were selected as priorities in their IEP. Use of a Scheduling Matrix (Giangreco, Cloninger, & Iverson, 1998), is designed to prevent this from happening by explicitly comparing a student's IEP goals and additional learning outcomes to a list of the class's planned activities (e.g., arrival routine, opening routine, language arts, science, physical

education). The scheduling matrix is a divergent activity where team members consider the possibilities for working on a student's learning outcomes within the various class activities. This process is aided by decisions made by the student's team about the nature of participation (e.g., multilevel, curriculum overlapping) in various class activities.

A student schedule is then developed, based on possibilities generated using the Scheduling Matrix. Deciding which learning outcomes will be addressed in which daily classes or activities requires team members to consider and balance a variety of issues (Giangreco, Cloninger, & Iverson, 1998):

- Are there sufficient opportunities for the student to work on identified learning priorities?

- Are there sufficient opportunities that pertain to the student's identified additional learning outcomes? • Does the student's schedule follow the class routine as much as possible?

- Are learning outcomes and general supports addressed at the most naturally occurring times?

- Does the student have the same opportunities for breaks as students without disabilities, so he or she has time to just be a kid?

Answers to these and other questions that arise as a result of scheduling may lead your team to rethink the range of learning outcomes in the student's program as well as how to adapt instruction. A completed student schedule provides increased clarity to expectations for a student's participation throughout the school day. By looking at the schedule, a teacher or assistant would know what the instructional focus should be for a student with disabilities when he or she is in any class. Of course, each of the teachers should be involved in making such decisions. As the student progresses through the school year and as team members learn more about the student, the schedule should be adjusted accordingly. The Osborn-Parnes Creative Problem-Solving Process (CPS) (Parnes, 1997) is a powerful tool to assist teachers

as they create adaptations to their curriculum, instruction, and activities. Variations of the CPS process have developed specifically to address curricular and instructional adaptation issues as they pertain to curriculum-overlapping challenges that occur when students with disabilities are included in general education classes and activities (Giangreco, 1993; Giangreco, Cloninger, Dennis, & Edelman, 1994). Once a teacher or team has identified the general problem (e.g., "In what ways might we address Karen's individual education needs within the context of typical class activities with nondisabled peers?" they can use the remaining steps of CPS as a creative process to generate solutions. These include:

- fact-finding (gathering information),

- problem finding (clarifying the problem),

- idea finding (brainstorming a quantity of ideas in an atmosphere of deferred judgment, using idea-joggers),

- solution finding (selecting the best ideas based on criteria),

- acceptance finding (making a plan, refining it, and taking action).

An overarching characteristic of CPS is the alternating use of divergent and convergent thinking within each step. The divergent aspects encourage the teachers and teams to explore information and ideas broadly by extending in different directions from a common point (the problem to be solved). Convergent aspects encourage analysis of the divergent data to make decisions and select solutions. Most importantly, the steps of CPS assist teachers, support personnel, and students to develop a creative, optimistic attitude and a simple, effective process for solving problems.

How Can Instruction Be Individualized Within the Context of General Class Activities?

The vast majority of students with disabilities respond favorably to many of the same teaching methods that are effective with

students who do not have disabilities. Some of these common methods include modeling and demonstration, class discussion, repeated exposure and practice, guided discovery, experiments, field study, participatory activities, use of multimedia technology, use of question-asking strategies, use of manipulative materials, educational games and play, use of positive and negative examples, corrective feedback, and individual or smallgroup projects. Many of these are described in chapter 1 of this volume.

Sometimes the adaptations that need to be made for students with disabilities are as simple as

(a) changing performance expectations (e.g., different spelling words; 10 math problems rather than 20)

(b) allowing students to respond in different ways;

(c) changing the materials to match the motivational, sensory, or physical characteristics of the student;

(d) providing additional time or task completion or responding;

(e) providing assistive devices (e.g., tape recorders to take notes, computers);

(f) preteaching or tutoring; or

(g) modifying the rules of participation.

Of course, to be effective, any such adaptations require a working knowledge of a student's characteristics and learning styles.

Challenges arise when students do not progress adequately using typical instructional methods. In such cases, instruction must, be augmented using more precisely and explicitly applied methods. What follows (see Table 3.1) are some instructional methods that can be applied within the context of typical class activities (Alberto & Troutman, 1995; Snell & Brown, 1993). You will recognize that you have used many or all of these strategies before, though you may know them by other labels. Selection of methods should be based on

(a) which method, or combination, is most likely to be effective based on your knowledge of the student's characteristics,

(b) the characteristics of the learning outcome, and

(c) which TABLE 3.1. Methods to Augment Typical Classroom Instruction Task analysis Task analysis involves taking a skill and breaking it down into its component parts to facilitate learning.

Sometimes these are fairly large chunks of behavior, At other times they are very small. Each step in a task analysis has a built-in cue that serves as a naturally occurring prompt for the next step. You may find that a student is having a problem with a particular part of a skill and that may be the only part that needs to be task analyzed.

Chaining Chaining can be:

(a) continuous (teaching all the steps Of the task analysis);

(b) forward (teaching the steps of

The task analysis from the beginning until the student

Makes an error; instruction proceeds only after the step is mastered); and

(c) backward (the teacher arranges the task so that all the steps are complete except the last one; the last step is taught until it is mastered and then the sequence proceeds sequentially backward until the beginning is reached).

Errorless learning Errorless learning refers to guiding a student through a task using sufficient prompts so that the student can be successful at the task as quickly as possible while making as few errors as possible.

Errors are interrupted as they occur and guidance is provided. As the student becomes more proficient, the guidance fades. Errorless learning provides more opportunities for practicing a

NOTES

skill correctly and is useful for tasks where errors just won't do (e.g., crossing the street).

Cue redundancy Cue redundancy is when you exaggerate the Relevant dimension of a cue to discriminate between it and Other cues. For example, when teaching the difference Between the hour and minute hands on a face clock, length is The relevant dimension (not color or shape). Using cue redundancy, you would exaggerate the difference in length by making the hour hand very short and the minute hand very long, then fade toward more typical lengths. Shaping Shaping is simply reinforcing increasingly proficient approximations of skill. For example, in composition, teachers expect increasing detail, description, spelling accuracy, and proper use of grammar. Shaping is by its very nature a developmental process of starting where the child is and moving forward at an individualized pace. Prompts, cues, Prompts and cues include approaches such as full and fading physical guidance, partial physical guidance, modeling, verbal directions, questions, reminders, encouragement, and visual clues. Prompts and cues can be provided prior to or following student responses. Prompts and cues should fade as quickly as possible. Using dotted letters in handwriting instruction is an example of a cue that eventually will be faded.

Time delay Time delay refers to the pairing of two cues simultaneously (zero delay): one cue you know the student will respond to correctly, and the other cue, particularly a natural one, you would like the student to respond to. For example, when teaching a young child to say "Thank you" you want the child to respond to the natural cue of receiving something. You can start teaching this by simultaneously pairing the natural cue (receiving something) with the extra cue, "Say, Thank you," knowing the child will repeat, "Thank you." Once established, a time delay (e.g., a couple of seconds) is inserted between the natural cue and the extra cue and is gradually increased. When the time delay is long enough, the child responds "Thank you" before receiving the extra cue. Extra cues are often faded simultaneously as the

time delay increases (e.g., "Say, Thank you"; "What do you say?"; giving an expectant look).

Time delay can be especially valuable for teaching students who are not imitative. method can be applied in the most status-neutral or status-enhancing way in typical settings. Regardless of what instructional approaches you use to help students learn, most of them require frequent and ongoing opportunities to interact with content or to practice a skill in order to learn it. This is true for students with disabilities as well, and sometimes they need even more opportunities and consistency of instruction.

Any individualization of instruction would be incomplete without some form of evaluation. Teachers often have an intuitive sense of how their students are progressing, but in order to validate those impressions, it is important to gather additional information through some form of systematic data collection. Quizzes, tests, projects, observations, demonstrations, and work samples can all be used to measure progress. These various methods can tell you how accurate the student's responses are, how often the student uses a skill, how quickly the student accomplishes a task, the student's work quality, the amount of time (duration) a student's attention can be sustained, and the number of steps in a series (i.e., from a task analysis) the student can successfully complete. Ultimately, such information can indicate the student's growth over time and whether the student's quality of life has improved as a result of working on certain learning outcomes.

The data collection methods you choose, and the information you look for, should be directly related to the student's learning outcomes.

Examination Useful Questions

Long Type Questions :

1. What do you understand by Quality Curriculum ? What will be the classroom of disabities and general education ? Explain.

2. The content of the curriculum be determination. How ?

3. Discuss the individual curricular content be appropriatly in classroom.

4. When does students without disabilities are pussing various curricular content ? Explain.

Short Type Questions :

1. When and how can acurate learning opportunities include students with disabilities ? Write short.

2. What is classroom activity be identify ?

3. Define in instruction indivilized with content of general class activities.

Block - IV

INSTRUMENTAL MATERIAL

NOTES

4.1 Object Study Material Included in the Unit

Study material included in this unit –

- Introduction
- Use of IM on LPSC in ECE: Global perspective
- Availability and adequacy of IM and participation in science classroom
- Self-esteem, effective use of IM and participation in science classroom
- Group arrangement and participation in science classroom
- IM, motivation and Participation in science classroom
- Physiological needs, use of IM and LP in SC
- Safety/ Security needs, use of IM and LPSC
- Love and belonging, use of IM and PSC
- Instructional Materials, Esteem needs and participation in science classroom
- Instructional Materials, Self-actualization, and participation in science class
- Instructional materials, intrinsic motivation and participation in science class room
- Instructional materials, extrinsic motivation and participation in science classroom
- Instructional materials, time management and participation in science classroom
- Instructional materials, management of records and participation in science classroom
- Principles, Requirement for the selection of instructional materials and participation
- Problem solving, use of IM and PSC
- Examination useful Questions

Objectives

After study this chapter you will understand the following facts.

- Use of IM on LPSC in ECE: Global perspective

- Availability and adequacy of IM and participation in science classroom

- Self-esteem, effective use of IM and participation in science classroom

- Group arrangement and participation in science classroom

- IM, motivation and Participation in science classroom

- Physiological needs, use of IM and LP in SC

- Safety/ Security needs, use of IM and LPSC

- Love and belonging, use of IM and PSC

- Instructional Materials, Esteem needs and participation in science classroom

- Instructional Materials, Self-actualization, and participation in science class

- Instructional materials, intrinsic motivation and participation in science class room

- Instructional materials, extrinsic motivation and participation in science classroom

- Instructional materials, time management and participation in science classroom

- Instructional materials, management of records and participation in science classroom

- Principles, Requirement for the selection of instructional materials and participation

- Problem solving, use of IM and PSC

Introduction

This section reviews literature on what has been observed about the importance of grouping learners on participation in science activities and the extent to which availability and adequacy of IM improve pupils' participation in science lesson. It further reviews the effect of management of records on the improvement in pupils' participation in science lesson. The section contains theoretical basis of the study and the conceptual framework. According to Joyce (2001), during the preschool and kindergarten years, learners add to what they have learned in the early explorations as learners' expands. The environment plays a critical role, thericher the environment the more concrete opportunities there are for learners tolearn by interacting with IM. Teacher's role is to create an environment thatinvites learners to observe, to be active, make choices and to experiment Judy(2001). He further states that IM are tools used for teaching and learning hence,supports the teacher in delivery of knowledge or help to emphasize specificknowledge. According to Thungu (2008), IM meet the needs of learners, fulfillthe requirements of the subjects and facilitate the teaching and learning process.

Piaget (2009) states that merely using IM does not guarantee effective teaching, tomake teaching and participation effective, the IM must be appropriately selectedand used. ECE teachers must, therefore become familiar with the types of IM ifgreater value is to be derived from their use. He further states that the primaryfunction of IM as a communication device is to serve as a more concrete reference to meaning than spoken or written word. According to Mwangi (2010), in theteaching learning process, IM serves functions of enhancing retention whichmakes learning more permanent. Equally, they stimulate and sustain interest inlearning by providing firsthand experience with the realities of the physical andsocial environment.It is necessary to note that IM are important catalysts of social re-engineering andchange in learners. It is obvious that effective instructions cannot be wellaccomplished without the use of instructional materials. The reason is not

farfetched:advances in technology have brought instructional materials especiallythe projected and electronic materials to the forefront as the most radical tools ofglobalization and social development which have affected the classroom teaching learningsituation positively. Such technological breakthroughs as networked andnon-networked; projected and non-projected; visual, auditory, audio-visualelectronic materials are important landmarks in knowledge transfer. With themboth teaching and learning become very pleasant experiences.

According to Phyllis (2011), instructional materials possess some inherent advantages that make them unique in teaching. For one thing, they provide the teacher with interesting and compelling platforms for conveying information since they motivate learners to want to learn more and more. Also, by providing opportunities for private study and reference, the learner's interest and curiosity are increasingly stimulated. Further, the teacher is assisted in overcoming physical difficulties that could have hindered his effective presentation of a given topic. They generally make teaching and learning easier and less stressful. They are equally indispensable catalysts of social and intellectual development of the learners.

Bolick (2003) pointed to a good relationship between effective teachings and using of instructional materials. He argued that ". . . while some educators have been fascinated by the potential of instructional materials to enhance teaching and learning, teachers lagged behind in using instructional materials during teaching and learning. Others expressed doubts that instructional materials will ever incite teaching reform on participation". Instructional materials are integral components of teachinglearning situations; it is not just to supplement learning but to complement its process. It then shows that, if there must be an effective teaching learning activity, utilization of instructional materials will be necessary Kibe (2011).

Ema (2004) assert that, "teaching equipment and materials have changed over the years, not only to facilitate teaching learning situation but also to address the instructional needs of individu-

als and groups". Instructional materials are made up of objects such as printed, audio, visual that aid in the successful delivery of lesson Chuba (2000). To this end, instructional materials are said to be objects or things the teacher can use in the classroom while teaching in order to ease off his teaching activities. However, instructional materials cannot address all the teaching-learning problems but it can go a long way in solving them, simply because, they are additional apparatus that can influence the reality of teaching and learning activities.

Use of IM on LPSC in ECE: Global perspective

According to Feshbach (2006), the M.O.E and the culture in England and Israel employ preschool supervisors, construct class rooms and equip classrooms with a variety of IM. In addition each preschool teacher is provided with a budget for the purchase of IM. Groodland (2009) reports that some parts of USA adopted the Montessori Method while others used college laboratory preschools. One common feature about the two was the need for abundant IM. Cass (2007) conducted a research with 400 preschool teachers in London on their role in schools to provide the child with a live day where he can be living, learning and growing all the time. From the pre school teacher's responses, they all agreed that the children benefit, greatly from the active methods found in the child centered teaching methods. Teachers responded that children have the opportunity to develop at their own rate, gain confidence independence and prepared for all round development.

Usuala (2006) under took a study entitled, Education Technology in Africa .In his study, he reiterated the effectiveness of IM in pre-school in Africa, for instance containers, straws and kites. He also expressed the recognition of the importance of these instructional aids by a number of African countries. This led to the establishment of educational technology centres in a number of African countries. Allen and Hart (2009) states that beside using touching materials the teacher must ensure that variety of the same are available in class for effective teaching and learning. They say that the materials and equipment presented in

early childhood setting should be chosen to provide many and varied opportunities for learners to practice and master familiar skills through a variety of materials. Hainich (2010) further support the subject by saying that the primary function of a visual aids as a communication device is to serve as more concrete referent to meaning than spoken or written word. They therefore conclude that visual aid is more clearly and easily understood than verbal messages.

Pre-school handbook (2008) defines teaching/learning aids as available means or assets which contain required information for the learner. They spell out the functions of instructional resources in a preschool child as, Stimulation of children to preserve and develop their cultural heritage and promotion of explanatory and discovery skills among preschool children. They also play the role of facilitation of self expression and creativity through experimenting with materials and promotion of self discovery and identification of special gifts and talents. More so, they assist in meeting socio-emotional needs on children and making learning more exciting. Equally, they enhance visual and auditory perception through manipulation of various learning skills.

Ayot (2006) in their advice to teachers, observed that the teaching resources are used to increase learning, to generate more interest and to create a situation where the learners would fully engage in classroom activities.

Availability and adequacy of IM and participation in science classroom

Materials for lessons are gathered and prepared ahead of time as pre-schools children cannot be expected to sit diligently while waiting for the teacher to prepare the materials and collect activity suppliers for lessons. Accessibility depends upon your available storage and upon your own usage habits Abdullahi (2009). Consider how much space you have for storing relevant IM for the activity to be carried out in participation in science lesson, and the location(s). Material that you need to refer to more frequently should be kept closer to hand, whether those are the materials

from one or two previous terms or key reference materials you use during the participation. Some instructors frequently refer back to previous terms when preparing classes, and others do not Baganzi (2007).

The quality of the education and training on participation given to pre-schools learners depends greatly on the availability and adequacy of IM to adjust their educational content to the changing skill requirements of the nation. In other words, participation in science classrooms are expected to provide knowledge and training that satisfies the learners' demands of the nation and the nation's economy Mayindo (2008). Institutional training should aim to equip learners with useful skills and to improve their knowledge and capabilities in their participation in science classroom national Policy on Education (2004). Awobodu (2001) has noted that availability and adequacy of IM in participation facilitates learning and enhances pupil achievement because every learner is involved in the activity given. Aromolaran (2003) noted that the lack of IM in participation was a significant problem in the Nigerian education system.

Self-esteem, effective use of IM and participation in science classroom

Self-esteem is a term in psychology to reflect a person's overall evaluation or appraisal of his or her own worth. Self-esteem encompassed beliefs for example, "I am competent", "I am worthy and emotions such as triumph, despair, pride and shame 'The self- is what we think about the self; self-esteem, theory negative evaluation of the self, is how we feel about it'. A person's -concept consists of the beliefs one has about oneself, one's self-perception,or, as Edina (2011) expresses it, "the picture of oneself". James (2009) described self-concept as totally perception which people hold about him/herself. It is not the "facts" about one-self but rather what one believes to be true about one-self Sarah (2007). Early researchers used self-concept as a descriptive construct, such as 'I am an athlete' Rose (2006).

Recent theories adapted self-esteem with more evaluative statements like 'I am good at tennis' Harter (2005). The latter state-

ment not only describes the self, as the individual identifies herself or himself, but evaluates the self by putting worthiness on it. Therefore, self-esteem is defined as both descriptive an evaluative self-related statements. As a social psychological construct, self-esteem is attractive because researchers have conceptualized it as an influential predictor of relevant outcomes, such as academic achievement Marsh (2002) or exercise behavior Hagger (2001). In addition, self-esteem has also been treated as an important outcome due to its close relation with psychological well-being Marsh (2004). Self-concept (i.e. self-esteem) is widely believed to be composed of more than just perceived competence, and this leads to the relative degree of evaluative and cognitive beliefs of the construct.

According to Harter (2010) self-esteem is considered as the beliefs about perceived competence and self-evaluative in participation and handling of IM. Self-esteem can apply specifically to a particular dimension (for example, "I believe I am a good writer and I feel happy about that") or have global extent (for example, "I believe I am a bad person, and feel bad about myself in general"). Psychologists usually regard self-esteem as an enduring personality characteristic (trait" self-esteem), though normal, shortterm variations ("state" self-esteem also exist.

Group arrangement and participation in science classroom

Pre-schools group can be an environment of fun if properly organized or arranged pre-schools learners are a busy bunch of people Norman (2001). The theory of Maria Montessori states that pre-schools group should be child sized. Shelving should be at such low level that the children can see every shelf, table and chair in order for them to be comfortable. Group arrangement in pre-schools centre setting can be perfected by quality of material used. Quality IM are essential in teaching about evolution and the nature of science and participation in classroom activities preschool handbook (2008). It is also important to consider the context within which specific materials will be used. Before selecting specific materials to teach evolution and the

nature of science, it is important to identify criteria that can help evaluate school science programs and the design of IM.

IM, motivation and Participation in science classroom

According to Sasson (2009), motivation is a term that refers to a process that elicits, controls, and sustains certain behaviors. Motivation is a group of phenomena which affect the nature of an individual's behavior, the strength of the behavior, and the persistence of the behavior. Motivation enables learners to willingly participate using IM in science lessons. According to Groodland (2001), in the USA pre-schools classrooms are normally divided into smaller sections called centres. There are basic seven Centres namely Art, Blocks, Dramatic play, Science, Library, Manipulative and Music Tina Teacher (2008). Some areas like for dramatic play and blocks require larger space while areas such as manipulative and library require a quieter atmosphere for learning.

The teachers ensure that the children can move from one activity to another without interfering with the other children's activities. According to Cobin (2001), in the U K, it has been realized that a carefully planned group 18 arrangement is an effective way to prevent behaviour problems before they occur.

Assigned group helps teachers assert their authority by enabling the teacher to separate rowdy children or pair up children who could help one another in group activities. Motivation is also defined as the force that activates, energises and sustains a specific goal-oriented behaviour Deci (2002). All behaviour of an organism is motivated (cause-effect), whether this motivation is known (conscious) or unknown (unconscious) to the organism Kinuthia (2009). It may also be attributed to less-apparent reasons such as altruism, selfishness, morality, or avoiding mortality (Alex 2008). According to Margaret (2010, motivation is important in participation as learners who are motivated participate more effectively. It will direct and regulate behaviour for example motivated learners work hard and focus their in achiev-

NOTES

ing their goals. Motivation energizes and sustains behaviour.

According to William (2001), instinct is derived from our biological make-up. All learners are born with specific innate knowledge about how to learn and use IM in participation in science lesson. These innate tendencies are preprogrammed at birth, they are in our genes, and even if the spider never saw a web before, never witnessed its creation, it would still know how to create one. Humans have the same types of innate tendencies. We are also born with particular reflexes which promote learning and participation in science classroom Michael (2011).

An incentive is an external reward which is tangible or intangible which is presented after the occurrence of an action with the intent to cause the behavior to occur again Deci's (2002). This is done by associating positive results to the behavior. For example learners are presented with sweets at the end of the participation using IM in science classroom in ECE centre which acts as an incentive for them to continue participating willingly. Gavrav Akram (2010)'s studies show that if the learner receives the reward immediately, the effect would be greater, and decreases as the duration lengthens. Repetitive action-reward combination can cause the action to become habit Esther (2009).

The Drive Reduction grows out of the concept that we have certain biological drives, such as hunger that when not satisfied create a biological imbalance in the body Dewey (2007). As time passes the strength of the drive increases if it is not satisfied (in this case by participating). Upon satisfying the drive the drive's strength is then reduced. For instance when preparing IM to be used in participation in science classroom in ECE, the drive model appears to becompatible prepared. Thus specific behavior is activated in an individual with the goal of reducing these drives.

According to Kendra (2000), arousal states that we are driven to maintain a certain level of arousal in order to feel comfortable. Arousal refers to a state of emotional, intellectual, and physical activity. It is at a balanced or optimal level 20 of arousal

that people function best. If the levels of arousal are too low people strive to raise them by increasing the number of activities and vice versa. This theory is based on the idea that every learner performs better at different levels of arousal and each seeks out this optimum level. This optimum level of arousal is comfortable for learners on all emotional, intellectual and physical levels.

Learners are motivated to maintain their optimal levels of arousal in order to be comfortable in participation using IM in science classroom in ECE centre John (2001). Cognitive dissonance is feeling of discomfort when simultaneously holding two or more conflicting cognitions, ideas, beliefs, values or emotional reactions Esther (2009). Learners have a motivational drive to reduce dissonance by altering existing cognitions, adding new ones to create a consistent belief system or alternatively by reducing the importance of any one of the dissonant elements Margaret 2001. It is distressing mental state that learners feel when they find themselves using IM that do not fit with what they know or having opinions that do not fit with other opinions they hold William (2001).

According Festinger (2000) learners engage in a process he termed dissonance reduction which can be achieved in one of three ways, lowering the importance of one of the discordant factors, adding consonant elements or changing one of the dissonant factors. Dissonance is aroused when learners are confronted with information that is inconsistent with their ability. If dissonance is not reduced by changing one's belief, the dissonance can result in restoring consonance through misperception, rejection or refutation of the information, seeking support from21 others who share the beliefs and attempting to persuade others Clark (2008). For instance when learners are told they could freely participate in science classroom with whatever IM they wanted, the ones in the mild punishment condition are less likely to be used even though the threat had been removed. According to Jack (2001), learners who are only mildly threatened had to justify to themselves why they did not participate with the IM.

The degree of punishment by itself is not strong enough, so the learners have to convince themselves the IM is not worth using it in participation in order to resolve their dissonance. Dissonance is aroused whenever learners voluntarily engage in an unpleasant activity to achieve some desired goal. It can be reduced by exaggerating the desirability of the goal. Suggested by Leon Festinger (2001), dissonance occurs when an individual experiences some degree of discomfort resulting from an incompatibility between two cognitions. For example, a consumer may seek to reassure himself regarding a purchase, feeling, in retrospect, that another decision may have been preferable. Another example of cognitive dissonance is when a belief and behaviour are in conflict. A person may wish to be healthy, believes smoking is bad for one's health, and yet continues to smoke. A person may also believe that an extra marital is immoral though he/she is in one for certain benefits Carsmith (2004). This creates a dissonance or disharmony in the person which can only be reduced if the individual changes their way of looking at things or avoids the behavior that is contradicting the belief system. According to Jane (2010) an individual's accruing behaviour is aimed at dissonance reduction. Maslow proposed that learners have different needs which can be arranged in order of priority he called it a hierarchy of needs. Maslow's hierarchy of needs is often portrayed in the shape of a pyramid, with the largest and most fundamental levels of needs at the bottom, and the need for self-actualization at the top. he most fundamental and basic four layers of the pyramid contain what Maslow called "deficiency needs" or "Dneeds": esteem, friendship and love, security, and physical needs. With the exception of the most fundamental (physiological) needs, if these "deficiency needs" are not met, the body gives no physical indication but the individual feels anxious and tense. Maslow's theory suggests that the most basic level of needs must be met before the individual will strongly desire (or focus motivation upon) the secondary or higher level needs. Maslow also coined the term Metamotivation to describe the motivation of people Metamotivated people are driven by B-needs (Being Needs), instead of deficiency needs (DNeeds).

Physiological needs, use of IM and LP in SC

This need may be found in the science classroom, teacher needs to ensure that all the needs are satisfied so that participation can take place. IM can be arranged in a way that they are friendly to the learners. For the most part, physiological needs are obvious — they are the literal requirements for human survival. If these requirements are notmet, the human body simply cannot continue to function. Air, water, and food are metabolic requirements for survival in all animals, including humans. Clothing and shelter provide necessary protection from the elements.

Safety/ Security needs, use of IM and LPSC

The concern is learner to be free from fear and anxiety while using IM in participation in science classroom. The kind of language the teacher uses is very important because it can make a child fear the teacher and they prefer to keep quiet. The teacher must use good language and should be an encourager. Teachers should be sensitive to the learners mothering or fathering qualities are very important so that the learners can be able to tell the teacher everything for example if they have problems in handling IM while participating in science classroom. Generally develop good-teacher relationship based on mutual respect.Making sure that there is a cup-board in classroom to secure their things. With their physical needs relatively satisfied, the learner's safety needs take precedence and dominate behaviour.

These needs have to do with people's yearning for a predictable orderly world in which perceived unfairness and inconsistency are under control, the familiar frequent and the unfamiliar rare. In the world of work, these safeties needs manifest themselves in such things as a preference for job security, grievance procedures for protecting the individual from unilateral authority, savings 24 accounts, insurance policies, reasonable disability accommodations, and the like. Safety and Security needs include: Personal security;Financial security; Health and well-being; Safety net against accidents/illness and their adverse impacts Deci's (2002).

Love and belonging, use of IM and PSC

After physiological and safety needs are fulfilled, the third layers of human needs are social and involve feelings of belongingness. This aspect of Maslow's hierarchy involves emotionally based relationships in general, such as: Friendship, Intimacy and Family. In participation, learners need to have a sense of belonging in some of the activities for example sharing the available IM. In the class, teacher can encourage groups while participating he also need to learn the pupils' names. Humans need to feel a sense of belonging and acceptance, whether it comes from a large social group, such as clubs, office culture, religious groups, professional organizations, sports teams, gangs, or small social connections (family members, intimate partners, mentors, close colleagues, confidants) Edward (2009). They need to love and be loved (sexually and non-sexually) by others. In the absence of these elements, many people become susceptible to loneliness, social anxiety, and clinical depression. This need for belonging can often overcome the physiological and security needs, depending on the strength of the peer pressure; an anorexic, for example, may ignore the need to eat and the security of health for a feeling of control and belonging Deci's (2002).

Instructional Materials, Esteem needs and participation in science classroom

This is the desire for self respect and recognition for particular talents and qualities. Also known as the belonging need, esteem presents the normal human desire to be accepted and valued by others. Teachers should recognize learners talents and abilities for example a good leaner in participation should be given a present and most improve can be given a certificate. Teachers can build in learners self confidence by using encouraging remarks. Learners need to engage themselves to gain recognition and have an activity or activities that give the person a sense of contribution, to feel accepted and selfvalued, be it in a profession or hobby. Imbalances at this level can result in low self-esteem or an inferiority complex.

People with low self-esteem need respect from others. They may seek fame or glory, which again depends on others. Note, however, that many people with low self-esteem will not be able to improve their view of themselves simply by receiving fame, respect, and glory externally, but must first accept themselves internally. Psychological imbalances such as depression can also prevent one from obtaining self-esteem on both levels. Most people have a need for a stable self-respect and self-esteem. Maslow noted two versions of esteem needs, a lower one and a higher one. The lower one is the need for the respect of others, the need for status, recognition, fame, prestige, and attention. The higher one is the need for self-respect, the need for strength, competence, mastery, self-confidence, independence and freedom. The latter one ranks higher because it rests more on inner competences won through experience. Deprivation of these needs can lead to an inferiority complex, weakness and helplessness.

Instructional Materials, Self-actualization, and participation in science class

This is the motive to become all that a learner is able to be. Being given the opportunity to be the best learner in participation in science classroom one can be. A teacher can encourage the learner to be the best that a child is able to do, bring out the best from a child giving them self actualized activities that are pleasurable and can lead to self directed learning. The teacher should be a good role model in that regard by ensuring that learners are being helped to reach the self-actualized level. "What a man can be, he must be." This forms the basis of the perceived need for self-actualization. This level of need pertains to what a person's full potential is and realizing that potential. Maslow describes this desire as the desire to become more and more what one is, to become everything that one is capable of becoming. This is a broad definition of the need for self-actualization, but when applied to individuals the need is specific. For example one individual may have the strong desire to become an ideal parent, in another it may be expressed athletically, and

in another it may be expressed in painting, pictures, or inventions. As mentioned before, in order to reach a clear understanding of this level of need one must first not only achieve the previous needs, physiological, safety, love, and esteem, but master these needs.

Instructional materials, intrinsic motivation and participation in science class room

Intrinsic motivation comes from inside of the learner Esther (2009). Intrinsic motivation entails doing something for internal satisfaction as opposed to external reward Fritz Heider's (2009). According to Ryan (2002), research has established that intrinsic motivation is usually associated with high educational achievement and enjoyment by learners and teachers while using IM in participation in science classroom. Learners are likely to be intrinsically motivated if they attribute their participation results to internal factors that they can control (for example theamount of effort they put in), believe they can be effective agents in reaching desired goals in participation in science classroom in ECE centre and are interested in mastering a topic rather than just rote-learning to achieve good grades Bandura's (2010). Teachers who enjoy their work are also likely to record a higher output compared to their counterparts who are only working for the external reward like money or fear of losing the job.

Instructional materials, extrinsic motivation and participation in science classroom

According to Deci's (2002), extrinsic motivation comes from outside of the learners. Here, learners perform a task for external reward. Money is the most obvious example of an extrinsic motivator, though coercion and threat of punishment are also common extrinsic motivations. Cheers, verbal praise, tours, parties and trophies also motivate the learner, to do well in participation in science classroom in ECE centre hence they are extrinsic incentives. For example, while experiencing air in water using straws, the teacher can give sweets and biscuits to those who participated well. Competition is in general extrinsic because it

encourages the learner to win not to enjoy the intrinsic rewards of the activity. Social psychological research has indicated that extrinsic rewards can lead to over justification and a subsequent reduction in intrinsic motivation Jacob (2010). In one study demonstrating this effect, learner who expected to be (and were) rewarded with a ribbon and a gold star for drawing pictures spent less time playing with the drawing materials in subsequent observations than children who were assigned to an unexpected reward condition and to children who received no extrinsic reward Bernard (2012). According to Edward (2011), intrinsic motivation is associated with higher performance. Motivation is of particular interest to educational psychologists because of the crucial role it plays in learners teaching Esther (2009). Motivation in education can have several effects on how learners learn and how they behave towards participation in science classroom. It can: direct behavior toward particular goals, lead to increased effort and energy, increase initiation of, and persistence in activities, enhance cognitive processing, determine what consequences are reinforcing and lead to improved performance in participation in science classroom.

Instructional materials, time management and participation in science classroom

Proper time management leads to effective learning in class Robin (2010). Sasson (2007) points out that time management techniques and strategies have implication for using IM. Time management techniques have great implications for participation in pre-schools and if implemented well, can go a long way to optimizing time spent on instruction. Time management is the thread running through almost all aspect of teaching, organizing the day, organizing the time to be spent by learners while using a certain type of materials, deciding how long and how often to use various IM, recording learners' progress or keeping time consuming behaviour problems to a minimum.

Effective use of school time begins with efficient classroom organization and management. In the United States, teachers have made time management an integral part of those classroom procedures which

they highly value. In the United Kingdom, teachers plan to set aside one hour daily for marking (grading), recording and filing their papers. They try to safeguard that one hour and keep it uninterrupted as much as possible. The teachers plan a regular work schedule and stick to it. Learners who otherwise waste time in class talking or fooling around may lose valuable hours that would be better spent on participation Robin (2010). Because most schools have less than eight hours a day in which learners are to learn, it is important that learners socialize only at recess or before and after school. Performing multiple tasks is another benefit of practicing time 30 management. When a teacher is able to structure his/her classroom to make optimal use of their time, they are able to use the extra minutes to help learners who have special needs. IM of different type used at different activities which influence the overall performance in participation of science classroom. The IM include strings, containers, kites and blackboard among others Pre-school handbook (2008).

Instructional materials, management of records and participation in science classroom

Accurate education records do not happen by accident. The teacher must use right materials and set up a system that would be easy to follow and track grades as well as the many paper records that must be kept in a file Suzzanne (2009). Records such as progress records kept on a regular basis enable the teachers to fully understand their learners and keep track of developmental milestones and other important events Karen (2009). This is crucial when there is concern about a child's development in participation. Proper record keeping would require a measure of performance in participation in a science classroom.

In United States of America, the type of record kept is the one in which a teacher records a child's actions, behaviour, verbalizations, learning style or process for a period of time. This documentation is strictly objective and leaves out the teacher's judgment about the child's intentions or motivations. The records show day to day development of the child as well as specific

issues as they relate to each individual child. Some of these issues include specific behaviours especially those that are a cause of concern. In Kenya, there are some records which aremaintained in pre-schools centres to show what goes on in school Joseph (2006).

They include the school logbook, teachers' records of work, and visitors' book among others. A logbook is a daily record of the significant happenings which take place when the school is in session during the school year. In the United Kingdom the teachers assign specific days to observe the same children on the same days each week Karen (2009). To observe the children across a variety of times, activities and settings. The date and time of observation are put on notes after which the teacher transfers the notes to the children's permanent records in as timely a manner as possible. Once recorded, these notes become a part of children records and are used hand in hand with the use of IM in guiding the teacher on how to handle a certain child while participation in science classroom.

A teachers' record of work reminds the teacher of what he has covered in class to avoid asking learners where he had left. The record helps in coordinating teaching and monitoring the progress made by the teacher Karen (2009). The visitors' book is maintained in pre-schools centres and is usually presented to distinguished official visitors who usually write their names, addresses and anything of interest to them about the school. Its usefulness is in providing a permanent and useful record of interest taken in the school by outsiders. The punishment book controls the nature of punishment meted out to the children and this prevents teacher from administering excessive punishment. It protects teachers from unwarranted criticism by parents or gives tangible evidence where a teacher is used by a parent for punishing a pupil. It also helps to check misbehavior by learners.

Guidelines, requirement for the use of instructional materials and participation

Utilization judges the value of instructional materials, process or personnel by the degree they singly or collectively satisfy the

derived instructional needs. The foresight instructional behavior controls, to a large extent, the means for achieving them. IM are not ends in themselves but means of attaining specific instructional functions. Teachers ability to effectively utilize the available IM and this optimize the attainments of instructional situation varies with their level of utilization.

However, once materials have been selected, careful preparation comes first by the user and other subsequent preparation. Anyanwu (2003) identify three ways by which the teacher should prepare for the use of IM, these are: By previewing before they brought to the class, the teacher has to have a first knowledge by using it before the class, teacher should have a full knowledge of the parts, names, operational level of the intended instructional materials and actual presentation. This is the period the teacher operates and uses these materials in instructing the learners. The following however, are the basic guidelines and requirement for utilization and use of instructional materials in effective instructional delivery:

Specification-of objectives: clear objectives which are behaviorally stated are user ring guides in IM using process, they direct the sequence, methods, content and techniques of instructional processes. They provide scientific basis of valid evaluation instruments construction and administration. Maximal fit with instructional tasks: Teaching aids must be appropriate to situationally determined and individually responsive Preparation and preview For effective and successful use of teaching for proper teachinglearning situation, the teacher must in advance prepare himself, the learners and the environment, the materials as a matter of must should be previewed by the teacher in order to follow its process of presentation sequentially.

Multi-dimensional presentation: Proper and creative use of a variety of instructional materials or teaching aids at different level of lesson planning can be adequate in achieving various instructional objectives, reason because it will enrich variety of learners mind as they attain better goals more easily than with the use of a single medium Environmental situation: The environmental variables such as physical cultural and social in which the

teaching aids are utilized for learning have significant effect on their effectiveness. Sound-motion films for instance with their attention complexly properties can be successfully presented in less quiet environment. Measure for outcomes teaching aids should be evaluated in terms of their suitability, practicability to the instructional objectives, appeal to the cost effectiveness, learner achievement level, consistency with content call for improvement in utilization techniques.

Principles, Requirement for the selection of instructional materials and participation

The preceding discussion had shown that there are many teaching aids from various sources. It is therefore very important, of professional teachers to note and bear in mind that every instructional materials has its definite unique strength in teaching-learning situation that properly cannot be replicated by the use mother. It is necessary to note that through effective communication, better teaching and faster learning can only be facilitated or guaranteed by careful selection and skillful utilization of appropriate instructional materials by the users. However, availability of the instructional materials, teacher's experience, terms of preference and the volume of instructions should constitute intrinsic consideration in their selection decision. Despite of that fact, the following principles should guide an effective teacher in the selection of instructional materials: Instructional tasks; The behavioral objectives, contents, learning activities, evaluation instruments and techniques as element of instructional tasks, should be taken into consideration by an effective teacher in the selection and development of instructional materials. Target audience attributes; These consists the learners' features and their level of understanding, their developmental stages such as age, sex, physical skills, attitude towards self and others, the learners experiences, social-economic background should be considered. The economy; The available resources, financial factors technological advancement, economic climate of society where the materials should be operated, the socio-cultural level of the materials users, degree of urbanization, feasibility and acceptability of the selected instructional materials are equally considered in the selection and develop-

ment decision. Dynamic variables; These variables constitute the concentration and size of the target audience, the desired level of learners response and participation, the classroom social climate, sitting, viewing and listening arrangement, available time, space, teacher competence among others are to be seriously considered in the selection decision and development. The environmental factors; These consists the educational community and the available educational infrastructure. Such as people, facilities, equipped library, workshops, laboratories, electricity, water supply and personnelshould equally be considered in the selection and development.Bozimo (2002) posited the following criteria in the selection of instructionalmaterials:

Appropriateness of the materials to instructional objectives; freedom ofthe content from bias, degree of the quality variety of the materials, quality of theformat, print, sound or photography, availability of the materials to clarifyobjectives of and how to operate the materials, how reasonable the time, effortand expenses are for both the learners and the teachers

Problem solving, use of IM and PSC

Prevention is better than cure and therefore all stakeholders and concerned population in the study area are supposed to learn on problem solving which is a mental process and is part of the larger problem process that includes problem finding and problem shaping John (2010). Problem solving is considered the most complex of all intellectual functions. It has been defined as higher-order cognitive process that requires the modulation and control of more routine or fundamental skills Esther (2009). Problem solving occurs when an organism or an artificial intelligence system needs to move from a given state to a desired goal state. In science classroom teacher can improvise the materials which are not adequate in order to achieve the goal Kiragu (2011).

One of the most exciting aspects of life is the array of choices that we have on a daily basis. Some of our decisions are simple, like deciding what to eat for dinner or which IM to use for during participation in science classroom in ECE centre. However, some choices are challenging and take careful thought and

consideration Edward (2010). When we are confronted with these types of decisions, it can be very difficult to decide on the best IM, and we may be plagued by indecision. We may be forced to choose between two equally good options, or perhaps, we may have to pick between two choices that both have drawbacks. We may waver back and forth between different alternatives and may feel paralyzed to make the decision.

This is a very normal reaction to tough choices in our lives, and we all, at times, experience a sense of being unable to decide on some option. According to Jane (2008) a technique that many learner have found useful when they are trying to make a difficult decision or solve a problem that seems unsolvable. This procedure involves a series of steps that you can go through on your own when you are confronted with a decision or problem that needs to be solved. This approach may help with many of the problems you are confronted with in your life though not all.

According to Gladys (2008), problem orientation is the first step in finding for a solution. This step involves recognizing that a problem exists and that solving the difficulty is a worthwhile endeavor. For example learner's weakness while handling IM during participation in science classroom, should be detected before it is too late. It is important that you approach the decision-making process with a positive attitude and view the situation as an opportunity or challenge Esther (2009). You should try to approach the situation with confidence and with a willingness to devote some time and effort to finding an appropriate solution to your problem. Remember, you are a competent person, and the problem you are facing can likely be solved with a little hard work for example lack of enough IM in some ECE centre in the study area can be solved by improvising Preschool handbook (2008).

Problem definition is the second step Gladys (2008). Before you start to tackle the current problem, it is important to clearly understand the difficulty and why you are unhappy with the current situation. This may seem obvious, but it is important that you really think about and gather information about the problem, and make sure that the problem you are trying to solve is

the "real" problem Esther (2009). That is, sometimes people find a different problem than the one that is really distressing them, and focus on this one, since it is easier than dealing with the real problem. This step really involves your thinking about the difficulty you are having, understanding the problem, and contemplating why the situation is distressing. Some people think of problems as a discrepancy between what they want and what the current situation is like. It is useful during this stage to think about how the current situation is different from how you would like it to be, and what your goals are for the state of affairs Anthony (2009). If you are currently facing many difficult decisions, it may be helpful to prioritize those problems and deal with them one at a time.

Examination useful Question :

Long Type Question :

1. What is global perspective use in IM on LPSc in ECE?

2. Differentiate between availability and self-esteem IM participates in the science classroom.

3. Why is it necessary use of IM and LP an SC of physic logical?

4. Discuss the instructional materials necessary esteem needs in participation in science?

5. Discuss the principles requirement for selection of instructed material and participation.

Short Type Question :

1. Why is safety necessary in use of IM and LPSC? Explain.

2. What do you mean by love-belonging in IM and PSC?

3. Write short note the following:

    (i) Motivational participant in science classroom.

    (ii) Guide lines requirement of instructional materials.

    (iii) Instructional time management of records.

4.2 The use of Instructional Aids and Effective Teaching of English

Study material included in this unit -

- Introduction
- Multimedia in Education
- Defining of Teaching Aids
- Classification of Teaching Aids
- Projected Aids
- Filmstrips
- Slide Projector
- Overhead Projector
- Opaque Projector
- Non-Projected Aids
- Graphic Aids
- Photographs & Pictures
- Flash Cards
- Charts
- Diagram
- Globes & Maps
- Graphs
- Cartoons & Comics
- Posters
- Display Boards
- Audio and Visual Aids
- Dramatization
- Radio and Television
- Procedure of the study
- Major Findings of the Study
- Data Analysis and Discussion of Findings
- Examination useful Question

Objectives

After study this chapter you will understand the following facts.

- Multimedia in Education
- Defining of Teaching Aids
- Classification of Teaching Aids
- Projected Aids
- Filmstrips
- Slide Projector
- Overhead Projector
- Opaque Projector
- Non-Projected Aids
- Graphic Aids
- Photographs & Pictures
- Flash Cards
- Charts
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Introduction

The use of multimedia in industries has been extensive, as it has been effective in increasing productivity and retention rates, where research has shown that people remember 20% of what they see, 40% of what they see and hear, but about 75% of what they see and hear and do simultaneously (Lindstrom, 1994). Multimedia is now permeating the educational system as a tool for effective teaching and learning. With multimedia, the communication of information can be done in a more effective manner and it can be an effective instructional medium for delivering information.

Multimedia access to knowledge is one of the possibilities of information and communication technology that has tremendous impact on learning. The instructional media have emerged in a variety of resources, and equipment, which can be used to supplement or complement the teachers' efforts in ensuring effective learning by students.

It is recognized that conventional media technologies can no longer meet the needs of our teaching and learning processes; as a result they are being replaced by multimedia technology. This technology provides a learning environment that is self-paced, learnercontrolled and individualized.

Multimedia is defined as the combination of various digital media types such as text, images, sound and video, into an integrated multi-sensory interactive application or presentation to convey a message or information to an audience. In other words, multimedia means "an individual or a small group using a computer to interact with information that is represented in several media, by repeatedly selecting what to see and hear next" (Agnew, Kellerman and Meyer, 1996). Reisman (1994) described multimedia as a ray of "computer-driven interactive communication system, which create, store, transmit and retrieve, textual, graphic and auditory networks of information.

Multimedia could be interpreted as a combination of data carriers, for example video, CD-ROM, floppy disks, Internet and

software in which the possibility for an interactive approach is offered (Smeets, 1996; Jager and Lokman, 1996).

Fetterman (1997) also viewed multimedia as those resources used for instruction that include one or more media such as graphics, video, animation, image and sound in addition to textual information. He identified four important characteristics of multimedia as:

- Multimedia systems are computer controlled
- Multimedia systems are integrated
- The information content must be represented digitally
- The interface to the final presentation of media.

The power of multimedia lies in the fact that it is multi-sensory, stimulating the many senses of the audience. It is also interactive, enabling the end users of the application to control the content and flow of information. This has introduced important changes in the educational system and impact the way we communicate information to the learners (Neo and Neo, 2000).

Ogunbote and Adesoye (2006) expressed that multimedia technology adds new dimension to learning experiences because concepts were easier to present and comprehend when the words are complemented with images and animations. Stating further that it has been established that learners retain more when a variety of senses are engaged in impacting knowledge; and the intensity of the experience aids retention and recall by engaging social, emotional and intellectual senses.

The evolution of multimedia has made it very possible for learners to become more involved in their work. With multimedia technologies, they can create multimedia applications as part of their project requirements. This would make them active participant in their own learning process, instead of just being passive learners of the educational content.

Reinsman (1994) expressed that multimedia involves processing, storage, generation, manipulation and retention of multime-

dia system, and the resources could include text files, pictures, video, audio, databases, archives, library catalogs, course notes, relevant links to various websites and easy access to search engines available on the Internet (Shuell and Ferber, 2001). A study by Ubogu (2006) supports the view that multimedia resources facilitate access to all human knowledge, anytime, and anywhere in a friendly, multi-modal, efficient and effective way, by overcoming barriers of distance, language and culture, and by using multiple Internet-connect devices.

It is important to say that the use of multimedia technology has great significance in colleges, universities and research institutions in the Western countries. In these countries, the technology is being seen as a key player to development in all ramifications and essential component of education.

However, Babajide (2003) identified different types of multimedia communication, some of which include computer hardwares, computer softwares, public address systems, slides, overhead projectors, opaque projectors, videos, cassettes, audiotapes, cassette recorders, flip, time sequence, streamcharts, Diorama still motion pictures among others.

MULTIMEDIA IN EDUCATION

Multimedia in Education has been extremely effective in teaching individuals a wide range of subjects. Multimedia is changing the way we communicate with each other. The way we send and receive messages is more effectively done and better comprehended. While a lecture can be extremely informative, a lecture that integrates pictures or video images can help an individual learn and retain information much more effectively. Using interactive CD-ROMs can be extremely effective in teaching students a wide variety of disciplines, most notably languages and music.

A multi-sensory experience can be created for the audience, which in turn, elicits positive attitudes towards its application (Neo and Neo, 2001). Multimedia has also been shown to elicit

the highest rate of information retention and result in shorter learning time (Ng and Komiya, 2000). On the part of the creator, designing a multimedia application that is interactive and multi-sensory can be both a challenge and thrill. Multimedia application design offers new insights into the learning process of the designer and forces him or her to represent information and knowledge in a new and innovative way (Agnew et al, 1996).

However, information technology application serves different purposes, such as knowledge sharingportal, search engines, public administration, social service and business solution. Oshodi (1999) posits that awareness created towards the use of information and communication technology over the years is increasing in the classroom learning environment in the third world such that mere verbalization of words alone in the classroom to communicate ideas, skills and attitude to educate learner is futile.

Omagbemi (2004) supporting this view expressed that access to multimedia information could stimulate changes and creates conductive learning environment and make learning more meaningful and responsive to the localized and specific needs of learners. There is certainly no lack of vision within educational communities concerning the central role and importance of ICT in the educational contexts of the future (Wood, 1993). That vision is shared by many and is accompanied by an acknowledgement that in order to realize this vision, three factors – access, training and targets must be provided (DFE, 1995; Simpson, Payne, Munro and Hughes, 1999). However, Hoffman (2001) suggested that successful implementation of ICTs need to address five interlocking frameworks for change namely the infrastructure, attitude, staff development, support (technical and administrative) and also sustainability and transferability. The many kind of ICTs implemented at teaching and learning can be used in education for different purpose. For instance, some of them help students with their learning by improving the communication between them and the instructors (Valasidou, Sidiropoulos, Hatzis and Bousiou- Makridou, 2005).

In a study conducted by Simpson et al (1999) it was found that 64% of the teacher educator used ICT in the production of traditional resources of overhead transparencies and hand outs using standard word processing package; 27% indicated that they made use of and had experience with more powerful communication and presentation software; 32% incorporated the use of any ICT software into the lectures and only 24% made use of CDi resource materials. The study also revealed that in the tutors' delivery of the courses, the students seldom experienced demonstrations of the use of ICT as a teaching tool, that is, the tutors seldom modelled its use through their own practices. However, these tutors gave lack of time to practice skills and the limited accessibility of some specialized facilities as constraint factors on their use of ICTs in teaching.

Defining of Teaching Aids

In educational literature more than few terms can be used, alternatively, for audio-visual aid i.e. educational technology, audio-video media, and instructional technology, learning resources, audiovideo equipments, communication technology and educational media (Selvi, 2007) Basically all these terminologies lead to the same edge i.e. teaching aids that are widely used by teachers, guide, facilitators and tutors to complement their words that ultimately helps learner to improve learning and to stay focused, clear and curious always. In early years the only term used for teaching aids was audiovisual aids but with the advancement and opening of new horizons in the field of electronic technology and communication media, new and improved equipments and aids for teaching and learning was developed, instead of mere teaching aids improved terms were used i.e. educational or instructional technology etc. Educational technology refers to the use of any technology in classroom which helps in increasing the pace of learning and results in helping teacher to teach less and learner to learn more (Singh, Sharma, Upadhya, 2008). Audio-visual aids are good means of communicating with people and students. Audio-visual aids facilitate and assist the Regular and traditional teaching session. They help in maintaining and

retaining student's interest almost till the very end of the classroom session. The use of audio-visual aids in classroom or other training sessions improves the performance of the students. When a teacher gives maximum exposure along with different.

Perspectives; using variety of audio-visual aids for particular concept maximum students receive success in comprehending such lecture. Audio-visual aids are tool or mechanics used to facilitate the learning experience of the individual and to make it more realistic and dynamic (Kinder, 1959).

Classification of Teaching Aids

Using audio-visual aids and other technologies developed in this modern scientific era for the purpose of achieving concrete education proves beneficial for teacher and student and educational system as whole. It brings diversification in methods of instruction. They are equally useful at all levels of education. Appropriate use of audio-visual aids in teaching of English, Geography, History, Science, Languages, Art, Agriculture and many other technical and vocational subjects is increasing day by day. Prasad (2005) contend that audio-visual aids and their use are not only limited to educational purposes rather if we go back in history we find Martin Luther suggesting to use empty walls for the promotion of Protestant movement. Infect this idea leads to the invention of writing board or black board which is used today in almost every school world wide. Some other social objectives are also achieved through the use of audio-visual aids i.e. in an awareness campaign about Human Immunodeficiency Virus (HIV) audiovisual aids are used.

While studying the broad umbrella term of audio-visual aids, one can easily came across different types of audio-visual equipments ranging from simple hand-made charts to highly sophisticated projectors. The classification of audio-visual aids is presented graphically as under: In the broadest sense audio visual aids can be categorized fewer than two heads i.e.

1. Projected Aids

2. Non-Projected Aids

Audio-visual material contributes valuable experiences for teachers and students. Almost every form of instruction is based on verbalism, but the use of audio-visual aids minimizes the verbalism and facilitates students to concentrate and motivate Them towards abstract thinking and imagination to better understand the concept.

Audio-visual material contributes valuable experiences for teachers and students. Almost every form of instruction is based on verbalism, but the use of audio-visual aids minimizes the verbalism and facilitates students to concentrate and motivate. Them towards abstract thinking and imagination to better understand the concept.

■ Projected Aids

According to Sampath, Pannneerselvam and Santhan (1998) projected aids involves an enlarge image of the material or text projected on a screen which is at a distance from the projector. While using projected aids (film strips, slide projector, overhead projection, opaque projection) the room is either totally dark or may be partially dark. The bright colors and images on the screen catch the attention; sound and motion will make presentation more dynamic as compared to non-projected aids. Projected aids are equally effective for every age group as well as small or large group. Equipments used for projection requires eclectic power. A clean white wall can be effectively used for front projection. Projected aids include:

■ Filmstrips

Filmstrips are connected series of pictures, drawings, photographs and diagrams joined together to illustrate a single concept, story or a lesson. According to Holmes (1968) the filmstrips differ from moving films as there is no appearance of movement.

■ **Slide Projector**

According to Sampath, Pannneerselvam and Santhan (1998) slides are commonly used instructional device to complement verbalism. They involve projection through the passing of strong light on transparent slide. Slide projector is a light house with a hauler for holding the slides. Slides projector proves valuable where motion in pictures is given less importance for comprehension. Slides require little more space for storage then filmstrips (Holmes, 1968).

■ **Overhead Projector**

Overhead projector is used to present large size transparencies with normal daylight condition (Botham 1967). The way slides require total or partial darkness; overhead projector does not require blackout. Students can take notes in the normal mode as they do when working without overhead projector. The teacher or facilitator is completely facing the students; whereas the projected image or text is behind and over her/his head (Sampath, Pannneerselvam and Santhan, 1998). According to Brown, lewis and Harcleroad (1977) the speaker has full control over the timing and choice of why, when, what and how of presentation when using overhead projector.

■ **Opaque Projector**

Slide and filmstrip projectors and overhead projector can only be operational for projecting transparent material but opaque projector can be effectively used to project opaque material i.e. book or magazine any drawing or pictures on a solid paper etc (Mangal S, 2008). The projection made by opaque projector depends upon the distance at which the projector is from the screen. An important feature of opaque projector is that text, maps, diagrams and other materials available in books or magazines can appropriately be projected without removing them from their original source.

Non-Projected Aids

Most commonly used teaching aids which do not employ the use of projectors to project enlarged images of objects or text are grouped under non-projected teaching aids. They are inexpensive to use and are relatively less sophisticated as compared to projected aids. Non-projected aids are further subdivided into five heads i.e. graphic aids, display boards, 3-d aids, activity aids and audio-visual aids (Sampath, Pannneerselvam and Santhan, 1998).

Graphic Aids

Graphic aids are commonly used to describe ideas and concept with little or no verbalism. Like other teaching aids graphic aids helps student to better understand and retain the information. Some basic types of graphics aids are:

Photographs & Pictures

A picture or photograph gives an accurate concept or idea of any object or concept. Good photograph can effectively communicate the whole story without using a single word. Pictures and photographs can be colored as well as black & white. Colored pictures and photographs are relatively more eyecatching (Prasad, 2005).

Flash Cards

Prasad (2005) describes flashcards as potential medium of visual education. If a teacher is to introduce new words, using flashcards can meet the purpose. They commonly involve photographs and pictures to communicate a new idea or a word. They are widely used at toddlers¡¦ level and elementary schools. Flashcards are usually in a large number and they are flashed to the students¡¦ one by one while teacher verbally explains what is contains.

Charts

Charts are widely used visual/graphical aids to present concepts and ideas that are complicated and that cannot be

comprehended easily by just mere words no matter written or oral. Charts are mixture of different types of graphics i.e. pictures, diagrams, cartoons, graphs, written text or drawings. Teacher usually restricts one idea per chart and thus making concept clear without ambiguity (Brown, lewis and Harcleroad 1985).

- **Diagram**

Diagram is a simple and explanatory drawing showing inter-relation and explaining ideas and concepts by using lines, symbols and geometrical forms. Diagrams go beyond mere representation rather they are self-explanatory or self describing (Mangal, 2008).

- **Globes & Maps**

Use of maps and globes along with other audio-visual instructional material, will help students develop better understanding about the different continents and countries along with oceans and poles and the people living there. Globe is a mini Earth nothing more nothing less. It is widely used in understanding the concepts related to land and water and that the Earth is nearly round and is rotating on an inclined axis round the sun; which results in changing of day and night, seasons, food eaten and clothing worn across the world and many more are directly and indirectly affected (Kieffer & Cochran, 1955) Along with globes, maps can be introduced to make students well understand the globe as map is a flat representation or diagram of earth or some part of it as per scale (Prasad, 2005). An effective map includes pictorial symbols to depict specific area, desert, ocean, mountains etc.

- **Graphs**

Graphs are widely used to represent complex information and numerical data in a more simple, quick and effective way. The graphs are shown on two axis i.e. x and y. Rate of understanding and interpreting the graph is high as com-

pared to other aids. Basically line, bar, circle and pictorial graphs are used to represent the data (Prasad, 2005) (Sampath, Pannneerselvam and Santhan, 1998).

Cartoons & Comics

Cartoons are metaphorical presentation of an idea in the form of a picture or sketch (Prasad, 2005) (Sampath, Pannneerselvam and Santhan, 1998). It is an effective means to communicate news, situation, concept and people etc through pictorial representation. Mostly cartoons are thought provoking and they carry a particular hidden message along with them Comics are a kind of pictorial cartoon series presenting a story in an orderly manner. A modern illustrated story book is developed using comic book techniques. Thorndike finds that child who reads one Comic book every month will read and retain approximately twice as many words per year as the regular textbook contains (Wittich & Schuller, 1967)

Posters

Poster is a pictorial representation of an idea or concept in striking bold colors to attract the viewer. Posters are usually displayed out in open for the purpose of awareness in general public. Posters not only serve as a means to decor the class rather it stimulates interest in students to learn about different countries, art, historical places, science, industries and whatever the posters are about (Brown, Lewis, Harcleroad, 1985). Poster is likely to bring the learner to first two steps i.e. attention & interest and to go through them as well. Poster is not meant to educate rather stimulating interest and action immediately is the ultimate goal.

Symbols

According to Brown, lewis and Harcleroad (1985) symbols are a universal language. Through graphic symbols students can experience a wide range of learning. Walking down a dark alley; symbols on the poles by the side of the road

communicates specific idea. By studying those graphical symbols communication and understanding can be improved

■ **Display Boards**

For the purpose of displaying information display boards are widely used. In well-designed schools special areas are allotted for display boards/areas, partition walls between two classes serves as good source to display, ceilings are also utilized for planet, stars and moon projection. The school grounds can be designed so that they represent a learning laboratory i.e. botanical garden, soil plots, aquatic areas and geological paths etc. all these work much more than mere bulletin board and comes under the umbrella of display area (Sampath, Pannneerselvam and Santhan, 1998). Displays can be categorized into following types:

■ **Black/Chalk Board**

The most simplest, convenient and cheapest way to display information to a number of students is to use black/chalk board. It is considered as one of the oldest visual aid in teaching. The convenient surface of the black/chalk board facilitates the teacher to display the subject-matter visually and at the pace that suits students learning (Sampath, Pannneerselvam and Santhan, 1998).

■ **White/Marker Board**

White boards are large white sheets of plastic material with a clean clear surface to facilitate writing or drawing while using felt pens or erasable markers available in different colors.

■ **Flannel/Felt Board**

Flat panels of heavy cardboard, Masonite board or plywood are utilized and flannel cloth is stretched and glued over the surface to make a felt/flannel board. Graphic materials i.e. pictures, writing on a hard paper, photographs etc can be placed on flannel board by using sand papers pasted on their backs and they are called as flannel graphs (Mangal,

2008) (Sampath, Pannneerselvam and Santhan, 1998).

- **Bulletin Board**

As the name implies bulletin boards are commonly used to display news, circulars, results and admission announcements, bulletins and other varied items that catches students¡¦ interest. The board might be covered with soft insulation that allows pinning of photographs, charts or factual sheets etc. the boards may or may not be encased with glass shutters (Prasad, 2005).

- **Magnet Boards**

The magnet board makes use of iron or any other material that attract the magnet. Steel backed chalkboards can either be used as chalkboard as well as magnetic board or can be used in combination too. Small sized magnets can be pasted at the back of display cut-outs using fevicol or similar glue and then to be displayed on the magnetic board (Sampath, Pannneerselvam and Santhan, 1998).

- **Peg Board**

As name implies boards that have hooks or pegs attached and opaque and flat items can be hanged from are peg boards. The peg boards are usually attached to wall. They are mainly used for games and displaying information.

- **D Aids**

Models are imitations and replicas of any original object. These 3-D models can be reduced or enlarged in sizes as compared to original items. Models present simplified form of abstract and complex concepts. Different types of models used in teaching and learning session are discussed here under:

- **Models**

Three dimensional and recognizable miniature representation of real thing is model (Wittich & Schuller, 1967). Using models in teaching is very effective as they are shortcuts to

understand a complicated concept. Models may be complete in details but they are simple than the original objects.

■ **Objects**

Teacher can utilize real objects to supplement typical Teaching.

■ **Specimens**

Specimen can be a part, sample or small piece of the real object. Even a tiny piece of real object stimulates interest in students to learn more and more i.e. specimen of a leaf or birds feather can be very eye catching and stimulating.

■ **Mock-Ups**

A working and operating model that is designed to be used by students for particular training is a mockup. Infect it is a working replica of original. Models carry the recognizable attribute whereas mock-ups may or may not be recognizable with original. Mock-ups are chiefly used in giving training in complex and difficult skills.

■ **Dioramas**

A 3-D model that involves variety of other 3-D objects and figures in a natural environment are dioramas. Dioramas can be setup with the use of different materials i.e. plaster of Paris, dried plants and miniature cars etc to make the scene more realistic and natural. Diorama can be artificially lightened to highlight the finer details. Dioramas are effectively used at construction sites and industrial units. Dioramas are equally effective in education as the present information in a very realistic way and in natural settings. Concepts regarding zoo, underwater animals and jungle animals etc can be presented very easily through dioramas.

■ **Puppets**

According to Prasad (2005) puppets are powerful medium of mass communication. They provide dynamic experience

of education to the learners. Puppets have been used as an expression of art and source of communicating traditional stories and other information to people all over the world. Puppets prove to be valuable in the field of entertainment, education and social services.

■ **Activity Aids**

Activity aids provide real life experiences to students (Prasad, 2005). When students are to face difficulties in real life situations they learn different social skills i.e. cooperation, decision making, communication skills etc. taking part in competitions, field trips, exhibitions etc all comes under activity aids. Some basic activities are discussed below:

■ **Field Trips/Study Tours**

Further Prasad (2005) says that field trips provide opportunity to observe natural beauty, industries and their operations and many other places that are of interest to teacher and student. Children respond better about any theory they have learned when they see how it works in real world. Field trips and study tours should be arranged in advance and later they must be followed up by a discussion or report to retain information gathered.

■ **Demonstrations**

The activity where teacher shows how to perform a specific thing and students keep a keen eye on what is going before them is a demonstration. Later students made attempts to perform the same act as done by their teacher. Demonstration by teacher along with other aids makes a healthy recipe for effective auditory and visual learning of taught. Demonstration supplements the spoken words of the teachers (Sampath, Pannneerselvam and Santhan, 1998). The basic element of demonstration is to ensure that students well understand the whole procedure; therefore teacher must explain each and every step clearly.

Audio and Visual Aids

All those teaching aids through which information can be heard and seen simultaneously are audiovisual aids. Teaching aids that only utilizes one sense at a time; might be hearing or seeing is audio or visual aids. Results achieved by bringing together these two devices are very encouraging i.e. high level learning and high retention power as compared to when they are used separately. Some largely used audio & visual aids are discussed here under:

Dramatization

Demonstration has utility in improving retention power. It also helps in bringing out the hidden creativity of the students while developing their social skills. Infect dramatics enculturation the students (Prasad, 2005).

Radio and Television

Educational broadcast is an old concept developed during the period of 1960s and 1970s when a suggestion to broadcast school was welcomed. By broadcasting lessons thousands of learners can be educated (Thomas & Kobayashi, 1987). Through radio and television programmers education to any age group can be targeted. Further Thomas & Kobayashi (1987) advocates that broadcasted programmers specifically those on television can introduce preschoolers with alphabets and numbers; they can help build their vocabulary and introduce them with other fields of knowledge i.e. physical and natural sciences, moral values, social events, religion etc. Programmers or lessons on radio and television covering almost the whole school curriculum can equally be broadcasted in schools and to listeners and viewers of all ages in remote areas who are not in school (Thomas & Kobayashi, 1987).

■ **Cassette/ Record Player/ Tape-Recorder**

The use of record players, cassettes and tape recorder for educational purposes is highly encouraged especially in lan-

guage learning, poetry and literature. Dramatized plays from history and valuable knowledge of music can also be gain through these mediums/aids (Sampath, Pannneerselvam and Santhan, 1998).

Use of these audio aids for learning proves beneficial for blind and handicapped students. Tape-recorder is utilized to record sounds on a magnetic tape or cassette. This recording can be reused when ever required and if a new recording to be made; old recoding will be automatically erased.

- **Video**

When teacher supplements his teaching with some video films it refers to as video-aided teaching. Advantage of utilizing video cassette is observed when teachers has full control over Equipment and learning i.e. beginning, ending and reviewing of the film and the attached learning that occur by watching that particular film.

- **Multimedia**

The term multimedia is used for an electronic device that makes use of different elements i.e. audio, graphical, text, animation and visual.

It is an advanced shape of slide projector. It is commonly used to project movies, slides, animation, images etc along with complete sounds.

Use of multimedia helps in managing and administrating the classroom as well as the lesson. It increases the higher level thinking skills and makes comprehension easy and quick.

According to Fenrich (1997) as cited in Masnan (2005) multimedia is such a combination of computer hardware and software that allows one to join together videos, animations, audios, graphics, and test materials to develop an effective presentation on a desktop computer.

Data Analysis and Discussion of Findings

(i) The use of instructional media by the English teachers:

This aspect of study sought to find out if English language teachers normally accompany their lessons with instructional media. The responses of the subject were presented in Table.

Table : Do you normally accompany your lessons with instructional media?

Responses	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Yes	03	30
No	07	70
Total	10	100

From the table, the responses indicate that only 30% of the subjects normally accompany their lessons with instructional media, while 70% do not. The implication of this is that the learning of the English language may appear very abstract and difficult.

(ii) Why do English language teachers do not accompany their lessons with instructional media?

This questionnaire sought to find out why the English language teachers do not accompany their lessons with the relevant instructional media. The responses of the subjects are presented in Table.

Table : Why do English language teachers do not accompany their lessons with instructional media?

Responses	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Not available	05	50
Very costly	03	30
Difficult to use	02	20
Total	10	100

The results from the table indicates that half (50%) of the English language teachers do not use instructional media because the media are not available, while 30% claimed that they were very costly and unaffordable. The fact is that these teachers are not resourceful enough to improvise.

No wonder, Azikiwe (2007) and Denga (2001) assert that many teachers lack the initiative to explore and mobilize local resources towards the teaching and learning of their students; whereas Hull and Skinner (1964) opine that a learner learns better if he is motivated through the use of instructional aid(s).

iii) The effect of instructional media on the teaching and learning of English as a second language

This question sought to find out the effect of instructional media on the teaching and learning of English as L2. The responses of the subjects are presented in Table.

Table : Does the use of instructional media have any effect on the teaching and learning of English as

Responses	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Yes	04	40
No	06	60
Total	10	100

The response of the subjects (60%) who said the use of instructional media have no positive effect on the teaching and learning of English as L2 indicates that many English language teachers are ignorant of the motivational role and importance of instructional media in facilitating learning; whereas Williams (1990) and Agun (1982) affirm that the use of instructional media aids learners retention and makes learning more permanent.

NOTES

Analysis of Students' Responses

Table : How often do your teachers accompany their lessons with instructional media?

Responses	Frequency	Percentage (%)
All the time	00	00
Occasionally	20	20
Rarely	80	80
Total	100	100

The responses from the table show that English language teachers hardly accompany their lessons with instructional media. The implication of this is that their students are hardly motivated towards the learning of the English as a second language. Many of the students perceived English to be a very difficult subject. A survey conducted by Denga (2001) showed that 80% of the secondary school students preferred other subjects to English language. This is because English is perceived to be very difficult. Its learning can be made easier through the use of instructional media.

**Table : Which instructional media facilitate your learning
of the English language better?**

Responses	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Visual aids	20	20
Audio-visual aids	60	60
Audio aids	20	20
Total	100	100

From Table 5, it shows that students learn English better with visual-aids such as the television, satellite cables and video. 60% of the respondents attested to that. The implication of this is that teachers' inability to employ these instructional aids in their lessons slows down the assimilation and retention process. Studies carried out have shown that the use of instructional materials can enhance performance (Azikiwe, 1990; Yusuf, 1994 and Agun, 1982).

**Table : What is the effect of these instructional media in
your learning of English as L2?**

Responses	Frequency	Percentage (%)
They make the learning interesting and less abstract	20	20
They have no effect	60	60
They make the lessons unnecessarily too long and boring	20	20
Total	100	100

From the table, 50% of the respondents attested that instructional media have positive effect on the learning of English by making it less abstract.

This is in line with Mustapha et al., (2002) who opine that instructional media remove boredom and abstraction in classroom learning thereby aiding assimilation and retention. 30% of the respondents said the use of instructional media makes the lesson unnecessarily too long and boring. This could happen if the teacher is incompetent and lazy. This is why Erickson (1969) cautions that instructional media should not be used by amateur and incompetent teachers; otherwise, they will make the lessons boring and uninteresting and, probably, leading to un attainment of the Lesson objectives. This therefore calls for efficient use of instructional media.

Examination useful Question

Long Type Question:

1. What is the importance multimedia in education? Narrate in detail.

2. Write the history of Audio-visual Aids in education. Discuss in details.

3. Define the Teaching Aids in education.

4. How do you classified the Teaching aids in education. Why teaching aid is necessary? Explain.

5. What do you mean by procedure of study? Explain.

Short Type Question:

1. Explain the needs of slide projector in education?

2. What do you mean by non-project aids?

3. Are there necessary audio and visual aids in education? Give your opinion.

4. Write short note on:

   (i) Globe and Maps

   (ii) Display Board

   (iii) Cartoon and comies

4.3 | Constructional of a Teacher Made Test for English Proficiency

Study material included in this unit -

- Introduction
- The Quality of English Teacher-Made Tests Review of literature
  - Reliability
  - Validity
  - Practicality
- Functional English Teacher-Made Tests Instrumental Materials
  - Essay Tests
  - Objective-Item Tests
  - Short Answer Tests
  - Matching Item Tests
  - True - False Items Tests
  - Multiple-Choice Items Tests
- Testing Practices, Cognitive Demands, and Item Construction Errors
- Results
  - Teachers' testing preferences and practices
- Examination Useful Question

Objectives

After study this chapter you will understand the following facts.

- The Quality of English Teacher-Made Tests Review of literature
  - Reliability
  - Validity
  - Practicality

- Functional English Teacher-Made Tests Instrumental Materials
  - Essay Tests
  - Objective-Item Tests
  - Short Answer Tests
  - Matching Item Tests
  - True - False Items Tests
  - Multiple-Choice Items Tests
- Testing Practices, Cognitive Demands, and Item Construction Errors
- Results
  - Teachers' testing preferences and practices

Introduction

Central to school's evaluation process are teacher-made tests. Such instruments are designed to appraise the outcomes of local classroom instruction. Generally, commercial standardized tests are too general in scope and too inflexible to meet the special requirements of each subject or group of students, plus other diversified elements involved. Experienced educators and teachers know that "good" tests do not simply happen. Nevertheless, test construction all too often occurs at the last possible moment and in haste. This is unfortunate, since testing is an integral aspect of the total teaching-learning program. In preparing a test, the teacher needs to have a clear conception of how the test, together with the test results are to be functioned and used; and requires prior specification of instructional objectives and decisions regarding the sequence and method of instruction. Educational and psychological testing can help individuals at all levels of schooling make better decisions. Testing data may be employed in placing students, formative evaluation, diagnostic evaluation, making selection decisions, arriving at curricular decisions, personal decision making, and for summation purposes. Consequently, it is very essential that the teachers, especially the Thai teachers who are involved and concerned in teaching ESP to

Thai students, must have a good quality of competency, or KPI, in constructing effective teacher-made tests of the ESP courses taught and learned in schools of any level to competently evaluate the learning outcomes of the learners more effectively, by integrating their instruction and evaluation as one phase in an encompassing web of continual classroom planning.

The Quality of English Teacher-Made Tests

A measurement device used in teaching-learning process should possess several qualities. Among the most important of these are reliability, validity, and practicality. Reliability has to do with how accurately a measuring device, a test, measures what the teacher sets out to measure and the precision of the resulting score. Validity concerns whether a test measures what the teacher wants it to describe, represents all the components of what the teacher wants to describe, and describes nothing else but what we want it to describe. Practicality regards the ease with which a test can be administered and scored. A good many statistical procedures are available to educators and teachers for evaluating these properties of this kind of teacher-made tests or any test. Here, we shall consider what each quality involves, although a statistical treatment is usually reserved for more advanced courses in education and psychology.

- **Reliability**

    In deciding upon or designing a measuring device, we are concerned with how accurately it measures what we intend to measure and the precision of the resulting score. Thus, we need to know whether it will yield a similar result under similar conditions if we again measure the property in which we are interested. Reliability refers to the degree to which an instrument yields a consistent measurement of the same thing. For instance, if we take our temperature and the thermometer registers readings varying from 95 degree to 103 degree F when we are known to have a normal temperature

(which is around 98 degree), we will have little confidence in the instrument. Nor will we feel easy with the measurement of a house taken by an elastic ruler. We confront the problem of reliability when we administer an achievement test to our students. Would the students realize the same scores if they took the test last week, yesterday, tomorrow, or next week? Would their scores be the same had we provided another test with a differing sample of what we believe to be equivalent items? These matters deal with how generalizable test results are over different occasions or over different samples of the same type of behavior.

A good many factors affect the reliability of a measuring device. The individuals taking the test may themselves change from one time to the next. Such changes include state of health, motivation, fatigue, emotional strain, attention, forgetting, guessing, and training. The simple fact of having previously taken a similar test also introduces change. Further, the task itself may change, since the second test usually contains somewhat different items. And finally, the test administrators may not adhere to the time limit rigidly or the scorer may not grade the tests in the identical fashion (especially those with essay-typed items). Such of these factors introduce some element of error to all test scores (Gronlund, 1976).

- **Validity**

Perhaps the most important question we have regarding a measuring device is whether it measures what we want it to describe, represents all the components of what we wish to describe, and describes nothing else but what we want it to describe. The matter is similar to the rule that the courtroom witness tell the truth, the whole truth, and nothing but the truth. The extent to which an instrument serves the purpose for which it is intended is termed Validity.

If we are interested in the length of a desk, it is of little use to have a scale that determines its weight; instead, we require a ruler. Should we be interested in determining the language achievement of a group of students, we would need to prepare a test that adequately samples a variety of language skills. The score would represent a measure of each student¡¦s language proficiency. However, the score itself is not the student¡¦s proficiency but merely a record of a sample of the learner¡¦s behavior. Any appraisal regarding the students proficiency is an inference from the number of problems the learners solve correctly. The validity of the score is not selfevident but must be established on the basis of adequate evidence (Thorndike and Hagen, 1977). Three basic types of validity are to be identified:

Content Validity, Criterion-Related Validity, and Construct Validity.Content Validity refer to the extent to which a test measures a representative sample of thesubject matter content or the behavioral changes in which the ESP teachers are interested. Building the content validity of a test is equivalent to ascertaining how well it samples certain types of subject matter or behaviors. If the teachers are concerned with the vocabulary comprehension of a group of students, we would need to measure each student¡¦s performance on a sample of questions intended to represent an aspect of word learning achievement.

Criterion-Related Validity refers to the extent to which test performance is related to some otherexternal measure. The teachers are, in effect, asking with what confidence they can generalize or predict from these test results how well a student will do on a different task. For example, a test may be used to estimate a student¡¦s present language skill. Thus, a dictation test may be interpreted as telling the teacher about the accuracy with which a student can perform the necessary dictation from the boss in a company is office. This type of validity of the test can then be assessed by how well

the student actually take dictation assigned to him in the office setting.

Or a test may be employed to make a prediction about a student¡¦s future achievement. Colleges commonly use academic aptitude tests as part of their admission procedures. The tests are designed to forecast the probability of a student¡¦s college success. The validity of the test can then be experimentally determined by administering the test to a group of upper secondary school students, and then later assessing how well the test predicted these same students¡¦ grades at the end of their first year in college.

Construct Validity refers to the extent to which some hypothetical trait is reflected in the testperformance. Various psychological and educational tests seek to measure general traits (constructs) like a person¡¦s verbal fluency, comprehensive skill, communicative ability, reasoning ability, spatial visibility and anxiety, and so forth. Tests of these qualities are considered valid insofar as they reveal the traits being expressed in the way that our existing body of knowledge says such traits should be expressed. For instance, from what we know regarding assertiveness we would expect that a group of sales personnel should score especially high on a measure of assertiveness and a group of librarians should score low.

- **Practicality**

In selecting or devising a test, practical considerations need to be taken into account. A primary consideration is the ease with which the test can be administered. The directions should becomplete, simple, and clear. They should be in written form. The more complicated the directions and the greater the number of subtests, the more likely errors will occur that distort the results.

The scoring of tests has traditionally been a particularly tedious, cumbersome, and troublesome operation. However, the trend toward practical objective tests, the availability of separate answer sheets, and machine scoring have considerably eased many of the teacher's burdens. The practicality of a test is also dependent upon the ease with which the results can be interpreted and applied to further instruction, solving, and correcting classroom learning problems, such as diagnosing student weaknesses, structuring remedial instruction, organizing class groupings, and things of this nature.

Functional English Teacher-Made Tests

Teachers are often as concerned with measuring the language ability of students to think about and use knowledge as they are with measuring the knowledge their students possess. In these instances, tests are needed that permit students some degree of freedom and diversity in their responses to the test questions. There are various types of teacher-made tests which have been formally in use in measuring the teaching-learning outcomes effectively in schools of all levels; namely, essay tests, short-answer tests, matching tests, True-False tests, and multiple-choice tests.

- **Essay Tests**

  Some teachers claim that Essay Questions have a desirable effect on students¡¦ study habits. The questions of this type of test compel students to consider larger units of subject matter rather than preoccupying themselves with many isolated bits and pieces of knowledge. The test provide items/questions in which students supply, rather than select, the appropriate answer. Usually, the students compose a response in one or more sentences, Essay tests allow students to demonstrate their ability to recall, organize, synthesize, relate, analyze, and evaluate ideas, and all of these good learning skills must reflect in their answers to the essay questions.

NOTES

The major advantage is that the essay tests provide students with an opportunity to integrate and apply their thinking and problem solving skills creatively. Rather than simply selecting a correct response, the student must supply an appropriate answer. As such, essay tests can provide an effective instrument for tapping higher level of reasoning.

Constructing essay test questions. In preparing essay questions, teachers commonly find it helpful to keep the following suggestions in mind.

1. Phrase the question with sufficient specificity so students know what they are asked to do. Avoid vague question with ambiguous wording. For example:

   Poor: What is a cheque?

   Better: Explain the definition of a "cheque" and its "function" in business.

2. The question should be written in a way that will elicit the desired response in terms of objectivity and evidence. This is especially important in asking students a question dealing with a controversial issue. Asking students "what is your opinion" or "what do you think" provides nobasis for arriving at a generally acceptable answer. Instead, students should be asked to marshalevidence and arguments in support of one or another position. For example:

   Poor: What is your opinion regarding the alienation business act?

   Better: Considering pros and cons regarding the enactment of a new alienation.

   Business act, you are asked to outline evidence and arguments either in support of or in opposition to the enactment of the said new act.

3. When possible, phrase a question in a novel manner. For example:

Poor: Explain the effect of a meander upon the banks of a river.

Better: You are planning to purchase land along a meandering river. Would it be better to purchase land on the inside or outside bank of a meander? Give the reasons for your good choice

- **Objective-Item Tests**

Objective-item tests are of two types. The supply type asks the student to provide a short answer or to complete a blank. The select type provides the student with alternative responses in the form of matching, true-false, or multiple-choice items. Proponents of objective-item tests contend that they assure good content sampling and easy and reliable scoring. Critics say that the tests foster rote learning, encourage guessing, and neglect the cultivation of integrating and organizing skills.

- **Short Answer Tests**

Short answer item tests are of two types:

A. *Simple Direct questions* (e.g. Who was the first president of the United States?)

and

B. *Completion Items* (e.g. The name of the first president of the United States is ....) These short answer items can be answered by a word, phrase, number or symbol. The short answer test is a cross between essay and objective tests. The student must supply the answer as with an essay question but in a highly abbreviated form as with an objective question.

NOTES

Short-answer items have a number of advantages. First, they reduce the likelihood that a student will guess the correct answer. Second, they are relatively easy for a teacher to construct. Third, they are well adapted to mathematics, the sciences, and foreign languages where specific types of knowledge are tested. Fourth, they are consistent with the logical question-and-answer format as straight forward to the point, no tricks.

- **Matching Item Tests**

The matching item test consists of two parallel columns. The column on the left contains the questions to be answered, termed premises; the column on the right, the answers, termed responses. The student is asked to associate each premise with a response to form a matching pair. For example:

Capital City	**Nation**
1. Paris	a. Denmark
2. Copenhagen	b. Spain
3. Lisbon	c. Portugal
4. Madrid	d. France
5. he Hague	e. Netherlands
	f. Hungary
	g. Germany

In some matching tests the number of premises and responses are the same, while in many others the premises and responses may be different as illustrated above.

The chief advantage of matching tests is that a good deal of factual information can be tested in minimal time, making the tests compact and efficient. They are especially well suited to who, what, when, and where types of subject matter.

Moreover, students frequently find the tests fun to take because they have puzzle qualities to them.

The principal difficulty with matching tests is that teachers often find that the subject matter is insufficient in quantity or not well suited for matching items. The test of this type should be confined to homogeneous items containing one type of categorization of the subject matter, for instance, authors – novels; inventions – inventors; major events – dates; terms – definitions; foreign words – English words equivalents; rules – examples; and the like.

- **True - False Items Tests**

The true-false item tests consist of a declarative statement that the students are to read and judge the given statements or items to be either correct or incorrect. Each question contains only twopossible answers. Teachers find that the true or false items are easy to construct and score, andthat even students who are rather poor readers can cope with them.

However, the true-false items found on this type of test are too often focus uponunimportant pieces of information. The chief exceptions have to do with questionsdistinguishing between facts and opinion, and in identifying cause-and-effect relationships.Further, since there are only two alternatives, the students have a fifty-fifty opportunity ofguessing the correct answer on chance alone.

- **Multiple-Choice Items Tests**

The multiple-choice question is probably the most popular as well as the most widely applicable and effective type of objective tests. It consists of two parts: (1) the stem, which statesthe problem or question, and (2) a list of three to five alternatives, one of which is the correct or bestanswer, and the others function as ¡§distractors¡" or incorrect options that draw the less knowledgeable students away from the

correct response. The stem may be stated as a directquestion or as an incomplete statement. For example:

Direct Question: What is the capital city of Denmark?

A. Paris

B. Lisbon

C. Copenhagen

D. Rome

Incomplete Statement: The capital city of Denmark is……..

A. Paris

B. Lisbon

C. Copenhagen

D. Rome

The chief advantage of the multiple-choice tests is its versatility. For instance, it is capable of being applied to a wide range of subject areas. In contrast, short-answer tests limit the test writer to those content areas that are capable of being stated in one or two words. And a multiplechoice question greatly reduces the opportunity for the students to guess the correct answer from one chance in two with a true-false test to one in four or five, thereby increasing thereliability of the test.

In preparing the objective multiple-choice test questions, teachers commonly find it helpful to keep the following suggestions in mind.

1. Test students for important information and avoid trivia. Teachers should resist the temptation to take the easy way out.

2. Write the items clearly; avoid excessive verbiage-too many unnecessary difficult words; inappropriate choice of words;

and awkward sentence arrangement. Consider the following examples (the answer is option b.):

Poor: The formulation of hypotheses

a. is required to accomplish a descriptive study

b. guides the direction of research

c. states scientific fact

d. is proven correct by research

Better: A hypothesis is a statement that a research

a. employs as a technique for collecting data

b. uses as a guide in defining the nature of the study

c. accepts as a proposition of scientific facts

d. proves correct in the course of scientific investigation

3. Do not give the correct answer away with irrelevant clues. For example: in the following illustration the use of the indefinite article "an" gives the answer "electron" away since it begins with a vowel:

Poor: A subatomic particle that has a negligible mass and carries a unit negative electrical charge is an

a. proton

b. neutron

c. molecule

d. electron

4. Make each item independent of other items. Teachers should avoid writing items that are interrelated, like the following: (the answers to the two questions are respectively d. and c.)

A type of radiation that travels at the speed of light is

a. a beta particle

b. an alpha particle

c. a cathode ray

c. a gamma ray

This type of radiation has the following charge

a. positive

b. negative

c. no charge

d. electric

5. Avoid the use of negative questions. More errors in interpretation are associated with a negative question. For example (the answer is option a.):

Poor: The nucleus of the following element does not contain neutrons

a. hydrogen

b. sodium

c. helium

d. neon

Better: With the exception of the following element, the nuclei of all elements contain neutrons

a. hydrogen

b. sodium

c. helium

d. neon

6. Avoid lifting a statement verbatim from textbook or other sources. Verbatim statements are frequently ambiguous when they are used out of context. For example:

Poor: Shale is clay that has become rock, mainly by prtessure.

Better: Clay that has become rock through the action of the earth's pressure is termed shale

Testing Practices, Cognitive Demands, and Item Construction Errors

It is rather widely accepted that the day-to-day impact of teacher-made testing has more influence upon what happens in the typical classroom than do standardized tests; yet, far less is known about the nature of teacher-made tests and related testing practices (Fleming & Chambers, 1983; Staginess, 1985).For example, Gullickson (1984) described existing research on teacher-made testing practices as limited and idiosyncratic, and Dwyer (1982) stated that the advice given to preserves and in service teachers regarding the use of teacher-made tests reflects a consensus of professional judgment rather than a foundation of empirical research. The sparseness of this research is further limited by the narrow scope of the research methods used. Most existing research on teacher-made tests and testing practices has been based on self-report procedures. And perhaps seven further impeding the effective classroom use of teacher-made tests, some research suggests that university tests and measurement courses may not be meeting the needs of the class room as identified by in service teachers (Gullickson, 1986;Gullickson & Ellwein, 1985; Stiggins & Bridgeford, 1985) and that many teacher-training institutions do not require their v preserves teachers to take a course in tests and measurements(Lambert, 1980-81).

Relative to teacher-made testing practices, Gullickson(1984) reported that most teachers feel that frequent testing is desirable, that teachers perceive students as desiring frequent tests, and that

most teachers test at least once every two weeks in most subject areas. From a survey of 228 teachers, Staginess and Bridge ford (1985) rep:-:ted that teachers in the upper grades rely more heavily on teacher-made tests rather than on standardized or publisher-made tests, that types of assessments used varied by subject area, and that about three-fourths of the teachers in their sample expressed a desire to improve their teacher-made tests. And Rogers (1985), using interview procedures, reported that some teachers rely solely on publisher-made tests that some teachers rely solely on teacher-made tests, but that most teachers used both types of tests. He also reported that most teachers relied more on paper-pencil tests than upon less formal assessment procedures, but observations and ratings of products or behaviors were considered by teachers to be desirable supplements to the paper and pencil tests.

Relatively few reports of direct assessments of samples of teacher-made tests have appeared in the research literature; consequently, little is known about the essential characteristics of teacher-made tests such as typical item cognitive demand levels or the types of item con:-ruction errors most commonly found on these tests. Gullickson ::1984), in his previously reported survey study, reported that his sample of teachers felt that their teacher-made tests did not effectively assess student ability to apply what they had learned, but the teachers' tests were not directly examined to support or refute this contention. Fleming and Chambers (1983) did report the results of an extensive assessment of 342 tests developed by teachers in grades one through 12. These researchers used Bloom's (1956) taxonomy of cognitive levels to classify the 8,800 test items on these tests, and they also examined each test for the presence of various item or test format construction errors. They found that short response items, including fill-in-the-blank items, were most frequently used followed in popularity by matching exercises. True-false and essay type items were least frequently used in this sample of tests. The junior high level teachers asked the most knowledge level questions with 94% of

their items judged to be functioning at this level; whereas the elementary and senior high teachers' tests were determined to have 69% of their items functioning at the knowledge level. In analyzing the tests by subject area, however, these researchers found that only in the math and science tests were the items judged to be functioning at the upper range of cognitive levels with Predominantly knowledge level items found in all other subject areas. Their assessment of the tests for construction errors revealed that: a) directions were absent in approximately one-third of the tests, b) test items were not numbered in approximately one-half of the elementary grade level tests) many of the tests at the junior and senior high school levels did not have items numbered consecutively throughout the tested) approximately 15 to 20 percent of the tests exhibited grammatical, spelling, or punctuation errors, e) many one or two word stem multiple-choice items were found, f) a large proportion of the tests were found to be illegible and many were handwritten, and g) the short response type items tended to be ambiguous and allowed more than one correct answer.

Two additional but less extensive analyses of actual samples of teacher-made tests were also located in the professional literature. Bloom's taxonomy of cognitive levels was used to classify the teacher constructed test items in both of these investigations. Billeh (1974) repo) ed an analysis of 33 science tests constructed by seventh through tenth grade teachers in the Beirut, Lebanon schools. He found that 72% of the test items measured at the knowledge level, 21% at the comprehension level, 7% at the application level, and no items were found to measure at the analysis, synthesis, or evaluation levels. Additionally,

He found that the cognitive levels of the test items did not vary by the grade level of the teacher-made tests or by the extent of the training of the teachers constructing the tests; however he did find that the cognitive levels of the test items differed by science subject and by the amount of teaching experience of the teachers. The more experienced teachers used more knowledge

level items, and the physics teachers used fewer knowledge level items than either the biology or the chemistry teachers. Black (1980) also reported an analysis of teacher-made science tests. These science tests were constructed by 48 secondary teachers. He also found that the cognitive demand levels of the test items varied between the science subjects, that none of these items measured beyond the application level, and that the extent of teacher training did not appear to influence the cognitive functioning levels of their tests. The proportions of items found to be functioning at the various cognitive levels for the various subject area tests were: biology 94% knowledge and6% comprehension; chemistry 66% knowledge, 26% comprehension, and8% application; and for physics 56% knowledge, 18% comprehension, and 26% application.

- **Purpose**

  The basic purpose of this study was to assess the nature and the quality of teacher-made tests being used in public school classrooms through an analysis of a sample of these teacher-made tests. A secondary purpose of the study was to describe the class room teachers' testing preferences and practices such as use of post-hoc test statistical procedures, frequency of tests scheduled, the proportion of the items on their teacher-made tests that they write themselves, and the extent of their use of various item types. More specifically, the following six hypotheses were stated to guide this study:

  1. The types of items most frequently found on the Teacher-made tests will not differ significantly by theteachers':a) grade level, b) subject area, c) school setting, or d) years of teaching experience.

  2. The cognitive levels of the test items found on the Teacher-made tests will not differ significantly by theteachers':a) grade level, b) subject area, c) school setting, or d) years of teaching experience.

3. The reported number of formal teacher-made tests given in a typical school year will not differ significantly by the teachers¡¦: a) grade level, b) subject area, c) school setting, or d) years of teaching experience.

4. The reported use of post hoc test statistical analysis will not differ significantly by the teachers: a) grade level, b) subject area, c) school setting, or d) years of teaching experience.

5. The reported proportion of test items used on teacher-made tests which were constructed by the teachers themselves will not differ significantly by the teachers¡¦: a) grade level, b) subject area, c) school setting, or d) years of teaching experience.6)The frequencies of test item and test format errors found on the teacher-made tests will not differ significantly by: a) grade level, b) subject area, c) school setting, or d) years of teaching experience.

● **Method**

From a Spring 1986 state-wide assessment of teacher testing and evaluation competencies completed by a stratified random sample of 580 supervisors and principals and by 326 former Bowling Green State University students who had graduated during the 1975-1986 period and who were teaching full-time in Ohio during the 1985-86 school year, a sample of 175 teacher-made tests were collected to allow a direct analysis of teacher testing practices and proficiencies. The selected classroom teachers were asked to provide a copy of their most recently administered teacher-made test for a subject other than spelling or math (unless they were teaching secondary mathematics).These teachers were also asked to answer a set of questions regarding their testing preferences and practices and a set of demographictype questions regarding themselves and their Employing school. Only teachers assigned to regular elementary or secondary level classrooms were asked to participate in this component of the study.

• Sample of teacher-made tests

The sample of 175 teacher-made tests included a total of 6504 test items and 455 item exercises. The test items within the sample of tests were classified independently by two judges using Bloom's taxonomy of six cognitive demand levels (knowledge, comprehension, application, analysis, synthesis, and evaluation).If the judges differed in their classification of an item or exercise, the item or exercise was reexamined until a consensus was reached. Each test and each test exercise was also examined for format and item construction errors. A test exercise was defined for this study as a group of items of a similar item type, and item construction error criteria were selected from are view of several test construction texts designed for pre service education courses. A total of eight item type classifications (completion, essay, multiple-choice, etc.), 10 item format construction error criteria (does the test have complete directions? are item types grouped together? are the items numbered consecutively? etc.), and 66 item construction error criteria (incomplete stems, implausible altimeters, specific determiners, etc.) were identified from these procedures and used in the assessment of the sample of teacher-made tests. An item construction error, if present, was recorded once per item exercise rather than for each time that particular error type may have occurred within the item exercise. In other words whether or not a construction error appeared only on one item or on several items within the same item exercise a tally of '1' was recorded for that particular error in order to provide a stable base of comparison across tests which varied in their number of test items.

• Teachers' testing preferences and practices

Most of the teachers reported infrequent use of statistical procedures following the administration of their teacher-made tests: 807. of the responding teachers indicated that they

never or rarely calculated test means and standard deviations (5% responded always or nearly always), 60% indicated that they never or rarely estimated the reliability of their tests (15% responded always or nearly always), and 54% of the responding teachers indicated that they never or rarely completed item analyses of their tests (16% nearly always or always).

The teachers did report frequent scheduling of formal tests (excluding quizzes and spelling tests) in a typical class and in a typical school year. The mean number of teacher-made tests administered during a typical school year was 54.1 with 31% of the teachers reporting the administration of 60 or more formal tests and 15% of the teachers reporting the administration of 100 or more formal tests in a typical school year. When asked how frequently they scheduled formal tests in a typical class, 20% reported scheduling one or more formal tests each week, 49% reported one every two weeks, 15% one per month, 7% three or four per semester, and only 6% reported scheduling two or fewer formal tests in a typical class during a school semester.

Over one-half of the teachers reported writing three-fourths or nearly all of the items used cm their teacher-made tests. More specifically, approximately 37% of the teachers reported writing almost all of their test questions, 20% about three-fourths of their items, 19% about one-half, 8% about onefourth, and 14% reported writing very few of the test items used in assessing the progress of their students. For all the test items used during an entire school year, the teachers were asked to estimate the proportion of each item type used; the average of their percentage responses for each item type were: 23% problems, 19% multiple-choice, 16% completion, 16% essay, 14% matching, and 12% truefalse. These survey Pms and teacher responses to them are presented.

Examination useful Question

Long Type Question:

1. How the quality teacher made by Tests? Discuss in detail.

2. What are the instrumental materials to build up a functional English Teacher? Explain in detail.

Short Type Question:

1. What are reliability and validity? Explains.

2. Explains the short answer test end essay test.

3. Write few lines for test format items construction errors.

4.4 | Teaching Portfolio

Study material included in this unit -

- Introduction
- What a Teaching Portfolio
- Why Prepare a Teaching Portfolio
- How does one Develop a Teaching Portfolio
- Getting Started
- Preparing your Portfolio
- Shaping the Final Portfolio
- Keeping Your Portfolio up to Date
- Assembling on Electronic Portfolio
- How will my Portfolio be Evaluated
- Examination useful Question

Objectives

After study this chapter you will understand the following facts.

- What a Teaching Portfolio
- Why Prepare a Teaching Portfolio
- How does one Develop a Teaching Portfolio
- Getting Started
- Preparing your Portfolio
- Shaping the Final Portfolio
- Keeping Your Portfolio up to Date
- Assembling on Electronic Portfolio
- How will my Portfolio be Evaluated

Introduction

Over the past decade, the Center for Teaching (CFT) and the Faculty Senate Council on Teaching, Learning and Instructional Technology have collaborated on several initiatives to assist faculty in assessing and enhancing teaching. The Council has advised in the development of an updated student and course evaluation system, the Student Response to Instruction (SRTI). And in an effort to supplement student ratings with a richer and more substantive kind of information about teaching, they have encouraged faculty members and departments to consider compiling teaching portfolios. In 1993, the CFT and the Council prepared an introductory handbook for campus use: the Teaching Portfolio Handbook. At that time, only a handful of institutions across the United States were experimenting with teaching portfolios. On our campus, individual faculty mostly used the Teaching Portfolio Handbook as a general reference when documenting their teaching accomplishments for teaching awards, mini-tenure, and tenure and promotion review.

Over the past decade, however, there has been a growing body of knowledge about how to create and apply teaching portfolios. It is estimated that as many as 1,000 college and universities are now using and experimenting with portfolios (Seldin, 1997). On our own campus, several colleges and departments have sponsored workshops on the teaching portfolio, one school is piloting a portfolio project, the CFT offers assistance in portfolio.

Development to graduate students through its Teaching Documentation Program, and individual faculty and teaching assistants increasingly consult with the CFT on portfolio development.

In addition, our Provost, Cora B. Marrett, has encouraged a fuller and more convincing assessment of teaching accomplishments for personnel decision making. In her 1998 Promotion and Tenure Recommendations, she placed a renewed emphasis on the "personal statement." In a personal statement, the can-

didate for tenure and/or promotion describes his or her performance and future plans in the areas of research, teaching, and service. In documenting teaching effectiveness, Marrett argues that the consideration of teaching should attempt to capture the total contribution of the candidate to the instruc-tional mission. She further suggests that ".......a teaching portfolio can be an effective document to connect teaching activity with the personal statement of the candidate."

In this updated handbook, Preparing a Teaching Portfolio, we can now offer faculty members and administrators the kind of step-by-step, practical information necessary to get started, prepare, and maintain a teaching portfolio. Graduate students who are planning careers as faculty members should also find this handbook useful. Another important revision is the addition of sample items that have been used in real portfolios at the University of Massachusetts Amherst. They consist of a complete teaching portfolio and excerpts from other portfolios, including a summary of teaching responsibilities, sample teaching philosophy statements, and sample activities to improve teaching. We encourage you to try this innovative method for reflecting on and documenting your teaching. You may contact the CFT if you are interested in assistance as you work through the process. Your experience will also contribute to the growing body of knowledge about how to build and use teaching portfolios.

We offer our appreciation to teaching and learning centers at The Pennsylvania State University and the University of Washington, and to Peter Seldin, on whose work this handbook has drawn. We owe a debt of gratitude to the Faculty Senate Council on Teaching, Learning and Technology, the Provost's Office, and faculty and teaching assistants in many departments for their encouragement and support of the development of this handbook. Special thanks go to Mary Andrianopoulos, Mary Anne Bright, David Kazmer, Ray Pfeiffer, and Stella Volpe for their thoughtful advice on this manuscript. Finally, a special note of appreciation is extended to Vanessa Blais, Francis Juanes, Mzamo Mangaliso, Maureen Perry-Jenkins, Ray Pfeiffer, and Clement

Seldin for their generosity in sharing their teaching philosophies, personal statements, and teaching portfolios with us.

What Is a Teaching Portfolio?

A teaching portfolio (or dossier) is a coherent set of material that represents your teaching practice as related to student learning. "Teaching practice" in its broadest sense extends beyond the obvious activities that go into teaching a course to include all activities that enrich student learning. (Appendix A, Items That Might Be Included in a Teaching Portfolio, reflects this broad view of teaching.)

Teaching portfolios vary considerably depending on their specific purpose, audience, institutional context, and individual needs. However, the body of a portfolio is generally about 5-8 pages long and is followed by appendices, which usually make up about 8-15 more pages. Your portfolio would likely include a summary of your teaching experience and responsibilities, a reflective statement of your teaching philosophy and goals, a brief discussion of your teaching methods and strategies, as well as activities undertaken to improve teaching, and a statement of goals and plans for the future. The appendices would consist of supplemental materials that further document or support the information you provide in the body of your portfolio.

A course portfolio, which focuses on a single course, has many features and benefits in common with a teaching portfolio. Although we do not discuss course portfolios in this handbook, much of the information here can be applied to developing one. Additional information on course portfolios is available from the Center for Teaching (also see Cutler, 1997a, 1997b; Hutchings, 1998).

Why Prepare a Teaching Portfolio?

Teaching portfolios are typically used for two purposes, which sometimes overlap: (1) as a developmental process for reflecting on and improving one¡¦s teaching; and (2) as an evaluative product for personnel decisions such as tenure, promotion, or a

teaching award. Whatever function they serve, teaching portfolios have several major benefits:

- They provide different sources of evidence of teaching performance. As teachers, we have often relied primarily on student evaluations for feedback about our teaching. Although such student reviews contribute important information about teaching performance, they often reflect off-the-cuff feelings expressed in just a few moments at one of the final classes of a semester. The variety of sources of feedback in a portfolio provides a more comprehensive view of how a teacher is handling the diverse responsibilities of teaching. Thus they reflect more of teaching¡¦s intellectual substance and complexity.

- They make teaching more visible through their demonstration of a variety of teachingrelated activities.

- They place the initiative for reflecting on and evaluating teaching in the hands of faculty. It is the teacher who explains and documents his or her teaching performance by selecting what goes into the portfolio.

- They give the individual an opportunity to think about his or her own teaching ¡X to change priorities or teaching strategies as needed, and to reflect about future teaching goals. Putting together a teaching portfolio in itself often enhances one¡¦s teaching performance.

- They offer opportunities for faculty to work collaboratively. Teachers often work with other colleagues or mentors in developing portfolios, thereby opening the door to greater sharing among faculty of their views and approaches to teaching.

- As teaching becomes more visible and ideas about it are shared, teaching becomes a more valued subject of intellectual and scholarly discussion throughout the institution.

How Does One Develop a Teaching Portfolio?

Although how one develops a teaching portfolio is as unique as each portfolio itself, we have selected some very practical strategies that most faculty here at UMass can apply or adapt to their individual needs.

Getting Started

Before you begin to put together a teaching portfolio, it is helpful to develop and gather material that you might include in it. We say ¡§might,¡¨ because at this preliminary stage you will likely be collecting more than you can include in a single portfolio.

- Establish a filing system specifically for material related to your teaching development efforts. Treat these files as separate from your normal course records. This means you will need to duplicate a set of material specifically for your teaching development files. Having double copies is a minor nuisance in the short run; but in the long run having a portfolio set¡¨ cuts down on pillaging other files, keeps portfolio materials easily accessible when needed, and provides a clearer overall perspective of your teaching efforts and growth.

- Sketch out your reflections on your teaching (your beliefs, values, strategies) and how it relates to student learning in your field. These reflections will likely become part of your teaching philosophy statement.

- Talk to other faculty members you admire about their approach to teaching. Often such a dialogue can stimulate your reflective process and help you better articulate your priorities, values, and goals. (It can do the same for them as well.)

- Collect material on your teaching-related activities Note: Even here it helps to be somewhat selective, to choose items that you might consider for your teaching portfolio.

- Write your goals for teaching development. Then seek out different opportunities that might support these goals, such as attending a discipline-based pedagogy seminar or workshop on campus, participating in a program offered by the Center for Teaching, or attending an off-campus conference related to teaching in your field.

Preparing Your Portfolio

Once you have gathered the supporting documents you need, it generally takes a total of 12 to 15 hours to prepare your portfolio (Seldin, 1997, p 19). When you begin to assemble it, you have many choices of material to include. Now is the time to be selective. How do you go about choosing what will be most appropriate? One helpful strategy is to think about a teaching portfolio as an argument — much like one you would make in a scholarly article or monograph — in which you provide the reader with a context, state a main point or theme, and then select and organize the rest of the material around that point. Two of the greatest pitfalls in developing a portfolio are including too much material and inserting it in raw form (without explaining why it is there). Thinking of the portfolio as an argument can help you avoid these pitfalls by giving you a method for selecting and shaping the material that will go into it. As you would with any argument, consider its purpose and audience:

- Why are you creating this portfolio? For tenure or promotion? For a teaching award? For your own developmental purposes? Or for some other reason?

- Who will be its primary readers? (Of course, if you are creating this portfolio for yourself, you will be its primary reader. But you may ask colleagues to review and discuss the material with you.)

Given your answers to these two questions, what main points about your teaching do you want to make? You will likely highlight these points in your teaching philosophy statement. What evidence do you have, or can you get, to support them? All the

following material you include in your portfolio should provide evidence that in some way supports your main points. Remember that including supporting evidence does not mean you should eliminate "failures." On the contrary, discussing why a teaching strategy did not work and how you have changed or will change it is evidence that you can adapt and improve as a teacher.

While preparing your portfolio, consider working with a mentor (or mentors). An effective mentor need not be someone who is evaluating you, but can be any faculty member — in your own or a different discipline — who is interested in enhancing the quality of teaching. A consultant from the Center for Teaching would also gladly assist you with your portfolio. If you are assembling a portfolio because you will be evaluated for a specific reason, it is very helpful to ask about your readers' expectations. For example (as excerpted from Center for Excellence in Learning and Teaching, 1997), what are your reviewers' beliefs about good teaching? How will those beliefs affect what you say or include in your portfolio, especially if your beliefs differ? What kinds of evidence of teaching effectiveness will your reviewers expect to be included in your portfolio? About how much material would they like you to include?

As we have mentioned before, teaching portfolios are a highly individual product, whose content and organization vary from one institution, department, and faculty member to another. Especially if you have not developed a portfolio before, consider looking at samples, such as those in Appendices B and C or in Seldin¡¦s TeachingPortfolio (1997). Or some colleagues might share their portfolios with you. Even though yours will be different from others, the samples can help you visualize what a teaching portfolio might contain and how it might be organized, depending on its purpose, audience, and context. The following generic guidelines include components typical of most portfolios, although these components might be combined or separated in different ways.

Teaching experience and responsibilities. This section provides a context for the main points you make about your teach-

ing. Here you summarize courses you are teaching or have taught in the recent past, including number of credit hours, whether the course was required or elective, number of students, and whether they were graduate or undergraduate Teaching activities outside the classroom, such as advising graduate or undergraduate students, supervising students engaged in independent studies, and otherwise mentoring students, are also important to include.

Teaching philosophy and goals. Despite its typical brevity (about 1-2 pages long), this statement is the foundation on which the portfolio is built. Your aim here is to answer in some way one main question: Why do you do what you do as a teacher? Reflections on this question generally include four components, which may be discussed separately or be intertwined in some way

- Your beliefs about how student learning in your field occurs.

- Given those reflections, your beliefs about how you as a teacher can best help students learn.

- How you put into practice your beliefs about effective teaching and learning. (If you discuss your teaching methods in a separate section, such as the one below, you might simply refer to that section in your philosophy statement.)

- Your goals for students.

Whether you are developing the portfolio for yourself or for evaluation by others, reflecting on these issues serves as a good basis for self-assessment and potential growth as a teacher. How you write about these issues again depends largely on your audience. Because this section of your portfolio is a personal statement, writing in first-person, narrative form is appropriate in most circumstances. Writing in broadly understood terms rather than in highly technical language is usually best. Even when writing for yourself, using common terms can help you better demonstrate your knowledge to yourself. If your audience is limited to

others in your department who will be evaluating you, use of technical language might indicate your knowledge of the discipline. But even readers in one's own department may prefer minimal use of technical terms.

Teaching methods and strategies. As you describe how you teach, keep in mind what you have said in your teaching philosophy statement. It may help the reader if you explicitly state some connection (perhaps in a simple phrase) between what you are describing in this section and how it relates to your teaching philosophy statement. In the same or a separate section, also reflect on the effectiveness of your teaching. Select supporting materials that illustrate your teaching approach (i.e., that show you do what you are describing) and that provide evidence of your teaching effectiveness. You will likely place this supporting documentation, which includes information from yourself and from others (such as colleagues, supervisors, and students), in one or more appendices.

Activities undertaken to improve teaching. Your discussions and evidence from preceding sections may lead you to consider what worked, what did not, why, and how to change what needs changing to improve your effectiveness as a teacher. The material you have gathered so far might also lead you to consider what is missing: What have you not done that you think would be worthwhile trying? Although what you emphasize is likely to vary according to the purposes of your portfolio, in this section you can also include a description of revisions you have made to an assignment or entire course and why you made them, participation in programs to improve teaching, consultation with the Center for Teaching, or time spent reading journals about pedagogy

Goals and plans for the future. In relation to what you have so far included in your portfolio, what goals to improve your teaching would you like to accomplish in the next few years? How do you plan to accomplish them?

Shaping the Final Portfolio

Even if the portfolio is for your own developmental purposes, formally organizing it can help make it easier to use for later reflections. If your portfolio is to be evaluated by others, the following organizational material can make the portfolio easier for your readers to follow:

- Title page and table of contents.

- Headings and subheadings that clearly identify and separate the portfolio¡s components.

- In the body of the portfolio, references to material in the appendix, where appropriate.

- Brief explanatory statements accompanying each item in the appendix, where appropriate. (What is the item¡s context, purpose, or relationship to what you have said in the body of your portfolio?) The following questions (excerpted from Center for Excellence in Learning and Teaching, 1997) can also be useful for your own reflections or for consideration before you submit your portfolio to a review committee:

- Have you selected, organized, and presented the data in a way that brings the most compelling evidence into focus for your readers?

- Does each piece of evidence serve a purpose, supporting a point you have made about your teaching?

- Does your portfolio give the reader a sense of who you are as a teacher?

Keeping Your Portfolio Up to Date

Periodically revising your portfolio is a good way to continue reflecting on your teaching, as well as to keep material readily available for a periodic multiyear review (PMYR), a teaching award, or other evaluative purposes. The end of each semester or school year is a good time to go through your teaching de-

NOTES

velopment files, discard outdated material, and add current data. Time and additional experience will likely offer you a slightly different perspective on your initial portfolio. Your priorities may have changed, or perhaps you would now articulate them differently. After you have achieved some of the goals you set forth in your original portfolio, you can note how you achieved them and reflect on how they have improved your students' learning and your teaching.

Assembling an Electronic Portfolio

Assembling an electronic portfolio can range from putting your portfolio on a computer disk or CD-ROM to developing a website on the Internet. If you and the readers of your portfolio have access to the appropriate equipment and know how to use it, you might consider the advantages of preparing an electronic portfolio. For example, you can include more kinds of information, such as animated graphics, in-class presentations that you developed on presentation software, or video clips from your classes. You can also include information that might make a traditional hard-copy portfolio too bulky, such as a lengthy appendix or links to an entire course that you have posted on the Internet. In general, you can include more information on an electronic portfolio than is typical of a paper portfolio.

If you and your readers prefer an electronic portfolio, some cautions are still in order. For example, beware of including too much information. Although your readers can be free to select what they choose to read or skim, too many choices may still be overwhelming. Keep focused on the objectives of the portfolio rather than on the "bells and whistles" of the technology. Finally, be sure that all your readers have access and know how to use the hardware and software they will need for reviewing your portfolio material (Lieberman & Rueter, 1997, pp 46-48).

How Will My Portfolio Be Evaluated?

You may be wondering how your portfolio is likely to be evaluated if it will be used as part of a personnel decision-making

process. In general, experts seem to agree that the content of a teaching portfolio and the evaluative criteria used to judge it should be related to the goals of the teacher's department and to the mission of the institution in which he or she works. Explicit evaluative criteria should be developed and agreed upon before portfolios are reviewed. And the decision of a review committee should be based on their general agreement about the quality of the portfolio (quality depending on the criteria that have been established). It seems reasonable, then, for you to have information from your review committee about what items must be included in your portfolio, an expected range of number of pages, and the criteria on which the portfolio will be judged. Finally, authorities on teaching portfolios typically note that evaluators should also judge a portfolio according to it's:

- Inclusion of evidence that backs up the claims a teacher makes ¡X evidence of teaching accomplishments, of student learning, and of efforts to improve teaching.

- Consistency between the professors¡¦s teaching philosophy and accompanying evidence of teaching strategies, effectiveness, and efforts to improve.

If you would like additional information on evaluating portfolios, see Murray's.

Examination useful Question

Long Type Question:

1. Write down about teaching Portfolio. Why is it important in teaching?

2. Why is it necessary to preparing the teaching Portfolio?

3. How does a develop Portfolio prepare? Write in detail.

4. How can you evaluated your Portfolio? Explain.

Short Type Question:

1. What is an assembling electronic Portfolio?

2. How does keeping shaping the final Portfolio?

3. What is getting start in teaching Portfolio?

4.5 | Adaptations of Teaching Material for Children with Disabilities

Study material included in this unit -

- Introduction
- Key Ideas
- Individualization
- Developmentally Appropriate Practice
- Partial Participation
- Planning For Inclusion
- Only As Special As Needed
- You're Not In It Alone
- General Good Teaching Ideas
- Activity Adaptations
- Transition Times
- Understanding Learning Disabilities
- Types Of Learning Disabilities
- Examination useful Question

Objectives

After study this chapter you will understand the following facts.

- Key Ideas
- Individualization
- Developmentally Appropriate Practice
- Partial Participation
- Planning For Inclusion
- Only As Special As Needed
- You're Not In It Alone
- General Good Teaching Ideas
- Activity Adaptations
- Transition Times
- Understanding Learning Disabilities
- Types Of Learning Disabilities

Introduction

The ideas in this handout are provided as examples of only some of the potential adaptations that can be made to common materials and activities to insure that young children with disabilities can be included. The handout is organized by the learning centers or activities that are typical in early childhood programs. Not all the ideas listed in each learning center area are necessary or even helpful for all children with disabilities. It is important for you, the teacher of young children, to choose the adaptation that meets that need of the child, not the disability label. A variety of adaptations are provided so that you can have several ideas always ready to try when an adaptation is needed. The list of ideas is not meant to be exhaustive, so space has been provided for you to add your own favorite adaptation.

Key Ideas

Knowledge about their child. They may have already found the adaptation answer.

Individualization

Not all children withsame disability label need the same adaptations.Children who have the same label are usuallymore different than they are alike. Therefore, it isimportant to think of adaptations for a particularchild, not a disability. Have a number of differentideas available so that you always have a newidea.

Developmentally Appropriate Practice

One key characteristic of a quality early childhood program is a curriculum that is based on developmentally appropriate practice. A developmentally appropriate curriculum focuses on the learning characteristics of children at different developmental levels but individualizes for the unique interests, strengths and personalities of the child. When young children with disabilities are included in programs that use a developmentally appropriate approach, the types of individualizations that are already used

for young children without disabilities must just be extended to meet the needs of all children.

Partial Participation

Partial participation refers to involving a child in an activity even if he cannot perform all the steps of the activity. A child is partially participating in dressing if she pulls the shirt on over her head, but needs help to put on the sleeves. Some children with disabilities may not be able to do all the steps of an activity that their typically developing peers can do. However, the child with disabilities should still be involved in as much of the activity as possible. Identify what parts of that activity the child can do, and then develop adaptations or teaching strategies for the other parts of the activity. To be successful in adapting activities and materials For young children with disabilities, the following Key Ideas must be considered.

Planning For Inclusion

Inclusion is a term that refers to involving young children with disabilities and their families in all activities that are typical for children of that age. Inclusion is a value that says that all children belong, regardless of their abilities, gender, race, or ethnic background. When including young children in typical early childhood settings, some planning will be needed to make sure it is successful for everyone. While you may not be able to predict every adaptation needed, work as a team with the family to plan for as many of the necessary adaptations as possible. Develop your plan by reviewing a typical day and identifying any potential times when adaptations might make an activity more successful. Review your adaptation plan after you have had an opportunity to observe the child in that activity.

Only As Special As Needed

One of the keys to adapting activities for young children with disabilities is to make the materials or activity only as special as needed. Materials for young children with disabilities don't have to come from special catalogs or cost a lot of money. Often

regular age-appropriate toys can be used with little or no adaptations. Use your own expertise and common sense.

You're Not in it Alone

Adapting materials involves a lot of creative thinking and is often easier when a team of people brainstorm ideas together. More people with more expertise provides more ideas! Talk to other teachers, therapists, or specialists working with the child and find out what ideas they have. The best resource for adaptation ideas is the child's family. The family can provide years of experience.

General Good Teaching Ideas

- Make the best use of natural opportunities for learning. For example, one opportunity to teach colors may occur at snack time when you match the red plate with the red cup. Plan how to incorporate individual goal and objectives into ongoing activities.

- Labeling objects and areas in the room can provide a good start for early literacy skills. In addition to written words, think about using pictures or even textures as adaptations for children with special needs.

- Provide breaks from the noise and activity of the group as needed for individual children. Breaks to a quiet area can often allow a child to regroup if the stimulation of the group is too intense.

- Allow for many opportunities for repetition and practice. All children use repetition and practice to learn about the world.

- Provide opportunities for cooperative learning activities across all areas. Provide opportunities for shared materials, games to play with a friend, etc. The following list provides ideas that are good strategies for using with all kids. The list is not meant to be exhaustive. Add teaching strategies and ideas that have been successful for you.

- Try to allow the children choices as much as possible. This will help them develop a sense of control over their world and good communication skills. However, do not give a choice that is not really an option. Especially for young children who are just developing communication skills, you must be prepared to Comply with all choices you give! For example, coming in or not coming in from outdoor play may not be a choice provided to the child. However, the child may choose what toy to play with once he is inside.

- Accept alternative ways to communicate desires and choices. As adults, we all use a variety of gestures, noises, and facial expressions, along with words to communicate. Allow children to use a variety of communication strategies.

- Create needs for communication throughout the day.

- The materials that are available for each activity should meet the needs of children with a range of developmental levels. There is a range of development in all children at the same chronological age. Make sure you plan for the range of developmental needs in each activity.

Activity Adaptations

- Enhance the verbal cues used to tell children where to go next. Use gestures, pictures, or objects for children who need more than just speech. Use natural cues if possible, (¡§Its by the gerbils ¡X listen for noise!")

- Small baskets on walkers or wheel chairs or a backpacks or fanny packs can help children get materials from one activity to another

- Children who need help with walking or balance can move to a new area by using push toy or riding toy.

- To help children assist with clean-up mark the shelf areas where materials are kept. Children with difficulty

seeing may need to have the correct area outlined in with dark line markings, outlined with high contrast materials (bright yellow on a dark shelf), or marked with different textures.

Transition Times

- Make sure that there are clear paths between activity areas for children who may have difficulty moving from one place to another.

- Tape down edges of rugs so that little feet, wheelchairs or crutches don¡¦t get caught on the edges.

- To make transition time easier for children who need to be in adapted chairs, place the chair on platform with wheels or in wagon. Make sure that the chair is safely attached to the platform or wagon before moving it.

- Have tactile path between areas for children who have difficulty seeing their way from one area to another. The tactile path may be a bookcase or wall that is trailed, or a different floor covering that is used to indicate the borders of an area.

- Allow children who move slowly the opportunity to leave an area first in order to minimize moving time and obstacles.

- Use a cue or cues to indicate the time to transition to another area. The cues used should be adapted to the needs of the individual children. Don¡¦t be afraid to use combinations of cues. Playing a bell, musical instrument, or singing a clean-up song might be helpful for children who need an auditory cue. Turning the lights on and off or developing a picture cue for transition time might be a cue for child who needs a visual cue.

- Make sure that all areas (table & chairs, counters, shelves, etc) can be reached by a child in a wheelchair or by a child who may have difficulty reaching long distances.

- Include dolls with disabilities as part of the family of dolls available.

- Include equipment related to disabilities in the dress-up area. Some equipment might include glasses, canes, braces, hearing aides, or wheelchairs. The equipment can be pretend or made from old or outgrown equipment. Make sure equipment is safe.

- Other Adaptations I Like:

TABLE TOYS

- Most electric or battery operated toys can be modified to be activated by a switch. Find or make simple switches that allow for a variety of ways to access these types of toys.

- Make sure that toys won¡¦t move across table if the child cannot stabilize it. Use velcro, double-backed tape, a C-clamp to hold the toy to the table.

- Place the toy in a shallow tray on the table to help keep all the pieces together and define that play area.

- Investigate that toy already at the toy store.

Understanding Learning Disabilities

The hallmark characteristic of a learning disability is an individual's academic underachievement in reading, writing, and/or mathematics despite the presence of average to above average intelligence, appropriate instruction, regular school attendance, and favorable environmental factors. The Learning Disabilities Association of Canada (LDAC) provides a national definition of learning disabilities.

"Learning Disabilities" refer to a number of disorders, which may affect the acquisition, organization, retention, understanding, or use of verbal or nonverbal information. These disorders affect learning in individuals who otherwise demonstrate at least average abilities essential for thinking and/or reasoning. As such,

NOTES

learning disabilities are distinct from global intellectual deficiency. Learning disabilities result from impairments in one or more processes related to perceiving, thinking, remembering, or learning. These include, but are not limited to language processing, phonological processing, visual spatial processing, processing speed, memory and attention, and executive functions (e.g., planning and decision making).

Learning disabilities range in severity and may interfere with the acquisition and use of one or more of the following:

- Oral language (e.g., listening, speaking, understanding);

- Reading (e.g., decoding, phonetic knowledge, word recognition, comprehension);

- written language (e.g., spelling and written expression); and

- Mathematics (e.g., computation, problem solving).

Learning disabilities may also involve difficulties with organizational skill, social perception, social interaction, and perspective taking.

Learning disabilities are lifelong. The way in which they are expressed may vary over an individual's lifetime, depending on the interaction between the demands of the environment and the individual's strengths and needs. Learning disabilities are suggested by unexpected academic under-achievement or achievement which is maintained only by unusually high levels of effort and support.

Learning disabilities are due to genetic and/or neurobiological factors or injury that alters brain functioning in a manner which affects one or more processes related to learning. These disorders are not due primarily to hearing and/or vision problems, socio-economic factors, cultural or linguistic differences, lack of motivation, or ineffective teaching, although these factors may further complicate the challenges faced by individuals with learning disabilities. Learning disabilities may co-exist with various con-

ditions including attentional, behavioral and emotional disorders, sensory impairments, or other medical conditions.

For success, individuals with learning disabilities require early identification and timely specialized assessments and interventions involving home, school, community, and workplace settings. The interventions need to be appropriate for each individual's learning disability subtype and, at a minimum, include the provision of:

- Specific skill instruction;
- Accommodations;
- Compensatory strategies; and
- Self-advocacy skills.

Learning disabilities vary in terms of impact and may involve many skill areas. Several subtypes of learning disabilities are outlined in Figure 2.2. Individuals with a learning disability may experience difficulties with auditory processing, visual processing and/or motor skills, attending, and remembering information. Social interactions and relationships may also be negatively impacted by a learning disability. Approximately 75 percent of students diagnosed with learning disabilities manifest social skill deficits that distinguish them from their non-learning disabled peers (Sridhar & Vaughn, 2001). Although there are general characteristics associated with each type of learning disability, it is important to remember that every student is unique.

Types of Learning Disabilities

(a) Reading Disability

An individual with a reading disability demonstrates difficulties in reading skills that are unexpected in relation to age, cognitive ability, quantity and quality of instruction, and intervention. The reading difficulties are not the result of generalized developmental delay or sensory impairment (Lundberg & Hoien, 2001; Mather & Goldstein, 2001).

Reading disability may be characterized by:

- Difficulties in single word reading;

- Initial difficulties decoding or sounding out words;

- Difficulties reading sight words;

- Insufficient phonological processing; that is, the understanding that sentences are comprised of words, words are made up of syllables, and syllables are made up of individual sounds or phonemes;

- Expressive or receptive language difficulties; and

- Difficulties with comprehension.

The processing difficulties may also be revealed in spelling and writing. Written expression disability and mathematics disability are commonly found in combination with a reading disability (American Psychiatric Association, DSM-IV-TR, 2000). For students with a reading disability, the reading difficulties are persistent. Even though an individual's reading ability may eventually reach an acceptable performance, it often continues to be characterized by a slower reading rate.

(b) Written Expression Disorder

Individuals with a written expression disorder have significant difficulties in using writing to communicate meaning. They may have trouble formulating sentences, organizing paragraphs, using correct grammar and punctuation. They may have difficulty generating ideas to write about and can be slow to get their thoughts on paper. Their writing may be disorganized and incoherent and they may display excessively poor handwriting. Their ability to spell is often poorly developed. The difficulties in written expression significantly interfere with academic achievement or with daily living activities that require writing skills (American Psychiatric Association, DSM-IV-TR, 2000; Payne & Turner, 1999).

(c) Mathematics Disorder

Mathematics disorder refers to problems with the language component of mathematics: understanding concepts, decoding written problems into mathematical symbols, and following a sequence of steps. Students diagnosed with a disability in mathematics may have a difficult time recalling and understanding basic facts and often cannot remember the multiplication tables despite spending hours trying to memorize them. Reading mathematical signs and copying numbers or figures correctly may be difficult for these students. They may also have difficulties with direction and orientation (American Psychiatric Association, DSM-IV-TR, 2000; Payne & Turner, 1999).

(d) Nonverbal Learning Disability

Nonverbal learning disabilities (NLD) are not as well known or understood as language-based learning disabilities. In order to have a diagnosis of NLD a student must have a significant number of the strengths and weaknesses of the disorder (Whitney, 2002). A student with a nonverbal learning disability would demonstrate some of the following characteristics (Rourke, 2001):

Strengths in:	Difficulty with:
• using words in an adult fashion;	• interpreting and comprehending nonverbal cues;
• large vocabularies;	• the functional use of language in everyday conversations;
• well-developed verbal skills;	• social perception, social judgment, and social interactions;
• auditory perception;	• spatial orientation;
• simple motor skills; and	• motor coordination;
• memorizing information.	• organizing materials;
	• encountering new information, • situations, and/or transitions;
	• seeing the big picture; and
	• a logical sense of time.

During the school years a child with nonverbal disability may experience difficulty in mathematics, science, printing and writing, logical ordering and sequencing, organizing information, and nonverbal social skills (Rourke, 1989; Thompson, 1997). Teachers can support students with a nonverbal disability by:

- breaking down complex tasks into steps;
- providing visual organizers that outline material to be covered;
- providing schedules and notifying students when there are changes;
- using discussion formats rather than lectures;
- assisting students to interpret social cues such as facial expressions and tones of voice; and
- preparing students for transitions (Whitney, 2002).

Diagnosis of Learning Disabilities

Difficulties Associated with a Diagnosis

The diagnosis of a learning disability is not a simple process nor is it an exact science. Differentiating between learning problems and learning disabilities can be complicated. Students may present with academic and social difficulties for many reasons.

Learning disabilities have a neurological basis, and must be differentiated from normal variations in academic attainment and difficulties due to:

- lack of opportunity;
- incorrect instruction;
- cultural factors;
- impoverished or chaotic living environment; or
- disruptive behaviours.

Learning disabilities are also not due primarily to:

- sensory impairment (visual or hearing);
- physical challenges (motor);

- cognitive disabilities;
- emotional disturbance;
- environmental influence (environmental disadvantage); or
- cultural or language differences.

Sorting through the myriad of possibilities contributing to a student¡¦s inability to acquire proficient reading skills is complex. As a result, information is gathered from parents, teachers, speech pathologists, psychologists, and other professionals in order to assist in the process of a formal diagnosis. The purpose of a diagnosis is to better understand the abilities and needs of students and to better inform instruction. It is important to note that not every assessment will result in a diagnosis.

Traditionally, a discrepancy model has been used to make the diagnosis of a learning disability. The discrepancy is based on results from intelligence and academic achievement tests. An analysis is made of the discrepancy between the student¡¦s obtained scores on the intelligence and achievement tests. The essence of the discrepancy model is that academic achievement performance falls well below expectations based on intelligence. If a significant discrepancy is found, then a diagnosis of a learning disability is made.

According to many researchers (Feifer & De Fina, 2000; Lyon, et al., 2001; National Association of School Psychologists, 2003; Siegel, 2003), there are numerous concerns regarding the discrepancy formula.

- It is unclear which IQ score should be used with the achievement test to establish a discrepancy (i.e., the Verbal, Performance, or Full Scale IQ score).

- There is no universal agreement as to what the discrepancy should be (e.g., 1, 1.5, or 2 standard deviation[s]).

- The discrepancy formula has been inconsistently interpreted and/or misinterpreted.

- A discrepancy formula precludes early identification due

NOTES

to the inherent problems associated with standardized tests. For example, a 6-year-old child can get only two correct answers on a standardized reading test and still obtain a standard score within the average range. Thus, even though a child¡'s skills may be clearly delayed, the obtained score on the standardized test may not indicate there is a problem.

- A discrepancy model promotes a ¡§wait and fail¡¨ policy that delays interventions. If a teacher is waiting for a diagnosis before interventions are put in place, valuable learning and teaching time is lost.

- Research has shown that intelligence test scores may decrease over time with children who are not reading (Stanovich, 2000).

As a result of recent research, there is a movement away from the ability-achievement discrepancy model and a move toward the diagnostic criteria of significant underachievement and insufficient response to intervention (National Association of School Psychologists [NASP], 2003). The purpose of assessment should be early identification of students who are at risk for having difficulties learning to read. The ultimate goal should be prevention of reading problems and the provision of early intervention for students who are experiencing difficulties (Lyon, et al., 2001). Many psychologists have already made a move toward a change in the diagnostic process. The educational team members (e.g., Speech Language Pathologist, Psychologist, and Learning Assistance Teacher) use a variety of tests to assess intelligence, academic achievement, visual perception, memory, and language processing. The data from the formal and informal assessment tools is analyzed in addition to information from the student's history. This may include:

- studen's family and school history;

- attendance records;

- type of instruction received;

- duration of intervention;

- environmental factors; and

- other aspects that may have an impact on the child (e.g., trauma, other disorders such as ADHD, FASD, anxiety disorder, depression, medical conditions).

The diagnostic process is complex. Psychologists use the assessment information, diagnostic criteria, and their best professional judgement to make the decision whether an individual has a reading disability.

The diagnosis of a learning disability is important for many reasons. It provides teachers and parents with specific information about an individual, and guides appropriate interventions. A diagnosis verifies that a student has a disability and is not just lazy or not trying hard enough. The diagnosis may enhance the individual's understanding of their disability as a wealth of literature exists to substantiate the difficulties they are experiencing. The diagnosis may also give students access to many services and programs such as employability assistance and supports in postsecondary education. Details of available programs are outlined in Appendix I. Although the diagnosis is helpful for many reasons, it is important to emphasize that teachers should not wait for a formal diagnosis prior to providing interventions for students.

As previously indicated, there are many effective informal assessment measures, interventions, and adaptations a classroom teacher can implement prior to a formal diagnosis of a learning disability. It is critical that children are identified early on in their school career and appropriate interventions are promptly put in place. As Lyon, et al. (2001) indicate, without early intervention, the poor first grade reader almost invariably becomes a poor middle school reader, high school reader, and adult reader.

Visual Processing

Some students with a reading disability may have difficulty with visual processing (see Table). These difficulties exist in the absence of a visual impairment. Visual processing refers to orga-

nizing, analyzing, and understanding a visual message. In order to read, sounds must be connected to abstract visual symbols (the alphabet). The alphabet must be learned and remembered. The subsequent ability to perceive and to remember a sequence of letters is necessary in the process of learning to read.

Table : Visual Processing and Associated Difficulties

Visual Processing	Associated Areas of Difficulty
Perception – attending to and interpreting visual	• identifying letters and numbers; and • attending to signs in math.
Discrimination – Discriminating between letters and words that look alike (e.g., b/d/, p/q/, nip/hip)	• reversing letters or numbers after the age of seven (e.g., "b" for "d", "15" for "51"); • transposing (saw/was, pirvate for rivate); and • inverting letters (w/m, n/u).
Closure – assembling puzzles, closing spaces between letters (e.g., rab-bit)	• learning how to form letters; and • forming letters correctly.
Figure-Ground – focusing on the foreground and ignoring the background	• copying from the board and/or textbook; • tracking (students may use finger to track when reading); • completing and/or using a separate answer sheet; and • locating specific words on a page or in a • dictionary.

Visual-Motor Processing

One's ability to take in information through the visual channel and to combine it with motor responses is important for gross and fine motor skills. Gross motor integration involves coordinating the large muscle groups used to perform activities such as running, jumping, catching, throwing, and to maintain postural control. Fine motor integration involves coordinating small muscles in the fingers, hands, and wrists used to manipulate and control

objects and tools. Difficulty with visual motor processing may directly impact writing. Students may have difficulty copying from a board or book, writing within the lines, and may erase excessively. Individuals may also experience difficulties with spatial orientation and relationships. For example, maneuvering through spaces and organizing materials may be problematic.

Attention

Attending is the ability to filter out information in order to maintain attention to the task at hand. Some students have difficulty attending to important information.. Attention and concentration difficulties may reduce reading rate. If a student does not attend to new information, there is little chance of remembering it later. Students with attention difficulties may also demonstrate varying degrees of hyperactivity and/or impulsiveness.

Memory

Information is received through the senses and when perceived and attended to, it can be held for a short time in working (short-term) memory. Depending upon its relevance and the way it is organized it may be moved and stored in long-term memory.

Short-term memory contains thoughts for the moment. When working memory is activated through strategies such as chunking, rehearsal, and elaboration, the capacity and duration for storing this information may be increased. In addition, working memory capacity may also be expanded if some of the mental processes are automated.

If students use only their working memory to decode print, they cannot comprehend well what they are reading. In order to read and comprehend fluently, it is necessary that decoding become automatic. If the information is relevant, interesting, and well organized it may be placed in long-term memory for permanent storage.

The active processes used to organize, to relate the new information to prior knowledge, and to store it in a meaningful way

have implications for how easily the learner will be able to retrieve the information for future use (Alberta Education, 1996). Teachers may report that a student with a reading disability appears to know the information one day but can¡¦t remember it another. The difficulty may not always represent memory as much as the way the information is processed. Working memory allows us to use our memory systems flexibly. It enables us to hold on to information by rehearsing it in our minds, to relate that information to prior knowledge, and to plan our future actions.

Metacognition

Efficient learning involves the active control, coordination, and monitoring of learning processes and strategies. Campione, Brown & Ferrara (1982, p. 436) state that:

Metacognition is knowledge about oneself as a learner, knowledge about the task, and knowledge about the skills and strategies needed to perform the task. Executive control is the process of selecting, monitoring and overseeing the effectiveness of learning based on feedback, and regulating learning by activating appropriate strategies.

In simplest terms, metacognition is thinking about your thinking. It serves the function of quality control. Metacognition is involved in the decisions learners make such as what to attend to; what is already known that might apply in a new situation; what memory strategy might be appropriate to organize, store, and retrieve the new information; and whether the first plan is working effectively. The learner considers questions such as: Do we need to change plans? Is it a good idea? Is it working?

Metacognitive functioning also involves coordinating the processes and strate gies involved in learning. An important aspect of this coordination is the activation of processes to maximize generalization. Generalization involves recognizing that a strategy, information, or behaviour found useful in a familiar situation can be applied to a new situation. Transfer involves modifying

the original strategy, information, or behaviour to fit a new situation. As this transfer becomes more automatic, a student has greater capacity for higher level thinking.

Study and Organizational Skills

The ability to organize oneself and use effective study skills is related to metacognitive and attention skills. Stopping and thinking about how you learn is important in the process of getting organized and preparing for assignments and examinations. Efficient learning is enhanced by the ability to organize materials and information and to complete tasks systematically. Students who are learning disabled often have difficulty in this area.

Table : Study and Organization Skills and Associated Difficulties

Study and Organization	Associated Areas of Difficulty
Metacognitive and Attention Skills	• organizing materials and work environment (books, locker, desk); • keeping track of assignments and/or materials; • bringing assignments home or back to school; • being punctual and/or keeping appointments; • completing highly structured work (essay); • setting goals; • prioritizing; • judging and managing time; • planning and scheduling; and • using strategies for studying and test-taking.

Social Skills

Socially competent individuals possess well-developed receptive and expressive language skills, a positive self concept, and a sense of control over their lives. Nonverbal communication skills (reading facial expressions and body language), paralinguistic information (sensitivity to the tone and intensity of a voice),

attending skills, and impulse control also influence social skills. Individuals with a learning disability typically have experienced academic struggles and feelings of failure. This negatively impacts self-concept and contributes to difficulties in social skills. It is imperative that attention is given to the area of social skill development, peer group dynamics, and building on individual student strengths.

Examination useful Question

Long Type Question:

1. How to develop appropriate teaching practice? Discuss in detail.

2. What do you understand by learning disabilities? Explain.

3. Do you think partial participation in teaching in necessary? Give your opinion.

Short Type Question:

1. What is general good teaching? Explain.

2. What do you mean by Transition Times? Explain.

3. Write about learning of disabilities.

Block - V

EVALUATION

Unit 1 :   Evaluation - Concept and Need

Unit 2 :   Testing Language skills and Language elements

Unit 3 :   Adaptation of Evaluation Tools for Children with Disabilities

Unit 4 :   Individualized assessment for Children with Disabilities

Unit 5 :   Error Analysis, Diagnostic tests and Enrichment Measures

NOTES

5.1 & 2 Evaluation - Concept and Need and Testing Language skills and Language elements

Study material included in this unit -

- Introduction
- Defining Evaluation
- Evaluation Types
- Other Evaluation Related Concepts
- Steps to Guide Evaluation Practice
- Vocabulary
- Grammar
- Communication Skills
- Listening Skills
- Examination Useful Question

Objectives

After study this chapter you will understand the following facts.

- Defining Evaluation
- Evaluation Types
- Other Evaluation Related Concepts
- Steps to Guide Evaluation Practice
- Vocabulary
- Grammar
- Communication Skills
- Listening Skills

Introduction

Any framework designed to promote an understanding of evaluation inSaskatchewan should include a common conception of what evaluation is. (Minister's Advisory Committee on Evaluation and Monitoring 1989) Evaluation concepts are understood in very different ways. For this reason it is important to define them so everyone will attach the same meaning to them, or know what the differences are, thereby improving communication. An overview of common evaluation concepts follows. For an example of a complete set of evaluation definitions, see the Glossary of Key Terms in Evaluation and ResultsBased Management (Development Assistance Committee [DAC]. Working Party on Aid Evaluation 2002).

Defining Evaluation

Many definitions of evaluation exist. Most definitions refer to program evaluation; some refer to project or policy evaluation. Some definitions use one term to refer to all types of evaluation, for example including policy and program evaluation under the umbrella title of policy evaluation. This section provides a number of examples of evaluation definitions.

Evaluation is often defined as an activity that judges worth. For example, evaluation is:

...the determination of merit, worth, or significance... (Scriven 2007) A course of action used to assess the value or worth of a program. (Farell et al. 2002)

Some definitions include the notion of improvement. For example:

[Evaluation is] a set of research questions and methods geared to reviewing processes, activities and strategies for the purpose of improving them in order to achieve better results. (Kahan & Goodstadt 2005)

Policy evaluation is a family of research methods that are used to systematically investigate the effectiveness of policies, programmes,

projects and other types of social intervention, with the aim of achieving improvement in the social, economic and everyday conditions of people's lives. (Government Social Research Unit 2007).

The real purpose of an evaluation is not just to find out what happened, but to use the information to make the project better. (Community Tool Box undated).

Evaluation is an integral part of all aspects of the educational process and its major purpose is to improve instruction and student learning…Evaluation is the reflective link between the dream of what should be and the reality of what is. This reflective link or activity will contribute to the vision of schools which are self-renewing, with mechanisms in place to support the ongoing examination and renewal of educational practices. Evaluation procedures must contribute to that vision. (Minister's Advisory Committee on Evaluation and Monitoring 1989)

Other definitions focus on results. For example:

Project evaluation involves measuring and assessing the impact of the project based on specific criteria: – effectiveness: the degree to which objectives have been attained, determined by comparing the results actually obtained to the results targeted – relevance: the relationship between the objectives set and the needs to be met – efficiency: the relationship between the quantity and quality of educational goods and services provided and the means used to obtain them: types of resources, organization and operation (Direction des services aux communautés culturelles and École montréalaise, Ministère de l'Éducation undated)

Evaluation is the process of assessing the impact of a project, programme or policy while it is in operation, or after it has come to an end. It involves consideration of the economy, efficiency and effectiveness of the project to determine whether the original objectives have been achieved. These will have been identified at the project initiation stage and documented in the business case. Evaluation brings to the fore the lessons to be

learnt for the future which, in turn, should be fed into future decision-making. Evaluation does not seek to create blame for what did not go well. (Department of Health 2002)

Note that the last definition includes the notion of improvement in addition to results; some definitions include more than one focus. A definition of evaluation that incorporates most of the ideas mentioned in the above definitions follows: The systematic and objective assessment of an on-going or completed project, programme or policy, its design, implementation and results. The aim is to determine the relevance and fulfillment of objectives, development efficiency, effectiveness, impact and sustainability. An evaluation should provide information that is credible and useful, enabling the incorporation of lessons learned into the decision–making process of both recipients and donors.

Evaluation also refers to the process of determining the worth or significance of an activity, policy or program. An assessment, as systematic and objective as possible, of a planned, ongoing, or completed development intervention.

Note: Evaluation in some instances involves the definition of appropriate standards, the examination of performance against those standards, an assessment of actual and expected results and the identification of relevant lessons. (Development Assistance Committee [DAC] Working Party on Aid Evaluation 2002)

The range of definitions can be confusing. However, Patton (2003) cuts through the confusion to make this point:

I feel no need for a definitive, authority-based definition [of evaluation], and I do not expect one to emerge despite the lamentations of those unsettled and confused by our diversity. It just means that we each bear the responsibility to be clear about what we mean by evaluation.

Evaluation Types

The literature lists a number of different types of evaluation. Definitions of these evaluation categories sometimes vary. The

left-hand column in the table below lists key evaluation types as described in the document Evaluating CrimePrevention through Social Development Projects: Handbook for CommunityGroups (Public Safety and Emergency Preparedness Canada 2006). The righthand column provides notes on the definition of the evaluation type based on information from other sources. The current trend in the literature is to advocate use of a range of evaluation types rather than any one type in particular.

Other Evaluation-Related Concepts

More definitions of evaluation-related concepts follow. Each definition is quoted verbatim from its source. Note that other documents may define these concepts in different ways. Concepts are listed alphabetically.

Steps To Guide Evaluation Practice

Each approach has a number of associated sets of steps which guide the practice of evaluation. Regardless of the approach there is a large degree of overlap in the suggested steps. Steps related to any particular approach will differ in the nature of the methods and tasks related to each step. Many descriptions of steps emphasize their iterative nature and that a particular order is not always followed.

An example of a fairly typical set of steps follows, from Van Marris and King (2007). It differs from other sets of steps in two ways. First, it is more comprehensive than many and is therefore useful as a checklist to ensure no major steps are omitted. Second, the step "engage stakeholders" is relevant to collaborative evaluation approaches but may not be relevant to other approaches.

Although designed to evaluate health promotion programs, the set of steps below is generalizable to many other types of programs and policies.

1. Clarify your Program: e.g. define goals, population of interest, outcome objectives, activities, measurable indicators

2. Engage Stakeholders

3. Assess Resources for the Evaluation: e.g. staff, funding

4. Design the Evaluation: e.g. select evaluation type and framework, consider ethical issues and confidentiality

5. Determine Appropriate Methods of Measurement and Procedures

6. Develop Work Plan, Budget and Timeline for Evaluation

7. Collect the Data Using Agreed-upon Methods and Procedures

8. Process and Analyze the Data

9. Interpret and Disseminate the Results

10. Take Action

Utilization-Focused Evaluation

Utilization-Focused Evaluation (U-FE) begins with the premise that evaluations should be judged by their utility and actual use; therefore, evaluators should facilitate the evaluation process and design any evaluation with careful consideration of how everything that is done, from beginning to end, will affect use. Use concerns how real people in the real world apply evaluation findings and experience the evaluation process. Therefore, the focus in utilization focused evaluation is on intended use by intended users. Since no evaluation can be value-free, utilization-focused evaluation answers the question of whose values will frame the evaluation by working with clearly identified, primary intended users who have responsibility to apply evaluation findings and implement recommendations. (Patton 2002) Utilization-Focused Evaluation is associated with Michael Quinn Patton, quoted above. This approach is open ended: Utilization-focused evaluation does not advocate any particular evaluation content, model, method, theory, or even use. Rather, it is a process for helping primary intended users select the most appropriate content, model, methods, theory, and uses for their particular situ-

ation. Situational responsiveness guides the interactive process between evaluator and primary intended users. A utilization-focused evaluation can include any evaluative purpose (formative, summative, developmental), any kind of data (quantitative, qualitative, mixed), any kind of design (e.g., naturalistic, experimental), and any kind of focus (processes, outcomes, impacts, costs, and cost-benefit, among many possibilities).

Utilization-focused evaluation is a process for making decisions about these issues in collaboration with an identified group of primary users focusing on their intended uses of evaluation. (Patton 2002)

The obvious strengths of this approach are its pragmatic flexibility and the greatly increased likelihood that evaluation results will be followed up on.

One concern mentioned in the literature is that by focusing the evaluation on the interests of the intended users of the results, the role of other groups may be decreased. (Mickwitz 2003)

Collaborative Evaluation

Three distinguishable features are used to characterize collaborative evaluation: control of the evaluation process (ranging from control of decision being completely in the hands of the evaluator or researcher to control being exerted entirely by practitioners); stakeholder selection for participation (ranging from restriction to primary users to inclusion of all legitimate groups); and depth of participation (from consultation—with no decision making control or responsibility—to deep participation— involvement in all aspects of an evaluation from design, data collection, analysis, and reporting to decisions about dissemination of results and use; Cousins & Whitmore, 1998). The evaluation is located somewhere on each continuum depending on who controls the process, who participates, and how much. (Butterfoss et al. 2001)

Many types of evaluation are classified as "collaborative," ranging from democratic evaluation to empowerment evaluation. Butterfoss

et al. (2001) provide an overview of the various types of collaborative evaluation:

- Practical participatory evaluation (P-PE): "fosters evaluation use and assumes that evaluation is geared toward program, policy or organizational decision making. The central premise of P-PE is that stakeholder participation in evaluation will enhance relevance, ownership, and utilization."

- Transformative participatory evaluation (T-PE): "aims to empower people through participation in the process of respecting their knowledge (based on Friere's, 1970, conscientization) and understanding the connection among knowledge, power, and control. Evaluators and participants work collectively, and participants are urged to consider their own biases and assumptions through critical reflection. T-PE has as its primary function the empowerment of individuals and groups…In this process, evaluation methods and products are used to transform power relations and to promote social action and change." Facilitators and participants make joint decisions about the evaluation.

- Stakeholder-based evaluation: "similar to P-PE but is used in situations where stakeholder groups do not generally agree on program goals and need to be guided to consensus by the evaluator (Cousins & Earl, 1992). Thus, stakeholder-based evaluation is used best in decisionoriented, problem-solving, or summative evaluations (Mark & Shotland, 1985). Stakeholderbased evaluation differs from TPE because of its practical goals, evaluator control, and limited stakeholder participation."

- Democratic evaluation: "similar to stakeholder-based evaluation because it increases the use of evaluation by having evaluators and participants share the work and decisions (MacDonald, 1976). It is democratic because participants have control over the interpretation and publication of data and results (McTaggart, 1991). Finally, representation from diverse stakeholder groups is an essential element of democratic evaluation."

Introduction

Testing has become an area of increased interest to language
teachers and applied linguists in the last decade. Yet as Davies
says (Davies 1979) testing has for many years firmly resisted
attempts to bring it within the mainstream of applied linguistics.
This is no doubt to some extent due to historical reasons, as
both Davies and Morrow (this volume) suggest. In the era that
Spolsky dubbed the 'psychometric-structuralist period' language
testing was dominated by criteria for the establishment of edu-
cational measuring instruments developed within the tradition of
psychometrics. As a result of this emphasis on the statistical
analysis of language tests, a group developed, over the years, of
specialists in language testing. Testing Experts', popularly be-
lieved to live in an arcane world of numbers and formulae. As
most language teachers are from a non-numerate background
(sometimes having deliberately fled 'figures') it is not surprising
that they were reluctant to involve themselves in the mysteries
of statistics. Consequently, an expertise developed in language
testing and particularly proficiency testing, divorced from the
concerns of the language classroom, and imbued with its own
separate concerns and values which to outsiders were only partially
comprehensible and apparently irrelevant. Despite the advent of
Spolsky's third phase of language testing the
psycholinguisticsociolinguistic phase (what Moller (this volume)
calls the third and fourth phases psycholinguisticsociolinguistic
and sociolinguistic-communicative phases) 'testing' has not yet
recovered from this image of being stubbornly irrelevant to or
unconcerned with the language teacher, except for its embodi-
ment in 'exams' which dominate many a syllabus (be it the Cambridge
First Certificate or the TOEFL). Teachers who have felt they
should be concerned with assessing what or whether learners
have learned have found the jargon and argumentation of 'Test-
ing' forbidding and obscure.

But evaluation (note how the terminology has changed over the
years, with the intention of making the subject less threatening)

is readily acknowledged by teachers and curriculum theorists alike to be an essential part of language learning, just as feedback is recognised as essential in any learning process.

The consequence of this need to evaluate has been the fact that teachers have actually carried out tests all along but have felt uncomfortable, indeed guilty and apologetic about doing so when there is apparently so much about 'testing' they do not know. So when suggesting that 'Testing' has become more central to the present-day concerns of language teachers, it is not intended to imply that previously 'in the bad old days' nobody tested, or that the testing that was done was of ill repute, but merely to suggest that teachers felt that what they were doing was in some important sense lacking in respectability however relevant or important it might actually have been.

The fact is, however, that testing has become an area of increased research activity, and many more articles are published on the subject today in professional journals than ten years ago. This is evidence of a turning in the tide of applied linguistics towards more empirical concerns. It has been suggested that testing has to date remained outside the mainstream of applied linguistics; in particular, the view of language incorporated in many tests has become increasingly at odds with theories of language and language use indeed, to some extent at least, it no longer reflects classroom practice in language teaching. Now there may be good arguments for tests not to follow the whim of fashion in language teaching, but when there is a serious discrepancy between the teaching and the mean of evaluating that teaching, then something appears to be amiss. The feeling abroad today is that theories abound of communicative language teaching, of the teaching of ESP, of integrated language teaching, but where are the tests to operationalise those theories? Where are the communicative language tests, the ESP tests, the integrated language tests? Applied linguists and language teachers alike are making increasingly insistent demands on language testers to supply the language tests that current theory and practice

require, and the response of testers has, to date, been mixed. Some have rushed in where others have feared to tread: extravagant claims have been made for new techniques, new tests, new assessment procedures. Others have stubbornly resisted the pressure, claiming that tests of communicative competence or ESP are either impossible (in theory, or in practice) or unnecessary because existing tests and techniques are entirely adequate. Inevitably, there are also agnostics on the side lines, who remain sceptical until they have seen the evidence for and against the claims of either side. It was hoped by intense debate to establish what the important issues were in these areas, so that the interested reader could provide himself with a set of criteria for judging (or constructing) language tests, or perhaps more realistically, for investigating further. It is clear, always, that more research is needed but it is hoped that this book will help to clarify where research and development needs to be concentrated at present. We are living in a world of claim and counter-claim, where the excitement of the battle may make us lose sight of the reasons for the conflict: namely the need for learners and outsiders to assess progress in language learning or potential for such progress, as accurately as possible. No research programme or test development should forget this.

The format of the Symposium was as follows. Having decided on the three main areas for debate, recent and influential articles in those areas were selected for study and all Symposium participants were asked to produce papers reacting to one or more of these articles, outlining what they felt to be the important issues being raised. These reaction papers were circulated in advance of the Symposium, and the Symposium itself consisted of a discussion in each of the three areas, based on the original articles and the related reaction papers.

Like the Symposium, the volume is divided into three main sections: one section for each of the areas of communica tive language testing, ESP testing, and general language proficiency. Within each section there are three parts: the original article(s), the

NOTES

reaction papers and an account of the discussion based upon tape recordings of the proceedings by the present writer. These accounts of the discussion do not represent the views of any one participant, including the present writer, but are an attempt to summarise the issues that were raised. However, it should be stressed that although the accounts of the discussion attempt to be fair to the substance and quality of the debate, they must, inevitably, ultimately represent one person's view of what was said, since it would be impossible to achieve complete consensus on what was said, let alone its correctness or significance. At times the accounts repeat points made in the reaction papers also published in this volume, but no apologies are offered for repetition, as this simply reflects the level of interest in or concern over these particular points. Although it was hoped to include responses from the authors of the original articles only one response was available at the time of going to press, that of Helmut Vollmer.

Nevertheless, it is hoped that subsequent debate will include the responses and further thoughts of the other authors in the light of these discussions.

This is not a definitive volume on language testing and it does not attempt to be such. What this book hopes to do is to encourage further debate, a critical or sceptical approach to claims made about 'progress' and 'theories', and to encourage practical research in important areas. It has not been the intention of this Introduction to guide the reader through the discussions that would have been presumptuous and unnecessary but rather to set the scene for them. Thus there is here no summary of positions taken, arguments developed and issues raised. However, there is, after the three main sections, an Epilogue, and the reader is advised not to ignore this: it is intended, not to tell the reader what he has read, but to point the way forward in the ongoing debate about the assessment of language learning.

Testing' should not and cannot be left to Testers': one of the most encouraging developments of the last decade is the in-

volvement of more applied linguists in the area of assessment and evaluation. In a sense, there can be no Epilogue, because the debate is unfinished, and we hope that participation in the debate will grow. It is ultimately up to the reader to write his own 'Way Forward'

Vocabulary

One of the areas in which first and second language speakers differ substantially is their handling of vocabulary. While native English speakers can be expected to know commonly occurring words, this is by no means certain for second language speakers. The text below exemplifies how first and second language speakers vary in their knowledge of vocabulary in the context of reading. This text originates from a bank of national literacy tests which all learners are expected to take to pass their Skills for Life and Key Skills exams. Candidates are expected to read the text and answer five questions. The design of the test is the responsibility of the Qualifications and Curriculum Development Authority (QCDA, formerly known as QCA), the regulatory body for publicly funded qualifications in England. While native English speakers may not be fluent readers, if they can decode words (ie identify individual letters and assemble them into words), they are very likely to know their meaning, apart from perhaps the word flammable. By contrast, second language speakers may be able to decode a word but not know its meaning. This means that, having made the effort to read, they are no further in understanding the text. This is very likely to happen with the text above, as Leech, Rayson and Wilson's (2001) word frequency list shows. This is based on the 100-million word British National Corpus and provides the following information on the vocabulary in the paragraph above: investigate (55 occurrences per 1 million words), explosion (22), reduce (178), rubble (fewer than 10), identify (133), blast (10), flammable (fewer than 10) and suspicious (14)/suspicion (23). In other words, many of the items in this text are rare. To demonstrate the range of frequencies, the most commonly found nouns in the British National

Corpus are time (1833 occurrences per million); year (1639); and people (1256).We can say that, the lower the frequency of the words, the less likely learners are, statistically speaking, to have encountered them. This is particularly relevant for second language speakers who, compared to first language speakers, are much more likely not to have encountered words before.

This lack of exposure is likely to affect learner scores substantially in the test situation. Tests which contain too many unknown words do not discriminate well as to what the learners know. Instead, they are likely to produce test results which show major failure. It appears that unfamiliar topics and the vocabulary associatedwith themdisadvantage second language speakers disproportionally. Indeed, several studies have demonstrated this point, identifying a limit to the ability of second language speakers to deduce the meaning of new words in context. Research by Laufer (1992) and Nation (2002) indicates that most learners find it difficult to infer the meaning of new words, if they know fewer than 95% of the words of a text. Khalifa andWeir (2009) suggest an even higher percentage of 97% to enable ease of reading, especially for higher levels of language skills. If we take the QCDA reading test above we find that only 77% of the words are likely to be known at Level 1. This is substantially lower than the threshold levels iden- tified in the research literature.

This leaves teachers in a quandary as to how to best to prepare students for tests such as Skills for Life, Key Skills, GCSE and Functional Skills. Teachers often opt to use texts with lots of new vocabulary on the basis that it provides the learners with the opportunity to learn many new words. Yet Nation's (2001) meta-analysis of studies on vocabulary learning shows that learners need to encounter a word many times before they know its meaning.

Most new vocabulary is learnt after six or seven occurrences. At the lower end of the vocabulary spectrum, O'Keeffe et al (2007) report that the most commonly used words in English make up more than 80% of all the words used in spoken and

written texts. This common core consists of 2,000 words. It seems obvious that teaching and testing should promote the learning of these words as a matter of priority, especially at lower language levels. O'Keeffe et al also comment on the types of common words that need special attention, such as functional words3 and chunks of words which go together, e.g. get a job and make coffee. The concern is that the current standards, ESOL curriculum and tests for GCSE, Skills for Life and Functional Skills do not address core vocabulary.

Grammar

The second feature by which we can easily distinguish native and second language speakers is the structure of the language they produce. For second language speakers we can analyse language in terms of production which:

- is accurate and follows the rules of English

- is influenced by the learner's first language

- conforms to a typical pattern of language developmentwhich does not reflect

English or the first language

Until the 1960s the influence of the first language was thought to be the main source of errors made in the second. But many research studies have shown that learners make mistakes in their new language which do not reflect their first language at all.

Intriguingly, learners follow similar patterns of language development regardless of their first language. Larry Selinker (1972) was the first to use the term 'interlanguage' to capture the gradual development of language acquisition as learners progress from pre-Entry upwards. Interlanguage is not static: it changes as the learners develop their ability to use English. Authors such as Lightbown and Spada (2006) and Rod Ellis (1994) provide much evidence of the typical development of grammar, of which one sequence is presented in the boxes below:

NOTES

progressive *–ing: he is writing*   plural: *cats, houses*   copula (to be): *I am from Somalia*

auxiliary to be: *he is writing*   article: *I saw a man walking down the street*

irregular past: *she went, bought, flew etc*

regular past-*ed: she worked*   third person singular *–s: he visits*   possessive *'s: My uncle's house*

Krashen's (1977) sequence of the order of morpheme acquisition

While previous studies had identified the grammatical features described above, Krashen (1977) was the first to put them into groups. This reflects the fact that second language speakers acquire the features in each box at more or less the same time regardless of their first language (Ellis 1994). So, for example, a beginner can be expected to say: I writing; followed later by: I am writing. This grammar sequence is by no means the only one for which there is empirical evidence. There are similar sequences for the acquisition of negatives and negative sentences, relative clauses etc (Lightbown and Spada 2006). The existence of these sequences of acquisition provides an ideal base to devise standards, assess language skills, and plan for and reflect on learning. Yet none of national literacy strategies, standards, exams or the ESOL curriculum makes use of these sequences. Thus a real opportunity is missed to reflect language acquisition and to promote effective language learning in the classroom.

Communication skills

All government-sponsored standards and exams categorise speaking and listening as one skill. For example, in the Skills for Life and Key Skills exams they are treated as 'communication'. The rationale for this approach is not clear and there is, to my knowledge, no research evidence to support it; nor is it applied in other countries. On the contrary, language used by first and second language speakers indicates that speaking and listening are two distinct skills. For example, many young and adult first language speakers who perform below the expected norm in spoken communication show differences in their ability to speak and understand. Their spoken language skills and command of register are typically well below their ability to understand spoken language. That is why traditionally the two skills of speaking and listening have been assessed separately.

The decision to treat the skills of listening and speaking as one entity is particularly problematic for second language learners because there is often a major difference in their level of competence in speaking and listening, normally of at least one level. So typically, a learner may be at Skills for Life Entry 3 for listening and Entry 2 for speaking. This creates a problem during an integrated speaking and listening assessment: candidates may have understood a dialogue or a question but may lack the language to report back or respond appropriately. Thus the listening score is 'polluted' by the candidate's lower speaking skills.

As a result, the speaking score may be accurate but the listening skills are rated below the actual level. In the interest of fairness and reliability, standards and exams to test listening and speaking should be reviewed at the earliest opportunity.

Listening skills

There are two aspects to listening. If we look at the national standards and tests, we see that by listening is meant comprehension. While this is no doubt an important skill, it is not the

only one required to achieve understanding. Underpinning the skill of comprehension is that of understanding a stream of sound and converting the speech signal into sounds, words and sentences. This process is similar in nature to readers decoding written text in order to understand its meaning. As John Field (2003) says in his article on listening, it is remarkable that native speakersmanage the first process so fluently, namely to identify individual words consistently while they listen to spoken English. Second language speakers, however, find this hard to do. This is a real problem as, without the ability to decode the stream of sound, comprehension cannot take place. You may well have experienced this yourself, trying to understand what an Italian or French waiter is saying to you.Moreover, listening is a most important skill, perhaps the most important for migrants and refugees, both to learn the new language and to survive in their new environment.

The predicament that second language speakers face is that, even if they know the words when they see them written down or hear them in isolation, they may not recognise them when they hear them in connected speech. This is largely because the boundaries between words in spoken English often cannot be detected because words merge into each other (Field 2007). To make matters more complicated, emerging research evidence indicates that the principles ofsegmentation vary across languages, which may explain why learners from some language groups have more difficulty with this aspect than others. The good news is that there are rules for lexical segmentation in the same way that there are rules for grammar (Field 2007). Second language speakers can benefit greatly from being taught how these rules operate. The bad news is that, despite the importance of this aspect as the key to comprehension and learning, it is simply absent from the Skills for Life, Functional Skills and GCSEs national standards and exams.

Of real concern is the fact that the ESOL curriculum follows this narrow focus on comprehension, lacking strategies to learn to

decode the stream of sound. There is minimal attention to only one small aspect of listening, that of word stress. Instead it prescribes the functions which the learners need to carry out for the Skills for Life exams. For example,

Entry 3 has 13 descriptors for listening, of which three examples here: Listen for the gist of information or narrative in face-to-face interaction or on the phone (1c); Listen for detail in narratives and explanations (2a); Listen for relevant and new information in face-to-face situations or on the phone (3b). Even at Entry 1, which is at the very beginner level, the learners are asked to recognise context and predict general meaning (1a); listen for gist (1b-d) and detail 2a-b) rather than learn how spoken English fits together.

Reading

The skill of reading is hard to assess, both in class and in the test situation. Although is it often described as a 'passive' skill, it is nothing of the sort: reading often involves multiple processes in which the reader is actively engaged. For example, a question may test candidates' comprehension of a paragraph. A typical sequence of skills application and the impact on the successful outcome of the task is outlined below:

Learner 1 is unable to decode thewordswithin the sentence, so cannot answer the question

Learner 2's workingmemory is fully occupiedwith reading words and sentences, which leaves no 'brain space' for comprehension

Learner 3 has understood the paragraph but does not understand the question and comes to the wrong conclusion as to the answer

Learner 4 can decode, read the paragraph formeaning, understands the question correctly and gives the right answer

The test item above engages the candidates in a sequence of four processes which only produce the correct answer if the learner manages all of them. Thus, reading is not just a complex

process for the reader, it is also challenging for the test setter. This is because test items are only effective if they are set with a clear understanding of their purpose and of the skills which are being tested. Tests such as the National Literacy Test show that it is not easy to achieve construct validity and reliability over time. The pass scores for this test vary significantly from test to test, indicating that the level of difficulty is not stable. While it is often argued that grade adjustments counter-balance the variability of the difficulty of these tests, it has a significant impact on the learners. In my experience as a teacher, learners feel bewildered by the range of scores they get for practice and exam tests. Even those who take and pass a difficult exam feel deflated if their score was low. There is also the concern that an increase in test difficulty affects second language speakers disproportionally because as, we saw on p.9, learners find it hard to infer the meaning of unfamiliar words.

The Sub Skills Approach

So far we have looked at the reliability of reading tests. A second consideration is the understanding of the concept of reading and the parameters that standards writers and policymakers set for the testing of this skill. A major feature of government-sponsored standards and exams, including Skills for Life, GCSE and Functional Skills, has been the dissection of reading skills into subskills such as skimming, scanning, reading for gist and for meaning. Weir and Khalifa (2008a) comment that this categorisation is based on the competencies which skilled readers deploy. This type of reader can choose which approach to take, depending on the reason and purpose for which they read a text. However, we need to question whether this taxonomy can be applied with equal validity to the process of learning to read. For instance, Koda (2005) found that unskilled readers are unable to adjust processing mode, i.e. they read word-for-word regardless of the purpose for which they read a text. This implies that certainly at the lower and intermediate levels a skills based approach is not relevant.

Researchers such as Walter and Swan (2009) question the value of the skimming, scanning and reading for gist approach when teaching second language speakers. This is because there is little evidence that teaching these skills promotes effective reading development. Walter's studies show that language learners do not have a reading defect, as they can read for meaning perfectly well in their own language. There is strong evidence that the command of the new language is the key to reading in it. In her study, learners with a lower-intermediate level of English could not access their comprehension skill because they suffered from overload. They were fully occupied with decoding at word and sentence level and had little spare working memory capacity to process meaning. It was only when they reached an upper-intermediate level of English that they were able to 'unlock' their comprehension skill. Walter and Swan come to the conclusion that the value of teaching skimming, scanning etc is questionable 'as the justification for a variety of relatively unproductive classroom activities'. The introduction of the sub-skills approach in government-sponsored exams has had a major impact on delivery in the classroom, with many teachers spending much time training their students in these techniques. This takes up valuable learning time which, as Walter and Swan say, is not productive. It appears thus that setting test questions to assess the ability to skim, scan etc are not the best way of establishing how well the language learner can read. This has important implications not only for testing but also for the teaching of English, where, as we saw earlier, significant negative backwash occurs.

While there is as yet no decision on the application of Functional Skills to people whose first language is not English, it is interesting to explore how well the new standards would match the profile of this target group. Here are the Functional Skills standards for Entry 3 Reading (QCDA 2007):

Entry 3	Independently read and understand straightforward nexts for a purpose.	• Understand the main points of texts (including diagrams or graphical representations). Written texts are of more than one paragraph at this level.
		• obtain specific information through detailed reading.
		• scan texts and use organisational features to locate information (for example contents, index, menus).
		• use strategies to read and understand texts in different formats (for example web page, application form).
		in texts that inform, instruct, describe and narrate, on paper and on screen.

It appears that, like its predecessors, the Functional Skills standards rely heavily on the subskills approach of testing the ability to read for gist etc. In the light of the evidence produced above, it would appear that these standards would need to revised if they were to be adopted to test the skills of second language speakers. It is also worth pointing out that there is no research evidence to show that the sub-skills approach is effective with first language speakers.

Walter and Swan are not alone in their judgement that the command of the new language is key to the ability to read it. Grabe (2009) summarises several studies which shed further light on the processes involved. Studies carried out by Verhoeven over 15 years and others in the USA, Canada and elsewhere indicate that learners transfer some skills from their first language into their second: primarily the pragmatic, phonological and word-decoding knowledge they have learnt in their first language. This

explains why learners who canv already read, even if another script, master reading English much more quickly than people who cannot read at all. However, other skills are not transferable from the first language and need to be in place before learners can tackle reading in their second language. Verhoeven,

Geva (2006) and others agree that a well-developed knowledge of syntax, vocabulary, oral proficiency and listening comprehension in the second language support the development of reading skills in L2. Grabe concludes that some level of second language proficiency must be developed before first language reading skills can be transferred.

We can conclude that the current framework of skills such as skimming, scanning etc does not provide a suitable framework for testing the reading skills of second language speakers. An alternative option for an overarching framework would be a cognitive processing approach as this provides 'amore productive theoretical basis for establishing what reading comprehension really involves' Weir and Khalifa 2008b). Grabe echoes this point by describing reading as a unified construct, inwhich the same cognitive processes are involved regardless of the subskill applied.

Examination useful Question:

Long Type Question:

1. Give the definition of evaluation and discuss the evaluation types in detail.

2. How to steps wise guide of evaluation practice? Explain.

3. What you understand by communication skills and listening skills? Explain in detail.

Short Type Question:

1. What is the importance of vocabularies in English Language? Explain.

2. What is grammar? Is it necessary to leader perfect English? Explain

3. Short note:

   (i) Evaluation

   (ii) Vocabulary

   (iii) Listening Skills.

5.3 | Adaptation of Evaluation Tools for Children with Disabilities

Study material included in this unit -

- Introduction
- Inclusion Is....
- Create a Welcoming Environment
- Beyond Political Correctness
- Adaptations
- Strengths & Strategies
- Evaluating your Inclusion Program
- A Guide to Adaptations and Modifications
- Examination useful Question

Objectives

After study this chapter you will understand the following facts.

- Inclusion Is....
- Create a Welcoming Environment
- Beyond Political Correctness
- Adaptations
- Strengths & Strategies
- Evaluating your Inclusion Program
- A Guide to Adaptations and Modifications

Introduction

The Inclusion Tool Kit contains the information and practical strategies you need to create a nurturing and welcoming environment for all children in your after school program. If you provide a service or program, we hope the Tool Kit will help you provide programs in which all children can participate and belong. And if you are a family member we hope this Tool Kit will provide you with resources to work with community program providers to include your child.

The Inclusion Tool Kit is organized around inclusion standards which were developed by the Special Needs Inclusion Project (SNIP) Interagency Council. The Council was comprised of Jewish Vocational Services, KIDS Project, Community Alliance for Special Education (CASE), Hearing and Speech Center of Northern California, Support for Families of Children with Disabilities, Operation Access, Wu Yee Children's Services, Children's Council, and Child Care Law Center. The SNIP Council worked with DCYF to develop minimum standards for the after school programs they fund. DCYF has established standards for all of the programs they fund. The DCYF Minimum Compliance Standards establish a baseline for quality and serve as the foundation for monitoring and evaluating programs funded by DCYF. The Inclusion Standards are a subset of the Minimum Compliance Standards and provide a set of criteria for effective inclusion with indicators agencies can use to ensure they are on the right track. Additionally, standards help providers communicate their values and hold themselves accountable for their programs. Youth and families can use standards as a reference when observing a program for the first time or to help them understand what to expect from a program as time goes on. The SNIP High Quality Standards are intended to educate the community as a whole about highquality inclusion programming and how it can be achieved.

Inclusion Is....

An attitude and approach that seeks to ensure that every person, regardless of ability or background, can meaningfully participate in all aspects of life.

Inclusion Means:

- Offering the same opportunities for people with and without disabilities

- Welcoming everyone

- Building community

- Emphasizing cooperation

- Seeking to understand and accommodate differences

- Having facilities and areas that are accessible and easy to use by everyone.

- Providing a safe and socially comfortable environment for all

- Teaching respect, understanding and dignity to people of all abilities

- Embracing changes that facilitate full participation

- Actively reaching out to people who are traditionally excluded or marginalized

- Fostering a sense of belonging to community as a respected and valued peer

- Honoring the intrinsic value of each person's life

From: www.IncludingAllKids.org

Inclusion means creating programs and services where all children feel welcomed and valued. In particular, inclusion means that children and youth with disabilities or special health care needs are actively participating in recreational, social, educational, and developmental opportunities along with their peers without disabilities.

Inclusion is an approach, not a program.

Who Benefits from Inclusion?

We all benefit from inclusion. True inclusion allows children and youth with disabilities to develop a sense of belonging through

building relationships outside of their family, developing knowledge of support systems, and having regular access to their community. Inclusion benefits people without disabilities by creating an atmosphere that values diversity and the wellbeing of all children and youth. It fosters the development of social skills for children with and without disabilities through interaction, collaboration, and peer learning. Inclusion also enhances selfesteem, and promotes acceptance, understanding, and friendship. Communities in which all children and youth are included are healthier, more balanced, and beneficial for all members.

Create a Welcoming Environment

Take a look at your program from the first contact people have with you through everyday activities.

You can create an inclusive environment by:

- Keeping in mind that children and youth come in all shapes, sizes, colors, and ability levels.

- Focusing on similarities and not differences. Ask yourself the questions, "What is more important - the fact that Anisha looks different than some other children in my program because she uses a wheelchair, or that Anisha likes the same kind of games, crafts, or activities that other children in my program enjoy?"

- Focusing on strengths and not limitations. Anisha may not be able to run like some children can, but she sure has a great basketball shot.

- Forgetting about stereotypes and labels. Enjoy a person for who he/she is, not what category he/she "fits" into.

- Talking to people that you might have considered "different" in the past. You will probably find out that they are not so different from you after all.

- Recognizing the value in all people.

Beyond Political Correctness

We are all made up of many characteristics. Few of us want to be identified by only one of our many characteristics. For example, you wouldn't want to be identified solely on the basis of your ability to play softball ("Softball Playing Kisha") or your love of pizza ("Pizza Eating Janice"). These characteristics are only one part of your whole self. This is true of individuals with disabilities as well. When speaking or writing, remember that children or adults with disabilities are like everyone else -- except for the fact that they have a disability.

Sometimes how you say something communicates more than what you say. Using stereotypes to describe people is disrespectful. This is why we need to use "person first" language. And this is why "person first" language is about much more than being "politically correct."

Here are a few helpful hints about respectful communication:

- Speak of the person first, then the child's disability (e.g., a child with Down syndrome, instead of the Down syndrome child).

- Emphasize abilities, not limitations (e.g., Cody is a wonderful artist, instead of Cody uses crutches).

- Do not label people as part of a disability group (e.g., Dorlissa who likes dancing, instead of Dorlissa, the blind teenager).

- Remember that a person is not a condition (e.g., identify Shelby as Shelby, the 8-year-old, instead of Shelby, the epileptic).

- Don't give excessive praise or attention to a person with a disability; don't patronize them (e.g., Would you want to be praised for something that you do every day, like go to work?).

- Avoid treating people with disabilities as if they want to be the recipients of charity or pity. They want to partici-

NOTES

pate equally with the rest of the community (e.g., ask Jasper if he wants to play, instead of saying how sad it is that Jasper needs help with lots of things).

- Let the person do or speak for herself as much as possible (e.g., if one child asks why another uses a wheelchair, let her answer for herself, instead of answering for her).

- Don't assume that an individual with a disability needs help. Offer assistance, but wait until your offer is accepted before you help (e.g., ask an individual with a disability if he would like you to hold the door open for him, instead of assuming that he needs you to do it for him).

- Be respectful of personal space and assistive devices. Assistive devices such as wheelchairs, crutches, hearing aids and assistance dogs are part of a person's personal space and should not be interfered with unless assistance is requested.

- Remember that a person who has a disability isn't necessarily chronically sick or unhealthy (e.g., a person with mental retardation is not sick or unhealthy, she may experience difficulty in learning at times).

- Make certain that activities are accessible, both architecturally and programmatically, to all participants (e.g., programs, as well as buildings, need to be welcoming and accommodating).

- Remember that a disability is a functional limitation that interferes with a person's ability to walk, hear, talk, learn, etc. A handicap is a situation or a barrier imposed by society, the environment, or oneself (e.g., an inaccessible facility is a handicap to the individual with a disability to participate in an activity at that facility).

- Relax! Don't be embarrassed if you use common expressions such as "see ya later" or "gotta run," to an

individual who has a visual impairment or uses a wheel-chair, respectively.

3.5 Adaptations

Adaptations are teaching and assessment strategies especially designed to accommodate a student's needs so he or she can achieve the learning outcomes of the subject or course and demonstrate mastery of concepts. Essentially, adaptations are "best practice" in teaching. A student working on learning outcomes of any grade or course level may be supported through use of adaptations.

Adaptations do not represent unfair advantages to students. In fact, the opposite could be true. If appropriate adaptations are not used, students could be unfairly penalized for having learning differences, creating serious negative impacts to their achievement and self-concept. An education plan with adaptations retains the learning outcomes of the regular curriculum and is provided so that the student can participate. Students with education programs that include adaptations are assessed using the standards for the course/program and receive credit toward a Dogwood Diploma for their work in the Graduation Program. Adaptation can be made to:

- the environment in which learning and teaching will occur

- the processes to be used (level of support, instructional method, mode of learning and assessment)

- the depth of the content to be learned

- the products that will record the student's individual achievement

Assessment for Learning

Assessment for Learning is a term used to describe the collection of a wide range of data that highlights a student's strengths and weaknesses, and provides insight into a student's learning. The purpose of assessment for learning is formative – to pro-

vide feedback about a student's learning that can be used to advise the next stage of learning/remediation.

Assessment of Learning

Assessment of Learning is a term used to describe an evaluation, often an exam, that includes questions drawn from the material studied during a set period of time. It is usually done at the end of a unit, course, grade or program. The purpose of assessment of learning is summative, intended to measure learning and report to parents and students about the student's progress in school.

Strengths & Strategies

I once met with a team of middle-school teachers who worked with a student named Jim. While Jim did not have an identified disability, it was clear from conversations between his teachers that some of them struggled to connect with him. Two of the teachers complained about Jim's constant activity. One sighed, "He never sits down, he is a jackhammer- he bounces around constantly". Another remarked, "He gets up in the middle of my lessons to sharpen his pencils and he twists around in his seat so much that it distracts the other students".

While most of the teachers nodded in agreement with these assessments, two of the educators at the table seemed confused by this information. The physical education teacher claimed that she didn't have "any problems" with Jim and that, in fact, he was one of her strongest students. She saw him as an active and athletic student, a leader, and as an asset to her class. He participated fully in all activities and seemed to try hard to acquire new skills. The science teacher also described Jim as an active learner and called him "cooperative and inquisitive". Some saw Jim's energy and activity as an asset while others saw it as a problem.

Perhaps a conversation between members of the aforementioned team could help all teachers see and inspire the strengths in Jim. Teachers who had success with Jim might be able to share

useful strategies with those who were struggling. The physical education teacher, for instance, might share her ideas on how Jim learns best. The science teacher might tell or show others about some of Jim's best assignments or class contributions. Teachers might even agree to co-teach a few lessons together or to observe each other's classes.

Jim's story illustrates the power of perception in teaching. In this case, Jim's teachers could have reframed and solved their problem simply by sharing their impressions of him and by listening to and learning from the ways in which other colleagues had labeled and understood him. Jim's teacher might also have learned a lot about their biases by examining how their perceptions influenced their language and how their language may have impacted their practices. This experience was similar to one I had on my first day of teaching. That first morning of my career, I was told I would be working with a student named Jay. Then I was given dozens of files to review. I marveled at the stacks of reports, evaluations, observations, clinical assessments, work samples, and standardized test results. I couldn't believe a child so small could have so many "credentials". As I reviewed the files I moved from feeling stunned to overwhelmed to terrified. Jay's paperwork was filled with information about h inability to be a student or a learner. The documents detailed his challenging behaviors, skill deficits, and communication problems. I was devastated to read so much about this individual yet find so little about his abilities, gifts, and strengths.

Evaluating your Inclusion Program

Evaluation

For inclusion to be successful, it is essential that everyone takes responsibility for its success. That means that children and youth, their family members, practitioners, staff, volunteers, and general community members take an active role in advocating for inclusion and demonstrating its success.

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Agencies Need to Ensure Quality

Staff has the responsibility of maintaining quality in their programs. Rynders and Schleien (1991) suggest the following as being indicators of a quality social inclusion program. How are you measuring up?

- Mission and philosophy reflect a belief in inclusion.

- Architecture of program site is accessible according to guidelines set by the Americans with Disabilities Act (ADA).

- Staff training emphasizes continuing education in topical areas, such as innovations and techniques in inclusion, use of on-site community inclusion consultants, etc.

- Activities are chronologically age-appropriate and developmentally appropriate.

- Programming allows for personal challenge and participant choice.

- There is an emphasis on cooperative activities instead of competitive or individual activities.

- Activities allow for modifications and adaptations (or partial participation, if needed).

- Activities are offered at convenient and appropriate times and in the least restrictive environment as required by the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA).

- Ongoing assessment and evaluation is conducted that allows for vital feedback from all participants.

Measuring how successful your program is goes beyond adding your attendance numbers or counting the number of satisfactory answers received on your participant and parent questionnaires.

Appropriate outcomes to measure could include:

- How many times the individual is involved with others in performing an activity?

- How many times their peers actively invite them to participate in an activity?

- How much cooperative interaction is occurring?

- How many times the individual with the disability is asked by their peers to participate in play

or

other activities outside of your program?

A Guide to Adaptations and Modifications

In British Columbia, three principles of learning guide practice in the development of Integrated Resource Packages (IRPs), which contain the provincially prescribed learning outcomes for grades and subjects. These are:

- Learning requires the active participation of the student.

- Students learn in a variety of ways and at different rates.

- Learning is both an individual and group process.

These same three principles should guide the differentiation of instruction, assessment methods and/or materials – particularly the principle that people learn in a variety of ways and at different rates.

Today's classrooms are diverse and inclusive by nature. Differentiation of instruction and assessment and the principles of universal design are now recognized practices for teachers. Both differentiation and universal design provide systematic approaches to setting goals, choosing or creating flexible materials and media, and assessment. To undertake differentiation and universal design, teachers need to be aware of a range of accommodations (multiple means of representation, of expression and/or of engagement) that may be necessary to help each student in the classroom succeed. These accommodations may take the form of adaptations and/or modifications.

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Many students with special needs and significant learning challenges will be able to achieve the learning outcomes for subjects or courses with no or minor adaptations. Some may be able to achieve the learning outcomes of some subjects or courses with adaptations.

A small proportion will need to work on individualized outcomes and goals different than the curriculum; this is referred to as modification.

1. Adaptations

In BC policy, all students should have equitable access to learning, opportunitiachievement and the pursuit of excellence in all aspects of their educational programs (Policy Document: Special Education: www.bced.gov.bc.ca/policy/policies/special_ed.htm).

Grading and Reporting When There are Adaptations

Grading for students who have been provided with adaptations should be in relation to the outcomes of the curriculum. If the learning outcomes that a student is working toward are from the curriculum of a grade level lower than the current grade placement, this should be indicated in the IEP or learning plan and in the body of the student's progress report. Further information on this subject is available in the ministry document:

Reporting Student Progress: Policy and Practice

(www.bced.gov.bc.ca/classroom_assessment/09_report_student_prog.pdf)

2. Modifications

This section may not apply to students in ESL programs unless they are also identified as a student with special needs as determined by ministry and district processes.

Accommodations in the form of modifications instructional and assessment-related decisions made to accommodate a

student's educational needs that consist of individualized learning goals and outcomes which are different than learning outcomes of a course or subject.

When to Use Modifications

The decision to use modifications should be based on the same principle as adaptations that all students must have equitable access to learning, opportunities for achievement and the pursuit of excellence in all aspects of their educational programs. Before modifying the outcomes for a student, schools should review all instructional interventions tried and consider assessment information, utilizing a process that is ongoing and consultative – similar to IEP development practices overall.

Modifications should be considered for those students whose special needs are such that they are unable to access the curriculum (i.e., students with limited awareness of their surroundings, students with fragile mental/physical health, students medically and cognitively/multiply challenged). Using the strategy of modifications for students not identified as special needs should be a rare practice.

In many cases, modifications need only form part of an educational program for a student with special needs, and they need not be a permanent or long-term solution. Whether to use modifications should be reviewed on a regular basis. Decisions about modifications should be subject or course specific wherever possible. For example, a student with an intellectual disability may require modifications to a specific subject area such as mathematics; however, modifications may not be required to meet the provincial outcomes in physical education. Although decisions about modifications to a student's courses or subjects may take place in grades earlier than Grade 10, a formal decision that an overall program is modified does not need to occur until Grade 10. The decision to provide modifications, particularly at the secondary school level, will result in students earning a School Completion Certificate

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upon leaving school rather than credits toward graduation or a Dogwood Diploma. Therefore, the critical decision of whether a students' education program should include modifications should not be made in isolation by a single classroom teacher. The decision should be carefully and thoughtfully made, in consultation with parents, school administration, and/or instructional support personnel. This decision should address longer term educational, career and life goals of students and encompass plans for attaining these goals.

Examples of Modifications

An educational program for a student might include a combination of accommodations which includes modifications. For example, a student could be working on grade level learning outcomes in Physical Education and Health and Career Education and below grade level learning outcomes in Mathematics, all with adaptations while at the same time working on individualized learning outcomes that meet the student's IEP goals in all other subjects. The individualized outcomes address functional life skills and foundational academic skills.

For students with special needs, modifications that consist of individualized learning outcomes or goals must be included in the IEP. Some further types of modifications include:

- Content and evaluation related to the course or subject but at a lower level of conceptual difficulty that is based on a student's individualized outcomes or goals: when students do well on this specially designed material, they have a chance to feel successful. For example, while students in a Grade 3 class are researching for presentations on the solar system, a student with special needs in this class uses a computer to drag and click planets into a template of the solar system and learns to say the names of each planet. At the secondary level, a Grade 9 student with special needs learns how to count change and manage a personal budget while other students are introduced to algebraic expressions.

- Only portions of the learning outcomes are addressed so that a student may participate in the classroom and feel success even though he or she is working at a conceptual level significantly different from the other students. For example, in a science class a student with special needs learns to identify safe and dangerous chemicals used in the lab, while other students carry out a chemistry experiment.

- Although related to the outcomes of the curriculum, the goals for a student with special needs are significantly different. For example, while other students are learning how to read and respond to text in a Grade 4 classroom, a student with special needs is learning how to listen to stories at a pre-primary level and when to turn the page at the appropriate time using assistive technology.

Grading and Reporting When there are Modifications

If schools are using BCeSIS or Student Achievement Data Exchange (SADE) to record progress for students in grades 4 to 12, a value is required to be entered to maintain student records over time. For more information about BCeSIS, please contact your local school district. For more information about SADE, please see the following link:

www.bced.gov.bc.ca/datacollections/sade/.

Progress reports to parents for students with special needs who are working toward individualized outcomes or goals in an IEP rather than the outcomes of the curriculum for that subject or course may be done using structured written comments or letter grades. The most appropriate form of reporting for the student should be determined collaboratively at the school level. If letter grades are used when modifications have been made, the body of the student progress report should state that the evaluation is in relation to the individualized outcomes or goals and not in relation to learning outcomes for the subject or course. The specific IEP outcomes or goals

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evaluated should be included in the student progress report. Further information on this subject is available in the Ministry document: Reporting Student Progress: Policy and Practice (www.bced.gov.bc.ca/ classroom_assessment/ 09_report_student_prog.pdf) summary.

Children and youth with disabilities are safe and healthy, have a sense of belonging, and have a full range of opportunities to participate meaningfully in the community and reach their full potential.

The Special Needs Inclusion Project (SNIP) provides agencies in San Francisco with free training, on-site technical assistance, and information, to successfully include children and youth with disabilities into their agency's programs. In addition, SNIP strives to build a sustainable foundation of collaboration and problem solving that will enable San Francisco to better serve all children and youth. The SNIP

Interagency Council developed a Strategic Plan that:

- Coordinates citywide inclusion strategies and activities to maximize resources and minimize duplication.

- Makes inclusion and referral resources easily available to families and agencies

- Identifies and prioritizes inclusion issues, needs, and concerns of DCYF agencies, and children and youth with disabilities and their families.

Inclusion Strategies and Resources

Program has strategies and resources to ensure effective inclusion for children/youth with special needs in its activities.

Indicator 2.1: Staff and volunteers are trained and knowledgeable of inclusive practices.

Examples:

- Staff participates in professional development focused on including children/youth with disabilities.

- Staff and volunteers show evidence of certification or significant experience working with individuals who have special needs.

- In-house staff development activities and volunteer training curriculum includes knowledge and skills related to inclusive practices.

- The agency hires an inclusion facilitator to coach, guide and support staff. Indicator 2.2: Staff identifies (formally or informally) strengths and interests of children and youth with disabilities and creates a plan for including them in program activities.

Examples:

- Staff has a process to identify children's strengths and needs.

- Staff develops a written plan for including children and youth with disabilities in the program activities.

Indicator 2.3: Staff creates activities and/or curriculum to include children/youth with special needs in program activities.

Examples:

- Program has a curriculum binder where staff can find examples of modified activities and tips for including children/youth with special needs

- Staff and participants attend workshops to learn how to create inclusive activities.

Planning, Monitoring, Evaluation

Program activities are planned, regularly monitored and evaluated using indicators of best practices for inclusion. The program's evaluation addresses inclusive practices.

Examples:

- Program solicits feedback from families/youth to shape and strengthen its inclusion efforts.

- Staff completes a formal self-evaluation or survey of their program's progress toward including children/youth with disabilities.

- Staff hold an interim and annual meeting to review inclusive practices

- Program evaluation results are used to plan and modify program activities to further the inclusion of children/youth with special needs.

Indicator 3.2: Staff reviews progress of individual children with disabilities enrolled in their program.

Examples:

- The child/youth's written inclusion plan includes a process for monitoring progress toward meeting his/her goals.

- Staff meet regularly to discuss the progress of children/youth with special needs and the extent to which they are effectively participating in the program.

Examination useful Question:

Long Type Question:

1. What is welcoming environment? Explain.

2. What do you understand by political correctness? Discuss.

3. How to adaptation and modification guideline ménage?

Short Type Question:

1. What do you mean by adaptation? Explain.

2. What is inclusion? Explain.

3. Explain term strength and stacategies.

5.4 | Individualized Assessment for Children with Disabilities

Study material included in this unit -

- Introduction
- Major Issues in Assessing Students with Disabilities
- Identification and Classification
- The use of Accommodations
- Determination of Need for Assessment
- Disabilities Related to Measured Construct
- Issues Pertaining to test Design
- Examination useful Question

Objectives

After study this chapter you will understand the following facts.

- Major Issues in Assessing Students with Disabilities
- Identification and Classification
- The use of Accommodations
- Determination of Need for Assessment
- Disabilities Related to Measured Construct
- Issues Pertaining to test Design

Introduction

Until very recently, many students with disabilities were routinely excluded from largescale assessments. Guidelines pertaining to the exclusion of students with disabilities from statewide assessments differed from one state to another, a7nd the estimated rate of participation of students with disabilities varied markedly across states and was often low (Erickson, Thurlow, & Thor, 1995; McGrew,

Thurlow, Shriner, & Spiegel, 1992; Shriner & Thurlow, 1992). In addition, decisions about whether to include students with disabilities were often made by local school personnel, such as the team responsible for students' Individualized Education.

Programs, or IEPs (Erickson & Thurlow, 1996), and this introduced additional variation in patterns of inclusion. In many cases, educators faced incentives to exclude from assessments students with disabilities who may score poorly.

Recent reforms at the national and state level, however, have attempted to increase the inclusion of students with disabilities in large-scale assessments, as part of a nationwide movement to include all children in standards-based reforms. For example, the 1997 amendments to the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act

([IDEA] 1997) stipulated that a state is eligible for assistance under Part B, the main federal grant program for the education of students with disabilities, only if it meets the following requirements:

- The State has established goals for the performance of children with disabilities in the State that are consistent, to the maximum extent appropriate, with other goals and standards for children established by the State;

- [The State] has established performance indicators the State will use to assess progress toward achieving those goals that, at a minimum, address the performance of

children with disabilities on assessments, drop-out rates, and graduation rates;

- Children with disabilities are included in general State and district-wide assessment programs, with appropriate accommodations, where necessary;

- [The State] develops and, beginning not later than July 1, 2000, conducts alternate assessments for those children [with disabilities] who cannot participate in State and districtwide assessment programs; [and]

- The State educational agency reports to the public the number of children with disabilities participating in regular assessments [and] the performance of those children on regular assessments. (20 U.S.C. 1400)

Some state policymakers began steps to improve inclusion in assessments even before the passage of the IDEA Amendments of 1997 required it. Both Kentucky and Maryland, for example, were building systems similar to those eventually specified by IDEA, requiring that most students with disabilities be tested with the regular state assessment and providing an alternate assessment for the small minority of students with disabilities deemed unable to participate in the regular assessment, several years before the 1997 reauthorization.

These efforts to increase the inclusion of students with disabilities in large-scale assessments are motivated by several goals. It is hoped that inclusion will provide better information not only about the performance of students with disabilities, but also about the aggregate performance of their schools.1 Perhaps more important, proponents of these changes hope that including these students in assessments—especially, the large-scale assessments tied to accountability in standards-based reforms—will make schools more accountable for, and thus more attentive to, the academic performance of students with disabilities.

Several years ago, a National Research Council study committee noted that these efforts to increase the participation of stu-

dents with disabilities in large-scale assessments were hindered by a lack of experience and research-based information (McDonnell, McLaughlin, & Morison, 1997). Despite a growing amount of relevant research in the past few years, this caution still holds true. For example, there is only limited systematic information about the use of testing accommodations for elementary and secondary students with disabilities and even less about the effects of accommodations on the validity of scores. Nor is there systematic evidence about the effects of inclusion on the opportunities afforded to students with disabilities or on their educational achievement and attainment. In this paper, we outline major issues raised by the inclusion of students with disabilities in large-scale assessments and summarize some of the pertinent research.

We then describe an agenda for future research and discuss implications for policy and practice.

Major Issues in Assessing Students With Disabilities

Inclusion raises four particularly important sets of issues: • issues of identification and classification;

- questions about the appropriate use of accommodations;

- the problem of disabilities that are related to measured constructs; and

- issues pertaining to test design.

Identification and Classification

We use "identification" to refer to the determination that a student has a recognized disability. Although there are several criteria one could use in making this decision, identification usually refers to the decision that a student has a disability under the terms of either the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA) or Section 504 of the Rehabilitation Act of 1973. The large majority of identified students is identified under IDEA. In contrast, we use "classification" to refer to the categorization of an identified student's specific disability or disabilities.

Identification is highly inconsistent, raising concerns about over-
, under-, and mis-identification. While some of this inconsis-
tency occurs at the level of teachers and schools (Clarizio &
Phillips, 1992; McDonnell et al., 1997; Shepard, 1989;

Ysseldyke & Algozzine, 1982), there are striking differences
even when identification rates are aggregated to the level of
states. Nationally (in the 50 states and the District of Colum-
bia), 11.2% of students between the ages of 6 and 17 years
were served under Part B (the main state grant program) of
IDEA in the 1999-2000 school year (Table 1). This percentage,
however, ranged from a low of 9.1% to a high of almost 16%—
a pattern that has been quite consistent for years.

The reported prevalence of specific disability categories shows
even greate inconsistency from state to state. Using the catego-
ries required for federal reporting, the highest prevalence is of
specific learning disabilities. Students with specific learning dis-
abilities constitute more than half of all students served under
IDEA Part B. (Part B is Assistance for Education of All Chil-
dren with Disabilities, the core section of IDEA that provides
most of the IDEA funding to states.) The percentage of students
identified as learning disabled, however, varies more than three-
fold among the states, from a low of 3.0% to a high of 9.1%
(Table 1). The discrepancies are even larger in the case of less
common disabilities. For example, the reported prevalence of
mental retardation among students ages 6-17 years varies ten-
fold, from 0.3% in New Jersey to 3.0% in West Virginia.

These large differences among states in identification and clas-
sification rates appear to reflect the influence of differences in
policy. There is no reason to expect true prevalence rates to
vary greatly from state to state. Variations in prevalence stem-
ming from idiosyncratic decisions by local school personnel would
tend to average out when aggregating to the level of entire states.
Such dramatic inconsistencies in identification and classification
rates make it difficult to determine how best to assess students
with disabilities. Increased inclusion should be carried out in
ways that maximize both the quality of the performance infor-

mation yielded by the assessment and the net positive effects on the education of the students (i.e., "evidential" and "consequential" validity; Messick, 1989). Success in meeting these goals will hinge on a number of decisions.

For example, how many students should be deemed unable to participate in the regular general education assessment? How might the regular assessment be designed to improve its suitability for students with special needs? Which students should receive special accommodations when they are tested, and what accommodations should they be offered? Making these decisions well requires information on the characteristics and needs of identified students. As explained below, this information is obscured by these large inconsistencies in identification and classification.

The problem of inconsistent classification underscores a standing tension in policies pertaining to students with disabilities—that is, the tension between individualized and centralized decision making. By law, many decisions about individual students with disabilities are made by local personnel—in particular, the members of the team responsible for each student's IEP. These decisions include, for example, the accommodations provided in instruction and assessments. Yet states have retained responsibility for many aspects of the assessment of students with disabilities, such as establishing rules governing exclusion and setting guidelines for the use of accommodations in assessment. In making decisions about students, teachers and others in the school can rely on knowledge about individual students that is inaccessible to policymakers. For this reason, inconsistent classifications may be less problematic for local school personnel in deciding on services for individual children, and indeed many advocates urge educators not to focus on classifications in making such decisions. Local school personnel, however, are unlikely to have some of the information needed to make optimal decisions about assessments; for example, they are unlikely to know the findings of ongoing research on the effects of accommodations. Policymakers may have more access to such information, but they lack de-

tailed knowledge of individual students and are constrained to use information such as classifications in establishing guidelines.

The Use of Accommodations

Tests are often administered to students with disabilities in non-standard ways. Although the labeling of these departures from standardization has not been consistent, the current edition of the Standards for Educational and Psychological Testing (American Educational Research Association, American Psychological Association, & National Council on Measurement in Education, 1999) suggests using the term "accommodations" to refer to all of them:

Here accommodation is used as the general term for any action taken in response to a determination that an individual's disability requires a departure from established testing protocol. Depending on circumstances, such accommodation may include modification of test administration processes or modification of test content. (p. 101) Actual modifications to the tests may include, for example, testing students with forms normally used for an earlier grade ("out-of-level" or "out-of-grade" testing) or deleting some items from the test. The more common accommodations entail not alterations to the test itself, but rather changes in the presentation or administration of the test or in the student's mode of response. Examples include providing students with additional time; administering the test in a separate location; breaking the testing time into shorter periods with more breaks; reading either directions or actual test items to students; providing the test in a different format, such as Braille or large type; and allowing students to dictate rather than write their responses.

The terminology suggested by the Standards (American Educational Research Association, American Psychological Association, & National Council on Measurement in Education, 1999) is a departure from the previously common usage. Before the publication of the current edition of the Standards, it was common to use "accommodation" to refer to changes in presentation, response, or setting and to use "modification" to refer to

alterations to the test itself, although this earlier usage was not entirely consistent. We use the terminology suggested by the new Standards, but regardless of the terminology, it is important to note which specific alterations of standardized testing are at issue when reviewing policies or research findings.

From the perspective of measurement, the primary purpose of accommodations is to increase the validity of information about students with disabilities. In most cases, the effect of standardization of testing is to improve accuracy by eliminating irrelevant differences in testing, such as variations among schools in administrative conditions, that might distort the interpretation of scores.

For example, if one school permits students 1 hour to complete a certain test, and another school allows 2 hours, the greater time allowed in the second school would bias comparisons of the two. In the case of students with disabilities, however, standardization might itself distort interpretations, generally by biasing scores downwards because of disability-related impediments to performance.

For example, consider a student with a visual disability confronting a test of mathematics that entails substantial reading of text. Presenting that student the test in the standard format will produce a biased indication of the student's mastery of mathematics because the student's difficulty in deciphering the written page will depress his or her score. One could obtain a more accurate appraisal by changing the mode of presentation, such as using large type if the student's disability is not total, or using Braille or a taped presentation if the student's disability is so severe that it precludes reading even large type. That is, the inference about the student's mathematical proficiency would be more valid if these accommodations were provided.

The metaphor for accommodations used in a recent National Research Council report (McDonnell et al., 1997) is that of a corrective lens. A disability may distort estimates of a student's performance, perhaps causing the estimates to be too low. "Ac-

commodations are intended to function as a corrective lens that will deflect the distorted array of observed scores back to where they ought to be—that is, back to where they provide a more valid image of the performance of individuals with disabilities"

Both federal statute and statute or regulations in many states require that "appropriate" accommodations be offered. But what accommodations are "appropriate?" Neither educators nor researchers have reached consensus about the appropriateness of various accommodations, and as described below, states have widely differing guidelines about their use. Several common elements do appear in many state guidelines, including requirements that assessment accommodations be consistent with the student's IEP, be used in ongoing instruction, and maintain validity and not confer unfair advantage to the student (e.g., Thurlow, House, Boys, Scott, & Ysseldyke, 2000). However, the guidelines generally do not specify what some of these criteria mean operationally. For example, the guidelines often do not specify what accommodations maintain validity and avoid conferring unfair advantage to students with specific types of disability.

Although the primary function of accommodations traditionally has been to improve the validity of scores for individuals, the recent focus of policymakers on aggregate scores—such as the performance of schools, districts, and entire states—has led to discussion of accommodations as a means of increasing inclusion in large-scale assessments. The effects of accommodations on inclusion, however, are inevitably linked to validity. For example, assume that in one instance, providing a given accommodation has little effect on the scores of students who would have been tested without it but does result in the inclusion of additional students who would otherwise have been excluded. If the validity of inferences about the performance of these otherwise excluded students is reasonable, then the validity of conclusions about aggregate scores—such as school averages—will improve. However, allowing this accommodation might also result in educators providing it to students who otherwise would have been tested without it. This is what appears to have happened when

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NAEP began offering accommodations (Reese, Miller, Mazzeo, & Dossey, 1997). The validity of inferences about those students may either improve or deteriorate as a result of providing them with this accommodation, depending on the appropriateness of the accommodation for them.

In practice, the mix of these effects on validity is likely to be complex, depending on the nature of the accommodations and the characteristics of the students who are allowed to use them. One key to devising appropriate accommodations is therefore understanding both what biases—that is, what distortions in the interpretation of test scores—might be caused by a disability, and what alterations of testing might alleviate those biases without conferring inappropriate advantage. Unfortunately, we currently have limited information to answer these questions. One reason is the shortage of research. The second reason is the nature of the population with disabilities—specifically, the heterogeneity of this group and the lack of clear information about the implications for measurement of the disabilities of many students.

Inconsistent identification and classification are therefore problematic for measurement, although some educators maintain that classification is useless or even detrimental to the appropriate design of educational services. To prescribe a corrective lens, one needs to ascertain the distortion one needs to correct. If we cannot specify what a student's disability is, the task of identifying the bias caused by the disability or the types of accommodations that might lessen it becomes formidable, if not impossible. If IEP teams could consistently determine the nature of students' disabilities, the biases these disabilities cause in their assessment results, and the effect specific accommodations would have in ameliorating those distortions without introducing new biases, then the lack of consistent classification would not pose a problem for assessment. In many cases, however, IEP teams do not have the information they need to make these judgments well. Studies have found that teachers often assign accommodations inappropriately. For example, studies have shown that teachers'

decisions about accommodations for students with learning disabilities do not correspond consistently to the resulting benefits (e.g., Fuchs & Fuchs, 1999). Most forms of research that would help clarify the effects of accommodations on validity can only be carried out with meaningful classifications of students.

Determination of Need for Assessment:

The public agency shall ensure assessment procedures are administered as needed and that parents receive written notice of any assessment procedure the public agency proposes or refuses to conduct. If a public agency determines that no additional data is needed or does not suspect your child of being a student with a disability or a developmental delay, the public agency is required to provide you with written notice of their refusal to assess your child. If you disagree with the decision, you may appeal by filing a due process hearing complaint with the Office of Administrative Hearings (OAH).

1. **Assessments:**

   Assessments are procedures that are individualized for each student. A public agency may use a variety of assessment tools and strategies to gather sufficient relevant functional, developmental, and academic information about the child. This information may assist in determining if the child is a student with a disability and the content of the child's IEP. Academic information includes your child's progress in the general curriculum, or for a preschool child, participation in appropriate activities. Assessments include printed tests, observations, information from parents, as well as other sources of information that are:

   - Selected and administered in a way that is not racially or culturally discriminatory;

   - Administered in the child's native language or other mode of communication and in the form most likely to yield accurate information on what the child knows and can do academically, developmentally, and functionally, un-

less it is not feasible to do so;

- Used for the purposes for which the assessments or measures are valid and reliable;

- Are administered by trained and knowledgeable personnel according to the instructions provided by the producer of the test;

- Tailored to identify specific areas of educational need, not merely to provide a single general intelligence quotient; and

- Selected to accurately reflect a child's aptitude or achievement, rather than the impaired sensory, manual, or speaking skills, except where these skills are the factors that the test is to measure.

Each report of assessment procedures shall include:

- A description of the child's performance in each area of suspected disability;

- Relevant functional, cognitive, developmental, behavioral, and physical information;

- Instructional implications for the child's participation in the general curriculum or, for a preschool child, participation in appropriate activities; and

- For any assessments not administered under standard conditions, a description of how it varied from standard administration procedures.

2. Evaluation:

Evaluation means procedures used in accordance with federal and State regulations concerning procedures for evaluation and determination of eligibility, to determine whether a child has a disability, and the educational needs of the child. A full and individualized evaluation is conducted before the initial provision of special education and related services to a student with a

disability under the IDEA. An evaluation occurs at a meeting of the IEP team and, as appropriate, other qualified professionals to review:

- Existing data and assessment results;

- Evaluations and information provided by parents;

- Current classroom-based assessments, including State and district-wide assessments and observations, and

- Observations by teachers and related services personnel to determine:

  o Whether the child is a student with a disability;

  o The child's educational needs;

  o Present levels of academic achievement and developmental needs;

  o The child's special education and related service needs whether or not commonly linked to the disability category in which the child has been classified; and

  o Any additions or modifications needed for the child to meet the goals of the IEP and to participate, if appropriate, in the general curriculum.

3. **Initial Evaluation:**

The initial evaluation shall be comprehensive enough to ensure a child is assessed in all areas related to the suspected disability, including, if appropriate:

- Academic performance

- Communication

- General intelligence

- Health, including hearing and vision

- Motor abilities

- Social, emotional, and behavioral status

  No single procedure is used to determine if a child is a student with a disability and to determine an appropriate educational program for the child.

- A child may not be identified as a student with a disability in need of special education and related services if the determinant factor is:

- A lack of appropriate instruction in reading, including the essential components of reading instruction, which are:

  o phonemic awareness

  o phonics

  o vocabulary development

  o reading fluency, including oral reading skills

  o reading comprehension strategies

- A lack of instruction in math

- The child's limited English proficiency, unless the child otherwise qualifies as a child with a disability.

4. **Time Frame for Completion of Initial Evaluation:**

A child's parents or the public agency may initiate a request for an initial evaluation to determine if the child is a child with a disability. The initial evaluation must be completed no later than 60 days from the date of receiving written parental consent to assess the child. The 60- day time frame shall not apply to a local educational agency if:

- A child enrolls in a school served by the public agency after the parents provided consent for the initial assessment in another public agency and before the former public agency determined if the child was a child with a disability. This exception only applies if the subsequent public agency is making sufficient progress to ensure a

prompt completion of the evaluation, and the parent and subsequent public agency agree to a specific time frame in which the evaluation will be completed;

- The parent of a child repeatedly fails or refuses to produce the child for the evaluation; or

- The public agency and parent mutually agree in writing to extend the 60-day evaluation time line.

If at the initial evaluation, the IEP team determines that the child has a disability and needs special education and related services, the IEP team must meet within 30 days of the initial evaluation to develop the child's IEP. The public agency will provide parents with a copy of the IEP team evaluation decision.

Disabilities Related to Measured Constructs

The example above of accommodations for visually impaired students illustrates a key point about accommodations—that is, appropriate accommodations are designed to offset impediments that are unrelated to the construct (i.e., the aspects of proficiency) the test is intended to measure. For example, a student's inability to read small fonts because of a visual impairment is irrelevant to her current understanding of algebra, even though it may have affected her success in studying algebra. Therefore, removing the effects of that inability by providing the test in large type or Braille will increase the validity of inferences about her mastery of algebra. Much of the policy debate about the assessment of individuals with disabilities has focused on cases in which the effects of disabilities are not relevant to the construct the test is intended to measure.

Very few identified students, however, have disabilities that have such clear implications for testing. For example, in 1999-2000, only 0.05% of all students ages 6-17 were identified as having visual disabilities under IDEA Part B (U.S. Department of Education, 2001, Table AA11). Because roughly 11% of all enrolled students in this age range are served under IDEA Part B,

visually disabled students constitute only about one half of one percent of the students served under IDEA. Students with hearing impairments are also not numerous, constituting about 0.14% of total enrollments or 2% of students served under IDEA Part B (U.S. Department of Education, 2001, Table AA11). Most students served under IDEA have disabilities that have much less clear implications for the use of accommodations. These include specific learning disabilities, emotional disturbance, and speech and language impairments. For many students, the effects of disabilities on performance are at least in part related to the proficiencies the test is intended to measure—that is, they are construct-relevant. Moreover, in many cases, separating construct-relevant from construct-irrelevant impediments may be difficult. Students with learning disabilities, who constitute about half of all identified students with disabilities nationwide, are a group for whom disability-related impediments are often construct-relevant. This is also generally true of students with mental retardation. A particularly clear case would be one in which a reading test is administered to a dyslexic student.

The problem extends to other subject areas, however, and isexacerbated by current directions in assessment design. As a National Research

Council study committee noted recently:

By design, many performance assessments associated with standards-based reform require students to integrate a variety of knowledge and skills. Thus, for example, performance assessments in the area of mathematics are likely to involve reading and writing in the context of problem solving. In theory, this approach increases the probability that reading or writing disabilities, which are among the most common, will interfere with the assessment of mathematics. A similar situation exists for other assessments of other subject areas. (McDonnell et al., 1997, p.162)

When disabilities are related to the proficiencies a test is intended to measure, designing appropriate methods of assessment and accommodation becomes extremely difficult. For ex-

ample, consider a student whose learning disability impedes his reading and writing. How should such a student be assessed when a state's test involves substantial reading and writing in all subject areas, as many now do? Providing no accommodation may lead to an underestimate of the student's proficiency, but providing accommodations that offset his poor reading and writing may change the nature of the proficiencies measured by the test and produce an overestimate of the student's proficiency.

Issues Pertaining to Test Design

Increased inclusion of students with disabilities in the assessments used for most students raises a variety of issues pertaining to the design, construction, and evaluation of tests. One issue is the possibility of item or test bias. This concern arises routinely in assessing students with backgrounds that may put them at a disadvantage in responding to a test. Techniques for addressing potential item bias are well developed, but not all assessment programs screen for possible bias involving students with disabilities. Moreover, common techniques for assessing item bias are not able to address test bias and indeed can fail even as indicators of item bias if test bias is severe. Methods for assessing bias generally require that students be matched on some criterion measure of the construct of interest. For example, if one could determine a reasonable criterion of eighth-grade mathematics proficiency, one could match students with and without disabilities on this criterion and then determine whether students in the two groups with similar proficiency performed differently on an item or a test. Some biasdetection techniques, what Camilli and Shepard (1994) call external methods, use a criterion independent of the test in question. For example, one could use performance in college or in a job to look for bias in admissions or employment tests. Internal methods, by contrast, use part or all of the test in question as the criterion. For example, to examine possible bias on one test item, one might match students in terms of performance on the rest of the test and then look for performance differences on the item in question. As Camilli and Shepard note, internal methods are typi-

NOTES

cally used to investigate item bias. These methods are suspect when there is a serious possibility that a substantial part (or the entirety) of a test may be biased for or against a particular group. And, as one of the leading figures in item-bias methodology commented, "It is impossible to seriously assess item/test 'bias' (as opposed to DIF [differential item functioning]) using performance data from a single test and nothing more" (P. Holland, personal communication, August 2002).

The increased inclusion of students with disabilities in general-education assessments therefore suggests the need for two types of investigation. First, at least over the short term, it would be prudent to increase the routine screening for item bias affecting students with disabilities. Second, with an eye to the longer term, it would be helpful to have additional research assessing the adequacy of conventional internal item-bias methods for evaluating bias affecting students with disabilities, particularly in the case of students (such as those with dyslexia) whose disabilities or accommodations might have pervasive effects across an entire test.

A second issue of design is the difficulty of the test. Many students with disabilities perform relatively poorly on tests. Using test items that are sufficiently difficult to be useful in assessing high-achieving students may lead to problems in assessing students with relatively low performance, including many students with disabilities. For example, Koretz (1997) found evidence that the statewide mathematics test in use in Kentucky at the time was too difficult for many students with disabilities. Use of test items too difficult for these students will lead to imprecise measurement and may also cause both demoralization among students and undesirable responses by teachers. This too warrants further exploration, including routine monitoring of the difficulty of new tests for students with disabilities.

The choice among assessment formats, such as multiple choice and open response, may have different implications for students with disabilities than for others. Currently, there is no agreement about the utility or fairness of different formats for students with

different types of disabilities, and empirical evidence about this question is sparse (see, e.g., Koretz & Hamilton, 1999).

The Individualized Education Program (IEP) Process:

1. IEP Team Meetings:

The public agency uses a team process to decide whether a child is a student with a disability as defined by the IDEA and the educational needs of the child. Each public agency is responsible for initiating and conducting meetings for the purposes of developing, reviewing, and revising the IEP of a student with a disability, and determining the child's educational placement. The parents of each student with a disability must be notified and afforded the opportunity to participate in any IEP team meeting conducted for their child. Parents are members of the IEP team that makes decisions regarding the child's educational placement. The public agency shall make reasonable efforts to ensure that the parents understand, and are able to participate in any group discussions relating to the educational placement of their child, including arranging for an interpreter for parents with deafness, or whose native language is not English. Once the IEP team determines the child requires special education and related services, the IEP team must meet within 30 days to develop the child's IEP. As a member of the IEP team, parents have the right to request a review of their child's IEP at any time.

2. Parent Participation in Meetings:

Each public agency shall take steps to ensure that one or both of the parents of a student with a disability are present at each IEP team meeting, or are afforded the opportunity to participate. Parents are to be notified of meetings early enough to ensure that they will have an opportunity to attend, and meetings should be scheduled at a mutually agreed on time and place. The notice must indicate the purpose, time, location of the meeting, and who will be in attendance.

The notice must also inform parents that at the discretion of the parents or the public agency, other individuals who have knowledge or special expertise regarding the child, including related services personnel, as appropriate, may participate on the IEP team. The determination of the knowledge or special expertise of any individual shall be made by the party (parents or public agency) who invited the individual to be a member of the IEP team.

For a student with a disability beginning at age 14, or younger if appropriate, the notice must also indicate that one purpose of the meeting will be the development of a statement of the transition services needs of the student and that the agency will invite the student and identify any other agency that will be invited to send a representative. Before a public agency can invite another agency representative, parental consent is required.

Notice of any IEP team meeting to develop, review, or revise a child's IEP, including the determination of a child's educational placement must be given at least ten (10) calendar days before the meeting unless an expedited meeting is convened to:

- Address disciplinary issues;

- Determine the placement of the child, if the child is a student with a disability and is not currently receiving educational services; or

- Meet other urgent needs of the child to ensure the provision of FAPE.

If neither parent can attend, the public agency shall use other methods to ensure parent participation, including individual or conference telephone calls. A meeting may be conducted without a parent in attendance if the public agency is unable to convince the parents that they should attend. The IEP team may make a placement decision without the involvement of the parents, if the public agency is unable to obtain

the parental participation in the decision. In this case, the public agency must have a record of its attempts to arrange the meeting at a mutually agreed on time and place, such as detailed records of telephone calls made or attempted and the results of those calls, copies of correspondence sent to the parents and any responses received, and detailed records of visits made to the parent's home or place of employment and the results of those visits.

A meeting does not include informal or unscheduled conversations involving public agency personnel and conversations on issues such as teaching methodology, lesson plans, or coordination of service provision if those issues are not addressed in the child's IEP. A meeting also does not include preparatory activities that public agency personnel engage in to develop a proposal or response to a parent's proposal that will be discussed at a later meeting.

3. **The IEP Team:**

The IEP team includes:

- The child's parents, guardian, or parent surrogate;

- Not less than one of the child's general education teachers, if the child is or may be participating in the general education environment. If the child does not have a general education teacher or is younger than school age, an individual qualified to teach a child of that age;

- Not less than one of the child's special education teacher, or if appropriate, a service provider of the child;

- A representative of the public agency who is qualified to provide or supervise the provision of specially designed instruction to meet the needs of students with disabilities and knows the general curriculum and public agency resources available;

- An individual who can interpret the instructional implications of evaluations. This person can be one of the public agency team members listed above;

NOTES

- If parents or the public agency choose, other individuals who have knowledge or special expertise regarding the child;

- To the extent appropriate, with the consent of the parents, the public agency must invite a representative of any participating public agency that may be responsible for providing or paying for transition services; and

- If appropriate, the child. The child shall be invited to, and is expected to attend and participate in the IEP team meeting if the purpose of the meeting is to consider postsecondary goals for the child and the transition services needed to assist the child in reaching those goals.

4. **IEP Team Attendance:**

A member of the IEP team is not required to attend all or a part of an IEP meeting if the parent of a child with a disability and the public agency agree, in writing, that the attendance of the member is not necessary because the member's area of the curriculum or related services is not being modified or discussed in the meeting.

A member of the IEP team may be excused from attending the whole IEP meeting or a part of the IEP meeting when the meeting involves a modification to or discussion of the member's area of the curriculum or related services, if—

- The parent and the public agency consent to the excusal, in writing; and

- The member being excused submits written input into the development of the IEP to the parent and the IEP team, prior to the meeting.

5. **IEP Content:**

The IEP is developed by the IEP team and includes:

- A statement of the child's present levels of academic achievement and functional performance, including—

- How the child's disability affects the child's involvement and progress in the general education curriculum (i.e., the same curriculum as for nondisabled children); or

- For preschool children, as appropriate, how the disability affects the child's participation in appropriate activities;

• A statement of measurable annual goals, including academic and functional goals designed to—

- Meet the child's needs that result from the child's disability to enable the child to be involved in and make progress in the general education curriculum; and

- Meet each of the child's other educational needs that result from the child's disability.

• A description of benchmarks or short-term objectives.

• A description of how the child's progress toward meeting the annual goals will be measured, and when periodic reports on the progress the child is making toward meeting the annual goals (such as through the use of quarterly or other periodic reports, concurrent with the issuance of report cards) will be provided.

• A statement of the special education and related services and supplementary aids and services, based on peer-reviewed research to the extent practicable, to be provided to the child, or on behalf of the child, and a statement of the program modifications or supports for school personnel that will be provided to enable the child—

- To advance appropriately toward attaining the annual goals;

- To be involved in and make progress in the general education curriculum and to participate in extracurricular and other nonacademic activities; and

    o To be educated and participate with other children with disabilities and nondisabled children;

- An explanation of the extent, if any, to which the child will not participate with nondisabled children in the regular education environment and in activities;

- A statement of any individual appropriate accommodations that are necessary to measure the academic achievement and functional performance of the child on State and district wide assessments; and

- If the IEP team determines that the child must take an alternate assessment instead of a particular regular State or district wide assessment of student achievement, a statement of why—

    o The child cannot participate in the regular assessment, and

    o The particular alternate assessment selected is appropriate for the child;

- The projected date for the beginning of the services and modifications, and the anticipated frequency, location, and duration of those services and modifications.

A public agency shall provide special education and related services to a child in accordance with the child's IEP and make a good faith effort to assist the child to achieve the goals and objectives or benchmarks listed in the IEP. A public agency, teacher, or another individual shall not be held accountable if a child does not achieve the growth projected in the annual goals and benchmarks or objectives.

IDEA 2004 does not require that additional information be included in a child's IEP beyond what is explicitly required by the IDEA statute or the IEP team to include information under one component of a child's IEP that is already contained under another component of the child's IEP.

If a child requires extended school year services, the IEP must include the specific special education and related services to be provided beyond the regular school year.

6. Transition Services:

Transition services are a coordinated set of activities designed to promote movement from school to post-school activities, including post-secondary education, career and technology education, integrated employment, adult services, independent living, or community participation. This set of activities is based on a child's needs, takes into consideration the child's preferences and interests, and includes the course of study, related services, and community activities.

- Beginning when a child is 14, or younger, if appropriate, and updated annually, the IEP must include a statement of the child's transition service needs that focuses on the child's course of study.

- Beginning not later than the first IEP to be in effect when the child turns 16, or younger if determined appropriate by the IEP team, and updated annually, thereafter, the IEP must include—

    o Appropriate measurable postsecondary goals based upon age appropriate transition assessments related to training, education, employment, and, where appropriate, independent living skills; and

    o The transition services (including courses of study) needed to assist the child in reaching those goals.

- The requirement to provide transition services does not apply to a student with a disability who is convicted as an adult under State law and incarcerated in an adult correctional facility and whose eligibility for special education and related services will end before the student is eligible for release.

Summary of Performance:

For a child whose eligibility terminates, a public agency shall provide the child with a summary of the child's academic achievement and functional performance, which shall include recommendations on how to assist the child in meeting the child's postsecondary goals.

Providing Consent for Initiation of Special Education Services:

A public agency shall obtain written parental consent before the initial provision of special education and related services to a student with a disability. A public agency may not provide special education and related services if a student's parent refuses to give the public agency informed written consent for the initiation of special education and related services, or fails to respond to a request by the public agency to provide consent for the initiation of special education and related services. If a parent refuses to provide consent for the initiation of special education and related services, the public agency cannot provide the child with special education and related services. If a parent of a child with a disability refuses to provide the initial consent, the public agency is not considered to be in violation of the requirement to make FAPE available, and is not required to convene an IEP team meeting or develop an IEP for the student.

Revoking Consent for Special Education Services:

As of December 31, 2008, the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA) provides parents with the authority to revoke consent for the provision of special education and related services, thereby ending the provision of special education and related services to their child. While this change reverses the longstanding interpretation of the U.S. Department of Education, it provides consistency with IDEA's emphasis on the role of parents in protecting their child's rights and the Department's goal of enhancing parent involvement and choice in their child's education.

If at any time after a public agency begins to provide special education and related services to a child with a disability, the parent of the child may in writing revoke consent for the continued provision of special education and related services. The public agency may not continue to provide special education and related services to that child, but must provide the parent with prior written notice before stopping the provision of special education and related services. A public agency may not use mediation or a due process hearing to obtain agreement or a ruling that the services may be provided to the child. The public agency will not be considered to be in violation of the requirement to make FAPE available to the child because of the failure to provide the child with further special education and related services, and is not required to convene an IEP team meeting or develop an IEP for the child for further provision of special education and related services. While a parent may revoke consent for the continued provision of special education and related services, the public agency is not required to amend the child's education records to remove any reference to the child's receipt of special education and related services because of the revocation of consent.

IEP Development, Review, and Revision:

In developing, reviewing, or revising a child's IEP, the IEP team will consider and document:

- The child's strengths and parental concerns for enhancing their child's education;

- Results of the initial or most recent evaluation of the child;

- The academic, developmental, and functional needs of the child;

- Results of the child's performance on State or district-wide assessment programs, as appropriate;

- Communication needs;

- Assistive technology devices and services needs of the child.

- Consideration of special factors, specific to the child, such as:

  o As in the case of a child whose behavior impedes the child's learning or that of others, consider the use of positive behavior interventions and supports and other strategies to address that behavior;

  o As in the case of a child with limited English proficiency, consider the language needs of the child as they relate to the child's IEP;

  o In the case of a child who is blind or visually impaired, provide for instruction in Braille, including textbooks in Braille, and the use of Braille unless the IEP team determines after an evaluation of the child's reading and writing skills, needs, and appropriate reading and writing media (including an evaluation of the child's future needs for instruction in Braille or the use of Braille), that instruction in Braille or the use of Braille is not appropriate for the child, including textbooks in Braille; and

  o In the case of a child who is deaf or hard of hearing, consider the child's language and communication needs, opportunities for direct communication with peers and professional personnel in the child's language and communication mode, academic level and full range of needs, including opportunities for direct instruction in the child's language and communication mode.

If through consideration of the special factors above, an IEP team determines the child needs a particular device, service, intervention, accommodation, or program modification in order for the child to receive FAPE, the IEP team must include a statement to that effect in the child's IEP.

As a member of the IEP team, a general education teacher of the child shall, to the extent appropriate, participate in the de-

velopment of the child's IEP. Participation includes assisting in the determination of appropriate positive behavioral interventions and supports and other strategies for the child, as well as supplementary aids and services, program modifications, and supports for school personnel.

The IEP team reviews the child's IEP periodically, but not less than annually, to:

- Determine whether the annual goals for the child are being achieved; and
- Revise the IEP, as appropriate, to address—
  - Any lack of expected progress toward the annual goals and in the general education curriculum, if appropriate;
  - The results of any reevaluation;
  - Information about the child provided to, or by, the parents;
  - The child's anticipated needs; or
  - Other matters relevant matters to the child's program.

Amendments:

The child's parents and the public agency may agree not to convene an IEP team meeting to make changes to the IEP. In making changes to a child's IEP after the annual IEP meeting for a specific school year, the parent of a child with a disability and the public agency may agree to develop a written document to amend or modify the child's current IEP. Upon request, a parent shall be provided a revised copy of the IEP with the amendments incorporated.

Examination useful Question:

Long Type Question:

1. Discuss the major issues of Assessment for students with disability in detail.

NOTES

2. Why is necessary determination of need for assessment?

Short Type Question:

1. Differ between identification and classification.

2. Write a short note on the use of accommodation.

5.5 Error Analysis, Diagnostic tests and Enrichment Measures

Study material included in this unit -

- Introduction
- Precision and Accuracy : Two Different Types of Errors
- Three Major Sources of Errors
- Reading Errors
- Random Errors
- Systematic Errors and the Role of Instrument Calibration
- Practical's Hints
- Common Mistakes and Misconception with Errors
- Propagation of Errors
- Using the Computer to Fit Graphs
- Diagnostic
- Scope
- Use of Diagnostic Assessment Tools in Support of Student Learning
- Guiding Principles of Selection of Diagnostic Assessment Tools
- Examination useful Question

Objectives

After study this chapter you will understand the following facts.

- Precision and Accuracy Two Different Types of Errors
- Three Major Sources of Errors
- Reading Errors
- Random Errors
- Systematic Errors and the Role of Instrument Calibration

- Practical's Hints
- Common Mistakes and Misconception with Errors
- Propagation of Errors
- Using the Computer to Fit Graphs
- Diagnostic
- Scope
- Use of Diagnostic Assessment Tools in Support of Student Learning
- Guiding Principles of Selection of Diagnostic Assessment Tools

Introduction

To many students and to the public in general, an error is something they have donewrong. However, in science, the word "error" means the "uncertainty" whichaccompanies every measurement. No measurement of any sort is complete without aconsideration of this inherent error. We cannot avoid the "uncertainties" by being verycareful. So how do we deal with the measurement errors? All we can do is to try toensure they are as small as possible and to have a reliable estimate of how large they are.

An important component of a science student's education is to learn how to handle and interpret experimental data and results. This includes the development of methodologies needed to estimate the errors inherent in various types of measurements, and techniques for testing data to find out if these error estimates are valid, and the understanding of the way errors propagate through calculations made using experimental data. Learning how to handle experimental errors will be very useful also in other Sciences and Engineering.

This document is a brief introduction to errors and how you approach them in the laboratory. Please read the entire document, but do not get desperate or disappointed if you do not understand all the details. Different experiments deal with different aspect of errors. Mastering error analysis requires extensive practice and will not happen overnight. Consider this document as a resource on how to handle the particular errors you face in your lab work.

Precision and Accuracy : Two Different Types Of Errors

There are two main types of errors associated with an experimental result. They are referred to as precision and accuracy. The precision is usually related to the random error distribution associated with a particular experiment or even with a particular type of experiment (for example, in the experiments where the measured parameters have intrinsically large variations between different samples). The accuracy is related to the existence of systematic errors, for example, the incorrect calibration.

The object of a good experiment is to improve both precision and accuracy. Usually in a given experiment one of these two types of errors is dominant, and the scientist devotes most of his or her efforts towards reducing that one. For example, if you are measuring the length of a carrot in a sample of carrots to determine an average value of the length, the natural random variations within the sample of plants are probably going to be much larger than any possible measurement inaccuracy due to a bad manufacturing of the ruler that you use. In a physics laboratory, the relative effects of the precision and accuracy on the final result usually depend on the particular experiment and the particular apparatus. Some experiments in the introductory physics laboratory have relatively large random errors that require repeating measurements to increase the precision. Other experiments are very precise, but the equipment used has built-in sources of inaccuracy that cannot be eliminated.

Three Major Sources of Errors

Reading Error

Almost all direct measurements involve reading a scale (ruler, caliper, stopwatch, analog voltmeter, etc.) or a digital display (e.g., digital multimeter or digital clock). Sources of uncertainty depend on the equipment we use. One of the unavoidable sources of errors is a reading error. Reading Error refers to the uncertainties caused by the limitations of our measuring equipment and/or our own limitations at the time of measurement (for example, our reaction time while starting or stopping a stopwatch).

NOTES

This does not refer to any mistakes you may make while taking the measurements. Rather it refers to the uncertainty inherent to the instrument and your own ability to minimize this uncertainty. A reading error affects the precision of the experiment. The uncertainty associated with the reading of the scale and the need to interpolate between scale markings is relatively easy to estimate. For example, consider the millimeter (mm) markings on a ruler scale. For a person with a normal vision it is reasonable to say that the length could be read to the nearest millimeter at best. Therefore, a reasonable estimate of the uncertainty in this case would be $\Delta l = \pm 0.5$ mm which is half of the smallest division. A rule of thumb for evaluating the reading error on analogue readout is to use half of the smallest division (in case of a meter stick with millimeter divisions it is 0.5 mm), but only the observer can ultimately decide what is his/her limitation in error evaluation. Note that it is wrong to assume that the uncertainty is always half of the smallest division of the scale. For example, for a person with a poor vision the uncertainty while using the same ruler might be greater than one millimeter. If the scale markings are further apart (for example, meter stick with markings 1 cm apart), one might reasonably decide that the length could be read to one-fifth or one-fourth of the smallest division.

There are other sources of uncertainty in direct measurements that can be much more important than uncertainties in the scale or display readings. For example, in measuring the distance between two points, the main problem may be to decide where those two points really are. For example, in an optics experiment it is often necessary to measure the distance between the center of the lens and the position of the focused image. But even a thin lens is usually several millimeters thick, which makes locating the center a difficult task . In addition, the image itself may appear to be focused not at a point, but its location may span a range of several millimeters. Parallax is another significant source of a reading error, where the reading depends on your line of sight.

In the first year laboratory you will often use instruments that have a digital readout. For many digital instruments, you may

assume that the reading error is ± 1/2 of the last digit displayed; e.g. if the reading of the timer in the free fall experiment is 682.6 ms, the error can be assumed to be ±0.05 ms, and you should quote (682.60±0.05) ms. Experiments on electricity often employ multimeters to measure current and voltage. The usual " ± 1/2 of the last digit" rule, which assumes an instrument that rounds off perfectly, does not work too well with multimeters. Ideally, you must record the specification of the multimeter used in the experiment. For example, a typical listing on the mutlimeter (supplied by the manufacturer) will be "accuracy ±0.75% of full scale ± 1 digit". The first percentage number is what we call the systematic error. It will affect the accuracy of your readings. It is an estimate of systematic differences between different scales of the multimeter. However it is the random error that determines the precision, and gives you an idea of the scatter that you might expect in your readings. Thus, the "± digit" quoted by the manufacturer might be a better estimate of the random error. Though you should quote the systematic error at the end of your experiment when you are comparing your result with some "standard", it is better to use ±1 digit for the random error in each reading. For example, if your reading is 3.48 mA, you should quote (3.48±0.01) mA.

While performing the lab, if in doubt how to record the error in a measurement using a multimeter, consult with your TA.

It is usually difficult or impossible to reduce the inherent reading error in an instrument. In some cases (usually those in which the reading error of the instrument approximates a "random error distribution") it is possible to reduce the reading error by repeating measurements of exactly the same quantity and averaging them.

Random Error

Random Error refers to the spread in the values of a physical quantity from one measurement of the quantity to the next, caused by random fluctuations in the measured value. For example, in repeating measurements of the time taken for a ball to fall through a given height, the varying initial conditions, random fluctuations in air motion, the variation of your reaction time in starting and

stopping a watch, etc., will lead to a significant spread in the times obtained. This type of error also affects the precision of the experiment.

Estimating Uncertainties in Repeating Measurements

For example, while using a stopwatch to measure time intervals, the major uncertainty is usually not from reading the dial, but from our reaction time in starting and stopping the watch. The reaction time is unknown and can vary significantly from person to person and even, for the same person, from measurement to measurement. The solution is to repeat the measurement several times. Most likely you'll obtain somewhat different values for every one of your measurements. The "correct" measured value lies somewhere between the lowest value and the biggest value (the interval gives a probable range). We assume that the best estimate of the measured value is the average value.

For example, consider the sequence of four time intervals 2.3, 2.4, 2.5, 2.4 (s). The estimate of time interval is 2.4 s (the arithmetic mean of the four individual measurements), and the probable range is 2.3 to 2.5 s. Note that the probable range means that we are reasonably confident (but not necessarily 100% certain) that the actual quantity lies within this range. Also note that the best estimate, 2.4 s, lies near the midpoint of the estimated range of probable values, 2.3 to 2.5 s. This is true in most measurements.

Systematic Errors and The Role of Instrument Calibration

Systematic Error refers to an error which is present for every measurement of a given quantity; it may be caused by a bias on the part of the experimenter, a miscalibrated or even faulty measuring instrument, etc. Systematic errors affect the accuracy of the experiment. After evaluating the reading error or the standard error, or both if necessary, we have to make sure that the scale of our measuring instrument is checked against an internationally established measuring standard. Such comparison is called calibration. In the real world, we frequently find that our measuring scale is in slight disagreement with the standard. For example,

if you inspect such simple tools as rulers, you will find out that no two rulers are exactly the same. It is not uncommon to find a discrepancy of 1 mm or even more among meter sticks. The correct calibration of measuring instruments is obviously of great importance. However, in the first year laboratory, the instruments you will use are usually calibrated by the laboratory staff and ready to use (unless explicit lab instructions tell you otherwise).

In addition to all the errors discussed above, there can be other sources of error that may pass unnoticed: variations in temperature, humidity or air pressure, etc. Such disturbances are more or less constant during our measurements (otherwise they would appear as random error when the measurement is repeated) and are generally referred to as the systematic errors. Systematic errors are very difficult to trace since we do not know where to look for them. It is important to learn to notice all the irregularities that could become the sources of systematic errors during our experimental work. Moreover, it is particularly important in data-taking always to record some information about the surrounding physical conditions. Such information may help us later on if we discover a serious discrepancy in our experimental results. As a rule, the place, date and time of measurements, and the type and serial numbers and specifications of the instruments which were used must be recorded.

Estimate all your reading errors while you take your data and write them down with your data. Do the same for all manufacturers' error specifications. These usually cannot be "guessed" later on.

Practical Hints

So far, we have found two different errors that affect the precision of a directly measured quantity: the reading error and the standard error. Which one is the actual error of precision in the quantity? For practical purposes you can use the following criterion. Take one reading of the quantity to be measured, and make your best estimate of the reading error. Then repeat the measurement a few times. If the spread in the values you obtain is about the same size as the reading error or less, use the

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reading error. If the spread in values is greater than the reading error, take three or four more, and calculate a standard error and use it as the error. In cases where you have both a reading error and a standard error, choose the larger of the two as "the" error. Be aware that if the dominant source of error is the reading error, taking multiple measurements will not improve the precision.

Common Mistakes and Misconceptions with Errors

In the introductory physics laboratory, it is almost always meaningless to specify the error to more than two significant digits; often one is enough. It is a mistake to write: $x = (56.7 \pm 0.914606)$ cm, or $x = (56.74057 \pm 0.9)$ cm. Instead, write: $x = (56.7 \pm 0.9)$ cm. You cannot increase either the accuracy or precision by extending the number of digits in your mean value beyond the decimal place occupied by the error.

Keep in mind that the error, by its nature, denotes the uncertainty in the last one or two significant digits of the main number and therefore any additional digits obtained from multiplication or division should be rounded off at the meaningful position. So, first calculate your error; round it off to one significant figure; then quote the value of your measurement to the appropriate number of significant figures.

When quoting errors in a result do not use the flawed logic that "my result is x, the handbook gives a value for this quantity as y, thus the error in my result is $\pm(x - y)$."

Your quoted error should be the result of your own analysis of your own experiment whereas $(x - y)$ relates to a comparison of your work to other people's work. $(x - y)$ represents the difference between your result and the accepted value. The discrepancy can be used to characterize the consistency between different sets of measurements, but has nothing to do with the estimate of error in your own experiment.

If a result we produce differs significantly from the accepted value, we then are obligated to explain what has produced the difference. But in quoting our own result, we must provide the error of our own experiment.

Propagation of Errors

In the majority of experiments the quantity of interest is not measured directly, but must be calculated from other quantities. Such measurements are called indirect. As you know by now, the quantities measured directly are not exact and have errors associated with them. While we calculate the parameter of interest from the directly measured values, it is said that the errors of the direct measurements propagate. This section describes how to calculate errors in case of indirect measurements.

Using the Computer to Fit Graphs

The computer provides an objective procedure for giving a best fit of a straight line or a specified function (usually polynomial) to your data. The computers calculate the square of the distance between your data points and the curve it is trying to find. It then adjusts the constants of the polynomial representing the curve until the sum of these squares is a minimum. It gives you the values of the constants found from the procedure.

Although the computer has a data-plotting utility, for the majority of our first year labs you don't have to use the computer. At the initial stages of your lab experience you will learn much more about your data if you plot your graphs and calculate the slopes by hand instead of using computers.

Diagnostic

The purpose of this memorandum is to outline how diagnostic assessment tools may be used effectively to inform teaching and learning practices in the classroom in support of student learning and achievement.

This memorandum also outlines how teachers shall use their professional judgement to determine: which assessment and/or evaluation tool(s) from the board's list of pre-approved assessment tools is applicable;

for which student(s); and the frequency and timing of the use of the tool.

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In order to inform their instruction, teachers must utilize diagnostic assessment during the school year.

A teacher's professional judgement is the cornerstone of assessment and evaluation. Diagnostic assessment is used to identify a student's needs and abilities and the student's readiness to acquire the knowledge and skills outlined in the curriculum expectations. Information from diagnostic assessment helps teachers determine where individual students are in their acquisition of knowledge and skills, so that instruction can be personalized and tailored to provide the appropriate next steps for learning. The ability to choose the appropriate assessment tool(s) as well as determine the frequency and timing of its administration allows the teacher to gather data that is relevant, sufficient, and valid in order to make judgements about student learning during the learning cycle.

Effective assessment, evaluation, and reporting practices play an important role in achieving the three core priorities of the Ministry of Education: high levels of student achievement, reduced gaps in student achievement, and increased public confidence in publicly funded education. The Education Act and regulations made under the act, the policy outlined in Growing Success, and related ministry policies and frameworks, such as the Ontario Leadership Framework and the School Effectiveness Framework, are not altered by the direction given in this memorandum.

Growing Success: Assessment, Evaluation, and Reporting in Ontario Schools, First Edition, Covering Grades 1 to 12, 2010 outlines the policy that supports such effective practices, and the ministry is committed to the continued implementation of this policy. Growing Success requires teachers to conduct diagnostic and formative assessment as essential steps of assessment for learning and assessment as learning. Specifically, teachers need to: plan assessment concurrently and integrate it seamlessly with instruction;

Share learning goals and success criteria with students at the outset of learning to ensure that students and teachers have a

common and shared understanding of these goals and criteria as learning progresses; gather information about student learning before, during, and at or near the end of a period of instruction, using a variety of assessment strategies and tools; use assessment to inform instruction, guide next steps, and help students monitor their progress towards achieving their learning goals; analyse and interpret evidence of learning; give and receive specific and timely descriptive feedback about student learning; help students to develop skills of peer and self-assessment.

(*Growing Success, pp. 28–29*)

This memorandum provides direction on the selection and use of diagnostic assessment tools used to gather data and information about student learning. The direction, principles, and criteria set out in this memorandum will take effect immediately.

Scope

This memorandum applies to the use of formal diagnostic assessment tools. This memorandum does not apply to the following types of assessment: Special education assessments. These include educational and/or other professional assessments conducted to identify students with special education needs, to determine the special education programs and/or services required by these students, and/or to support decisions related to such programs and services.

Large-scale assessments. These include provincial assessments conducted by the Education Quality and Accountability Office (EQAO) – the assessments of reading, writing, and mathematics in Grades 3 and 6; the assessment of mathematics in Grade 9; and the Ontario Secondary School Literacy Test. They also include assessments conducted as part of ministryapproved national or international assessments, such as the Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA), the Trends in International Mathematics and Science Study (TIMSS), the Progress in International Reading Literacy Study (PIRLS), and the Pan-Canadian Assessment Program (PCAP). They may also include ministry-mandated assessments.

Use of Diagnostic Assessment Tools in Support of Student Learning

In Growing Success, the term diagnostic assessment is defined as "assessment that is used to identify a student's needs and abilities and the student's readiness to acquire the knowledge and skills outlined in the curriculum expectations. Diagnostic assessment usually takes place at the start of a school year, term, semester, or teaching unit. It is a key tool used by teachers in planning instruction and setting appropriate learning goals" (p. 146). Diagnostic assessment provides information that is "used by teachers and students to determine what students already know and can do with respect to the knowledge and skills identified in the overall and specific expectations" (p. 31).

Data from diagnostic assessment and formative assessment is used to determine students' readiness to learn the new knowledge and skills set out in the curriculum expectations, and obtain information about students' interests and learning preferences. This data may be collected through a variety of means, which can include observation, student portfolios, and student selfassessment, among others. This information helps teachers plan daily classroom instruction and assessment that are differentiated and personalized, and set appropriate learning goals with their students.

Research confirms the importance of using various kinds of information to develop and monitor plans to improve student learning (in Ontario, the Board Improvement Plan for Student Achievement is such a plan). School and board leaders are expected to use data to identify trends, strengths, and weaknesses that can inform specific actions for improvement in student achievement.

Guiding Principles of Selection of Diagnostic Assessment Tools

All assessment conducted in Ontario public schools is guided by and subject to the fundamental principles listed and discussed on pages 6–8 of Growing Success. In addition to the fundamental principles set out in Growing Success, teachers, principals, and school board staff will use the following principles when selecting diagnostic assessment tools: All available classroom,

school, and board data and information (e.g., information from day-today classroom assessments, data from provincial report cards, and EQAO data) should be taken into account when determining what additional data and information, if any, is needed for board improvement planning.

School board staff reviews diagnostic assessment tools to ensure that the tools support the collection of valid and reliable evidence.

In developing their Board Improvement Plan for Student Achievement, principals and school

board staff must clearly communicate with teachers the purpose of the tool and how it is used.

Duplication of effort and excessive student testing are avoided to allow for effective use of instructional time.

Criteria for Selection of Diagnostic Assessment Tools

In selecting diagnostic assessment tools, teachers, teacher affiliates, principals, and school board staff, in their respective roles and responsibilities, will consider whether a diagnostic assessment tool: is related appropriately to the knowledge and skills identified in the curriculum expectations; is designed to provide information that assists in identifying student needs and targeting improvements; identifies strengths and gaps in students' knowledge and skills and provides sufficient evidence from which inferences about students' learning can be made; is appropriate in content, design, and mode of delivery; provides a range of targeted strategies that teachers can use to plan next steps in instruction and student learning; forms part of a balanced, comprehensive assessment system that provides detailed evidence of each student's development.

Collective Responsibility for Student Learning

Collective Responsibility and Professional Judgement Teachers, principals, and school board staff share a collective responsibility and accountability for student achievement and, in their respective roles, exercise their professional judgement as defined in Growing Success:

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Judgement that is informed by professional knowledge of curriculum expectations, context, evidence of learning, methods of instruction and assessment, and the criteria and standards that indicate success in student learning. In professional practice, judgement involves a purposeful and systematic thinking process that evolves in terms of accuracy and insight with ongoing reflection and self-correction. (p. 152)

As stated in Growing Success, "teachers' professional judgements are at the heart of effective assessment, evaluation, and reporting of student achievement" (p. 8). In addition, successful implementation of policy "depends on the professional judgement of educators at all levels, as well as on educators' ability to work together ... on the continuing efforts of strong and energized professional learning communities to clarify and share their understanding of policy and to develop and share effective implementation practices, ... on creative and judicious differentiation in instruction and assessment to meet the needs of all students, and on strong and committed leadership from school and system leaders, who coordinate, support, and guide the work of teachers" (p. 2).

Teachers

Teachers will use their professional judgement, as defined in Growing Success, when selecting and using diagnostic assessment tools. Teachers must utilize diagnostic assessment during the school year, selecting tools from the board's approved list. In selecting and using diagnostic assessment tools from the board's list, teachers shall determine the following: the diagnostic assessment tools that are applicable; which student(s) will be assessed (individual student, small group, or whole class); the frequency of use of the diagnostic assessment tools; he appropriate timing of the use of the diagnostic assessment tools.

Principals

Principals play an important role in ensuring a consistent and continuous school-wide focus on student learning. Through the use of a variety of tools to support and monitor student progress, principals will continue to provide leadership when working in collaboration with teachers to gather information about student

learning in support of school and board improvement plans for student achievement.

Boards

Through the use of quality diagnostic assessment tools, valid and reliable data and information on student achievement is collected. Boards shall establish and provide a list of approved diagnostic assessment tools that are consistent with their board plans for improving student learning and achievement. In consultation with teachers and principals, boards will continue to collaborate to develop a common understanding of the planning process and the need for student data and information that can inform actions taken to improve student learning. Boards will continue to periodically review and update, where necessary, the approved list of diagnostic assessment tools.

Enrichment programme

Summer enrichment pipeline programmes are initiative designed to prepare and strengthen the applicant profiles of students pursuing entry to health professions programmes and may include academic preparation, career exploration, learning and study skills, as well as initiating professionalization into students' selected health careers (Alexander & Mitchell, 2010). Early exposure to interprofessional education (IPE) is an important aspect of introducing students to their future careers. Research has indicated that health professional students differ in their opinions of interprofessional learning at the time of clinical training, but engagement in interprofessional learning can positively impact their attitudes, such as more positive attitudes toward shared learning, communication skills, and team-working skills (Medves, Paterson, Broers, & Hopman, 2013). However, less is known about students who are pursuing entry to health professions training programmes and their attitudes toward interprofessional teams and education. The aim of the current study was to examine the impact of a summer enrichment pipeline programme on students' attitudes toward interprofessional teams.

Background

The Summer Academic Enrichment Program (SAEP) at Virginia Commonwealth University (VCU) is an academically intensive

six-week summer programme for students approaching the application process to health professions training programmes in dentistry, medicine, pharmacy, and physical therapy. The programme has three core areas: academic preparation, immersion into selected discipline, and exploration of each healthcare discipline represented in the programme.

The exploration component is completed through specific activities that introduce students to other health professions and through the use of a case study. Students apply and are accepted to one discipline (dentistry, medicine, pharmacy, or physical therapy), but then are exposed to all four disciplines through exploration rotations. For example, pre-medicine students will participate in dentistry, pharmacy, and physical therapy rotations. At the dental rotation students learn about the profession and participate in hands-on activities, such as carving teeth moulds in the simulation laboratory, to understand the expertise and skills that dentists bring to a healthcare team. At the end of the programme, all students participate in a case study where they work in teams to discuss the role of each health profession in treating a patient. This approach allows students to learn the roles and responsibilities of other health professionals before applying that knowledge through an interactive case study.

Participants and setting

A total of 51 students participated in SAEP during the summer of 2014: 19 pre-dentistry, 12 pre-medicine, 10 pre-pharmacy, and 10 pre-physical therapy students. Only students present for all pre- and post-programme assessments, course exams, and surveys were included in programme evaluation analysis. The study was approved by the VCU institutional review board.

Measures and data collection

Students completed the Attitudes Toward Health Care Teams Scale (ATHCTS; Leipzig et al., 2002) and the Revised Readiness for Interprofessional Learning Scale (RIPLS; McFayden, Webster, & MacLaren, 2006). Versions of sc were selected based literature searches that revealed previous use

with students in contrast to versions of the scales that had been used with practicing health professionals. Subscales for each scale replicated previous use as described in the literature.

The subscales used for analysis in the evaluation are attitudes toward team efficiency (5 items; pre α = .819; post α = .698), attitudes toward team value (10 items; pre α = .766; post α = .700), and teamwork and collaboration (9 items; pre α = .792; post α = .810). Descriptive statistics of all subscales of the ATHCTS and Revised-RIPLS are provided in Table 1; however, additional analysis of the attitudes of physicians shared role on the team, negative professional identity, and roles and responsibilities subscales are not provided due to unacceptable internal reliability (α < .620) during either the pre- or post-assessment. The positive professional identity subscale was in acceptable range, however, was outside of the scope of this analysis of attitudes toward interprofessional teams and education. All items on the ATHCTS and Revised.

RIPLS were measured on a scale of 1 (strongly disagree) to 6 (strongly agree).

Analysis

Descriptive statistics and internal reliability were calculated for all subscales at the beginning and end of the programme. Differences between groups by health professions discipline interest were investigated using a one-way analysis of variance. Paired t-tests were used to compare pre- and post-assessment scores for each subscale. All statistics were calculated using IBM SPSS Statistics software, version.

Results

Results of a one-way ANOVA from the pre-assessment indicated statistically significant differences in attitudes toward team value at the beginning of the programme (F(3, 41) = 3.13, p = .036, r = .431), with pre-pharmacy students reporting more positive attitudes than pre-dental students. Group differences were not observed at the conclusion of the programme. Overall, the most positive attitudes at the conclusion of the programme were perceptions of teamwork and collaboration (M = 5.76), followed by

attitudes toward team value (M = 5.51) and attitudes toward team efficiency (M= 4.72). Paired t-tests of pre- and post-assessment measures indicate significant increases in each subscale during the programme: teamwork and collaboration (t(45) = .3.15, p = .003, r = .425), attitudes toward team value (t(44) = .7.81, p = .000, r = .762), and attitudes toward team efficiency (t(44) = .4.22, p = .000, r = .537).

Discussion

It has been suggested that pipeline programmes should go beyond preparing students academically for health professional school and familiarize students with the social and intellectual interactions they will encounter (Afghani, Santos, Angulo, & Muratori, 2013). SAEP aimed to introduce students to an educational and professional environment that includes interprofessional collaboration. The evaluation largely indicates this aim has been achieved.

Research has found that students often enter health professional training programmes with perceptions of other healthcare professions that may be based on stereotypes (Ateah et al., 2011). Stereotypes may hinder students' desire to participate in, or the potential impact, of IPE programmes and initiatives. The SAEP evaluation provides preliminary evidence that exposure to IPE programming prior to enrolment in health professions training programmes may be a viable option to improve prospective health sciences students' perceptions and receptivity of IPE.

Findings must be interpreted with caution while considering the study design and the programme setting. VCU boasts five health professional schools, including the Schools of Allied Health Professions, Dentistry, Medicine, Nursing, and Pharmacy. The School of Allied Health houses nine departments, including the Department of Physical Therapy. Additionally, it is important to acknowledge the small sample size in our programme evaluation and the use of single group design. The combination of the unique setting and small sample size creates potential to impact results as improved attitudes could be attributed to the individual characteristics of students that are motivated to apply to an interprofessional pipeline programme at a university with five health professions schools. The programme evaluation protocol

has been extended and will now include qualitative exploration of students' perceptions of interprofessional teams and how their attitudes may have been impacted during the programme. This continued and evolving evaluation is necessary to determine full programme effectiveness.

Summary

As IPE continues to emerge in educational and practice models in healthcare, it is increasingly necessary to prepare aspiring healthcare professionals for interprofessional learning. The new cadre of health professional students must be educated to not only accept the high degree of interdependence and collaboration inherent in IPE, they must also be capable of thriving within these environments. Results of this programme evaluation provide preliminary support that it is possible to introduce meaningful IPE learning opportunities to prospective health sciences students while preparing them for the academic rigors of health professional education. We now have the resources to answer the fundamental scientific question that was asked at the beginning of this error analysis discussion: "Does my result agree with a theoretical prediction or results from other experiments?"

Generally speaking, a measured result agrees with a theoretical prediction if the prediction lies within the range of experimental uncertainty. Similarly, if two measured values have standard uncertainty ranges that overlap, then the measurements are said to be consistent (they agree). If the uncertainty ranges do not overlap, then the measurements are said to be discrepant (they do not agree). However, you should recognize that these overlap criteria can give two opposite answers depending on the evaluation and confidence level of the uncertainty. It would be unethical to arbitrarily inflate the uncertainty range just to make a measurement agree with an expected value. A better procedure would be to discuss the size of the difference between the measured and expected values within the context of the uncertainty, and try to discover the source of the discrepancy if the difference is truly significant. To examine your own data, try out the Measurement Comparison

Examination useful Question:

Long Type Question:

1. What do you mean by Accuracy? Explain the two different types of Error.

2. Describe in detail of systematic errors and role of instrumental calibration.

3. Differentiate between common mistake and misconnection with errors.

Short Type Question:

1. Write short notes on:

    (i) Reading Errors

    (ii) Random Errors

    (iii) Diagnostic